

**United States Department of the Interior
National Park Service**

National Register of Historic Places Multiple Property Documentation Form

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

X _____ New Submission _____ Amended Submission

A. Name of Multiple Property Listing

New Deal Resources in West Virginia State Parks and State Forests

B. Associated Historic Contexts

State Park and Forest Development in West Virginia, 1933-1942

New Deal Federal Relief Programs in West Virginia State Parks and Forests, 1933-1942

Rustic Style Architecture in West Virginia State Parks and Forests, 1933-1942

Landscape Design and Landscape Management in West Virginia State Parks and Forests, 1933-1942

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D. Certification

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

Signature and title of certifying official

Date

West Virginia Division of Culture and History

State or Federal Agency or Tribal government

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

Signature of the Keeper

Date of Action

West Virginia State Park New Deal/CCC Resources
Name of Multiple Property Listing

State

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

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Paperwork Reduction Act Statement: This information is being collected for applications to the National Register of Historic Places to nominate properties for listing or determine eligibility for listing, to list properties, and to amend existing listings. Response to this request is required to obtain a benefit in accordance with the National Historic Preservation Act, as amended (16 U.S.C.460 et seq.).

Estimated Burden Statement: Public reporting burden for this form is estimated to average 18 hours per response including time for reviewing instructions, gathering and maintaining data, and completing and reviewing the form. Direct comments regarding this burden estimate or any aspect of this form to the Chief, Administrative Services Division, National Park Service, PO Box 37127, Washington, DC 20013-7127; and the Office of Management and Budget, Paperwork Reductions Project (1024-0018), Washington, DC 20503.

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E. Statement of Historic Contexts

Introduction

This Multiple Property Documentation Form (MPD) addresses New Deal resources in West Virginia’s state parks and forests. The following sixteen (16) parks and forests are included in the MPD: Babcock State Park; Cabwaylingo State Forest; Cacapon State Park; Coopers Rock State Forest; Droop Mountain Battlefield State Park; Greenbrier State Forest; Hawks Nest State Park; Kanawha State Forest; Holly River State Park; Kumbrabow State Forest; Lost River State Park; Panther State Forest (also known as Panther Wildlife Management Area); Pinnacle Rock State Park; Seneca State Forest; Tomlinson Run State Park; and Watoga State Park. This MPD incorporates by reference the results of the *New Deal Historic Resource Survey* to document New Deal resources in sixteen West Virginia’s state parks and forests, as conducted by Michael Gioulis Historic Preservation Consultant, Sutton, West Virginia (Gioulis 2008).

New Deal resources within these parks and forests were constructed between 1933 and 1942. They include roads, trails, bridges, culvert heads, seasonal rental cabins, picnic and trail shelters, game courts, residences, administration buildings, pump houses, welcome booths/contact stations, riding stables, supply houses, and designed and managed landscapes. The New Deal employed thousands of relief workers in West Virginia’s state parks and forests. Most were affiliated with the Civilian Conservation Corps (CCC), established by the Emergency Conservation Work Act in 1933. At a smaller number of park and forest sites, the New Deal-era Works Progress Administration (WPA) undertook construction projects. The CCC and WPA workers, and the accompanying federal funds, were responsible for rapid development of the state’s outdoor recreational facilities. Many of these parks and their New Deal-related resources survive and continue to be actively used today. They constitute a prominent and significant manifestation of the New Deal legacy in West Virginia.

The New Deal resources in West Virginia’s parks and forests are thematically linked by the following characteristics:

1. All are within the present state park and state forest system.
2. All of the resources were either constructed or used by the CCC, which was created by the New Deal’s landmark Emergency Conservation Work (ECW) legislation, or the WPA.
4. All of the resources constructed by the CCC and WPA exemplify the rustic style of architecture promoted by the National Park Service (NPS) during the early twentieth century.
5. All of the resources are within designed and/or managed landscapes created by the CCC using the NPS’s rustic and naturalistic design tenets.

Overall, the extant resources are in fair to excellent condition. Modifications and non-historic intrusions were minimal in areas originally developed by the CCC and WPA. Character-defining elements remain as built. The resources still convey their association with the establishment of state parks and forests in West Virginia and the role the CCC and WPA played in that establishment. The parks and forests also remain true to their original functions as recreational destinations, while simultaneously providing wildlife habitats, erosion control, and watershed protection.

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Park Name	Total Acreage	Number of Documented New Deal/ CCC-era Resources
Babcock State Park	4,127 acres	46
Cabwaylingo State Forest	8,123 acres	116
Cacapon Resort State Park	6,000 acres	50
Cooper's Rock State Forest	12,713 acres	18
Droop Mountain Battlefield State Park	267 acres	19
Greenbrier State Forest	5,100 acres	22
Hawk's Nest State Park	838 acres	10
Holly River State Park	8,101 acres	26
Kanawha State Forest	9,300 acres	18
Kumbrabow State Forest	9,474 acres	26
Lost River State Park	3,712 acres	78
Panther State Forest (also known as Panther Wildlife Management Area)	7,810 acres	3
Pinnacle Rock State Park	400 acres	18
Seneca State Forest	11,684 acres	15
Tomlinson Run State Park	1,398 acres	19
Watoga State Park	10,100 acres	72
Totals	99,147 acres	556

Historic Context:
State Park and Forest Development in West Virginia, 1933-1942

By the early twentieth century, exploitation of West Virginia's lumber and mineral resources had caused catastrophic damage to the natural environment. Within a few years of the beginning of the lumber industry boom, rapid run-off and soil erosion led to increasing problems with floods, particularly after heavy rains and during quick melting of snow in the winter and spring seasons (Thomas 1998:15). Private organizations, including the Appalachian Mountain Club, Appalachian National Park Association, and American Forestry Association, lobbied for the establishment of forest reserves to combat problems associated with forest degradation. A 1902 study overseen by U.S. Secretary of Agriculture James Wilson and endorsed by President Theodore Roosevelt warned that continued stripping of Appalachian forests would create an economically and ecologically barren landscape. Their efforts met with resistance among both private interests and political leaders. In March 1907, however, a disastrous flood struck the Monongahela River basin, causing damages in excess of \$100 million. Pittsburgh alone suffered \$8 million in losses. An examination of the flood and its aftermath led engineers to conclude that it had been caused by the destruction of forests on the watersheds of the Allegheny and Monongahela rivers (U.S. Department of Agriculture [USDA], Forest Service, Eastern District 1930:2, 4-5; Pierce 2006:1625; Irwin 2006:123).

The Congressional response to the disaster led to passage of the Appalachian-White Mountains Forest Reservation Bill in 1911. The law is now colloquially known as the Weeks Act due to the efforts of Massachusetts Congressman John W. Weeks to secure its passage. This legislation allowed the Federal government to purchase lands on the watersheds of navigable streams and to establish national forests for the purpose of regulating stream flow. It was the first legislation to permit federal acquisition of land for forests east

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of the Mississippi River. Dr. I. C. White, former State Geologist of West Virginia, also played an active role in lobbying for passage of the law. Almost all federal forest land in the Appalachian Mountains was purchased under the aegis of the Weeks Act (U.S. Department of Agriculture [USDA], Forest Service, Eastern District 1930:2, 4-5; Pierce 2006: 1625).

Establishment of national forests reflected a growing awareness of the need to preserve and protect natural resources. The first national parks were authorized by Congress during the late nineteenth century. John Muir, Robert Underwood Johnson, and William Colby founded the Sierra Club in 1892. A variety of efforts were undertaken to limit or regulate environmental damage caused by industrial and agricultural practices. Wildlife protection laws also were enacted, such as the Lacey Act, which regulated interstate traffic in endangered bird species. Upon taking office in 1901, President Roosevelt made conservation one of his administration’s priorities. Roosevelt created the first National Bird Preserve (the beginning of the Wildlife Refuge system) on Pelican Island, Florida. The Antiquities Act of 1906 granted presidents the power to designate national monuments on their own accord, giving them nearly the same protection as if Congress had declared them national parks or wilderness areas. In all, by 1909, the Roosevelt administration created 42 million acres of national forests, 53 national wildlife refuges and 18 areas of “special interest,” including the Grand Canyon. The NPS was created by the Organic Act of 1916, during Woodrow Wilson’s administration (Kovarik 2009).

West Virginia followed the national trend toward designating lands worthy of conservation as state parks and forests. A historic context for West Virginia’s state parks and forests was presented by Michael Gioulis Historic Preservation Consultant (2008) in *New Deal Historic Resources Survey*. It originally was taken and paraphrased from two sources: Ney C. Landrum, ed., *History of the Southeastern State Park Systems, History of the West Virginia State Park System* (Association of Southeastern State Park Directors, October 1992) and *Where People and Nature Meet: A History of West Virginia State Parks* (Pictorial Histories Publishing Company, Charleston, West Virginia, April 1988).

The state parks and forest system in West Virginia began in January 1925, when the State Game, Fish, and Forestry Commission purchased land in Pocahontas County as a wildlife and timber preserve. This preserve later became Watoga State Park. The Game, Fish, and Forestry Commission went on to recommend that areas of “outstanding scenic and natural attractiveness” be purchased and administered by them. Additionally, lands that had been devastated by poor timbering, mining, and farming practices began to be identified for acquisition. Such lands typically could be acquired at low prices, and restoration of their environmental quality provided an important public benefit. Among the numerous properties recommended during the 1927 state legislative session were Cooper’s Rock, Cranberry Glades, Hawk’s Nest, and Pinnacle Rock. The Commission also recommended acquisition of several monument sites as well as designation of historical areas; the latter were to be recommended by the State Historical Society. All of these sites combined to form the basis for West Virginia’s current state park system (Gioulis 2008:9).

The first historic area purchased consisted of 125.5 acres at the Droop Mountain Battlefield in 1928. John D. Sutton, a member of the state legislature from Braxton County, had fought in the battle at Droop Mountain and was instrumental in the purchase. Droop Mountain Battlefield thus became West Virginia’s first state park (Gioulis 2008:9). The onset of the Great Depression inhibited further land acquisitions for several years as state revenues plummeted and the entire country plunged into a severe economic crisis.

In 1933, the CCC and other Federal programs were formed under President Franklin D. Roosevelt to alleviate unemployment while developing long-term natural resources and recreational opportunities for the American

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people. The West Virginia Legislature established the Division of State Parks in 1933, hoping to utilize the CCC, WPA, and other Federal programs to continue developing the state system. The State allowed for \$75,000 in 1934 to purchase park lands in addition to those acquired during the 1920s. The NPS provided the technical knowledge to get the system under way, including engineers, planners, architects and others who designed the state parks (Gioulis 2008:9).

Hundreds of young men employed by New Deal relief programs were put to work in the state’s parks and forests. Most worked for the CCC, which developed the majority of West Virginia’s state parks during the 1930s and early 1940s. The WPA, however, was responsible for the complete development of Holly River State Park in Webster County and several dams and lakes, such as at Tomlinson Run State Park in Hancock County. The land at Holly River was initially purchased by the federal government and leased to the state until 1954, when it was transferred to the State under the Bankhead-Jones Act (Gioulis 2008:9-10).

Depression-era land acquisitions were responsible for approximately 30,000 acres, or about half of the present-day state park system. Much of the land was purchased for \$5.00 or less per acre, and had been ravaged by timbering, forest fires, and poor agricultural practices. Absentee owners, primarily coal and lumber companies, ranked among the largest landowners in the state. Beset by a variety of economic forces, ailing companies proved willing to sell large tracts already denuded by clear-cutting or coal mining (Thomas 1998:15). The land’s degraded condition, however, also made it prime acreage for reforestation. Most of the state parks and forests were also established as game refuges. Native game populations, such as deer, turkey, and grouse, had been lost to habitat destruction and over hunting. The parks and forests began breeding programs for these species and distributed the results statewide, restoring much of the native game to the state (Gioulis 2008:10).

Expansion of West Virginia’s state park system coincided with a major increase in public utilization of state and federally owned forest and park lands. Many public land users sought low-cost recreational opportunities, including swimming, hiking, picnicking, and fishing. For example, the Monongahela National Forest, established during the 1910s, saw as many as 1.173 million visitors per year during the Great Depression (USDA Forest Service Eastern Region 1939). Popular recreational uses of the period dovetailed with conservation goals of preserving open space, cleaning up waterways, preventing soil erosion, and re-establishing forests and wildlife habitats.

By 1940, the environmental problems caused by ruinous mining, timbering, and agricultural practices continued to hamper West Virginia’s development. Although the state’s park and forest system had expanded considerably in the preceding eight years, and public use and enjoyment of these resources increased substantially, much work remained to be done. A cogent summary of the state’s situation found its way into Governor Matthew M. Neely’s inaugural address in January 1941:

West Virginia was originally fabulously rich in natural resources. Unfortunately untold millions of dollars worth of these have been wasted. Much of our land that is now practically worthless was once fertile, and covered with trees that were immensely valuable, not only as timber, but also as nature’s preventives of floods and erosion of the soil. But the fertility of vast areas has been washed from the state and irretrievably carried to the Gulf and the ocean. Timber that was once so abundant and so dense that the sunshine could not penetrate its foliage has, like the Indians and the buffaloes, vanished away. There is ample justification for the charge that for every ton of coal that was utilized in the early days of our mining industry more than a half a ton of equally valuable coal was lost by improper methods of production.

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In the exploitation of our oil fields, we wasted natural gas, worth more than all the ransoms ever paid for captive kings, before we learned the importance of its conservation. A few decades ago wild life of infinite variety and inestimable value flourished all over the territory that is now West Virginia. Our forests and fields were full of game; our streams were alive with the finest species of fish; wild fowls were as countless as the sands of the sea. But with the greed of the man in the fable who killed the goose that laid the golden eggs, we recklessly destroyed much of our animate and inanimate wealth without realizing the consequence of our folly.

