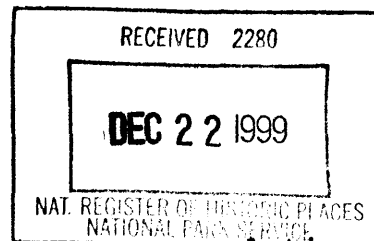


United States Department of the Interior  
National Park Service

National Register of Historic Places  
Multiple Property Documentation Form



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

X	New Submission	Amended Submission
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A. Name of Multiple Property Listing

## State Parks in Wisconsin

## B. Associated Historic Contexts

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

Development of State Parks in Wisconsin, 1899-1933  
 Depression Era Work in Wisconsin State Parks, 1933-1942  
 Landscape Architecture in Wisconsin State Parks, 1933-1942  
 Rustic Architecture in Wisconsin State Parks, 1933-1942

C. Form Prepared by

name/title Nancy J. Hubbard, associate professor  
School of Architecture and Urban Planning  
University of Wisconsin-Milwaukee  
street & number P.O. Box 413 telephone 414-229-6385  
city or town Milwaukee state WI zip code 53201

#### 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 and Guidelines for Archeology and Historic Preservation. (\_\_\_ See continuation sheet for additional comments.)

Signature and title of certifying official Date  
Deputy State Historic Preservation Officer-WI

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.

for Beth Boland  
Signature of the Keeper

2/4/00  
Date

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Table of Contents for Written Narrative

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

	Page Numbers
E. Statement of Historic Contexts (If more than one historic context is documented, present them in sequential order.)	1-23
F. Associated Property Types (Provide description, significance, and registration requirements.)	24-27
G. Geographical Data	28
H. Summary of Identification and Evaluation Methods (Discuss the methods used in developing the multiple property listing.)	29-30
I. Major Bibliographical References (List major written works and primary location of additional documentation: State Historic Preservation Office, other State agency, Federal agency, local government, university, or other, specifying repository.)	31-35

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

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

United States Department of the Interior  
National Park Service

NATIONAL REGISTER OF HISTORIC PLACES  
CONTINUATION SHEET

Section E Page 1

State Parks in Wisconsin  
Name of Multiple Property Listing

E. STATEMENT OF HISTORIC CONTEXTS

(Historic contexts are presented in sequential order)

INTRODUCTION

The 20th-century state park movement in the United States had its origins in two broad movements of the second half of the 19th century: the conservation movement and the parks movement. Although often related through the individuals who worked in both and in the exchange of ideas between the two, the focus of each was very different. The conservation movement was more concerned with depletion of natural resources and the effects of such loss on American life, focusing on forest and grazing lands as well as water supply, primarily in the western part of the country. The parks movement was urban-based, concerned with the development of public outdoor recreation facilities, and based primarily in the East.

However, both the conservation and the parks movements had a common origin in Romanticism, a philosophical movement of the late 18th to the mid-19th century, which was a revolt against the more intellectual, tradition-bound authority of Classicism.

Romanticism emphasized the power of individual thought based on a subjective and emotional response to the stimuli of human existence. A major component of Romanticism was an appreciation of the sublime beauty of nature, resulting in a dramatic shift in ways of thinking about the natural landscape. The Romantic idealization of nature was manifested in philosophy, literature and painting in Europe, especially in England and Germany. Based on the common bond of language, English Romanticism had considerable influence in the United States, through the poetry of Wordsworth, Coleridge, Keats, Byron, and Shelley. In the United States, Romanticism became well-established by the 1830s in the Transcendentalism of Ralph Waldo Emerson and Henry David Thoreau; the writings of Washington Irving, Nathaniel Hawthorne, and James Fennimore Cooper; and the paintings of the Hudson River School (Thomas Cole, Asher B. Durand, and Washington Allston). American Romanticism, particularly in Transcendentalism, had two particular aspects which distinguished it from European Romanticism: a high value on direct sensual experience of nature, and a moral requirement that the experience of nature be reflected in proper stewardship of the land (Pregill and Volkman: 1993, 393).

The Transcendentalist recognition that loss of the natural landscape would remove a means of spiritual renewal was closely paralleled by the development of a nostalgia for lost wilderness as settlement moved further west in the first half of the 19th century. As more and more of the unspoiled landscape was lost through exploitation of natural resources, many Americans began to change their attitudes about the natural environment. The land which had been the promise of the new country was being lost, causing many to fear the loss of the country as well (Pregill and Volkman: 1993, 394). This developing sense of loss marked the beginnings of the conservation movement.

United States Department of the Interior  
National Park Service

NATIONAL REGISTER OF HISTORIC PLACES  
CONTINUATION SHEET

Section E Page 2

State Parks in Wisconsin  
Name of Multiple Property Listing

Since the early part of the 19th century, the focus of the conservation movement in the United States has been on the preservation and protection of public lands through the removal of those lands from private development (Pregill and Volkman: 1993, 604-605). In 1832, the Federal government set aside 2,600 acres of public land in Arkansas as the Hot Springs Reservation as a means for preserving the unique landscape of the area. The idea of setting aside wilderness areas as national parks was proposed by the painter George Catlin in 1839. Catlin, a painter of western landscapes and scenes of American Indian life, argued that as more Americans became separated from the wilderness through urban life and loss of the natural landscape, the more pleasure they would experience when visiting those natural areas that had been preserved as places of visual beauty and mental contemplation (Catlin: 1926, 292-293).

In 1864, the publication of George Perkins Marsh's book, Man and Nature, raised public awareness of the potential loss of America's natural resources. This book provided a scientific basis for preserving such resources by demonstrating the dependency of human life on the natural environment.

The activities of conservationists accelerated in the last three decades of the 19th century with the creation of numerous private conservation organizations. In 1872, the Arbor Day program was instituted to instill a reforestation ethic in school children through the distribution and planting of tree seedlings. The Sierra Club was formed under the direction of John Muir in 1892 to campaign for the protection of wilderness areas. In 1895, the American Scenic and Historic Preservation Society was established to protect both natural and historic areas. These were followed in the early 20th century by the Audubon Society in 1905 and the Save-the-Redwoods League in 1918.

By the end of the 19th century, the conservation movement was divided on the basis of two conflicting philosophies. The preservationists, as represented by the Sierra Club, wanted to maintain wilderness areas for the value of nature itself. The more utilitarian-minded "exploitationists" argued for wise use of the land through the management of natural resources. As conservation increasingly became an activity of government, these two philosophies were manifested in the different goals and programs of the two Federal agencies with primary responsibility for the natural resources of public lands: the Forest Service and the National Park Service (Pregill and Volkman: 1993, 608).

The parks movement began in the 1850s with the proposal to develop a public "pleasure ground" in New York City. Prior to the creation of Central Park in 1857, the only open green areas which the public could visit were the large rural landscape cemeteries which had been developed since the 1830s. The cemeteries were popular attractions, often functioning as much as large parks for outdoor outings as for burial sites. However, by the 1850s, the public was becoming uncomfortable with the use of the "parks of the dead" by the living (Pregill and Volkman: 1993, 423).

United States Department of the Interior  
National Park Service

NATIONAL REGISTER OF HISTORIC PLACES  
CONTINUATION SHEET

Section E Page 3

State Parks in Wisconsin  
Name of Multiple Property Listing

---

The Central Park project had been conceived to serve two important social purposes: public health and public relief (Pregill and Volkman: 1993, 423). With the growth of New York City and the resulting density of urban life, interested citizens became concerned with the problems of providing clean air within the city and of relieving life in low-income housing and slums through outdoor activities. City officials were equally interested in providing work opportunities for unemployed laborers living in the city through a large public work project, particularly after the Depression of 1857. The competition for the Central Park project resulted in twenty-three entries, of which the winning entry was prepared by the design team of Frederick Law Olmsted, Sr. and Calvert Vaux.

The first area of Central Park was completed in mid-1859, but construction continued through the 1870s due to interruptions caused by the Civil War and a series of economic recessions during the 1870s. Despite the length of its construction, Central Park served as a model for numerous other urban park projects across the country. The first park to follow Central Park was Prospect Park in Brooklyn, New York, designed by Olmsted and Vaux in 1859, and constructed in 1865-1868. Olmsted as well as a younger generation of landscape architects, who had been trained in Olmsted's office, continued the parks movement in the design of individual parks as well as urban park systems. In 1872, H.W.S. Cleveland proposed an interconnected system of parks, parkways, and riverside paths for Minneapolis-St. Paul; it was constructed in 1883 in Minneapolis and in 1888 in St. Paul. Olmsted prepared plans for the Buffalo park system; for Rochester, New York; and for Boston. As a result, the idea of comprehensive planning for a system of urban parks rather than the design of unrelated individual parks became well-established by the 1890s. The urban parks and park systems of the second half of the 19th century would serve as valuable models for the development of national and state parks in the early part of the 20th century.

It was during a break in construction on Central Park during the Civil War that one of the major connections between the conservation and parks movements occurred which contributed to the creation of both national and state parks in the second half of the 19th century. In 1863-1864, Olmsted worked in California as the manager of the Mariposa Mining Company as well as a consultant to the State of California to prepare a survey of the Yosemite Valley. As a result of Olmsted's work, Congress set aside a large tract of public land in the valley to be administered by the State of California as a state park.

By the 1860s, the components necessary to support a state park movement were in place: a developing conservation movement, the beginnings of a parks movement, and the first rudimentary example of a state park, the Yosemite Valley in California.

United States Department of the Interior  
National Park Service

NATIONAL REGISTER OF HISTORIC PLACES  
CONTINUATION SHEET

Section E Page 4

State Parks in Wisconsin  
Name of Multiple Property Listing

---

DEVELOPMENT OF STATE PARKS IN WISCONSIN, 1899-1933

On June 30, 1864, the first state park in the United States was created through an act of Congress approving the grant of public land of the Yosemite Valley to the State of California for the purpose of public recreation and enjoyment. Frederick Law Olmsted had been actively involved in the establishment of the Yosemite park, arguing for improved access to the area to accommodate visitors while controlling circulation of those visitors within the park to protect the natural landscape (McClelland: 1993, 30). To Olmsted, the provision of "great public grounds for the free enjoyment of the people" was a political duty of government as a means of caring for the welfare of citizens (Newton: 1971, 557). However, according to Olmsted, "the preservation and maintenance as exactly as is possible of the natural scenery" was also a responsibility of government. The two goals could be attained through designing visitor accommodations to harmonize with the natural setting (Newton: 1971, 558).

State park development virtually stopped between the creation of the Yosemite park in 1864 and the early 20th century. State parks were created in New York in 1885 at Niagara Falls, with Olmsted's involvement, and in the Adirondack forest, but the majority of parks created in the fifty years after Yosemite were national parks. Among these were Yellowstone in 1872, General Grant (now a part of Kings Canyon) and Sequoia in 1890, and Mount Rainier and Crater Lake in 1902. A national park was established around the California state park in the Yosemite Valley in 1890; in 1906, the State of California returned the land granted to it in 1864 and the two tracts were combined into the present Yosemite National Park. In 1906, Congress passed the Lacey Act, otherwise known as the Antiquities Act, which allowed the president to designate sites as national monuments for their historical and scientific value as well as for scenic beauty; as a result, new national parks were created at Mesa Verde, Casa Grande, and the Petrified Forest. By 1916, when the National Park Service was established in the Department of the Interior, there were seventeen national parks and twenty-two national monuments.

By the 1890s, a number of states had begun to develop their first state parks. In 1885, New York established two state "reserves" as parks: Niagara Falls Reserve and the Adirondacks forest reserve. In 1891, the State of Minnesota created Itasca State Park at the headwaters of the Mississippi River, designating it a scenic park. In 1895, New York and New Jersey jointly created the Palisades Interstate Park to save the scenic palisades on both sides of the Hudson River, near New York City. However, between 1885, with the creation of the Niagara Falls Reservation and 1920, with organization of the National Conference on State Parks, only a handful of states had any structure that could be considered a state park organization: New York, Indiana, Connecticut, California, Wisconsin (Newton: 1971, 563).

United States Department of the Interior  
National Park Service

NATIONAL REGISTER OF HISTORIC PLACES  
CONTINUATION SHEET

Section E Page 5

State Parks in Wisconsin  
Name of Multiple Property Listing

The development of state parks in Wisconsin was directly related to the conservation movement in the state. The first official interest in conservation in Wisconsin, based on concerns for the depletion of forests in the state, resulted in the creation of a committee to investigate forestry conditions in 1867 (Chap.36, Laws of 1867). The Lapham Report, named after the chair of the committee, Increase A. Lapham, described the destructive effects of uncontrolled logging on Wisconsin forests and waterways. However, no lasting program for forest protection was developed as a result of the report. The first definitive action in conservation which the state did take was a fisheries program with the appointment of a fish inspector in 1866, a commissioner of fisheries in 1878, and the establishment of the first state fish hatchery at Madison in 1879 (Biennial Report: 1931-1932, 6). The first fish and game wardens were appointed in 1887, with the first State Warden's office created in 1891.

In 1878, a tract of 50,000 acres of forest land in then Lincoln County was set aside as a timber reserve by the State Legislature, and called "The State Park" (Biennial Report: 1931-1932, 5). The land was never administered as a park, and its primary purposes were probably watershed protection and forest growth. However, over 30,000 acres were sold by the State to logging companies in 1897 (Chap.367, Laws of 1897), and the idea of a state park was abandoned. Despite the sale of this state timber reserve, progress did continue on a state forestry program, resulting in the creation of a State Board of Forestry in 1903.

The true beginnings of the state park system in Wisconsin date to 1899 with the establishment of the Interstate Park Commission, empowered to purchase and develop land along the St. Croix River in Polk County (Chap. 102, Laws of 1899). A similar commission had been created by the Minnesota Legislature to undertake a park project on the opposite side of the river. Between 1899 and 1901, the commission acquired park land. In 1901 and 1905, the commission was renewed to oversee the administration of the park (Chap.305, Laws of 1901; Chap.395, Laws of 1905). This commission was superseded by the establishment of the State Park Board in 1907.

One of the first actions which the newly-formed State Park Board took was the commissioning of John Nolen to survey sites for potential state parks. Nolen was a Harvard-trained landscape architect who had recently opened his own practice in Cambridge, Massachusetts. The State Park Board had selected four sites which its members felt were worthy of development as state parks. These were: the bluffs area near Fish Creek in Door County; the Dells of the Wisconsin River (Columbia County); Devil's Lake (Sauk County); and the bluffs above the confluence of the Wisconsin and Mississippi Rivers, south of Prairie du Chien (Grant County). Based on his visits to those sites and the information which he gathered regarding citizens' attitudes toward the establishment of a state park system, Nolen prepared his report, State Parks for Wisconsin, and presented it in 1909.

United States Department of the Interior  
National Park Service

NATIONAL REGISTER OF HISTORIC PLACES  
CONTINUATION SHEET

Section   E   Page   6  

State Parks in Wisconsin  
Name of Multiple Property Listing

Nolen's rationale for the establishment of state parks was based on the need to conserve natural resources which could be destroyed through "selfishness or thoughtless," identifying land, water, forests, and minerals as the natural resources which provide the "means of health and happiness" (Nolen: 1909, 9). However, he noted that the goals of conservation were a source of confusion both in the public's perception of the park movement and among park supporters as well. According to Nolen, forests were to be conserved to promote timber growth and the regulation of water supply; any other uses were subordinate and incidental. Parks were to be preserved and enhanced for their natural beauty and potential for recreation. Both forests and parks were indispensable, but they supplemented and complemented the other's purposes (Nolen: 1909, 10-11).

In addition to distinguishing forests and parks, Nolen discussed the role of state parks in comparison to national and city parks, finding that state parks would fill the gap which existed between the large national parks with incomparable scenic landscapes (Yellowstone, Yosemite, General Grant, Sequoia, and Mount Rainer) located in the West, and city parks which were limited in size and interest, but were located close to a high number of visitors (Nolen: 1909, 12-13). To Nolen, state parks would serve citizens who had no access to the national parks and who didn't live in cities with park areas. This gap provided Nolen with a means to define the size, nature, and location of state parks. A state park was not as large as a national park, but it had to be large enough to provide an interesting landscape. A state park had to possess an interesting landscape, but not as interesting as that of a national park. A state park had to be easily accessible from cities, but it could not be situated to serve only one city. Nolen's concept of the state park as an intermediate park, related to both the national and the city parks became the basis for the National Park Service's support of state park creation in the 1920s as buffer parks, taking the overflow of park visitors from city parks and alleviating visitor demands on the national parks (Newton: 1971, 564).

Nolen established five requirements for state parks in Wisconsin based on size, accessibility, climate, cost, and beauty (Nolen: 1909, 22-25). He felt that the number of potential visitors set against the potential for destruction of a park's natural qualities determined an ideal size of at least 2,000 to 3,000 acres, with 5,000 acres preferable. He felt that state parks should be accessible by train, boat, or vehicle within a reasonable amount of time and at a reasonable expense. The climate of a state park in mid-summer, the peak of park use, must support park uses; his report does allow that parks may serve other seasons, such as winter activities. However, in the first stages of state park creation, the summer climate was to be considered of prime importance.

State park lands should be reasonable in cost to purchase and to use. Nolen felt that "natural" parks should require little improvement and maintenance. It is important to note that Nolen felt that state parks required only minimal investment in improvements, such as buildings and landscape treatments, in that nature itself was the recreational facility. This attitude is reflected in the relative lack of improvements made in the state parks before the Depression Era.



United States Department of the Interior  
National Park Service

NATIONAL REGISTER OF HISTORIC PLACES  
CONTINUATION SHEET

Section E Page 7

State Parks in Wisconsin  
Name of Multiple Property Listing

After considering the more mundane aspects of state park requirements, Nolen concludes with the aesthetic requirement that the park possess "charm and beauty" in a "consistent, unspoiled type of landscape" that is "unmistakingly beautiful." To Nolen, a park without this aesthetic appeal would fail. As state parks were established across the nation in the early part of the 20th century, the aesthetic appeal of a park typically was associated with geological uniqueness (Nolen: 1909, 25).

Nolen acknowledged the establishment of Interstate Park, but criticized the state for its neglect of the park, its inadequate size, and its illogical boundaries. He did find that Interstate Park had brought public attention to Wisconsin and its efforts in conservation. The principal reason for Nolen's discussion of Interstate Park was for comparison between the Dalles of the St. Croix River at Interstate Park with the Dells of the Wisconsin River. Nolen felt that the Dells more closely met the requirements for a state park than the St. Croix Dalles had. However, the construction of a dam at Kilbourn (present Wisconsin Dells) threatened the Dells. Nolen condemned those in the state that would trade the natural landscape for economic benefit, having "covered forever more of the essential natural beauty of the State than future generations can re-create" (Nolen: 1909, 35).