Manifestly, exhausted gas wells can not be replenished. Wasted coal deposits can not be restored. But fortunately impoverished land can be reclaimed; denuded areas can be reforested; unnecessary stream pollution can be prevented; and in our purified water courses fish can be made to thrive. All these things the state must endeavor to do. For our posterity and ourselves, we must restore as much as possible of the matchless heritage which we wasted as improvidently as the base Indian who threw away a pearl that was richer than all his tribe. It is, of course, desirable that we utilize as fully as necessary the remaining resources with which nature has blessed us. But we should do this in accordance with scientific methods that will be conducive to conservation instead of annihilation. Tens of thousands of acres of West Virginia land must be reforested; tens of thousands of acres of soil must be reclaimed; our streams must be purified and restocked with fish; our fields must once more be filled with wild life, particularly of the kinds that prey on pests and of the species known as game. And when sufficient soil and forests and wild life have been regained we must thereafter plant a young tree for every old one that is severed; we must, by scientific methods of farming, preserve the productivity of the soil; we must protect our fish and bird and animal life so that it will never be threatened with extinction again.

If to West Virginia scenery, which is surpassing diversified and transcendently beautiful, we add the lure of fully restored forests, fish and game, the state will eventually become a happy hunting ground for the sportsman; a paradise for the tourist; and the home of prosperity more abundant than we have ever known (Neely 1941).

The exigencies of World War II, however, temporarily interfered with Neely’s call to action. After the CCC program was terminated in 1942, West Virginia began operating its park system completely from state appropriations. The rebuilding of Watoga Dam was the first major project to be completed with state funds. Rationing of supplies and other shortages due to World War II limited the public’s ability to travel. West Virginia’s park system struggled with a total attendance of only 100,000 visitors annually during and immediately after the war. Resources deteriorated during this period and many CCC projects remained unfinished (Gioulis 2008:10).

By the late 1940s, as prosperity returned, West Virginia’s park system became more heavily utilized. Few funds had been available to update resources during the preceding decade. The Revenue Bond Act of 1953, passed during Governor William C. Marland’s tenure, included provisions to finance improvements and additions to the park system. West Virginia ranked among the first states to allocate funds for such a purpose. Many of West Virginia’s state parks, including Lost River, Cacapon, and Watoga, have 1950s-era resources developed to service the growing tourist industry in West Virginia. Annual visitation in 1958 reached nearly two million. The 1950s also saw a change in philosophy regarding the state park system. In addition to natural resource

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preservation, use and development of scenic natural resources began to be emphasized. The first 10-year master plan, from 1958 to 1968, was prepared during this time as well (Gioulis 2008:10).

The 1960s saw the return of some federal funding and three new parks were added to the system: Pipestem, Canaan Valley, and Twin Falls. Federal funds paid for improvements at Hawk’s Nest. In-state, the State Temporary Economic Program (STEP) program hired unemployed individuals to work in the park system. These workers made many improvements at the parks, as well as building new facilities that were designed to complement the New Deal-era construction. In some instances, differences between 1960s and New Deal resources can be difficult to discern (Gioulis 2008:11).

By 1970, the Division of Parks and Recreation was under the management of the West Virginia Department of Natural Resources. The nine state forests were transferred from the Division of Forestry to the Division of Parks and Recreation, along with the state’s public hunting and fishing areas. The late 1970s saw many capital improvements in the parks and forests, including road upgrades and paving, sewer systems installed or upgraded, and new facilities constructed. At the same time, the state legislature enacted legislation prohibiting further expansion of the park system without its express authorization. This requirement was intended to alleviate concerns that the state could not support further expansion of the park system without unduly burdening its fiscal resources. Exempted from the legislation were Beech Fork State Park and Stonewall Jackson State Park, both being developed at that time in cooperation with the U.S. Army Corps of Engineers. Since the late 1970s, minor expansions of services have occurred and the park system has become approximately 65 percent self-supporting. On July 1, 1985, the legislature created the West Virginia Department of Commerce and transferred the Division of Parks and Recreation to this department (Gioulis 2008:11).

West Virginia’s state parks and forests owe their existence to more than federal and state government intervention. Over the years, various private individuals, organizations, and industries also have supported the park system. Many state parks and forests today benefit from “friends of the parks” organizations and the creation of park foundations starting in 1986. These groups are responsible for many recent improvements and additional facilities in the parks and forests, including handicapped accessible trails, renovation and relocation of historic structures, and construction of new picnic shelters, benches, and other amenities. For the most part, these groups have endeavored to construct resources that complement the New Deal-era historic resources, albeit while meeting current needs and functions (Gioulis 2008:11).

A total of sixteen state parks and forests are included in this MPD. Each also was discussed in the *New Deal Historic Resource Survey* by Michael Gioulis Historic Preservation Consultant in 2007-2008, and by Milton Harr in *The C.C.C. Camps in West Virginia* (1992).

Babcock State Park is located in south central Fayette County adjacent to the New River Gorge National River and directly west of the town of Clifftop. The park encompasses 4,127 acres of forested, mountainous terrain. Two large creeks run through the park: Glade Creek and Mann’s Creek. The highest elevation in the park is about 2,700 feet and the lowest is at the town of Sewell at about 900 feet. A total of 46 New Deal-era architectural resources have been documented within the park’s boundaries. They include a native sandstone administration building, riding stable, supply house, dam, and rental cabins (Gioulis 2008:32).

Land within the park’s original boundaries had been subjected to coal mining and timbering since the late nineteenth century. By the early 1930s, these practices, along with forest fires and drought, had caused extensive damage to the landscape. West Virginia purchased 3,000 acres of land from E.V. Babcock, President of the

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Babcock Coal and Coke Company, for development as a state park. The land purchase coincided with passage of the landmark ECW legislation. CCC Company 1522 established Camp Beaver on May 14, 1934, alongside State Route 11 across from a park campground. It operated until August 14, 1937. Located on the present-day park campground, Camp Lee was occupied by CCC Company 532 on July 10, 1935, and remained active until late 1941 or early 1942. Both camps were instrumental in the development of Babcock State Park and Hawk’s Nest State Park (Harr 1992:31, 33; Gioulis 2008:34).

Cabwaylingo State Forest is located in the southern half of Wayne County, 45 miles south of Huntington. The park encompasses 8,123 acres of heavily forested, mountainous terrain. New Deal-era resources within Cabwaylingo were constructed from 1935 through 1939. A total of 116 New Deal-era architectural resources have been documented within the park’s boundaries. They include a bath house, swimming pool, fire tower, superintendent’s residence, and numerous picnic areas with shelters, fireplaces, and water fountains (Gioulis 2008:55).

Initial land acquisition for the forest’s creation took place in 1933 with a parcel of 6,196 acres. Additional purchases in 1935 and later have brought the forest up to its current acreage (Gioulis 2008:56). Near the mouth of Sweetwater Branch in Wayne County, CCC Company 3532 established Camp Anthony Wayne on July 4, 1935. On October 20, 1938, Company 3532 gave way to Company 1558V, made up of World War I veterans; this company remained until the camp closed on April 11, 1939. Camp Twelvepole, located just across the county line in Mingo County, was occupied July 13, 1935, by CCC Company 3540. Although originally intended to work on private forest land, it was reassigned to Cabwaylingo State Forest. The company abandoned Camp Twelvepole on April 5, 1937 (Harr 1992:20, 25). The CCC’s earliest projects focused on timber stand improvement, game refuge development, construction of a fire tower on top of Tick Ridge, installation of miles of telephone lines, and construction of ranger stations and numerous hiking and truck trails. CCC enrollees also constructed recreational amenities such as picnic shelters, trails, rental cabins, and foot bridges (Gioulis 2008:56-57).

Cacapon Resort State Park is located in the south-central portion of Morgan County along the spine of Cacapon Mountain. Known as the “Emerald of the Eastern Panhandle,” it encompasses 6,000 acres that stretch from the Virginia border to within five miles of the Potomac River and West Virginia’s northern border with Maryland. Cacapon Mountain has an elevation of 2,300 feet and the park is oriented along its length, north to south. The resources within the park date to three major time periods: the New Deal era in the 1930s when the park was first established and opened; the 1950s; and the early 1970s. A total of 50 New Deal-era architectural resources have been documented within the park’s boundaries. They include the original 12-room inn, dams and a lake, playgrounds, game courts, rental cabins, picnic shelters, a riding stable, maintenance and office buildings, and staff residences (Gioulis 2008:89).

As with other state parks in West Virginia, Cacapon was created during the Great Depression from land that had been devastated by clear-cutting forests and poor agricultural practices. Because the land was considered worthless, the State was able to purchase it cheaply around 1933 (Gioulis 2008:90). CCC Company 1523 opened Camp Morgan on October 4, 1934, in what became the main picnic area of Cacapon State Park. This company had been transferred from Camp Little Fork in Sugar Grove, West Virginia. The camp is believed to have been abandoned during the fall of 1941 (Harr 1992:32).

Cooper’s Rock State Forest is located in the northeastern corner of Monongalia County and the northwestern corner of Preston County, with the Pennsylvania border to the north and Morgantown 13 miles to the west. The

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forest contains 12,713 acres, making it the largest state forest in West Virginia. Interstate 68 bisects the forest. The majority of the park’s New Deal resources are located in the Overlook area on County Route 73-16. A total of 18 New Deal-era architectural resources have been documented within the park’s boundaries. They include roads, trails, fireplaces, picnic shelters, and staff residences. Fifteen of the resources are located in Monongalia County and three are in Preston County (Gioulis 2008:119).

The Lake Lynn Lumber and Supply Company purchased vast acreage in the Cheat River area, including the land that became Cooper’s Rock. The firm clear cut the timber resources using the poor natural resource management practices typical of the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries. The West Virginia Conservation Commission began lobbying the State legislature to purchase a 13,000-acre tract on the east side of Cheat River in 1927 for development as a state forest and game preserve. They were finally successful on March 9, 1936 (Gioulis 2008:120). To create the newly designated Cooper’s Rock State Forest, CCC Company 3527 established Camp Rhododendron on March 13, 1937, near Cheat Lake on West Virginia Route 857. The CCC enrollees in the camp transferred from Camp Preston in Kingwood. This camp closed sometime during the first half of 1942 (Harr 1992:27-28).

Droop Mountain Battlefield State Park is located in the south-central section of Pocahontas County, just south of Hillsboro on US Route 219 in the southern Potomac Highlands. The park contains 267 acres and its highest elevation is 3,050 feet, where the park office is situated. The resources within the park relate to the last significant Civil War battle fought in West Virginia and also to the New Deal era. A total of 19 New Deal-era architectural resources have been documented within the park’s boundaries. They include a tool shed, blacksmith shop, welcome booth, pump house and picnic shelter (Gioulis 2008:134).

John D. Sutton, who participated in the Droop Mountain battle as a Union army private, played an instrumental role in memorializing the event. In 1927, as a member of the House of Delegates, he persuaded the legislature to adopt a resolution to study and purchase the appropriate land associated with the battle. The park was dedicated on July 4, 1928, when it mainly consisted of the undeveloped mountain top and meadows. It was only with the establishment of CCC camps in West Virginia that visitor amenities were constructed for the park (Gioulis 2008:135). CCC Company 2598 opened Camp Price on July 29, 1935, on the site of what became the park headquarters and service area. The 23 original enrollees in the camp came from Camp Seneca. Camp Price was abandoned on October 4, 1937 (Harr 1992:24).

Greenbrier State Forest is located in southeastern Greenbrier County, near the Virginia border and southeast of Caldwell, West Virginia. The forest consists of 5,100 acres of forested and mountainous terrain. It is bisected by Kate’s Mountain, which has an elevation of 3,172 feet. The bulk of the forest’s New Deal-era resources are located along County Route 60/14 at the western edge of the forest. County Route 60/32 climbs to the top of Kate’s Mountain and has several overlooks and one picnic area. A total of 22 New Deal-era architectural resources have been documented within the park’s boundaries. They include a blacksmith shop, forestry office, bridge, rental cabins, staff residences, and fireplaces. The picnic area’s original shelter was destroyed by fire in mid-2008 (Gioulis 2008:148).

As with many parts of West Virginia, land within the Greenbrier State Forest historically was subjected to exploitation. Early settlers in the area used repeated burnings to help clear the land for agriculture and livestock grazing. Later fires were started by sparks from trains attempting to slow down on steep grades. Extensive timbering took place during the late nineteenth and early twentieth century. The White Sulphur Springs Park Association, a local organization, acquired the deteriorated land for creating a park in the area. In 1938, the State

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purchased this land for us as a state forest (Gioulis 2008:149). CCC Company 549 established Camp White Sulphur (also known as Camp White Sulphur Springs) near the site later used for the forest headquarters and a swimming pool. It remained in operation until late 1937. CCC Company 1537 occupied the camp from June 1, 1938, until the fall or early winter of 1940 (Harr 1992:23-24).

Hawk’s Nest State Park is located in central Fayette County, southwest of Anstead. The 838-acre park overlooks the New River at the point where the river turns to the south. The recreational amenities are concentrated at a picnic area overlooking Hawk’s Nest Lake and along US 60 with the historic Midland Trail, a guest lodge built in 1967, and the New Deal-era resources. A total of 10 New Deal-era architectural resources have been documented within the park’s boundaries. They include trails, fireplaces, water fountains, a staff residence with an attached museum and observatory, and a picnic shelter (Gioulis 2008:168).