Nolen found the Devil's Lake site to possess all the requirements for a state park (Nolen: 1909, 29-30). It was accessible to large numbers of citizens and was already popular as a resort destination. The summer climate was healthful, and it had beauty and scientific interest. The land acquisition costs were reasonable for the most part. He found the Door County site on a peninsula between Ephraim and Fish Creek to satisfy his five requirements as well (Nolen: 1909, 30-31). In reviewing the Grant County state park site near Wyalusing, which he referred to as "Marquette Park," Nolen found it to be the best Wisconsin site on the Mississippi for park purposes (Nolen: 1909, 33-34). Nolen noted the actions of Robert Glenn to hold the land in the belief that it would become a public park. Glenn's willingness to sell the land to the state at \$25 per acre was within Nolen's parameters for reasonable cost. In addition, Nolen identified three other sites which he felt had potential as state parks: Thunder Mountain [Trempealeau] in Trempealeau County, Blue Mounds in Iowa County, and Platte Mounds in Lafayette County (Nolen: 1909, 35).

Nolen recommended specific actions to the State regarding the four state park sites (Nolen: 1909, 37-39). He recommended that the State authorize the State Park Board to acquire the Dells of the Wisconsin River and do everything possible to halt activities which would impair the beauty of the site for park purposes. Concerning Devil's Lake, Nolen recommended that the State Park Board be empowered to acquire up to 5,000 acres of land at \$25 per acre and level land around the lake at \$100 per acre. He recommended that the board acquire the Door County and the Grant County sites. He suggested that the state parks should ultimately be connected by state roads or parkways that tied the entire park system together with a route from Prairie du Chien to Green Bay along the Wisconsin and Fox Rivers, another along the Lake Michigan and Lake Superior shorelines, and a diagonal road across the state from Milwaukee to Minneapolis (Nolen: 1909, 39).

United States Department of the Interior  
National Park Service

NATIONAL REGISTER OF HISTORIC PLACES  
CONTINUATION SHEET

Section E Page 8

State Parks in Wisconsin  
Name of Multiple Property Listing

---

In concluding his report, Nolen gave specific justifications for the establishment of a state park system in Wisconsin. First, parks would support the already-established activities of the State Forestry Board to preserve and protect forests and watersheds. Second, state parks would permit the preservation of places of historical or scientific interest. Third, state parks would become a "necessity of modern life" for "people of small means" as more recreational areas passed into exclusive private use. He cited the examples of Lake Geneva and Oconomowoc as areas which were being acquired by private owners. In addition, state parks provided an economic return on the State's investment through the expenditures of tourists. Unlike forests, state parks could incorporate varied landscapes which should be preserved, protected, and improved. The ultimate justification for state parks was the provision of outdoor recreation (Nolen: 1909, 39-40).

The underlying reform philosophy typically found in landscape architecture in the second half of the 19th century appears in Nolen's work in his concluding observation that if Wisconsin could spend \$1,250,000 on prisons in 1908, it would be a good idea to spend state funds on parks as "preventive measures," suggesting that more parks would result in fewer prisons (Nolen: 1909, 41).

Of the four sites which Nolen surveyed, three did become state parks: Peninsula in Door County in 1910, Devil's Lake in 1911, and Wyalusing (Nolen's Marquette Park) in 1917.

In 1915, the conservation activities of the State Park Board, the State Board of Forestry, the State Fisheries Commission, and the State Fish and Game Warden Department were consolidated in a Conservation Commission made up of three members and a secretary. This form of commission was abolished in 1923 by the State Legislature and replaced with a single commissioner form of administration. In 1927, a third form of conservation commission was created, having six unpaid appointed commissioners which were responsible for policy-making and a conservation director who executed the policies of the commission and administered the state's conservation programs. The Conservation Department was organized into eight divisions: administration, forests and parks, forest protection, cooperative forestry, fisheries, game, law enforcement, and public relations (Biennial Report: 1931-1932, 7).

As evidenced by these divisions, forestry was the major emphasis of the conservation program in Wisconsin. It was the policy of the Conservation Commission that a "sound forestry program" was the basis for a successful conservation program, with "game, fish, beauty" directly or indirectly dependent on the proper care of the forests (Biennial Report: 1931-1932, 9).

United States Department of the Interior  
National Park Service

NATIONAL REGISTER OF HISTORIC PLACES  
CONTINUATION SHEET

Section E Page 9

State Parks in Wisconsin  
Name of Multiple Property Listing

---

The conservation basis for state parks continued in Wisconsin in the work of the State Park Board and the three conservation commissions. State parks were identified as "conservation areas" in which nature remained unchanged, and wildlife and vegetation were protected. When the Conservation Commissions organized the functions of the Conservation Department, the state parks were paired with the state forests in the Division of Forests and Parks under the direction of Cornelius L. Harrington, a professional forester. The state parks were not even mentioned in the 1927 purpose of the Wisconsin Conservation Commission to provide "an adequate and flexible system for the protection, development, and use of forests, fish and game, lake, streams, plant life, flowers, and other outdoor resources of the state" (Biennial Report: 1927, 7).

The earliest landscape work in the newly-created state parks was undertaken by staff of the State Board of Forestry. In 1913, a state forester and several rangers were assigned to locate and construct roads and trails within the parks, and to prepare maps of the areas (Biennial Report: 1931-1932, 27). Following this conservation rationale resulted in limited construction of buildings and recreational facilities, and virtually no landscape alterations because such work would reduce the natural beauty of the area (Mauthe: 1928, 5). The only improvements which were allowed in the state parks were those necessary to make the parks accessible and useful to the public: roads, comfort stations, and water supply.

In addition, funding for park improvements was limited by the State Legislature which made special appropriations for forestry programs, while requiring the Conservation Department to fund the remainder of its expenses through the sale of licenses for fishing and hunting (Biennial Report: 1931-1932, 44). Although twenty-five different licenses were sold by the Conservation Department, all conservation work, except forestry, came from those sales.

By 1920, the unrelated and disconnected activities of various states to create state parks began to come together in a state parks movement. The key event in this movement was the work of Stephen Mather, director of the National Park Service, to bring state officials together to discuss the topic. In 1921, Mather convened a meeting of state park officials and interested citizens in Des Moines, Iowa. The purpose of the meeting was the discussion of a national plan for state park development. Mather hoped that this development would ease the burdens being placed on the national parks by increased use, due primarily to the impact of automobile travel after World War I (Newton: 1971, 563-564). He felt that only areas of outstanding scenic beauty should be designated as national parks, and that areas of lesser, but still significant beauty, could become state parks. He realized that funds were limited for national park projects, so limiting the number of national parks would allow those funds to be used more effectively. In addition, all the national parks were located in the western part of the country, meaning that a majority of the American population had no access to them without the expense of travel. The creation of state parks would permit public access to scenic areas and outdoor recreation much closer to people's homes.

United States Department of the Interior  
National Park Service

NATIONAL REGISTER OF HISTORIC PLACES  
CONTINUATION SHEET

Section E Page 10

State Parks in Wisconsin  
Name of Multiple Property Listing

The National Conference on State Parks was formed as a result of the meeting. This organization served as a clearinghouse for state officials working on the creation and expansion of state park systems across the country. Several important studies were prepared by the conference in the 1920s which allowed states to learn from other states with greater experience with parks. In 1926, the conference issued a study on outdoor recreation, State Parks and the Recreational Uses of State Forests (Torrey: 1926). State Recreation: Parks, Forests and Game Preserves documented various approaches and methods used by state governments to acquire and administer parks (Nelson: 1928). In 1930, papers from several of the conference meetings, reports from members, and articles from park specialists were collected in A State Park Anthology (Evison: 1930). Each of these studies included work done in the Wisconsin state parks due to Wisconsin's early development of a state park system.

Between 1921, when the National Park Service organized the first meeting of state park officials at which the National Conference on State Parks was formed, until 1933, the relationship between the National Park Service and state park officials had been informal. Information was exchanged, joint meetings were held, officials from various agencies visited the parks of other agencies. However, with the creation of the New Deal conservation programs in 1933, this relationship changed dramatically, resulting a hierarchy that linked Washington, DC, with each individual state park in the country.

By 1933, there were sixteen state parks in Wisconsin. The number of state parks had increased by ten in the 1920s, of which seven were the result of gifts of land to the state. This shift from acquisition of park sites through purchase to acquisition through gifts suggests that public support for state parks was increasing.

DEPRESSION ERA STATE PARK DEVELOPMENT IN WISCONSIN, 1933-1942

The Depression was a turning point in the development of state parks in the United States with the New Deal programs for providing unemployment relief through public works construction, particularly for park projects. States that had no state parks could now build them, and states with parks could accelerate their programs.

On March 31, 1933, President Franklin D. Roosevelt signed Congressional legislation authorizing the president to undertake national recovery programs involving conservation and public work projects. One of the first actions which Roosevelt took under this authority was the creation of the Emergency Conservation Work (ECW) program (Executive Order No. 6101). On April 5, 1933, he put this program into action with the naming of Robert Fechner as its director. To carry out the ECW program, Roosevelt authorized the organization of the Civilian Conservation Corps (CCC). From April, 1933 until July, 1937, the name of the program was Emergency Conservation Work; from July, 1937 until June, 1942, the program was called the Civilian Conservation Corps.

United States Department of the Interior  
National Park Service

NATIONAL REGISTER OF HISTORIC PLACES  
CONTINUATION SHEET

Section E Page 11

State Parks in Wisconsin  
Name of Multiple Property Listing

Between June 1, 1933 and June 30, 1942, eighteen CCC camps were designated as state park camps in Wisconsin (Paige: 1985, 205). Of these eighteen, eight were assigned to state parks; of the remainder, seven worked on country parks in Milwaukee County, one on a Portage County park, one on a Kenosha County park, and one on the University of Wisconsin Arboretum. The eight state parks CCC camps were: Copper Falls, Peninsula, Pattison, Devil's Lake, Interstate, Rib Mountain, Perrot, and Wyalusing (then Nelson Dewey). The periods of operation of each camp varied with Copper Falls, Wyalusing, Peninsula, and Perrot opening in April, 1935 and closing in September, 1937, while Pattison, Devil's Lake, Interstate, and Rib Mountain opened in April, 1935 and closed in March, 1941. In some parks, particularly Copper Falls, the CCC camp closed before construction work had been completed on its large shelter building. Another New Deal relief program, the Works Progress Administration, provided the labor to complete the work (Ahlgren: 1987, 92).

Each of the ECW/CCC state park camps had two distinct operational authorities: the Army and the National Park Service. Each camp was administered by a group of Army officers who were responsible for camp discipline and daily life. The work which the enrollees performed in the state parks was directed by the technical specialists assigned to each camp by the National Park Service. These technical specialists included landscape architects, civil engineers, construction foremen, and mechanics.

The proposal for a state park project was usually developed by the technical specialists at the state park ECW/CCC camp; the names of the camp superintendents often appear on design drawings. The proposal would be submitted to the Madison office of the National Park Service. This office would typically prepare the design; several names of designers (Bernard Knobla, Paul Houfek, William Reimenschneider) appear on the architectural drawings for Wisconsin park projects. The project drawings would then be reviewed by the Wisconsin Conservation Department; the signature of Cornelius L. Harrington appears on most of the state park project drawings as having approved the project. The project would be reviewed and approved by the district inspector (usually the name Noble Hollister is listed) as well as the district office, located from 1933 to 1937 in Indianapolis, and from 1937 to 1942 in Omaha. Once a project had passed these levels of approval, the project could be undertaken by the ECW/CCC camp.

A third New Deal program was responsible for two roadside parks in Wisconsin. Castle Mound and Mill Bluff Roadside State Parks were developed in Wisconsin by the Federal government and transferred to the Conservation Commission in 1940. Mill Bluff State Park was a project of the Resettlement Administration, formed in 1935 as the successor program to the Land Use Adjustment Program. This program had two objectives: solving human problems by resettling people from submarginal land, and developing submarginal land for recreation purposes (Cutler: 1985, 70). Recreation projects were undertaken by the Resettlement Administration and the National Park Service as "Recreation Demonstration Areas" which would serve as models for further recreational development of lands too poor to support agriculture. These areas were to be large enough and located close enough to urban centers to provide recreational opportunities for

United States Department of the Interior  
National Park Service

NATIONAL REGISTER OF HISTORIC PLACES  
CONTINUATION SHEET

Section E Page 12

State Parks in Wisconsin  
Name of Multiple Property Listing

---

people who did not have the financial resources to travel far from home (Newton: 1971, 588-595). A component of the Recreation Demonstration Area program was for "wayside" parks which were constructed along scenic parkways, such as the Blue Ridge Parkway in Virginia.

However, none of the forty-six projects of this program were located in Wisconsin. The Mill Bluff and Castle Mound roadside park projects may have been among ten projects which the Resettlement Administration began in Wisconsin in 1935, of which three were in the northern Cutover Region, three were located on Indian reservations, and four were conservation projects in the south central drainage basin of the state (Biennial Report: 1935-1936, 135). Their intended use for recreation, their location on a major highway (U.S. 12), and their creation by the Resettlement Administration suggest that these two Wisconsin were based on the Recreation Demonstration Area model, even if not a part of that program.

By the close of the Depression Era in 1942, there were twenty-one state parks in Wisconsin. The Conservation Commission classified these in three categories of scenic park, roadside park, and historic park (Bulletin: July 1940, 49). No new parks were added during World War II. The first park to be added in the immediate post-war period was Wildcat Mountain (Vernon County), proposed as a park site in 1939 (Bulletin: June 1939, 46), for which the State Planning Board began a feasibility study in mid-1945 (State Planning Board: 1946, 71).

United States Department of the Interior  
National Park Service

NATIONAL REGISTER OF HISTORIC PLACES  
CONTINUATION SHEET

Section E Page 13

State Parks in Wisconsin  
Name of Multiple Property Listing

In 1946, the following parks constituted the Wisconsin state park system:

Park	County	Size	Acquisition	Date
<b>Scenic Parks:</b>				
Brunet Island	Chippewa	179	Purchase	1936
Copper Falls	Ashland	1,200	Purchase	1929
Devil's Lake	Sauk	2,200	Purchase	1911
Interstate	Polk	581	Purchase	1900
Merrick	Buffalo	123	Gift	1932
Pattison	Douglas	1,160	Gift	1920
Peninsula	Door	3,640	Purchase	1910
Perrot	Trempealeau	93	Gift	1918
Potowatomi	Door	1,046	Purchase	1928
Rib Mountain	Marathon	494	Gift	1927
Terry Andrae	Sheboygan	167	Gift	1928
(present Kohler Andrae)				
Wyalusing	Grant	1,671	Purchase	1917

**Historical-Memorial Parks:**

Cushing	Waukesha	10	Gift	1915
(no longer a state park)				
First Capitol	Lafayette	2	Gift	1924
Nelson Dewey	Grant	720	Purchase	1935
Tower Hill	Iowa	108	Gift	1922

**Roadside Parks:**

Castle Mound	Jackson	222	Transfer	1940
(incorporated into Black River State Forest as a campground)				
Mill Bluff	Monroe	56	Transfer	1940
New Glarus Woods	Green	43	Purchase	1934
Ojibwa	Sawyer	350	Gift	1932
Rocky Arbor	Juneau	227	Purchase	1932

In 1947, the State Legislature passed the State Park Bill (Chap.549, Laws of 1947) to provide general funding for the state parks program and to mandate the acquisition of a new state park, Aztalan State Park, in Jefferson County. In addition, the Legislature appropriated funds to acquire land for the development of Wild Cat Mountain State Park in Vernon County (Chap.333, Laws of 1947). As direct or indirect result of the State Park Bill of 1947, eleven new state park properties were acquired by purchase or gift, and added to the state park system. Roche a Cri and Lucius Woods Roadside State parks brought the total of roadside parks to seven. With Aztalan, Lost Dauphin, and Lizard Mounds State Parks, the number of historical or archeological state parks was increased to seven. Three more scenic state parks were added: Wild Cat Mountain, Big Foot, and Cox Hollow (Vanderwall: 1953, 7).

United States Department of the Interior  
National Park Service

NATIONAL REGISTER OF HISTORIC PLACES  
CONTINUATION SHEET

Section E Page 14

State Parks in Wisconsin  
Name of Multiple Property Listing

---

LANDSCAPE ARCHITECTURE

Just as American Romanticism was influenced by that of Europe, American attitudes towards nature reflect those of Europe during the period. This is best seen in the influence of English landscape gardening theories of the Romantic Picturesque style on American landscape design in the first half of the 19th century. Educated and cultured Americans were knowledgeable of the work of Humphrey Repton, Uvedale Price, and William Chambers in English landscape design through travels in England and through the publication of their designs. Although much criticized by later generations of landscape architects for the disorder of his designs (Newton: 1971, 218-219), the English garden designer J.C. Loudon had a direct influence on American landscape design in the 1830s and 1840s through the work of Andrew Jackson Downing. Loudon's "Gardenesque School of Landscape" was based on botanical principles of design in which the focus was on the random arrangement of plantings to focus attention on the plantings rather than on the overall design of the garden. As a result, Gardenesque landscapes tend to be formless and lack formal spatial structure (Newton: 1971, 219).

The earliest large-scale naturalistic landscapes in the United States were the rural landscape cemeteries that began to be developed in the 1830s, beginning with Mount Auburn, outside Boston (Linden-Ward: 1989). As the cemetery movement grew in the decades before the Civil War, four distinct design approaches emerged. Mount Auburn (1831) had a highly irregular, rustic character and featured a carriageway system of extreme curvilinearity. Laurel Hill Cemetery (1836) in Philadelphia, designed by John Notman, had a more regular, geometric character. Green Mount Cemetery (1838) was more regular in plan than Mount Auburn, though it too used a highly curvilinear carriageway system. Spring Grove Cemetery in Cincinnati had been designed by John Notman in 1845 with an extensive curvilinear road system that left little space for burials; the design was reworked by Howard Daniels changing little other than making the roadway design more irregular. In 1855, Adolph Strauch took on the project, redesigning the cemetery to have sweeping, unbroken expanses of lawn which provided gentle views across the rolling site of the cemetery (Pregill and Volkman: 1993, 394-399).

Although the four design approaches differed, the rural landscape cemeteries shared common design elements: locations outside developed urban areas; sites with distinguishing natural features (wooded areas, bodies of water, varied landforms, vistas); and use of the naturalistic style based on English landscape gardening principles (Pregill and Volkman: 1993, 394). Rural landscape cemeteries continued to be developed through the 1880s, providing most Americans with models of naturalistic landscape design.

While rural landscape cemeteries were examples of naturalistic landscape design known to most Americans, the early practitioners of such designs were provided with a sound theoretical basis for their work through the career of Andrew Jackson Downing (1815-1852).