Coal mining in the Hawk’s Nest area began during the late nineteenth century. Hawk’s Nest also was an early tourist destination with the Gauley Mountain House operating from 1870 until 1902, when fire destroyed the building. A resort, complete with a zoo, lookout tower, hotel, café, gas station, and living quarters, was located along Route 60 prior to 1935. Hawk’s Nest State Park was first opened in 1935 when West Virginia purchased 31 acres. The boundaries were later expanded to 276 acres and now encompass 838 acres. Other features within the park’s boundaries, the Hawk’s Nest Tunnel and a ca. 1934 dam and lake, were constructed as part of a hydroelectric project for Union Carbide Corporation. These are directly associated with the Hawk’s Nest Tragedy, when hundreds of workers who built the tunnel contracted silicosis due to unsafe working conditions, making it one of the worst industrial disasters in American history. The CCC operated two camps at Hawk’s Nest Lake; both of these also were instrumental in developing Babcock State Park (see above). The planning for Hawk’s Nest was done by the NPS, as is true for almost all of the state parks, and was under the supervision of Bunker Hill and John Garrett (Gioulis 2008:169-170).

Holly River State Park is located in the northeastern corner of Webster County, at the junction of Randolph County to the east and Upshur County to the north. The park encompasses 8,101 acres, with the highest elevation at 3,000 feet and the lowest at 1,600 feet. The core of the park is located along the Laurel Fork of the Holly River. Holly River initially was designated a national park, but its management was turned over to the West Virginia Conservation Commission in 1938. The following year, the Federal government leased the park to West Virginia and, in 1954, transferred the park to state ownership for one dollar. A total of 26 New Deal-era architectural resources have been documented within the park’s boundaries. They include entrance and area signage, an office and restaurant, swimming pool, bath house, water filtration plant, and stone work such as retaining walls, steps, and a planter (Gioulis 2008:184, 186).

The northeastern portion of Webster County was subjected to widespread timbering during the late nineteenth and early twentieth century. The sparse population largely consisted of subsistence farmers. By 1935, economic conditions in the area had become unsustainable, and the area that Holly River State Park now occupies was targeted for “resettlement.” Under the direction of the U.S. Department of Agriculture’s Farm Security Administration, 13 farm families were relocated and the private lands were purchased by the federal government. The subsequent Kanawha Head Project focused on land improvements, including soil erosion control, stream reclamation, game restocking, reforestation, and creation of a recreational area. New Deal-era construction work within the park was undertaken by WPA workers between 1936 and 1938. At the peak of operations, 250 WPA workers participated in projects within the park’s boundaries (Gioulis 2008:185-186).

Kanawha State Forest is located in south-central Kanawha County at the head of Davis Creek, about seven miles

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south of Charleston. The forest contains approximately 9,300 acres, and its highest elevation is at 1,500 feet. The main hollows, which have year-round streams and empty into Davis Creek, are Dunlop, Polly, Shrewsbury, Rattlesnake, Hoffman, and Middle Lock Fork. The park’s New Deal-era resources are along County Route 42, the main road through the forest. A total of 18 New Deal-era architectural resources have been documented within the park’s boundaries. They include a ca. 1900 mine portal and slag heap that were stabilized by CCC workers for interpretive exhibits, a 1½ acre pond with dam, a reservoir, a powder house, a comfort station, and foot bridges (Gioulis 2008:199).

Starting in the late nineteenth century, the area within the forest was the original site for several coal mines, including one owned by Anheuser-Busch, and logging companies. Quince Jones bought the majority of the land in 1923 and did extensive timbering and operated a coal mine in Shrewsbury Hollow. Jones died in 1933 and the land went to the Kanawha Valley Bank. The federal government initially leased land from the Jones estate, and then West Virginia purchased 6,705 acres in January 1938 for use as a state forest (Gioulis 2008:200). CCC Company established Camp Kanawha at the later site of a swimming pool in the park on April 7, 1938. On March 12, 1942, this company was replaced by Company 1547V, a veterans company that had come from Camp Stonewall Jackson. On June 15, Company 1547V was succeeded by Company 3538C, the designation of which denotes it as a company of African American enrollees. This company had come from Camp Carver and remained at Camp Kanawha until the conclusion of the CCC program (Harr 1992:28).

Kumbrabow State Forest is located in the southwestern corner of Randolph County, with Webster County to the west and Upshur County to the north. The forest contains 9,474 acres and its highest elevation is at 3,855 feet at Buck Knob. Located along County Routes 219/16 and 219/26, a total of 26 New Deal-era resources have been documented within the forest’s boundaries. They include bridges, culvert heads, rental cabins with wood sheds, and a CCC camp site with foundations (Gioulis 2008:214).

Using New Deal programs meant to develop state parks and forests with federal funds, West Virginia’s Governor H. Guy Kump, Spates Brady, and Hubert Bowers oversaw purchase of land for a state forest from the Midland Corporation on December 29, 1934. Using the first three letters of each last name, Kumbrabow is named for the three men. Two CCC companies undertook construction work at Kumbrabow State Forest. CCC Company 2594 occupied Camp Bowers on July 1, 1935, at the head of Mill Creek in Randolph County. This camp closed in the fall of 1941. CCC Company 3520 opened Camp Randolph near Elkwater on July 15, 1935. It was abandoned on October 4, 1937 (Harr 1992:21, 26).

Lost River State Park is located in the southeast section of Hardy County in West Virginia’s Eastern Panhandle, ten miles north of the Virginia state line. The park encompasses 3,712 acres of wooded mountain terrain. The resources within Lost River range from an 1840 mountain farm cabin to recently built rental cabins. A total of 78 New Deal-era resources have been documented within the forest’s boundaries. Ira Kuhn of the NPS oversaw the start of construction of rental cabins, an office, and the superintendent’s residence. In 1935, the fire tower was rebuilt. By 1940, a restaurant, swimming pool, riding stables, and picnic shelters were completed, and CCC workers also finished rehabilitating two nineteenth century settlers’ log houses (Gioulis 2008:229-230).

The land within Lost River once was part of a 17,000-acre tract owned by Henry “Light Horse Harry” Lee. In 1852, Charles Carter Lee established the Hardy White Sulphur Springs resort at the site of a sulphur spring on the property. He sold the spring and 500 acres of land to his son, George Lee, before his own death in 1871. The land and a variety of improvements passed through a succession of owners until 1934, when H. Riley Heishman sold it to the West Virginia Conservation Commission for a state park (Gioulis 2008:230-231). CCC Company 1524

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occupied Camp Hardy on Howard’s Lick Run near the park’s entrance on May 15, 1934. This company had been transferred from Camp Leadmine in Tucker County. The camp is believed to have been abandoned in late 1940 (Harr 1992:31).

Panther State Forest (also known as Panther Wildlife Management Area [WMA]) is located in the southwestern corner of McDowell County. Although originally designated as a state forest, it now is maintained as a WMA. It consists of 7,810 acres of second-growth forest, as well as Panther Creek and its numerous branches. Located north-south along Panther Creek is a fire lookout tower with an adjacent cabin and privy (Gioulis 2008:265). The buildings appear to date from the 1960s STEP program rather than the New Deal period. Further research is needed to establish the respective construction and alteration dates for the three resources (Beanblossom 2010).

The forest itself is directly the result of the CCC’s efforts. As with much of West Virginia, this area had witnessed extensive timbering and coal mining, rendering much of it vulnerable to destructive fires. While still privately owned, West Virginia used the site for a pilot fire protection/suppression program. In 1940, West Virginia purchased 4,877 acres to create Panther State Forest (later designated as a WMA). Four CCC camps operated in the area between 1935 and 1942. Their principal projects focused on fire protection/suppression in reforested areas and some road building. Camp Panther opened in April 1935 and was occupied by CCC Company 3534. Their only major project was construction of a road, which was not completed by the time the camp was abandoned in October 1935. Camp McDowell, established by CCC Company 3543, opened on July 25, 1935, and was located at the mouth of Trace Fork. Enrollees in this camp focused their efforts on forest fire protection. This camp was abandoned on May 31, 1937, and the buildings associated with the camp were removed (Harr 1992:22-23). On November 8, 1941, CCC Company 3538C occupied Camp Carver on the same site where the earlier Camp McDowell had been located. Because the earlier camp’s buildings no longer were extant, new, portable buildings were erected for Camp Carver during 1941. The African American company had moved here from Camp War in McDowell County when that camp was discontinued. Camp Carver remained in use until June 19, 1942, when the enrollees transferred to Camp Kanawha near Charleston. The portable camp buildings that had been constructed at Camp Carver reportedly were shipped to the South Pacific for military use (Harr 1992:28-29).

Pinnacle Rock State Park is located in the southern end of Mercer County, northwest of Bluefield. The roadside park encompasses approximately 400 acres. Pinnacle Rock itself is a 3,100-foot tall cockscomb sandstone formation located along U.S. Route 52; there are two other rock formations associated with the park, Black Rock and Turkey Rock. Turkey Rock is located southwest of Pinnacle Rock and Black Rock is northeast of Pinnacle Rock, on the other side of US Route 52. A total of 18 New Deal-era architectural resources have been documented within the park’s boundaries. They include entrance and exit signs, a horseshoe pit, picnic shelter, fireplaces, and water fountains (Gioulis 2008:274).

The park had its beginnings in December 1938, when the West Virginia Conservation Commission purchased a 26-acre parcel that surrounded Pinnacle Rock. President Roosevelt approved funding in the amount of \$13,922 for WPA labor to develop the park, while the Conservation Commission approved \$3,000.00 for materials and supplies. Additional land purchases were made in 1941, 1964, 1967, 1989, 1990, and 1992 to bring the park to its current size. As with Holly River State Park, Pinnacle Rock was developed and completed by WPA labor (Gioulis 2008:275).

Seneca State Forest is located in central Pocahontas County, east of the Greenbrier River and just south of Cass. The forest contains approximately 11,864 acres, making it West Virginia’s second largest state forest. The

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highest elevation is at 3,380 feet atop Thomas Mountain. The forest contains Seneca Lake, which was created by a dam on Little Thorny Creek and attracts many day-use fishermen. A section of the Allegheny Trail is also included within the forest. A total of 15 New Deal-era architectural resources have been documented within the forest’s boundaries. In addition to the dam and lake, they include rental cabins, a trail shelter, fire tower, and picnic shelter. The New Deal-era resources are located along the roads and trails within the forest itself and the main road through the forest is known as Cabin Road (Gioulis 2008:285).

As with other areas in West Virginia, the location of present-day Seneca State Forest had been subjected to logging during the late nineteenth and early twentieth century. It was known as the McCutcheon Tract and was timbered by the St. Lawrence Boom and Manufacturing Company through a contract with Captain A.E. Smith. The tract was full of virgin white pine and Smith established a railroad to transport the timber to waterways. Logging continued until the early 1920s when the industry began its decline. In 1924, West Virginia purchased the tract and adjacent cut over land, a total of 10,487 acres, to establish its first state forest. Later purchases brought Seneca’s acreage up to 11,864, making it West Virginia’s second largest state forest. The state’s Game and Fish Commission first managed the forest. Their primary goals were reforestation and creating wildlife preserves (Gioulis 2008:286). During the early 1930s, the CCC began working on improvements within the forest. CCC Company 1537 established Camp Seneca on June 22, 1933, as a tent camp; a campsite later was built east of Route 28 opposite the forest headquarters. The camp was abandoned on May 31, 1938, and Company 1537 relocated to Camp White Sulphur at Greenbrier State Forest (Harr 1992:16).

Tomlinson Run State Park is located in the extreme tip of West Virginia’s northern panhandle in Hancock County. The park encompasses 1,398 acres and runs along Tomlinson Run, named for a family of early settlers. The park is divided into two sections: the wilderness section which contains heavily forested hills and cliffs of sandstone and shale; and a developed section with a variety of recreational amenities. The park is primarily a day park used primarily by the population in the immediately surrounding area. A total of 19 New Deal-era architectural resources have been documented within the park’s boundaries. They include a dam and lake, caretaker’s cottage, blacksmith shop, trails, picnic shelters, and culvert heads (Gioulis 2008:301).

Tomlinson Run owes its existence to Walter C. Gumble, a Hancock County Agricultural Agent. In 1935, he approached the Hancock County Court with a request to purchase two parcels totaling 140 acres. The Court approved the purchases and suggested that Gumble contact the CCC about contributing to the park’s development. As Gumble began purchasing additional land to reach the minimum required size of 500 acres, NPS and West Virginia Conservation Commission representatives committed to developing the park. Title to the land was turned over to the Conservation Commission and work began (Gioulis 2008:302). A state park camp, SP-9, was authorized for Tomlinson Run, but by some reports it was neither funded nor built. Researcher Perry Merrill stated that a camp was built here in 1941 but never occupied. Although it appears that SP-9 never functioned as full service CCC camp, the CCC took part in Tomlinson Run’s development (Harr 1992:34). Enrollees at Camp Marshall, near Moundville in Marshall County, maintained a side camp at Tomlinson Run to furnish labor for work in the park (Harr 1992:34). Camp Marshall was among the twelve West Virginia CCC camps authorized for the Soil Conservation Service (SCS). Its main responsibilities were flood prevention, drainage, and watershed protection (Gioulis 2008:302-303; Harr 1992:35).

Watoga State Park is located in southeastern Pocahontas County, east of the Greenbrier River, Seebert, and Hillsboro. Containing approximately 10,100 acres, Watoga is the largest of West Virginia’s state parks. The highest elevation is at 3,211 feet and the lowest is 2,000 feet. A section of the Allegheny Trail is within the park and joins with a section of the trail in Seneca State Forest. A total of 72 New Deal-era architectural resources

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have been documented within the park’s boundaries. They include the 400-acre Fred E. Brooks Memorial Arboretum, created in honor of Brooks, a noted West Virginia naturalist who died in 1933. The Arboretum’s construction began ca. 1935 and a dedication was held in 1938. Other New Deal-era resources within the park range from a fire tower, office and restaurant, and bridges to settlement-period cabins that were preserved and rehabilitated by CCC workers (Gioulis 2008:312).

Watoga State Park was initially intended to be a state forest when the WV Game and Fish Commission purchased 4,546 acres in southern Pocahontas County in January 1925. The land was planned to be used for a wildlife preserve and timber production. Fighting forest fires also was a top priority. A ranger was hired to patrol the area in 1925 and the next year, a fire tower and telephone lines were added. Little additional development took place until the early 1930s when several CCC camps undertook projects (Gioulis 2008:313). CCC Company 1525 occupied Camp Watoga on June 18, 1933. The camp stood in what is now the maintenance area of the state park. Camp Watoga originally operated as a state forest camp, but became a state park camp after Watoga became a state park in August 1934. The camp closed on July 13, 1942. Enrollees in Camp Seebert also participated in construction projects at Watoga State Park. It was occupied October 3, 1934, by CCC Company 1535, and closed on March 5, 1937. Camp Will Rogers opened on July 16, 1935, with CCC Company 3537. It closed in October 1937 due to a nationwide reduction in CCC programs and its uncompleted projects became the responsibility of Camp Watoga (Harr 1992:16, 30, 32-33).

Historic Context:
New Deal Federal Relief Programs in West Virginia State Parks and Forests, 1933-1942

The origins of New Deal architecture in West Virginia’s state parks and forests lie in the federal relief programs implemented by President Franklin D. Roosevelt as part of the New Deal. These initiatives were designed to address the catastrophic economic conditions faced by the United States during the Great Depression. In 1933, more than 25 percent of the American workforce faced unemployment. In West Virginia, the coal industry alone lost more than thirty thousand jobs and more than 100 banks collapsed. Farmers suffered not only from a collapse in farm prices but also severe droughts in 1930 and 1932 as well as flooding along the Kanawha River in July 1932. The 1930 drought led to thousands of forest fires that resulted in losses to 350,000 acres of woodlands (Thomas 1998:27, 31).

Lack of job opportunities struck particularly at young workers between fifteen and twenty-four years, of whom 25 percent were unemployed and another 29 percent had only part-time work (Salmond 1967:3; O’Bannon and Henry 1986:8/2). Furthermore, the New Deal coupled work relief programs with addressing public needs by focusing on infrastructure projects. The breadth and scale of New Deal public works both modernized the country and remedied some environmental crises through huge investments in transportation, education, power generation, and conservation projects.

By the 1930s, the ill effects of environmental degradation had been widely recognized. Only 100 million acres of virgin timber remained in the United States in 1933, a fraction of the more than 800 million acres that once had existed. Erosion brought on by this deforestation resulted in the loss of three billion tons of soil each year. Overgrazing, lack of crop rotation, clear-cutting timber, and harsh mining practices further contributed to environmental woes (Salmond 1967:4; O’Bannon and Henry 1986:8/2; West 2001:13). The aforementioned Weeks Act, passed by Congress in 1911, represented one of the first attempts to address the situation. Roosevelt used the Great Depression’s exigencies to create much more extensive conservation programs.

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In March 1933, Roosevelt sent legislation to Congress that proposed to employ the jobless in public work. He also called for the creation of a “Civilian Conservation Corps” that would focus its efforts on forestry, soil erosion prevention, flood control, and similar projects. In addition to addressing environmental damage, the notion had the advantage of being quickly deployable. If his legislation were passed within two weeks, Roosevelt estimated as many as 250,000 men could be usefully employed in such work by early summer (Cohen 1980:6; O’Bannon and Henry 1986:8/2). Furthermore, the CCC could be used to create publicly accessible venues for tourism and recreation; both of these came to figure prominently in West Virginia’s economy in subsequent decades (West 2001:11).

On March 31, 1933, Congress obliged with passage of the Act for the Relief of Unemployment through the Performance of Useful Public Work. The legislation created the Emergency Conservation Work (ECW) agency, precursor to what became the Civilian Conservation Corps (CCC). The bill authorized employment of 275,000 enrollees in 1,300 camps throughout the country (O’Bannon and Henry 1986:8/3; Sypolt n.d.:1). Robert Fechner, a labor leader, served as the agency’s first director. Fechner and Roosevelt met with the heads of the Departments of War, Labor, Interior, and Agriculture to organize the new agency. Each department assumed responsibility for specific tasks. The Department of Labor selected the recruits for the work projects. The War Department, through the Army, provided recruits with training, conditioning, and transportation to the work camps. The NPS, within the Department of Interior, and the Forest Service, within the Department of Agriculture, supervised the work projects, while the Army operated the camps (Harr 1992:v; O’Bannon and Henry 1986:8/3; Denny 1994). From 1933 to 1935, the Soil Erosion Service within the Department of Interior supervised conservation and reclamation projects, while after 1935, directing these projects became the responsibility of the Soil Conservation Service in the Department of Agriculture (West 2001:13). The states submitted work programs and acted as procurement agents. Within 37 days of passing the ECW, 250,000 young men between the ages of eighteen and twenty-five had been placed in CCC camps, making the CCC one of the largest peacetime mobilizations in history (Denny 1994).

The country was divided into nine Corps Areas for the administration of the program. These nine areas followed the boundaries of the already-established nine U.S. Army Corps areas throughout the United States. West Virginia was part of the Fifth Corps area, which also included Indiana, Ohio, and Kentucky. In all of the corps areas, each state was divided into districts and sectors for administrative purposes. There was a commanding officer at each level from the corps area to the camp level (Sypolt n.d.:1).

Each camp received a designation according to the organization that governed the work done at that camp. For example, if the work projects were to be done in a national forest the camp had a prefix letter of “F” and a number designation that showed its location. Each company also received a company number of either three or four numbers. The third number from the right indicated the Corps area from which the company originated (Sypolt n.d.:2).

The CCC’s first camp opened in George Washington National Forest near Luray, Virginia, in April 1933. A typical CCC camp consisted of about a dozen wooden buildings: mess hall, four barracks with capacity for 50 men, officer's quarters, garages, tool houses, supply building, and bath houses. Although every state had camps, their number depended upon various factors, including the amount of enrollees and of readily available projects (Harr 1992:v; West Virginia State CCC Museum Association 2009). More than 55,000 West Virginia men were enrolled in the CCC and the state eventually had a total of 67 camps; some of these camps were operated by more than one agency. Five different agencies sponsored West Virginia’s camps, with the U.S. Forest Service (USFS) responsible for 22 and the Division of Forestry of the Conservation Commission responsible for 26. The U.S.

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Soil Conservation service sponsored 11 camps, while the Division of State Parks of the Conservation Commission operated 8 camps. Finally, the U.S. Army Corps of Engineers had a single camp at Bluestone Reservoir (Harr 1992:vii). Each camp received a designation that denoted its sponsoring agency and its rank, in order, of camps sponsored by that agency. CCC enrollees also gave their respective camps unofficial names (Harr 1992:2).

Minimal requirements for joining the CCC were to be single and unemployed; around 1937, married men also began to be permitted to join. Enrollees also were intended to be between the ages of 18 and 25 years old (Harr 1992:vii, 2; Gioulis 2008:7-8). An exception to the age requirement for enrollees came with the establishment of CCC camps for World War I veterans. This provision likely came about as a result of one of the most notorious events of the Great Depression. The Bonus Army marched on Washington, D.C., in 1932 during the final months of President Herbert Hoover’s administration. Comprised of World War I veterans, the Bonus Army sought immediate payment of a case bonus authorized by Congress in 1924, but with payment set to take place in 1945. Given the dire economic straits brought on by the Depression, the marchers felt immediate payment was warranted. Although defeated in their quest, the subsequent Roosevelt administration included provisions to allow World War I veterans to serve in a limited number of CCC companies. Such companies were distinguished by their numbers, which ended in a V. West Virginia’s veterans’ companies were 1547V and 1558V. Company 1547V worked at Kanawha State Forest, while Company 1558V was at Cabwaylingo State Forest (Harr 1992:2, 25, 28).

Once selected, the new enrollees went to a conditioning camp for two weeks, where they were given physical examinations and became physically fit for the work that was ahead of them. The conditioning camps were held at army posts around the country. Before leaving the camps, the men were assigned to companies of two hundred men. A cadre that included a commanding officer, junior officer, and medical officer oversaw each company. Some military enlisted personnel were assigned to each unit to help with the new camp construction, provisions, and logistical support (Sypolt n.d.:1).

The men were generally paid \$25.00 a month, of which \$20.00 was sent to their families and \$5.00 reserved for each man for his own use. The pay grade sometimes increased to \$45.00 each month depending on the job. By the mid-1930s, \$160 billion of CCC enrollees’ cash allowances had been allotted to their families. More than four million people directly benefited from the CCC monthly checks (Smith n.d.). The economic impact of the CCC camps spread to surrounding communities, where the monthly infusion of money reached as much as \$5,000 (CCC Legacy 2009). In addition to pay, the enrollees received food, shelter, clothing, and medical and dental care (Thomas 1998:197).

In March 1934, President Roosevelt decided to include education as one of the objectives of the CCC. Qualified male teachers were selected and sent to each camp as educational advisors to the Army personnel and to the superintendent of the work projects. Although limited at first, camp programs were established that eventually developed into practical educational activities. By early 1935, the CCC had created a comprehensive national curriculum. The program provided enlistees with classes in subjects as diverse as auto mechanics, forestry, English, psychology, and journalism (Smith n.d.; Anderson et al. 2003; Anonymous 2008:7; Stone 2009). Basic education classes taught many enrollees reading, writing, and math skills. Eighth-grade diplomas could be obtained by enrollees doing required amounts of work in the camps; high school centers allowed credits to be earned, and correspondence courses were available to all enrolled personnel (Smith n.d.; West 2001:14). Local experienced men (LEMs) often were hired to teach the enrollees trades and skills, such as carpentry, plumbing, electrical wiring, road construction, and surveying (Smith n.d.).

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Additionally, CCC enrollees learned agricultural and conservation skills in the camps. In keeping with the program’s conservation mission, one of the CCC’s educational objectives was to instill “a deeper consciousness of the importance of conserving the nation’s resources” (Anderson et al. 2003). Along with forestry and construction, they developed woodworking, surveying, and other marketable skills. The federal government set up a national employment plan to place camp alumni who qualified by virtue of their CCC experience (Smith n.d.).

The CCC operated for nine years. During this period, over 2.5 million men accomplished an immense array of projects that created a lasting legacy of great importance in American history. In total, the CCC is estimated to have altered more than 118 million acres of land. As CCC Director Robert Fechner explained in 1939, the CCC “constructively altered the landscape of the United States” (Anderson et al. 2003). Their list of achievements included developing 52,000 acres of public campgrounds, laying 89,000 miles of telephone lines, planting almost 3 billion trees, draining 248,000 acres of swamps, replanting 814,000 acres of grazing land, restocking 972 million fish, protecting 154 million square yards of banks and 40 million acres of farmland from erosion, building 125,000 miles of road and 13,100 miles of trails, increasing publicly owned forests by 28 million acres, and creating 52,000 acres of campgrounds. CCC enrollees also worked on projects at 800 state parks, many of which were established during the 1930s, as well as at national parks and forests. They renovated nearly 4,000 historic buildings and built more than 10,000 small reservoirs and 46,000 vehicular bridges. The fire-fighting techniques developed with CCC labor informed wildfire prevention methods for years to come. CCC-constructed fish hatcheries helped to replenish populations of fish species that had been depleted by poor environmental practices. Wildlife was reintroduced in areas that previously had been denuded of vegetation or suffered high degrees of damage. In all, the projects directly employed or economically benefitted over 17 million people, created some \$2 billion (in 1942 dollars) worth of infrastructure, and provided 7.135 million days of environmental conservation labor (Anonymous 2008:4; CCC Legacy 2009; James F. Justin CCC Museum 2009; Anderson et al. 2003).

In West Virginia, the CCC enrollees developed more than 30 state and national parks and parkways, as well as game preserves. They built bridges, cabins, picnic shelters, lodges, park furniture, lakes, ponds, and swimming pools. They also fought more than 10,000 forest fires and developed soil erosion control practices with thousands of farmers across the state. Indeed, the gully restoration work carried out by the CCC, as well as soil erosion and soil conservation projects, ranked among the few New Deal initiatives that aided small and low-income farmers, as most programs of the period focused on the needs of large commercial farmers (West Virginia State CCC Museum Association 2009; Thomas 1998:197-198, 238). By 1941, more than 44,000 West Virginians had served in the CCC and approximately 60 camps had been set up within the state’s borders (Thomas 1998:198).

According to former U.S. Congressman and West Virginia Secretary of State Ken Hechler, the work relief program had multiple consequences for West Virginia that continued to resonate for decades afterward:

The Civilian Conservation Corps was, really, the most exciting thing that FDR started... Some 50,000 West Virginians took part in this great program which built all of our present State Parks, which developed such a camaraderie among the CCC’ers.

I have been to lots of reunions of CCC’ers that [*sic*] talk with such wonderful nostalgia back on the period when they were able ... to do a constructive program where they were building trails, planting trees, building firebreaks, cabins, and improving things that, today, in West Virginia we’re very proud of. They are still in existence from this program that started sixty years ago. It’s certainly one of the most exciting parts of the whole New Deal and one that was highly

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successful, not only in the lives of the individuals, but also in the permanent improvements here in West Virginia (Hechler 1993).

The WPA was another important work relief program that created a lasting impact. Established in May 1935 and headed by Roosevelt’s appointee Harry L. Hopkins, the WPA employed over 8 million workers nationally between 1935 and 1943. In general, the WPA built and improved city and county infrastructure, including roads, sewer systems, bridges, and public buildings such as schools and government offices. The WPA also provided workers for the building projects of other federal agencies. In addition to construction projects, the WPA became known for many arts, drama, media, and literacy projects. The agency’s Federal Writer’s Project, photography highlighting the effects of the Great Depression in Appalachia, post office murals, and other arts programs were evident in West Virginia. Gardening and canning projects provided food for school lunch programs as well (West 2001:19-21; Gioulis 2008:8).