United States Department of the Interior  
National Park Service

NATIONAL REGISTER OF HISTORIC PLACES  
CONTINUATION SHEET

Section E Page 15

State Parks in Wisconsin  
Name of Multiple Property Listing

---

Downing was one of the most important figures in the development of landscape architecture in the United States, whose influence was felt from the 1840s through the 1920s through his numerous publications. He was involved in horticulture, architectural design, and landscape architecture in his relatively short career in the late 1830s and the 1840s. He wrote important technical books on horticulture geared to American conditions (Fruit and Fruit Trees of America, 1845). He edited and wrote for the influential periodical, The Horticulturist and Journal of Rural Art and Rural Taste, and published books on architectural design that corresponded to his ideas on the design of landscapes (Cottage Residences, 1842, and The Architecture of Country Houses, 1850). As important as his work was, his greatest impact on American design was his role in establishing landscape design as a recognized discipline based on theory as well as practice (Pregill and Volkman: 1993, 402).

Downing's book, A Treatise on the Theory and Practice of Landscape Gardening, was first published in 1841 and went through ten editions and many reprints from the 1840s through the 1920s. In this treatise, Downing explained naturalistic landscape design in terms of the American landscape, although he borrowed extensively from English landscape theories, particularly those of J.C. Loudon. Downing transferred the idea of "wilderness" from the aesthetics of Romantic philosophy into actual designs that could be studied through his writings and experienced through built designed landscapes (McClelland: 1993, 12). In his treatise, Downing explained the means to enhance and add to natural features through the creation of rustic man-made features. The key elements which Downing used were winding roads and paths, elaborate rockwork, contrasting areas of open meadows and thick woods, rustic bridges and pavilions, and multiple enframed vista at turns in roads and paths.

The circulation pattern used in Downing's naturalistic landscape designs had the key elements of an approach road, the drive, and paths; although Downing intended his designs for private estates, these elements were easily transferred to park design (McClelland: 1993, 16). The approach road connected the public highway with the principal focus of the designed landscape, in the case of an estate, the house and in a park, the main lodge or shelter building. The approach road followed the landscape in an easy curving route so that the first view of the principal structure would be at an angle to reveal two facades (main and side) at once. Right angle turns were to be avoided in favor of gentle curves. Trees were to be planted in the bends of the road to suggest that the road had been constructed to bypass them. This design element made the road subordinate to natural growth even though the trees were to be planted to conform to the road (Downing: 1875, 288-290).

After arriving at the principal structure, the drive would lead visitors through the grounds to points of interest. This roadway also followed a curvilinear routes, permitting views and design features to be revealed unexpectedly, enhancing the visitors' pleasure in experiencing the landscape. Paths served the same purpose as the drive, but were intended for slower foot travel (Downing: 1875, 293). In the vocabulary of park design, these paths would be called "trails" to recall the rustic, frontier orientation of outdoor recreation.

United States Department of the Interior  
National Park Service

NATIONAL REGISTER OF HISTORIC PLACES  
CONTINUATION SHEET

Section E Page 16

State Parks in Wisconsin  
Name of Multiple Property Listing

---

An essential component of Downing's theories was his treatment of rockwork. Downing proposed highlighting natural rock formations in a landscape design, and recreating those outcroppings through the design of new, constructed rock formations that blended with the natural setting (Downing: 1875, 401). Downing believed that rockwork added drama to nature by creating sculpture-like elements within the softer, changing forms of organic growth. His theories on using materials from the site itself for construction of new landscape elements was particularly related to his ideas on rockwork. Downing believed that only rock from the site could be used to match the color, texture, and bedding planes of the natural rock formations being enhanced through the landscape design.

Downing favored irregular tree shapes, particularly evergreens (pines, hemlocks, balsams, firs, redwoods) because they enhanced the variety of textures and forms found in nature (Downing: 1875, 106-108). He noted the color of foliage as a design element, suggesting mass plantings that would mix various colors which appeared in autumn with the range of shades found in evergreens (Downing: 1875, 381-382). He advocated the use of trees to enframe and enhance vistas as well as to screen less desirable views. Trees could be used to link buildings with their landscape settings by highlighting some buildings while screening others (Downing: 1875, 77). His ideas on vegetation, especially trees, were major influences on the "identification of natural areas to become parks, the selection of park boundaries, and the preservation or development of certain areas within a park" (McClelland: 1993, 16).

To Downing, manmade structure in the naturalistic garden were to be considered "embellishments" which provided human comfort while enhancing the beauty of the natural setting (Downing: 1875, 392, 411). The key to the design of these structures was their harmonization with nature by using materials from the landscape itself, and in keeping those materials as close to their original natural form as possible. For example, a bench or a bridge could be constructed of unpeeled logs and set in a secluded site in the natural landscape to make it appear as a part of nature.

Downing's theories on landscape design remained in use through the 19th century among landscape garden and park designers. His designs for private pleasure grounds were the models for national and state park designs, with the estate gatehouse becoming the park entrance station, the house becoming the park pavilion, the drive becoming the park loop road, the paths becoming trails, and meadows becoming playing fields. However specifically his ideas were followed, Downing's greatest importance was in the development of an "ethic for landscape preservation and harmonization" which was followed by the National Park Service in 1920s and 1930s (McClelland: 1993, 19). This ethic required all improvements to be subordinated to and in keeping with the natural setting. The designer was to strengthen what nature had provided.

United States Department of the Interior  
National Park Service

NATIONAL REGISTER OF HISTORIC PLACES  
CONTINUATION SHEET

Section   E   Page  17 

State Parks in Wisconsin  
Name of Multiple Property Listing

---

The second half of the 19th century saw the development of urban parks as the public equivalent of the private pleasure grounds and estate parks of the first half of the century. The first great urban park, Central Park, was designed by Olmsted and Vaux following the naturalistic landscape principles established by Downing only a few years earlier. The two designers were very knowledgeable of English landscape gardening practices; Olmsted had travelled extensively in Europe, and Vaux had practiced architecture in England before coming to the United States to work with Downing. The park commissioners reinforced Olmsted and Vaux's use of naturalistic principles in their requirement that the man-made elements be subordinated to the natural landscape. Buildings were to be limited in number, small in scale, and screened behind groves of trees. The style and materials of the structures were to echo the natural materials found in the park, in particular that of the numerous rock outcroppings. The routes for circulation within the park, as opposed to routes through the park, were designed as curvilinear drives and paths that led visitors through a series of predetermined scenes that looked into, rather than out of, the park (McClelland: 1993, 21).

The link between the beginnings of the parks movement, as represented by Olmsted and Vaux's design for Central Park, and the early phase of national and state park design is Olmsted's plan for Franklin Park in the "Emerald Necklace" series of urban parks and parkways in Boston, a project begun in 1886. In Olmsted's design for the park, two distinct zones were created: an "Urban Park" and a "Country Park." The Urban Park was a formal, artificial landscape based on a rigid linear form which terminated in a small, fairly regular open field. The Country Park was an informal, naturalistic landscape of massed trees, rock outcroppings, and unstructured, irregularly-shaped open spaces. Significantly, one of the most naturalistic areas within the Country Park was the area Olmsted designated the "Wilderness."

Franklin Park served as an important model of naturalistic design principles through the extensive use of the park as an example in Henry V. Hubbard and Theodora Kimball's book, An Introduction to the Study of Landscape Design, published in 1917. The book was revised in 1929 and went through numerous editions as one of the primary textbooks of landscape architectural education into the 1950s. Hubbard illustrated the book with examples of his own naturalistic design as well as with numerous examples of Olmsted's work at Franklin Park and in the parks of Boston's Emerald Necklace. He did not simply repeat the principles passed down from Downing through Olmsted, but combined them with new ideas from the City Beautiful Movement. In effect, he brought Downing's ideas on landscape into the 20th century, producing what he called the "Modern American Landscape Style" (McClelland: 1993, 41).

The design principles of Hubbard's new style, as detailed in his book, included natural coloration of park structure, use of native stone in steps and bridges, variation in the contours of parapets to avoid monotony, use of cobblestone gutters for drainage, design of park shelters that duplicated the forms of surrounding trees, curving paths that rose to scenic overlooks, and use of plantings to integrate buildings and settings. He used screening and enframement to develop vistas, and dealt with the layout of roads and overlooks. The

United States Department of the Interior  
National Park Service

NATIONAL REGISTER OF HISTORIC PLACES  
CONTINUATION SHEET

Section   E   Page  18 

State Parks in Wisconsin  
Name of Multiple Property Listing

---

goal of all landscape design, according to Hubbard, harmonization of man-made features with the natural environment of the designed landscape. The direct relationship between his design principles and park design is demonstrated by his use of Yosemite National Park as one of the sites discussed at length in his book.

A second important book on naturalistic landscape design, Frank Waugh's The Natural Style in Landscape Gardening, was also published in 1917. Just as Hubbard had done, Waugh promoted naturalistic landscape design principles and practices through his teaching at the Massachusetts Agricultural College and his publications. Unlike Hubbard, he increasingly focused his attention on the recreational use of natural areas, particularly the national forests. He undertook a number of consulting projects for the U.S. Forest Service in the 1920s in which he studied the impact of recreational activities on forests and proposed the development of recreational facilities in the forests. He realized that recreational use would have a dramatic impact on the ecology of the forests that had to be mitigated through proper design. Due to this early work which Waugh prepared on recreation in natural areas, and the fact that he had been the teacher of Conrad Wirth, the future director of state park programs in the National Park Service, Waugh's design principles were incorporated into the development of the park service's design philosophy (McClelland: 1993, 47).