Unlike the conservation-oriented CCC, the WPA’s primary purpose simply was to provide employment to workers. The agency’s administrators sought to maximize funds available to pay wages by seeking local sponsors to provide materials and funding for individual projects; nationally, approximately 17 percent of project costs were paid by local sponsors (West 2001:19). With its goal of maximizing employment, the WPA did not have stringent eligibility requirements as the CCC did. Both men and women in need of work were eligible to participate. WPA workers, for the most part, worked locally and typically stayed in their own homes rather than travelling to distant camps. The program emphasized teaching new skills to workers, who were only supposed to work for 30 hours a week. The rate of pay ranged from \$19.00 to \$94.00 each month, depending on region, skill, and the degree of urbanization, with the goal being to pay local prevailing wages. Although well below union pay rates, the wage rate generally averaged twice the level of welfare payments and was known as a “security wage” (Gioulis 2008:9; Digital History 2006).

In December 1935, the NPS assumed responsibility for technical supervision of 41 WPA work camps operating in state, county, and municipal parks. The NPS’s involvement came at the request of state, county, and municipal sponsors who saw the program as an extension of the CCC’s work to conserve natural resources and develop public recreational areas. As a result, state park inspectors and NPS staff reviewed applications, commented on construction designs, and supervised progress in conjunction with their review of CCC work. WPA projects in parks and recreation areas thus adhered to the same basic design principles that guided emergency conservation work and public works construction (McClelland 1993).

In its first five years alone, the WPA constructed or improved 2,500 hospitals, 5,900 schools, 1,000 airport fields, and nearly 13,000 playgrounds. By 1941, it had pumped \$11 billion into the national economy (Digital History 2006). In 1940, the WPA began vocational educational training of the unemployed to prepare them for factory jobs. Labor unions had fought this change but it became a moot point with the start of World War II. The onset of war curtailed further funding and support for domestic relief programs and the WPA shut down in late 1943 (Gioulis 2008:9).

The CCC, WPA, and other New Deal programs continued to erect structures in the national and state park systems into 1942, when they were abolished due to the United States entering World War II (Gioulis 2008:15). The effects of these programs, however, shaped American life for the remainder of the twentieth century. One of the most vital of these is Americans’ relationship with the environment itself. In his Ph.D. dissertation, “Planting More Than Trees: The Civilian Conservation Corps and the Roots of the American Environmental Movement, 1929-1942” (New York University 2001), Cornelius M. Maher places the CCC within the broader context of the

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conservation movement and suggests the CCC facilitated the emergence of modern environmentalism. Anderson et al. (2003) summarized Maher’s findings in *Rabideau Civilian Conservation Corps (CCC) Camp National Historic Landmarks Nomination*. Arguing that the CCC altered American thinking about the natural world, Maher found the CCC played an instrumental role in bridging the transition from Progressive Era conservation, which emphasized the most efficient uses of natural resources, to post-World War II environmentalism, which took a more holistic approach to include entire ecosystems and advocated wilderness preservation for its own sake outside the needs of humans. The transition came about because the CCC popularized conservation among the general public and broadened the notion of conservation itself to include wilderness preservation, ecological balance, and outdoor recreation (Anderson et al. 2003).

One of the first, and most important, aspects of this expanded view of conservation lay with the CCC enrollees themselves. Using the expertise gained through on-the-job training and classroom instruction, many of them pursued professional careers in conservation. Their presence brought considerably more socioeconomic diversity to the field than had existed during the Progressive Era, when primarily an elite group of trained professionals shaped the field. The interaction of CCC camps with local communities also expanded conservation awareness. The potential economic benefits of conservation, especially by way of tourism and recreation, resonated in areas that had suffered from ruinous mining, timbering, and agricultural practices and the larger effects of the Great Depression (Anderson et al. 2003).

Even in areas that did not see the direct results of CCC work, publicity campaigns brought them to the public’s attention. Through print and radio outlets, the CCC educated the public about conservation’s role in New Deal programs. The CCC even produced more than thirty films about its various projects. Such coverage increased awareness of conservation’s role in efficient use of natural resources. It also encouraged independent groups to begin their own projects. Tree planting became popular with many organizations, schools began incorporating conservation into their curriculums, and private conservation organizations increased in number. Pleased to see one of his primary interests so widely accepted, in 1939, President Roosevelt commented, “I consider it a matter of great significance that now, according to the results of a recent poll of public opinion, the conservation of natural resources stands second in point of interest in the thoughts of Americans in all walks of life” (Anderson et al. 2003).

The Progressive Era’s influence on the federal government’s conception of conservation’s important qualities lingered well into the 1930s. Natural settings were perceived as a prescriptive for improving human life and creating wholesome environments. Scenery warranted preservation for its “social value,” according to one CCC publication and, in another that promoted recreational areas, the CCC suggested these were needed to restore the health and vigor of the American people. Such an interpretation of conservation’s uses dovetailed with one of the CCC’s core concepts, to restore and enrich the young men enrolled in the program (Anderson et al. 2003).

Despite its successes, the CCC was not without critics even during the 1930s. Objections were raised that the CCC did not adequately consider wilderness preservation and ecological balance in its projects. Such shortcomings were due, at least partially, to the fact that the CCC provided labor for projects that actually were developed and supervised by other federal agencies, particularly the USFS, NPS, and Soil Conservation Service. For many of these projects, conservation was a component, but not the overriding principle, factoring into their design. One of the best known examples was Skyline Drive through the Great Smoky Mountains. Conservationists felt the project had an unduly negative impact on wilderness areas and that the project’s purpose was no more important than the need to preserve untouched wild lands. Truck roads intended to help the USFS with fire prevention were similarly criticized. That wilderness areas should be preserved for their own sake rather

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than for their potential utility to humans was a concept still emerging during the 1930s. It was a central tenet behind the formation of the Wilderness Society, established in 1935 (Anderson et al. 2003).

Scientists also criticized some CCC projects for poor design and little consideration for side effects. For example, in 1938, Aldo Leopold, a University of Wisconsin professor of game management who had supervised a number of CCC projects throughout the United States, found fault with a large-scale drainage project in the Atlantic tidal marsh. The project’s goal of mosquito control may have been achieved, but at the cost of threatening the wildlife that depended on the marshes. His critique was based on an ecological perspective that was just emerging among scientists studying the interrelated dynamics of plant and animal communities. Anderson et al. (2003) noted, “this idea of biological balance gave new meaning to the conservation movement.”

By the time the CCC and other New Deal-era programs ended in 1942, the wider conservation and environmental movement was well established in the public consciousness. Anderson et al. (2003) stated

By popularizing the conservation of natural resources among CCC enrollees, residents of communities located near the camps and project sites, and the American public as a whole, the CCC helped transform what had been a narrow, elite-based movement during the Progressive Era into a more grassroots phenomenon during the postwar period. The CCC also helped to redefine conservation during the 1930s and early 1940s by sparking a national debate over the very meaning of conservation that ultimately incorporated concerns about wilderness preservation, ecological balance, and outdoor recreation into the conservation movement’s agenda. This notion that the CCC helped lay much of the groundwork for postwar environmentalism, a grass-roots movement with expanded environmental concerns, was not lost on those most involved in the New Deal program. As stated on the letterhead of the National Association of Civilian Conservation Corps, “Before Earth Day, There was the CCC.”

As occurred with most other New Deal-era programs, racial segregation and discrimination occurred on a routine basis in the CCC’s everyday course of business. Particularly in Southern and Appalachian states, racial segregation was a matter of custom as well as codified in state and local laws. Segregation also was routine in Northern and Western states. Attempts by the Roosevelt administration to require racial integration among workers, or to build integrated public facilities, met with widespread resistance. During the early days of the CCC, Companies 523, 524, 525, 1524, and 2596 were racially integrated. The standard practice, however, became segregated companies (Harr 1992:2).

West Virginia proved to be no exception when it came to resisting integration. In Sharples, an ostensibly integrated CCC camp actually consisted of African American workers living, eating, and bathing in separate areas from white workers. At Camp Dunmore in Pocahontas County, white workers refused to associate with the eight African American workers assigned to the camp, to the extent that the camp commander requested that the minorities be transferred to a segregated company in order to improve their experience. Even at the state level, resistance to integration could be found. Hubert W. Shawhan, state director of conservation, protested that African Americans and whites used the same latrines at Camp Decota in Kanawha County (Thomas 1998:205). Although the Roosevelt administration bowed to public pressure to permit segregation, New Deal relief programs continued to offer employment opportunities to African Americans. A separate CCC company for West Virginia eventually was established. From the late 1930s until June 19, 1942, Company 3538C served at Camp War and Camp Carver, both in McDowell County, and at Camp Kanawha near Charleston. Both African American youths and African American World War I veterans appear to have served with this company (Harr 1992:2, 28-29; Stone 2009:6-7).

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Historic Context:
Rustic Style Architecture in West Virginia State Parks and Forests, 1933-1942

The term “rustic” applies to a number of building styles sharing a central concept of using natural materials, extensive handwork, and a variety of motifs borrowed from sources as diverse as pioneer or folk log buildings, Bavarian and Swiss chalets, and Adirondack camps built for wealthy Americans between the 1880s and 1920s. The English Arts and Crafts movement also played an influential role. Important high-style influences include the mid-nineteenth century work of Andrew Jackson Downing, who emphasized the picturesque qualities of architecture, and the late nineteenth century work of H. H. Richardson and Frederick Law Olmsted, who stressed the use of native materials and attempted to bring architecture into harmony with the natural environment. Elements of Shingle, Prairie, and Mission styles made their way into rustic architecture as well. The result was a uniquely American interpretation of variegated impulses to harmonize architectural design with the natural environment (Rice 2009; O’Bannon and Henry 1986:8/8; USDA 2001).

By 1916, when Congress established the NPS, the emphasis on “harmony with nature” had become commonplace in American architecture. The NPS’s mission of protecting natural resources and making them available to public use lent itself to adopting rustic architecture as a hallmark of its building programs. In 1918, Stephen T. Mather, the NPS’s first director, instructed his staff to assure that all park construction was “devoted always to the harmonizing of improvements with the landscape” (Myers 1984:45). The landscape engineering division assumed responsibility for reviewing park construction projects. Under chief architect Thomas C. Vint’s direction, the NPS’s design staff developed an approach to simple rustic architecture suitable for adaptation to a variety of natural settings (O’Bannon and Henry 1986:8/8). Vint’s philosophy regarding park structures dictated “non-intrusive” design tenets that respected a building’s specific site; complemented the environment and the existing resources; and used native materials and methods (Gioulis 2008:14).

The NPS’s commitment to a well-developed rustic design philosophy, and its existing professional staff, enabled it to take a major role in shaping the CCC’s construction projects. The NPS could impose its design ethic on state parks throughout the country by virtue of the fact that it reviewed and approved all CCC work programs and construction designs in the parks. Other federal government agencies, such as the USFS, also had adopted use of rustic design for building projects. During the 1920s and 1930s, the USFS’s ranger stations, shelters, and lookout towers featured rustic design (Rice 2009). Because the CCC worked in publicly owned forests as well as parks, the similarities in design philosophy among the agencies lent further credence to the rustic approach.

The NPS and USFS’s vision of rustic design, when coupled with the relief mission of the CCC, resulted in a confluence of complementary goals for design, construction, and employment opportunities. NPS and USFS designers enjoyed an unprecedented opportunity to build on a large scale with little concern for expense. At the NPS, state park work was placed under the Branch of Planning and the State Park Division supervised by Conrad Wirth and Herbert Evison. The division eventually became regionalized with West Virginia placed in District I, which covered the east coast and Alabama, Mississippi, Pennsylvania, and Vermont. Several of West Virginia’s parks had a NPS architect and landscape architect who prepared construction drawings onsite (McClelland 1993; Unrau and Willis 1983; Gioulis 2008:14). Beginning in 1933, spurred on by the plentiful labor provided through the CCC and other public works agencies, the USFS hired professionally trained landscape architects and architects to design and implement plans in national forests across the country. Meanwhile, rustic architecture’s use of log construction, high quality masonry work, and specialized materials such as hand-forged hardware required a large number of skilled workers (O’Bannon and Henry 1986:8/9; USDA 2001).

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As conceived by the NPS and USFS, the CCC’s rustic building projects included regional variations that reflected cultural context and the availability of local building materials. The design style also was well suited to the natural environments within which they were constructed, to such a degree that rustic architecture eventually earned the rubric “park-itecture.” The built works and publications of the New Deal era thus established the principles and tradition of rustic architecture for parks and public lands. These principles, summarized, were:

- Emphasis on horizontal form and avoidance of hard straight lines.
- Combinations of harmonious exterior textures and colors.
- Use of local natural materials sized in proportion to the grand scale of the landscape.
- Appearance of pioneer building methods.
- Strong incorporation of handcrafted elements.
- Reflection of regional cultural influences (USDA 2001).

Among the many tasks handled by NPS and USFS employees was developing training materials for design staff and CCC workers to ensure consistent levels of quality and style. Along with construction drawings, specific books were created for the CCC enrollees to teach them standard building methods and how to read building plans. A glossary of terms used and materials to be used typically would be included as well (Gioulis 2008:14-15).

In addition, the NPS prepared guide books for construction of resources ranging from overnight facilities, administrative and basic service buildings, camp stoves, fireplaces, and brick and stone work (Gioulis 2008:14). In 1935, the USFS hired Albert D. Taylor, president of the American Society of Landscape Architects, to analyze problems and devise solutions to recreation planning and design. Taylor’s three-volume 1936 report included drawings of many types of recreation structures unknown to earlier USFS recreation designers, such as bathhouses, shelters, amphitheaters, and playgrounds. These facilities proliferated in national forests across the country, in striking contrast to the simple privies and ranger cabins that had typified earlier periods (USDA 2001).

At the same time, the NPS contracted architect Albert H. Good and illustrator Dorothy Waugh to catalog appropriate structures for use in the parks in an effort to educate uninitiated architects about the rustic style. In 1938, the NPS published a definitive work, *Park & Recreation Structures*, edited by Good, which collected these and other examples of rustic architecture. Finally, by 1940, W. Ellis Groben, Chief Architect of the USFS, had written *Architectural Trends of Future Forest Service Buildings*. Groben advocated designs more sensitive to the environments and settings within which USFS buildings would be constructed (McClelland 1993; USDA 2001). As a result of works such as these, and the NPS’s design review procedures, the CCC mass produced (with some regional variation) a coherent vision of rustic architecture across the United States (O’Bannon and Henry 1986:8/9). The effects of this guidance became visible in the design and construction of forest and park roads, trails, buildings, and public recreation sites. Stone masonry and log structures predominated, and the massive scale of structural elements and site furnishings implied permanence and connection to the landscape (USDA 2001).

Albert Good felt that the term “rustic” did not capture the greater meaning of the style practiced by park designers in state and national parks. He summarized the design approach as one that, “through the use of native materials in proper scale, and through the avoidance of rigid, straight lines, and over-sophistication, gives the feeling of having been executed by pioneer craftsman with limited hand tools. . . . It achieves sympathy with natural surroundings and with the past” (McClelland 1993). He also claimed that it was character, not the fact of

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“nativeness,” that gave rocks or logs their value as building materials. As a result, he advised against consistency and uniformity in cutting stone or shaping logs. At the same time, materials had to be appropriate to their setting, so heavy timber should not be imported into treeless areas nor large boulders brought from a distant place. Scale mattered as well, as Good emphasized when he discussed rockwork:

Rocks should be placed on their natural beds, the stratification or bedding planes horizontal, never vertical. Variety of size lends interest and results in a pattern far more pleasing than that produced by units of common or nearly common size. Informality vanishes from rockwork if the rocks are laid in courses like brick work or if the horizontal joints are not broken. In walls the larger rocks should be used near the base, but by no means should smaller ones be used exclusively in the upper portions. Rather should a variety of sizes be common to the whole surface, the larger predominating at the base. Rock should be selected for its color and hardness (McClelland 1993).

As another means of quality control, the NPS employed itinerant district inspectors to work directly with state park authorities and CCC camps. They reviewed applications for CCC camps, visited sites proposed for new parks, inspected the work carried out by CCC enrollees, offered technical assistance to foremen and superintendents, and reported progress and problems to the district officer. Their dual goals were to ensure high quality workmanship and consistent adherence to principles of naturalistic and rustic design. In spring 1934, the NPS began assigning architects and landscape architects to CCC camps to produce plans and drawings and supervise ongoing work. The district inspector reviewed their work as well. This collaborative approach was used until the late 1930s, when the number of CCC camps was reduced, along with the NPS’s allotments to fund technical assistance (McClelland 1993).

In West Virginia’s state parks and forests, CCC-built resources generally were constructed of onsite native materials such as sandstone and chestnut, oak, and locust logs. The CCC camps developed quarries and saw mills on location to provide materials for construction. In at least two instances, CCC camps harvested and milled timber to provide raw materials to a finishing woodwork shop in Rainelle. Some of the interior furnishings of the Babcock State Park cabins and the display cases used for the Hawk’s Nest Museum were built in this fashion (Gioulis 2008:15).

The rustic style’s emphasis on using locally available, natural materials had a particular resonance in West Virginia and other areas in the Appalachian Mountains due to the massive loss of chestnut trees that occurred here during the early twentieth century. Chestnut trees once ranked among the most important of the hardwood trees in Appalachian forests. Reaching more than 100 feet in height, the fast-growing, adaptable tree could thrive in a variety of settings. In addition to the annual chestnut harvest, the trees produced rot-resistant lumber (American Chestnut Cooperators’ Foundation 2006a). Many small landowners relied on the chestnut produce for cash income. Around 1900, however, the American chestnut began to be decimated by a blight introduced in New York from imported Chinese chestnut nursery stock. Within a few decades, more than 3.4 billion trees had been destroyed by the blight (American Chestnut Cooperators’ Foundation 2006b; Gioulis 2008:15).

Throughout the Appalachian Mountains, logging companies clear-cut vast stands of forest to harvest the lumber of the dying chestnuts. Stands of virgin forests including hickory, oak, maple, and other trees were removed at the same time (Winegar 2006). The temporary influx of revenue from such methods did little to remedy the long-term consequences of the destruction of the chestnut trees, and clear-cutting also introduced numerous other environmental problems, including erosion, water pollution, and increased flooding hazards (American Chestnut Cooperators’ Foundation 2006b). Of the American chestnut trees still surviving today, most exist as small

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understory trees that sprout from the original root systems of older trees; they remain susceptible to blight. A variety of research efforts are under way to attempt to develop blight-resistant trees and reintroduce them to the Appalachian forests.

As previously discussed, the New Deal-era forestry and soil conservation programs began remediating the effects of clear-cutting forests. Meanwhile, working on construction projects that called for use of natural materials, West Virginia’s CCC workers used chestnut for a variety of purposes, ranging from wood siding to interior furnishings. Examples include fletch chestnut board siding used on rental cabins at Babcock and Cooper’s Rock state parks, and chestnut logs used on bridges, rental cabins, and picnic shelters at Cabwaylingo State Forest and Holly River State Park. In this fashion, the tenets of rustic style provided a way to preserve a vanishing natural resource and evoke a previous era.

Two types of CCC-associated resources within the state parks and forests generally do not adhere to rustic design principles. Maintenance areas and former CCC camps instead were comprised of utilitarian, standardized buildings based on designs used by the military. As part of its role in CCC projects, the War Department constructed many of the buildings located in CCC camps, or provided the building materials to the CCC workers who erected their own buildings. In some instances, the lumber was ordered locally, sawn with a portable circular sawmill, and assembled by the CCC enrollees. Another version of CCC buildings used precut lumber, accompanied by standardized building plans that the men used to assemble the buildings (Whetsell 2010).

As the 1930s progressed, the CCC buildings often were constructed of prefabricated panels that could be easily assembled in the field. The number and type of panels used determined the size and appearance of the individual buildings. The military designs were used in all CCC camps after 1935, and represented an important effort by the Army to standardize and prefabricate its buildings. The effort paid off during World War II, when the success of the CCC designs helped facilitate massive mobilization by enabling the military to provide barracks and quarters for millions of new servicemen quickly and inexpensively. Designed to be easily erected by unskilled workers, however, these buildings stood in distinct contrast to the finely crafted rustic architecture of public use areas (O’Bannon and Henry 1986:8/10). In West Virginia’s parks, a standardized building plan appears to have been used for the main supply house at Babcock, Cacapon Resort, and Watoga state parks, all of which are virtually identical (Gioulis 2008:43).

Some individual examples of former maintenance buildings and maintenance areas are extant in West Virginia’s parks and forests, such as a former dynamite shed at Cacapon Resort State Park and a USFS tool building, garage, repair building, and blacksmith shop at Droop Mountain Battlefield. Watoga State Park retains a partially intact CCC camp, Camp Watoga, and one state forest, Kumbrabow, retains the site of a CCC camp where concrete footers and foundations are still present. These sites illustrate the military layout of buildings used in the camps, as opposed to the groups of rustic architecture built for public use. Individual examples of the buildings, which usually have been adaptively re-used, also are extant, such as a former CCC barracks at Watoga State Park and a former barracks at Cabwaylingo State Forest.

**Historic Context:
Landscape Design and Landscape Management in West Virginia State Parks and Forests, 1933-1942**

From its inception, the CCC was intended to achieve two goals: easing the critical unemployment situation for America’s young men and providing for the conservation of the nation’s devastated forest and soil resources. The

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CCC's work in national and state park development was crucial to both aspects of its mission (Denny 1994). As the conservation work proceeded, a secondary objective emerged to provide public recreational opportunities in natural settings. While the CCC initially focused on reforestation, timber stand improvement, and forest protection, by 1935, an increasing number of camps worked on recreational development. Consequently, two distinct New Deal landscapes emerged, the first being restorative and the second recreational (Anderson et al. 2003). The environmental degradation in many new parks and forests called for an intensive level of initial landscape design as well as ongoing landscape management. The complementary qualities of rustic landscape design and natural resource conservation provided state parks and forests with a distinctive identity, created amenities that met the public's needs, and rectified past environmental abuses. Indeed, many of the forestry, conservation, and recreation practices initiated by the CCC continued to inform park and forest management for decades thereafter.

The CCC's state park work was guided by the landscaping principles that had been adopted and refined by the NPS over the preceding two decades. Many of these derived from the mid-nineteenth century English gardening tradition, Andrew Jackson Downing's ideas about naturalistic gardening, pleasure grounds, wilderness, and rustic architecture, and the work of landscape designers such as Frederick Law Olmsted, Frank Waugh, and many others (McClelland 1993; Ashcraft and Snedeker 2006).

As the CCC undertook development and improvement projects in newly created state parks and forests, the organization followed the NPS's design tenets for rustic landscapes much as it had for rustic architecture. Indeed, the rustic style has been described as a "total design concept" that included the creation of naturalistic settings (Conard 1996). Both rustic architecture and landscape design called for harmonizing with nature and use of locally available materials. This approach allowed the man-made forms to blend with their overall setting and, as such, CCC-developed parks and forests represent "an exploration of design in harmony with the natural environment" (Ashcraft and Snedeker 2006).

As listed by Ashcraft and Snedeker (2006), the CCC generally completed 10 types of projects in state parks and forests:

1. Structural Improvements (bridges, fire towers, and service buildings)
2. Transportation (truck trails, minor roads, foot trails, and airport landing fields)
3. Erosion Control (check dams, terracing, and vegetative covering)
4. Flood Control (irrigation and drainage, dams, ditching, channel work, and rip rapping)
5. Forest Culture (planting trees and shrubs, stand improvement, seed collection, and nursery work)
6. Forest Protection (fire fighting, fire prevention, fire pre-suppression, and insect and disease control)
7. Landscape and Recreation (public camp and picnic ground development, and lake and pond site clearing)
8. Range (stock driveways and elimination of predators)
9. Wildlife (stream improvement, stocking fish, and food and cover planting)
10. Miscellaneous (emergency work, surveys, and mosquito control).

In all types of projects, the CCC crews adhered to rustic landscape design. For example, they built hundreds of miles of foot trails and winding park roads with rustic elements. The stone trail steps were blended into the natural landscape, and wooden footbridges were embellished with log guardrails. Roads hugged the existing topography and offered scenic views. CCC carpenter shops also turned out picnic tables, park benches, and park furnishings to complement the park settings (Conard 1996).

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As with its rustic architecture standards, the NPS developed a comprehensive approach to landscape design and landscape management that hinged on effective master planning. These methods had been evolving since the 1910s, but the New Deal offered the NPS its first opportunity to implement landscape planning and design on a large scale in a variety of settings. The level of planning and coordination effected was impressive, more so given that many state parks and forests were newly established in the 1930s and the CCC’s duration was a scant nine years.

The NPS sought to have master plans for state parks before approving individual CCC projects. No single standard for master plans existed; rather, their form depended on the process already in place in each state. Some states had park systems that were quite advanced while others were just beginning their systems. Thus, in Virginia, where NPS landscape architects were closely involved in the design of parks, multi-sheet plans similar to those for national parks were created. In other states, such as Michigan, a single map identifying the name, location, and type of project in relationship to the park’s boundaries, roadways, and trails sufficed for planning purposes (McClelland 1993). West Virginia’s state parks and forests system began in 1925 with acquisition of land in Pocahontas County for a wildlife and timber preserve. NPS landscape architects prepared plans and drawings for many of West Virginia’s parks, a variety of which are still retained by the state (Gioulis 2008:9, 14). After a plan had been agreed upon, work was broken down into projects that the CCC could complete over one or more enrollment periods.

Planning for state parks resembled that of national parks. The NPS designers who prepared and reviewed the plans worked to ensure that the entire park area was used to its fullest extent while protecting natural features and historic sites. According to NPS publications from the period, maintaining a natural state served as the cardinal principle in park planning. Also like national park plans, those for state parks ideally consisted of general development plans laid out on topographic maps with an accompanying development narrative explaining the program of proposed work. Layout plans were then prepared for each area of the park to indicate placement of roads, trails, buildings, and other features. These provided the basis for determining individual items of construction work to be carried out by the CCC (McClelland 1993). Similarly, forest management plans were comprehensive in scope, embracing timber management, fire control, artificial reforestation, experimental forestry management, water conservation, forest recreation, wildlife management, and land acquisition (Anderson et al. 2003).

Concomitant to park development, the growing importance of public recreational opportunities required planning as well. A broad vision for using natural resources for public outdoor recreation had been emerging among state park advocates and public officials since the 1920s. President Roosevelt personally pushed for acquiring submarginal lands to be made into public parks and recreational facilities. The first step came in 1934, when the Federal Surplus Relief Administration provided \$25 million to purchase submarginal lands, although only 20 percent of the allocation was targeted to creating recreational lands. At the Interior Department, Conrad Wirth coordinated NPS involvement, while the CCC and other work relief programs restored these areas and developed hiking, boating, swimming, skating, skiing, picnicking, and camping facilities (McClelland 1993).