In the early years of the National Park Service, the design of park landscapes and structures was based on the tradition of naturalistic design, but allowed for experimentation in forms, materials, and architectural themes. However, by 1927, the experimentation had begun to cease and the principles and practices of Downing, Olmsted, and Hubbard came together to form a "mature ethic of rustic and naturalistic design" (McClelland: 1993, 145). This ethic would be carried into the Depression Era work on national and state parks.

To convey this design ethic, the National Park Service developed the practice of assembling portfolios of representative projects which could be circulated to the various national parks. The first of these was prepared in 1932 by Thomas Vint, the chief architect and landscape architect of the National Park Service. During the ECW/CCC program, the need for design examples was pressing due to the increased work load and the speed with which projects had to be planned for short funding cycles. As a result, a number of significant design manuals were prepared which illustrate the work done in national and state parks during the Depression Era.

The first of these were two assemblages prepared in 1934, Portfolio of Comfort Stations and Privies and Portfolio of Park Structures. Both were compiled by Dorothy Waugh under the direction of Conrad Wirth, immediately after the formation of the State Parks Division of the National Park Service in 1933. The 1934 portfolios were loose-leaf binders that could be expanded as new designs were prepared. The purpose of these publications was the distribution of material as quickly as possible for use by the state offices and the CCC camps. All of the examples illustrated in the two collections were actual buildings that could be adapted for new park projects. Designs came from a variety of sources: New York county parks; Ohio municipal parks; state parks in Indiana, Iowa, and Penn-

United States Department of the Interior  
National Park Service

NATIONAL REGISTER OF HISTORIC PLACES  
CONTINUATION SHEET

Section   E   Page  19 

State Parks in Wisconsin  
Name of Multiple Property Listing

---

sylvania; and sites in the Cook County Forest Preserve District in Illinois (McClelland: 1993, 254).

Herbert Maier, regional director of ECW District III in the Southwest, used the concept of "design by example" in developing his own collection of design sources to illustrate ideas and techniques for Rustic Style construction and landscape naturalization. In 1934, he created a handbook of photographs of park projects with accompanying outline principles to be used in designing new projects. His staff prepared drawings for standard park building designs which were distributed to inspectors and CCC camp superintendents for adaptation to specific sites. The result was a similarity in the design of parks structures in a number of national and state parks. However, the care with which the basic designs were created meant that the groups of similar buildings shared a quality of design that compensated for the haste with which the projects were implemented (Cutler: 1985, 78).

The portfolio approach was eliminated in late 1934 and the decision was made to publish a book illustrating ECW projects in national and state parks. This book was prepared by Albert H. Good, an architect from Akron, Ohio who had experience in park structure design. The book, Park Structures and Facilities, was published in 1935, and provided a comprehensive survey of park design principles and practices for naturalistic landscape design and Rustic Style architecture. It incorporated plan and elevation drawings as well as photographs of successful examples, most of which came from reports submitted by camp superintendents and district inspectors. Most of the project were from state parks because the book's intended audience was the state park ECW camps (McClelland: 1993, 256).

Good's purpose in the book was the presentation of good practices in designing park structures and facilities through the illustration of principles of design (McClelland:1993, 258). The illustrated projects were selected according to three broad categories: minor facilities which could be duplicated or closely adapted for other locations; site-specific designs which could not be duplicated, but which could be used for design inspiration; and outstanding solutions to unique problems, which could provide the highest level of inspiration. Designers were to adapt rather than copy the examples in the book.

Basic principles of design were expressed in Good's book. These were virtually identical to the principles which Herbert Maier had presented to a meeting of state park officials in February, 1935, indicating that the National Park Service had formulated a overall design philosophy to guide the development of ECW work (McClelland: 1993, 236-240). These principles had been developed by the National Park Service since its inception in 1916, and would guide the development of state parks through the Depression Era. The principles were flexible, allowing for creativity and variation based on a park's unique features and history while being unified by a common design approach. The level of flexibility increased in state parks due to the diversity of topography, climate, and landscape character across the country. Whereas most of the national parks were located in the West and could therefore share a similar design approach, state parks in Maine were quite different from those in

United States Department of the Interior  
National Park Service

NATIONAL REGISTER OF HISTORIC PLACES  
CONTINUATION SHEET

Section E Page 20

State Parks in Wisconsin  
Name of Multiple Property Listing

---

Florida, which required each state to determine the most appropriate design approach for its state parks (McClelland: 1993, 236).

However, whatever the local conditions, certain principles could apply in all conditions. First, the appropriate character for a park had to be determined. Second, the park structures had to be in harmony with that character and with each other. Third, park structures had to be inconspicuous and limited in number to combine several functions in as few buildings as possible. Fourth, vistas were to remain free of structures, with shelters located only at selected vantage points at the ends of long trails. In other words, the natural character of the park was to be the dominant feature of the park with buildings and roads to be as non-intrusive as possible.

Six basic compositional means were to be used to make buildings and structures non-intrusive: screening, use of indigenous and native materials, adaptation of indigenous or frontier methods of construction, construction of buildings with low silhouettes and horizontal lines, avoidance of right angles and straight lines, and elimination of divisions between natural and man-made structures (McClelland: 1993, 237).

Screening required structures to be located behind existing plantings or in areas of the site where the structures would be inconspicuous. If such plantings did not exist, local plant materials could be used to extend growth to a structure's location to screen it. Screening worked in conjunction with the use of low, horizontal forms which could be more easily screened.

The use of local materials served to blend structures with their surroundings and recalled the buildings of the American frontier in which settlers were forced to build with the materials at hand. The use of local materials had the added advantage of being readily available and, therefore, less expensive.

The use of indigenous or frontier construction echoed the use of local materials, and allowed for a ruggedness of appearance in the completed structure. The lack of standardization in construction practices through this approach meant that the resulting buildings and structures would not be identical even if built to the same plan. This approach also worked well with the general lack of construction skills which the CCC enrollees possessed. However, the number of CCC enrollees available in each camp permitted the heavy work of cutting and dressing timber, and quarrying and hauling of stone to be used in construction.

As a result of the use of local materials and frontier construction methods, park structures typically were low, horizontal masses with somewhat irregular forms and contours that eliminated right angles and straight lines. The overall design of the park landscape could also avoid right angles and straight lines in roadways and paths by following the topography of the site rather than imposing circulation upon it. By applying the first five means of composition, the sixth would naturally result in the elimination of divisions between natural and man-made elements in the park landscape.

United States Department of the Interior  
National Park Service

NATIONAL REGISTER OF HISTORIC PLACES  
CONTINUATION SHEET

Section E Page 21

State Parks in Wisconsin  
Name of Multiple Property Listing

Rockwork was one of the hallmarks of the Rustic Style of ECW/CCC park structures. Log construction did blend with forested sites, but visitors would always be aware of the human involvement in the process of felling trees, dressing the logs, and setting the logs in artificial horizontal positions. Rockwork permitted the park designer to remove that separation between natural and man-made found in log construction by using rock in buildings and structures to suggest the natural occurrence of rock formations. This is especially true in the construction of trail steps in which rocks are set in geologically correct positions according to natural bedding planes; or in walls, in which a variety of different-sized rocks would be set with irregular joint patterns. All aspects of rockwork were to be based on maintaining the most natural appearance.

The popularity of Good's 1935 book resulted in an expanded three-volume publication in 1938, Park and Recreation Structures. The first volume dealt with basic services and administrative structures (entrances, signs, bridges, culverts, and comfort stations); the second with recreational and cultural facilities (picnic shelters, fireplaces, boathouses, amphitheaters, dams and pools, and sports facilities); and the third with camping facilities (tent and trailer campsites, cabins, lodges, washhouses, and dining halls). The projects illustrated in the book cover ECW/CCC work from 1933 through 1938.

Projects from three Wisconsin state parks appear in Good's 1938 book. Stone trail steps at Interstate Park are illustrated in Volume One, as one of twenty-six national, state, and metropolitan parks. Good criticized the Interstate steps for not reading clearly; in effect, they were too naturalistic in their highly irregular widths and heights, and lacking a clear sense of pathway (Good: 1938, I/166). Two projects from Rib Mountain are illustrated, a log sign post (Good: 1938, I/42) and a trail shelter (Good: 1938, II/104-105). Good approved of the retention of the natural knots and branch stubs on the sign post, and felt the trail shelter made good use of its natural site conditions. An exhibit shelter from Wyalusing State Park was criticized by Good for its complexity of form, making it more a "nature shrine" than a simple shelter structure (Good: 1938, II/174-175).

#### RUSTIC ARCHITECTURE

The architectural style associated with both national and state parks of the 20th century is that of the Rustic Style. This style is a composite of many influences, but its origin is the same as that of naturalistic landscape design, the Romantic Movement of the first part of the 19th century. Its development is virtually identical to that of naturalistic landscape design. Downing's principles for designing the appropriate "embellishments" for naturalistic landscapes were the basis for the Rustic Style.

The Shingle Style used by the architect Henry Hobson Richardson was an important source in the evolution of the Rustic Style. Olmsted had worked with Richardson in the 1870s on a number of projects, such as the Ames Memorial Hall in North Easton, MA; the New York state capitol in Albany; and stations of the Boston and Albany Railroad. When Olmsted was working on the design for the



United States Department of the Interior  
National Park Service

NATIONAL REGISTER OF HISTORIC PLACES  
CONTINUATION SHEET

Section E Page 22

State Parks in Wisconsin  
Name of Multiple Property Listing

---

Boston parks in the early 1880s, Richardson provided the designs for numerous park structures, such as bridges, gatehouses, and fountains. All of these designs used heavy stone foundations and wall elements, rough wood surfaces, and low, horizontal massing that were characteristic of Richardson's Shingle Style (McClelland: 1993, 51). By the time of Richardson's death in 1886, Olmsted had absorbed his theories for the design of rustic structures and incorporated them in his later work, emphasizing the use of native rock, rugged rockwork construction, and harmonization of built and natural forms.