Beyond the primary goal of reclaiming submarginal lands, Roosevelt’s initiative sought to increase recreational opportunities, especially for lower-income groups, and to demonstrate effective planning and development for recreational facilities. This approach represented the first time the NPS’s experience with comprehensive planning, building park roads and trails, designing rustic buildings and structures, and naturalizing landscapes was used to develop lands primarily for recreation. The NPS assumed leadership in surveying existing recreational resources nationwide and encouraging creation of state recreational plans. The NPS carried out this

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work in concert with other federal programs, including the Tennessee Valley Authority, U.S. Department of Agriculture, and the Resettlement Administration. NPS specialists also performed the hands-on work of designing facilities for outdoor activities. In 1937, under the Park, Parkway, and Recreational Area Study Act, the NPS established a formal review process for state park plans. Each park’s master plan provided an essential link between the CCC’s conservation work there and the statewide plan for recreation (McClelland 1993).

According to McClelland (1993), four kinds of recreational demonstration areas were designated: (1) vacation areas (1,500 to 2,000 acres) located near major population centers and providing a variety of facilities for daytime recreation and overnight camping; (2) waysides (20 to 50 acres) along principal highways where motorists could rest, picnic, play sports, and enjoy the outdoors; (3) extensions to national parks and monuments developed for recreational activities such as camping, picnicking, and swimming; and (4) areas adjoining state scenic areas that could be redeveloped for recreational uses. These areas were not intended to remain in federal hands, but rather to be turned over to state park or highway departments to encourage state and local governments to develop similar kinds of park areas. By the late 1930s, with new and improved state parks opening their gates to increasing numbers of Americans, the notion of affordable and accessible outdoor recreation for all Americans had gained widespread acceptance (McClelland 1993). (McClelland 1993).

One of the NPS’s key publications that explicated its approach to balancing conservation with recreation was *Landscape Conservation: Planning for the Restoration, Conservation, and Utilization of Wild Lands for Parks and Forests* by Frank Waugh. First published in 1935, the guide covered the larger issue of land reclamation as well as the development of specific recreational projects such as lakes, trail networks, and campgrounds. In the booklet, Waugh compiled his principles for recreational development, which he had practiced in national forests, and his theory on the natural style of gardening, which he had been developing since the 1910s. Waugh owed much of his design theories to Andrew Jackson Downing and even published a revision of Downing’s theory of landscape gardening. He also employed a scientific approach that set forth ecological principles and a zonal technique to recreating vegetation based on the study of natural conditions (McClelland 1993).

In *Landscape Conservation*, Waugh provided practical and technical information on eight principles for developing wild lands: human use and enjoyment, order, cleanliness, beauty of scenery, conservation, restoration, economy, and circulation. The achievement of human use and enjoyment called for the construction of structures built in good proportions, agreeable in appearance, and lacking in ornamentation, all to achieve harmony with setting. The principle of order indicated simple arrangement of buildings and structures into functionally related clusters. Cleanliness required forethought in planning for ongoing maintenance and waste disposal. Economy could be achieved through simple, solid construction and provisions for easy and economical maintenance. Waugh advocated that landscape planners study natural settings in all kinds of weather, at all times of day, and in all seasons. Such firsthand experience was necessary for effective planning to develop wild places and to satisfy the principle of scenic beauty. Conservation required the preservation of native flora and fauna where possible, and restoring native species where they had been depleted or lost altogether. Without an adequate system of circulation, Waugh believed that other planning objectives fell short. He advised that advance planning include main roads, side roads, trails, footpaths, bridle trails, and water suitable for canoeing. He cautioned, however, against overbuilding circulation systems at the start, and instead recommended further development in new areas only when demanded by use (McClelland 1993).

Waugh’s proposals offered a comprehensive approach to every aspect of developing a park or forest for public use. He outlined the types of sites needed for developing wild lands: administrative, service, lodging, water conservation and supply, sewage disposal, special recreational purposes, campsites, playing fields and courts,

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beaches, and fishing. Waugh recommended advance selection of sites for all these uses even if they were not to be built right away (McClelland 1993).

The backbone of effective park planning lay in creation of a circulation system primarily made up of roads and trails. In addition to providing transit between principal points, the landscape designer should use the circulation plan to create a narrative unique to each park or forest. According to Waugh’s theory of trail design, trails were to be laid out so that the most spectacular views were seen at turning points against a rising grade. Scenic objects or features were best viewed straight ahead and at a distance, while broad outlooks over valleys, mountains, or water were to be viewed at varying angles to the trail... Waugh introduced his ideas of arranging the scenery along a trail as a series of themes or motives arranged in “paragraphs” that could draw attention to the unique natural features of a variety of landscape types (McClelland 1993).

Waugh also devoted attention to landscaping theory based on ecological and scientific study. Acknowledging that a truly “naturalistic planting” was difficult to achieve by intent, he recommended training and close observation of natural conditions before beginning work. Landscape architects needed a complete knowledge of the species inhabiting a particular area. By dividing a landscape into a series of zones and identifying dominant and associated species of trees, undergrowth, and ground covers, cross sections of the plant composition in each zone could be developed. Non-native and aggressive species also could be tagged at this time for control or removal. Results of this study provided a model for creating or restoring a new natural area. Although experienced landscape architects held positions as inspectors, technicians, and foremen for much of the CCC’s work, use of locally employed men or LEMs brought a needed extra dimension. These workers understood local climate and weather conditions, forestry and woodsmanship of the surrounding woodlands, use of local building materials, and methods for planting and transplanting native vegetation (McClelland 1993).

Similar to the NPS, the USFS used landscape architects and planners to design improvements for state forests, including recreation areas and stream improvements. Cooper Rock State Forest was developed using plans for parking and recreational facilities drawn by the USFS. States were grouped within regions and standardized plans for typical landscaping projects were created for each region. The USFS’s Eastern Region included West Virginia. Plans for this region featured rustic designs using native materials to blend with their surroundings (Whetsell 2010).

In practical terms, the CCC’s work in state parks and forests followed the general approach to landscape preservation and harmonization preferred by NPS and USFS designers, but often by way of less stringent standards, especially for recreational facilities. Since many state parks and forests were created out of marginal land, substantial intervention was required to enhance or create naturalistic settings. As a result, the CCC balanced general landscape design theories against the specific purposes and needs identified in each park’s plan. Building and improving roads and trails comprised the first building projects for many parks and forests. Thereafter, for some parks and forests, construction of recreational dams ranked foremost, while in others, removal of dead wood, including blighted chestnut timber, took precedence. Selective forestry, erosion control, tree and plant disease control, removal of fire hazards, pest eradication, fish restocking, wildlife repopulation, development of picnic areas and campgrounds, stream improvement, and addition of a water supply also ranked among the most common projects (McClelland 1993; Anderson et al. 2003).

In West Virginia’s state parks and forests, the CCC undertook a full range of landscape design and management, conservation, and recreation projects. With the exception of Panther State Forest/WMA, all of them have roads

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and hiking trails originally designed and built during the 1930s; Hawk’s Nest, Pinnacle Rock, and Tomlinson Run state parks have some trails but no roads from this period. Recreational resources include riding stables at Babcock, Cacapon, and Lost River state parks; game courts at Cacapon and Lost River; swimming pools at Cabwaylingo State Forest, and Holly River, Lost River, and Watoga state parks; and lakes at Cacapon, Tomlinson Run, and Watoga state parks. Cacapon Resort State Park also still retains CCC-era playground equipment and benches, while Pinnacle Rock has a horseshoe pit. At Kanawha State Forest, Davis Creek Dam and Ellison Pond originally were constructed for recreational purposes but never functioned as such due to contaminated water; they are instead used for flood control. Seneca State Forest has a lake and dam originally built by the CCC but both have been considerably altered. At each park and forest, campgrounds and cabin areas in equipped with picnic shelters, fireplaces, and water fountains also were laid out according to rustic landscape design tenets. Both forests and parks were subjected to landscaping and planting programs completed under the supervision of landscape architects using naturalistic approaches. Completed by WPA workers, Holly River State Park is a particularly fine example of New Deal-era landscape design.

Watoga State Park is distinguished by its 400-acre memorial arboretum, established in honor of Fred E. Brooks, a noted West Virginia naturalist, writer, entomologist, and botanist who died in 1933. Dedicated in 1938 by the Academy of Science and the West Virginia Conservation Commission, the arboretum features about 6 ½ miles of trails with native trees, shrubs, and plants to serve as an outdoor educational lab. This facility was the first of its kind in West Virginia and one of the first to be located in a state park in the country (Gioulis 2008:349).

The millions of trees planted by the CCC in state parks and forests became representative of the program’s conservation goals. Most enrollees spent at least part of their time on forestry projects, earning the organization the nickname “Roosevelt’s Tree Army.” Nationwide, most of the reforestation accomplished prior to World War II came about through CCC projects (Conard 1996). As the federal government’s emergency conservation work programs matured, they precipitated an overall change in outlook in park and forest maintenance. Officials responsible for earlier acquisitions of natural lands, especially those with outstanding natural resources and wilderness preserves such as Yosemite National Park, had fostered a custodial approach with comparatively little intervention. Lands acquired for state parks and forests during the New Deal era, however, often were submarginal and thus warranted substantial management in the form of comprehensive planning, development projects, and ongoing monitoring with corrective action as needed. Although not mutually exclusive, the differences between these two approaches created a tension that shaped and informed the American environmental movement through the remainder of the twentieth century. As noted previously, some conservationists argued for the most efficient and economical uses of natural resources, while others advocated for wildlife and wild lands preservation for their own sake.

Against the background of this debate, the landscapes created by the CCC and WPA in West Virginia’s state parks and forests during the 1930s have been subjected to maintenance and management in the decades since. As forestry practices have evolved and new methods developed, these have been employed in managing public lands. The techniques include changes in fire prevention methods through prescribed burning and selective undergrowth removal, scientific research conducted to eliminate or control diseases and pests, developing a better understanding of the habitats needed to support a diverse and self-sustaining wildlife population, and planting and replanting to reintroduce native species or remove invasive and non-native species. The New Deal landscapes have been and will continue to be living entities in a constant state of flux. The underlying foundations created by the CCC and WPA, however, remain and are integral to the state parks and forests as they currently exist.

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F. Associated Property Types

There are three property types in West Virginia’s state parks and forests that date to the New Deal era: historic districts, buildings, and structures. All of these resource types conform to the aforementioned rustic architectural and landscape design philosophies promulgated by the NPS through the CCC and WPA. An architectural survey was undertaken in 2008 to record the extant New Deal-era resources in West Virginia’s state parks and forests (Gioulis 2008). Although the survey team attempted to record as many such resources as possible, future archaeological and architectural surveys may identify additional resources, particularly in more remote areas of the parks and forests.

Property Type Description – Historic Districts

Historic districts associated with the New Deal era in West Virginia state parks and forests are likely to include a variety of large-scale components as well as small-scale structures and objects. Large-scale components may include designed and managed landscapes; campgrounds and cabin areas; and historic sites (i.e., battlefields). An individual park or forest is likely to have more than one component of a historic district within its boundaries, depending upon the integrity of the historic resources therein. Small-scale elements that are likely to be contributing to a historic district include engineering, mechanical, recreational, fire prevention and protection, and CCC-related resources, all of which are discussed below.

Designed and managed landscapes in West Virginia’s state parks and forests are the most encompassing and inclusive component of a historic district within this MPD. As discussed in the historic contexts, West Virginia’s New Deal-era parks and forests were subjected to extensive planning, landscape and architectural design, and construction projects as they were developed during the 1930s and early 1940s. Since that time, West Virginia has maintained the parks and forests according to their original purpose of providing conservation and recreational resources to the public. As such, the state parks and forests originated as and continue to be designed and managed landscapes. Important elements within these landscapes are the forests, meadows, streams, lakes and ponds, and scenic views that were subjected to extensive planting, remediation, and other alterations during the New Deal period. Vegetation destroyed by clear-cutting, fires, diseases, and pests was replaced with new plantings of native species. CCC workers planted millions of deciduous and coniferous trees selected for both their commercial value and their role in re-establishing healthy forests. Eroded hillsides were remediated, and streams and rivers cleared of pollutants and sediments and then restocked with fish. CCC construction projects with boxes and outflow pipes have been documented at Seneca Springs in Seneca State Forest and at Bring Spring in Droop Mountain Battlefield State Park. Both have been reconstructed within recent years and it is difficult to discern the historic elements. The CCC developed another spring in the Clover Lick Road area of Seneca State Forest but it has been unused for many years and allowed to return to its natural state.

A 400-acre arboretum at Watoga State Park, dedicated in 1938, is an example of an important, large-scale component to a historic district. The first of its kind in West Virginia and one of the first to be located within a state park in the country, the arboretum was intended to be an outdoor educational lab. About 6.5 miles of trails through native trees, shrubs, and plants include foot bridges, stone steps, and a stone sign at the entrance. A memorial plaque set into stone dedicates the facility to West Virginia naturalist Fred E. Brooks. The arboretum encompasses the entire drainage system of Two Mile Run.

Campgrounds dating from the New Deal period are at Cabwaylingo and Kumbrabow state forests. Cabwaylingo

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features a group camp area in which the former CCC barracks was relocated from its original site for use as a kitchen. The one-story, cross-gabled building has split wood siding, six-pane wood window sash, and a stone pier foundation. Two other barracks-type buildings date to ca. 1998 as does the bath house and restroom building. The group campground also includes a ca. 1935 metal flagpole with a circular stone base, a ca. 1936 council circle built of stone and logs for use by youth groups, New Deal-era water fountains and a picnic shelter, while the swimming pool area and its associated resources are nearby.