Another of the important 19th-century sources of the Rustic Style was the design of the Adirondack great camps from the 1870s through the 1890s (Kaiser: 1982). These were private retreats for wealthy families in which the buildings and sites were designed using a number of diverse sources, such as Swiss wood architecture, Scandinavian and Russian log construction, German vernacular roof forms, and Japanese practices in outlining building forms in contrasting paint colors. The camps were laid out as small villages with various functions housed in separate buildings; however, the buildings all followed the same design principles which unified them. The materials used in the Adirondack retreats were acquired from the forested, rocky area surrounding the building site and were simply prepared before construction to retain their natural characteristics. The construction techniques that were followed emphasized the natural quality of the materials and a rugged quality of construction that was reminiscent of frontier buildings. This visual link to the American wilderness of the past was reinforced by the names of the great camps: Uncas, Pine Knot, and Sagamore - names that recalled the Romantic novels of James Fennimore Cooper, the early logging days of the Adirondacks, and the original Indian inhabitants of the forests and mountains.

Other architectural styles and designers influenced the development of the Rustic Style: the Prairie Style, the work of the California architects Greene and Greene, Bernard Maybeck, Gustav Stickley, and the development of the bungalow (McClelland: 1993, 58-62, 64-68). All of these contributed essentially the same basic idea of naturalistic design: to harmonize the building with its site through by using local materials, retaining the natural colors and textures of those materials, keeping the building low to the ground, and emphasizing horizontal forms.

One of the major influences on the development of the Rustic Style used by the National Park Service was the architecture of the park concessionaires who had built early hotels, dining halls, shelter, and overlooks at the national parks prior to the creation of the park service in 1916. Most of these had been constructed by railroad companies which provided access to the national parks in the days before automobile travel. In general, the style of these buildings was a combination of Romantic European models, Adirondack great camps design, and adaptation of indigenous architecture of the American West (McClelland: 1993, 62). Despite the diversity of influences, all the concessionaire building designs integrated setting and structure into a unified, harmonious form that reflected the natural landscape of the national park (Tweed: 1977, 17). Old Faithful Inn at Yellowstone National Park was constructed in 1903 by the Northern Pacific Railroad, using the Adirondack-derived design of the architect



United States Department of the Interior  
National Park Service

NATIONAL REGISTER OF HISTORIC PLACES  
CONTINUATION SHEET

Section E Page 23

State Parks in Wisconsin  
Name of Multiple Property Listing

Robert Reamer. The Yellowstone hotel was followed by the work of architect Mary Elizabeth Jane Colter at the Grand Canyon for the Fred Harvey Company and the Atchinson, Topeka & Santa Fe Railroad, beginning in 1905. Colter developed a pueblo style for the Grand Canyon buildings that was based on Hopi Indian construction in the area of the canyon. At the Glacier National Park, the Great Northern Railway built a series of hotels in a Swiss style in 1913.

In a parallel development to the use of the Rustic Style in the national parks, the Rustic Style of architecture was utilized in one of the first important state park buildings in the early period of the state park movement. Bear Mountain Inn at the Palisades Interstate Park in New Jersey/New York was built in 1916, and was based on the design of an Adirondacks great camp lodge (McClelland: 1993, 32). The first floor had walls constructed of moss-covered boulders found on the site; the second floor was built of huge chestnut logs taken from the surrounding forests. The building had massive stone fireplaces and chimneys, a broad overhanging roof supported on massive log brackets, and heavily rusticated stone arched entrances. Just as Palisades Interstate Park was seen as a model for state park development in the 1920s, Bear Mountain Inn itself was a model for park building design. It was the site of the second meeting of the National Conference on State Parks in 1922, and for the seventh meeting in 1927. The building was featured in American Landscape Design in 1924, and the director of the park, William Welch, became an active member of the state parks movement, working closely with the National Park Service on national park planning and construction (McClelland: 1993, 32).

The Rustic Style of architecture found in state parks projects from the Depression Era reached its most complete integration with naturalistic landscape design in the National Park Service publications of the 1930s. These books mark the final step in the development of naturalistic design begun in the United States by Andrew Jackson Downing in the 1840s. Downing provided the theories; the national and state parks of the Depression Era illustrate the mature expression of those theories.

United States Department of the Interior  
National Park Service

NATIONAL REGISTER OF HISTORIC PLACES  
CONTINUATION SHEET

Section F Page 24

State Parks in Wisconsin  
Name of Multiple Property Listing

F. ASSOCIATED PROPERTY TYPES

(Provide description, significance, and registration requirements)

I Name of Property Type: State Parks in Wisconsin

II Description:

The Multiple Property Nomination, State Parks in Wisconsin, has only one property type, a state park. Under the four historic contexts, a state park is defined as any natural/scenic, roadside, or historical area conserved and developed for public enjoyment, education and/or recreation by the State of Wisconsin. The entire state park, based on its historic boundaries as established during its period of significance, may be eligible for listing as a historic district.

In order to qualify for listing in the National Register of Historic places, the state park must be an intact example of one of three state park subtypes: natural or scenic state park, roadside state park, or historical state park. Before 1934, the Wisconsin Conservation Commission reports routinely classified state parks as either scenic or scientific/historical parks; however, in 1934, the Conservation Commission introduced a third category, the roadside park (Biennial Report: 1933-1934, 44).

By 1936, the three state park subtypes had been clearly defined (Biennial Report: 1935-1936, 43-44):

Natural or scenic state park: The Conservation Commission considered these state parks as the "State Parks proper." The parks in this category were relatively large scenic areas, each having a distinctive feature of statewide importance. Devil's Lake has mountainous scenery; Pattison has the highest waterfall; Rib Mountain is the highest point in the state. All of the scenic state parks were accessible by a good highway. Each had recreation facilities that were well developed.

Roadside state park: The parks of this category were smaller and directly associated with main highways. Each provided a place for travelers to rest, have a picnic, or camp overnight with tents or trailers. These parks were not recommended for other than brief stops, although adequate sanitary facilities, picnic tables, fireplaces, and drinking water were provided.

Historical state park: These parks were very limited in size and provided no outdoor recreation facilities or sites for overnight stays. Picnic tables could be found at these parks. The focus of each historical park was a "distinctive and interesting historic story" that would "preserve the inspirational events of early day Wisconsin."

United States Department of the Interior  
National Park Service

NATIONAL REGISTER OF HISTORIC PLACES  
CONTINUATION SHEET

Section   F   Page  25 

State Parks in Wisconsin  
Name of Multiple Property Listing

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The three state park subtypes may include any of the following landscape features, buildings, structures, objects, and sites (McClelland: 1993, 271-275):

Park Road System

- A. Approach and Through Roads: county, state, and Federal highways
- B. Major Roads: loop and circuit roads; parkways
- C. Minor Roads: circulation roads within developed areas; fire roads; truck trails; spur roads
- D. Road Characteristics: protection of natural features; alignment with topography (curvilinear roadways; radius curves; tangents; complex curves); scenic viewpoints (coordinating curves and turns with vistas and views); gradient; cut and fill; road cross-section; road surfacing; slope treatments; roadside plantings
- E. Overlooks: parking and pull-offs; curbs, sidewalls, and guardrails; viewpoints and vistas; monuments; shelters; links to trail system; observation towers; signs and markers; water fountains; comfort stations; picnic sites
- F. Roadway Structures: bridges; guardrails; low-water crossings; culverts and drains; retaining walls and revetments; curbs and gutters; signs

Developed Areas and Buildings

- A. Administration: entrance stations; ranger stations; park headquarters; gas stations; parking areas; ranger residences; site improvements (sidewalks, curbs, paths, stairs, guardrails); comfort stations; water fountains; flagpoles; benches
- B. Recreation: parking areas; paths; shelter buildings; museum buildings; concession buildings; bathhouses; beaches; boathouses and boat launches; docks and piers; lakes and ponds; baseball diamonds; playing fields; ski slopes; toboggan runs; golf courses; tennis courts; shuffleboard pads; trail heads; signs and markers; comfort stations; water fountains
- C. Picnic Areas: parking areas; shelters; comfort stations; water fountains; fireplaces; fire circles; benches; paths
- D. Campgrounds: fireplaces; fire circles; bathhouses; comfort stations; water fountains; cabins; dining halls and kitchens; classroom buildings; laundry; tent and/or trailer sites; parking areas; road system; bridges; culverts; entrance markers; signs; shelters
- E. Service: pumphouses; springhouses; custodian's residence; water towers; utility structures; dams; garages; storage buildings; sheds

United States Department of the Interior  
National Park Service

NATIONAL REGISTER OF HISTORIC PLACES  
CONTINUATION SHEET

Section F Page 26

State Parks in Wisconsin  
Name of Multiple Property Listing

Trail System: foot trails; nature shrines; signs and markers (directional and interpretative); shelters; bridges; retaining walls and revetments; culverts; guardrails; steps and stairs; benches; overlooks; comfort stations; water supply sources (wells, springs, fountains); viewpoints and vistas

Scenic Features and Areas: rock formations; waterfalls and rapids; ponds and lakes; forests; lakeshores; streams and rivers

Historical and Archeological Features: prehistoric mounds; monuments; CCC camps (parade ground, flagpole, dormitories, dining hall, office buildings, workshops, classroom/chapel/social hall, landscape features, steps and stairs, plantings, paths)

III Significance:

State parks eligible for listing in the National Register of Historic Places under the Multiple Property Nomination, State Parks in Wisconsin, will meet one or both of Criteria A and C in any or all of the following areas of significance: Architecture, Conservation, Entertainment/Recreation, Landscape Architecture, Politics/Government, and/or Social History. The level of significance will be statewide due to the parks being components of a state system. The geographical area covered by the Multiple Property Nomination incorporates the entire state of Wisconsin, which is covered as well by the historic contexts found in Section E.

Under Criterion A, the areas of significance include Conservation, Entertainment/Recreation, Politics/Government, and/or Social History. Properties must be associated with the 20th-century movement to develop state parks through statewide systems administered by state agencies (Politics/Government), to conserve natural features and scenic areas as public parks (Conservation), and to provide public areas for outdoor enjoyment and recreation (Entertainment/Recreation). The most important period of state park development was that of the Depression Era in which the Federal government sponsored public works projects to provide employment relief (Politics/Government and Social History), primarily through conservation-related programs, such as the Civilian Conservation Corps.

Under Criterion C, the areas of significance include Architecture and/or Landscape Architecture. Engineering may also be an area of significance depending on the particular conditions of park design and construction. The state parks must retain several or all of the physical characteristics of the Rustic Style of landscape design that prevailed in park design in the period of significance. The state parks must reflect the principles and practices of park landscape and structures design developed by the National Park Service in the national parks between 1916 and 1933, and followed in state parks through ECW/CCC and WPA projects between 1933 and 1942.

United States Department of the Interior  
National Park Service

NATIONAL REGISTER OF HISTORIC PLACES  
CONTINUATION SHEET

Section F Page 27

State Parks in Wisconsin  
Name of Multiple Property Listing

---

State parks may be eligible under Criterion D in the areas of prehistoric and/or historic (aboriginal and/or non-aboriginal) archeology. Many of the state parks include effigy mounds, prehistoric and historic mining sites, and evidence of logging operations which may yield information relating to a prehistoric or historic group. However, those events, activities, characteristics, or information relating to Criterion D are outside the period of significance of the Multiple Property Nomination and do not directly relate to the areas of significance under Criteria A and/or C.

IV Registration Requirements:

The registration requirements for listing the property type, state park, are the same for any of the three property subtypes, natural/scenic state park, roadside state park, and historical state park. Under both Criteria A and C, the state park must have been constructed during the period of significance and be significant for its historical association with the development of the state park system in Wisconsin and/or for its historical association with the Depression Era programs (ECW/CCC and/or WPA) for the design and construction of state parks under the direction of the National Park Service. All of the state parks were created as state parks by the State of Wisconsin and remain in use as state parks.

Due to the continued use of the Rustic Style in park design and architecture after the period of significance, it is important to use primary and secondary sources to document the dates of park resources. Visual evaluation is not adequate for establishing the contributing or non-contributing status of resources. The general aspects of physical integrity which must be analyzed include those physical characteristics listed in the Description portion of this section (F-II). Documentation is required to establish park boundaries from the period of significance because many of the state parks have been enlarged since 1946.

Even though the state parks have remained in continual use and their overall physical characteristics have remained relatively unchanged, changes have been made over the last fifty years. Roads may have been widened, new parking areas constructed, campgrounds enlarged, buildings altered, and materials replaced. If the historic landscape of a state park no longer possesses historic integrity, an individual resource which was historically a part of that landscape may be listed individually if it is significant for its landscape or architectural characteristics under Criterion C.

United States Department of the Interior  
National Park Service

NATIONAL REGISTER OF HISTORIC PLACES  
CONTINUATION SHEET

Section   G   Page  28 

State Parks in Wisconsin  
Name of Multiple Property Listing

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G. GEOGRAPHICAL DATA

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The State of Wisconsin; state parks are located throughout the state

United States Department of the Interior  
National Park Service

NATIONAL REGISTER OF HISTORIC PLACES  
CONTINUATION SHEET

Section   H   Page  29 

State Parks in Wisconsin  
Name of Multiple Property Listing

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H. SUMMARY OF IDENTIFICATION AND EVALUATION METHODS

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(Discuss the methods used in developing the multiple property listing)

The Multiple Property Nomination for "State Parks in Wisconsin" is a result of a historical and architectural survey of conservation and recreation facilities in Wisconsin administered by the Wisconsin Department of Natural Resources. The survey was sponsored by the Division of Historic Preservation of the State Historical Society of Wisconsin. The survey was undertaken in 1991-1992 by Nancy J. Hubbard, associate professor of architecture, and two graduate students, Sigurd Strautmanis and Arnis Kakulis, from the School of Architecture and Urban Planning, University of Wisconsin-Milwaukee. Field work was updated in 1994 and 1995 by Nancy J. Hubbard.

In the survey, over 150 facilities with over 800 resources were identified. These facilities included state parks, ranger stations, state forests, fish hatcheries, wildlife refuges, state nurseries, and state trails. A survey card with a photograph was prepared for all resources; these survey cards are on file in the Division of Historic Preservation. Upon completion of the survey and the survey cards, a Reconnaissance Survey Report was prepared. A chapter of this report was devoted to twenty-nine state parks.

Research in the Library of the State Historical Society, particularly the Wisconsin Government Documents Collection, was used to develop the historic context of the state park system through the use of the records of the State Park Board (1907-1915) and the Wisconsin Conservation Commission (1915-1968). Research on park and park structures design was undertaken in the Steenbock Library of the College of Agriculture at the University of Wisconsin, Madison. One of the most valuable sources for the development of the historic context relating to Depression Era work in the state parks was the architectural drawings collection held in the Archives of the State Historical Society. The drawings provided the names of designers, dates for buildings, and sequence of project development by the National Park Service's state park division, the Civilian Conservation Corps, and the Wisconsin Conservation Department.

The Multiple Property Nomination was developed using the National Park Services study, Presenting Nature: The Historic Landscape Design of the National Park Service, 1916-1942 (McClelland: 1993), as a model. This study was prepared by the National Park Service to encourage nomination of historic park landscapes of national and state parks to the National Register of Historic Places by developing a national context for identifying, evaluating, and registering historic park landscapes influenced by the design principles and practices of the National Park Service. The study was written from the perspective of landscape architecture because the physical development of parks in the first half of the 20th century, particularly between 1933 and 1942, was done by landscape architects. The intent of the study was the facilitation of National Register listing of national, state, and local parks and park landscapes associated with the context, by avoiding the duplication involved in efforts to evaluate and register properties with the same historic context and characteristics.

United States Department of the Interior  
National Park Service

NATIONAL REGISTER OF HISTORIC PLACES  
CONTINUATION SHEET

Section   H   Page   30  

State Parks in Wisconsin  
Name of Multiple Property Listing

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The period of significance was determined based on the decision to include the fullest possible range of state parks associated with the complex development of the state park system in Wisconsin. The long span of years (1899-1946) enables the review and analysis of the earliest park, Interstate State Park, which predates the State Park Board, through the first phase of the state park program between 1907 and 1920, and the role of Wisconsin in the state parks movement in the 1920s. The most important period of state park work was the Depression Era (1933-1942) when the State Parks Division of the National Park Service and the Wisconsin Conservation Department utilized the labor force of the Civilian Conservation Corps to construct the significant landscape and architectural resources found in the state parks. The period of significance ends with 1946, marking the fifty-year cutoff point of significance.

The property type, state park, was selected based on the survey results as well as on research to include the three subtypes of state parks. The three subtypes vary by size, visitor facilities, and intended purpose. However, all three had their origins in the state park movement.

The standards of integrity were based on visual and historical analysis of state parks in Wisconsin. State parks eligible for listing in the National Register of Historic Places under this Multiple Property Nomination must:

- 1) be associated with the 20th century movement to develop state parks for public use, to conserve natural features, and to develop natural areas for public recreation and enjoyment
- 2) retain several or all of the physical characteristics, as listed in Section F, that were developed for the park from the date of its establishment until 1946
- 3) reflect the principles and practices of park landscape and structures design developed by the Wisconsin Conservation Department and the National Park Service through ECW/CCC or WPA projects during the Depression Era (1933-1942)
- 4) retain the physical appearance and conditions of overall landscape design during the period of significance

Changes and additions to Wisconsin state parks since 1946 diminish the historic integrity of the state park and should be considered non-contributing. However, historic state park landscapes containing such changes are eligible for listing despite the changes if the overall historic plan is intact and a substantial number of historic resources are present that do retain their integrity of design, location, materials, and workmanship (McClelland: 1993, 275-276).



United States Department of the Interior  
National Park Service

NATIONAL REGISTER OF HISTORIC PLACES  
CONTINUATION SHEET

Section   I   Page  31 

State Parks in Wisconsin  
Name of Multiple Property Listing

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United States Department of the Interior  
National Park Service

NATIONAL REGISTER OF HISTORIC PLACES  
CONTINUATION SHEET

Section I Page 32

State Parks in Wisconsin  
Name of Multiple Property Listing

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National Park Service

NATIONAL REGISTER OF HISTORIC PLACES  
CONTINUATION SHEET

Section I Page 33

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Name of Multiple Property Listing

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NATIONAL REGISTER OF HISTORIC PLACES  
CONTINUATION SHEET

Section I Page 34

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NATIONAL REGISTER OF HISTORIC PLACES  
CONTINUATION SHEET

Section I Page 35

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