Also at Cabwaylingo is the Spruce Creek Campground. It is accessed via a small-scale ca. 1937 vehicular bridge with cut stone retaining walls on both sides of the creek. Stone retaining walls and steps are throughout the camping area. There also are two cut sandstone water fountains and stone fireplaces. One fireplace type consists of stacked, cut stone with brick inserts and a pyramidal cap rock. The second type has a central, cut stone chimney with a fireplace and extending to either side are wing walls built of three courses of stacked stone. A shed-roofed wood shed built of stone and wood siding and two picnic shelters complete the New Deal-era amenities at this campground. Many of the original log privies that were in the picnic and campground areas no longer exist and the existing toilets date to the 1940s period of work done by the West Virginia Conservation Commission after the CCC period.

At Kumbrabow, the campground contains a total of 13 campsites; 7 date to the New Deal era and 6 to the mid-1970s. The latter campsites are located across Mill Creek from the New Deal campsites and are accessed by a ca. 1975 concrete slab bridge. The original campground includes a CCC-constructed one-story, side-gabled log building that originally functioned as a registration building but is now used for firewood storage. A New Deal-era playground also has been identified at Kumbrabow's campground but it is unknown if the extant equipment dates from this period.

Like campgrounds, the cabin areas are laid out according to rustic landscape principles and incorporate amenities such as privies, picnic shelters, fireplaces, bathhouses, and sheds. Babcock, Cacapon Resort, Holly River, Lost River, and Watoga state parks and Cabwaylingo, Greenbrier, Kumbrabow, and Seneca state forests have New Deal-era rental cabins. In keeping with rustic design principles, they display local variations in the materials used, as well as detailing such as log notching styles, chimney and fireplace stonework, and the presence or lack of porches. Many of the cabins feature original, hand-forged iron hardware and interior furnishings such as cabinets and tables. For the most part, the cabins are well maintained and have not been subjected to major alterations.

At Babcock State Park, stone posts flank the entrances to each of the cabin areas and have extant hinges but no sign boards. CCC enrollees built 26 cabins, of which 13 have board-and-batten or fletch siding, and 13 have log walls. The sided cabins are in the Mann's Creek Cabin Area while the log cabins are along Glade Creek in the Canyon Cabin Area and the Sandy Crag Cabin Area. All of the cabins have replacement asphalt roofing shingles. Some interior furnishings, such as dining tables and chimney light sconces are extant. The cabins also still retain their original hand worked iron strapwork hinges and door latches but have newer locksets. Cabwaylingo State Forest features 13 cabins built by the CCC. All but one have had their entrance doors and hardware replaced. The cabins are generally one-story, side-gabled buildings constructed of round chestnut logs with saddle notching and cement chinking. The foundations are cut stone. Shed-roofed entrance porches are supported by round logs. On the round log balustrade, the uppermost log is split and can be used as a seat. Original interior finishes often include wood cabinets, wood mantels, and fireplace surrounds.

Built by the WPA, the ca. 1936 cabins at Holly River retain their original hammered decorative iron strapwork on the entrance doors. They are typically one-story, side-gabled buildings with a central interior rubble stone

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chimney and multiple-pane wood window sash. The walls are built of chestnut logs with cement chinking, red stain, and “V” corner notching. The foundations are built of rubble stone, and a stone walk and steps lead to entry porches with square wood corner columns.

At the CCC-built Kumbrabow cabin area in the Mill Creek Falls area, all of the cabins have individual wood sheds, hand pumps, and privies. The majority of the wood sheds date to the New Deal era. The privies, while featuring rustic architectural elements, appear to be newer. A typical cabin was built ca. 1936 and is one-story with a gabled roof. Exposed cut stone chimneys, round chestnut logs with cement chinking and round saddle notching, and 4- and 6-pane wood window sash are typical elements. A shed-roofed, full length porch with round chestnut log columns on a closed cut stone railing accents the primary façade.

Lost River has 15 cabins that were constructed by the CCC. Many retain original furnishings such as dining tables, corner cupboards, and chairs with cane seats, and some also have original light fixtures. The cabins are built of chestnut logs with stone foundations and chimneys. CCC workers used several different log notch types and corner joints as well as individual iron work unique to each cabin. The notching includes half-dovetail, V notch, and chisel point corner joints with saddle notching. A local blacksmith named Isiah Strawderman fabricated all the iron light fixtures, hinges, and door latches for the cabins and other buildings within the park. All of the cabins have newer wood sheds, grills, and picnic tables in their yards.

Droop Mountain Battlefield State Park is the site of a Civil War battle that took place on November 6, 1863, when Union General William Averell troops routed Confederate forces under General John Echols. Averell planned to clear southeast West Virginia of Confederate troops and then to attack the Virginia and Tennessee Railroad. The battle reportedly was one of the largest fought in West Virginia during the war and was the last significant battle. Resources associated with the battle and its commemoration include Civil War-era trenches, a gravesite for horses killed in the battle, trails that access points that were significant to the battle, such as a ravine and an old road grade, museum exhibits, and monuments.

Contributing Elements to Historic Districts

A variety of constructed and engineered resources were placed throughout these historic district components to provide public access, recreational opportunities, and means for ongoing maintenance and fire prevention. Their relationship to one another, as well as their historic function, renders them likely to be contributing resources to a historic district. These engineering, mechanical, recreational, historic, fire prevention and protection, and CCC-related resources were designed according to the architectural and landscape design philosophies discussed in the historic context. Furthermore, each met a functional purpose to enhance public access to the parks and forests, making them significant to the overall quality of the visitor’s experience.

Engineering resources that may be contributing to a historic district include culverts, foot bridges, roads, vehicular bridges, stonework (i.e., steps and walls), and quarries. Examples of these engineering resources are evident in all 16 of the state parks and forests included in this MPD.

Culverts built by the CCC and WPA have been found on both trails and roads. They are typically made of dry stacked stone with concrete and metal pipes to allow for drainage. Although numerous in almost all of the parks and forests, many have deteriorated as a result of unsympathetic repairs or through lack of use. Those that retain integrity, however, can be counted as contributing elements to a historic district.

Foot bridges originally constructed during the New Deal have been found at Babcock, Cacapon Resort, and Holly

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River state parks and Cabwaylingo and Kanawha state forests. At Babcock, the Upper/Glade Creek Foot Bridge was constructed ca. 1936. It is a replacement wood frame bridge with a cable suspension built on the historic stone abutments. The design mimics a swinging bridge originally constructed for the narrow gauge railroad built here ca. 1900. As for the other bridges, the wood decks and railings on each generally have been replaced in kind, while leaving the original stone abutments extant. At Cabwaylingo, a 19-foot long by 5-foot wide foot bridge in the Spruce Creek picnic area has stone abutments, log stringers, and wood flooring. At Cacapon Resort, a ca. 1935 foot bridge is at the northern end of the Batt Picnic Shelter. It has original stone abutments and a replacement wood deck and railing. Holly River has 10 foot bridges built by the WPA; 4 are located along the circular Laurel Fork Trail; 3 along the Wilderness Trail, and 1 each at the swimming pool parking lot, tennis courts, and cabin area. All have historic stone abutments with replacement wood decking and rails. Kanawha has 3 ca. 1938 foot bridges with original stone abutments and replacement wood decks and rails. They are at picnic shelters no. 4 and 5 and below the dam at the head of the Davis Creek Trail. Watoga's ca. 1934 foot bridges display the most extensive alterations. The 6 bridges all have replacement decks and rails, and in some cases, the stone abutments have been reconstructed or reinforced. Replacement of decks and rails with in-kind materials diminishes aspects of materials and workmanship for foot bridges, but these resources still can be counted as contributing elements to a historic district.

Roads often were the first project undertaken by WPA and CCC work crews when they began developing a park of forest. Some roads followed existing truck trails built by lumber companies, but many had to be built completely from scratch as the land was redeveloped. The roads were engineered and built according to rustic design principles. Although the rugged topography required some blasting, for the most part the roads followed the existing landscape. Planners incorporated turnouts for scenic overlooks into the road's design. The original culverts, guard rails, and retaining walls were constructed with stone and wood. The roads typically were surfaced with either dirt or gravel. In the years since their original construction, many of the roads have been paved, widened, and/or realigned, but they retain important historic characteristics, particularly in their relationship to their naturalistic settings. These characteristics, in combination with their scale and utility, allow roads to be counted as contributing elements to a historic district.

New Deal-period vehicular bridges have been identified at Babcock, Cacapon Resort, Holly River, Lost River, and Watoga state parks and Cabwaylingo, Greenbrier, Kanawha, and Kumbrabow state forests. At Babcock, the ca. 1936 one-lane bridge spans Glade Creek. While the CCC constructed the stone pier, the superstructure dates to 1990. At Cabwaylingo, a ca. 1936 bridge crosses Wiley Branch. It has historic stone abutments, chestnut log stringers that rest on cut stone pillars, and a wood deck. The span measures 10 feet long and 10 feet wide. A ca. 1937 bridge over Spruce Creek has cut stone retaining walls on both sides of the creek and under the bridge. Cacapon Resort has six ca. 1935 bridges. All have stone abutments and stone piers with wood railings along the decks. A bridge at Greenbrier has ca. 1935 stone piers and retaining walls and a replacement concrete superstructure; a smaller bridge has ca. 1935 stone piers and retaining walls and a concrete and wood deck. Holly River retains two ca. 1936 bridges originally built by the WPA. Both retain historic stone abutments and piers but the wooden superstructures are replacements. At Kanawha, four ca. 1938 bridges have been identified. All retain original stone abutments and piers and have newer wooden superstructures. Kumbrabow also has four bridges, erected ca. 1936. They feature original stone abutments and piers and replacement wood decks and railings. Lost River's ca. 1935 bridges are built of chestnut logs with stone culverts beneath them. Maintained by park staff and West Virginia's Department of Highways, several of the bridges have been repaired but the original stone was returned to its original configuration and location, if disturbed. Finally, at Watoga, five ca. 1935 bridges are along the main road through the park. While the stone abutments and piers likely date to the New Deal, frequent flooding has necessitated repairs and replacements of materials. All of the superstructure materials are

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replacements. Repairs and replacements with in-kind materials diminishes aspects of materials and workmanship for vehicular bridges, but these resources still can be counted as contributing elements to a historic district.

Stonework is ubiquitous throughout the state parks and forests included in this MPD. Examples include retaining walls, steps, patios, culverts, bridge abutments, signage pillars, water fountains, fireplaces, and porch balustrades. Due to its native abundance, sandstone often was used. Both cut stone and fieldstone were incorporated into building projects. Dry stacked stone features prominently in resources such as culverts, walls, and fireplaces, although examples with mortared joints also are extant. The extensive use of stonework adhered to rustic landscape and architectural design principles because it used locally available material and was designed to blend into the naturalistic surroundings created in the parks and forests. The labor-intensive building methods also fulfilled New Deal work relief objectives. Stonework that retains integrity is an integral aspect of the overall landscape design found in New Deal era parks and forests, and should be counted as contributing elements to a historic district.

As previously noted, the CCC and WPA workers used locally available building materials for a variety of their projects. In some areas, stone was recovered from quarries. Although quarries have not been subjected to extensive investigation, it is known that all of the CCC camps in Watoga State Park utilized three quarries within the park for their stone. One of the quarries was in the Rock Run area, one was located behind the Island Lick Cabin area, and the third quarry’s location is unknown. As the source of building materials for projects within parks and forests, quarries can be counted as contributing elements to a historic district.

Mechanical resources that may contribute to a historic district include pump/well houses, spring houses, water filtration plants, and water fountains. One or more examples of these mechanical resources have been identified in the state parks and forests included in this MPD.

Pump/well houses have been found at Babcock State Park, Cabwaylingo and Cooper’s Rock state forests, Droop Mountain Battlefield State Park, Kumbrabow State Forest, and Lost River, Pinnacle Rock, Tomlinson Run, and Watoga state parks. They generally consist of three forms. The first is a one-story, side-gabled form featuring a cut stone façade and foundation. The roof structure consists of round logs. The second form is circular, built of cut stone, arched window and door openings and a conical roof. The third form is a one-story, hip-roofed building with exposed rafter tails, and a façade highlighted by round log corner columns with round log railing. Original details often present include iron hardware such as strap hinges, Dutch doors, multiple-paned wood sash, and wood window shutters. Some roofs still have wood shakes, but most have been covered with asbestos or asphalt shingles. On the interiors, the flooring is stone or concrete with a central well hole. Depending on their function, the pump houses have gasoline, electric, or hand water pumps. Gasoline and electric pumps are used to bring water from cisterns for use in toilets at picnic shelters and campgrounds. Hand pumps are used to provide water to campers. Examples of both WPA- and CCC-constructed pump houses are extant

One spring house has been identified to date, and is located at Cacapon Resort State Park. It is a one-story, hip-roofed building featuring a stone foundation and façade, with a gabled bay on the west end and an asphalt-shingled roof.

Water filtration plants have been found at Cabwaylingo State Forest and Holly River State Park. Each is a one-story, side-gabled building with a concrete foundation and wood siding. Built by the WPA, the plant at Holly River is further embellished with 9-pane wood window sash and central double doors of herringbone wood.

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Water fountains have been identified at Babcock State Park, Cabwaylingo State Forest, Cacapon Resort State Park, Cooper’s Rock State Forest, Greenbrier State Forest, Hawk’s Nest State Park, Holly River State Park, Kanawha State Forest, Lost River State Park, Pinnacle Rock State Park, Tomlinson Run State Park, and Watoga State Park. Built on concrete or stone pads and accessed via stacked stone steps, the water fountains generally are composed of stacked stone with concrete basins with drains. The water fountains at Holly River were built by the WPA and the remainder by the CCC.

Recreational resources that may be contributing to a historic district include barbeque pits and fireplaces, game courts, horseshoe pits, playgrounds, swimming pools, trails, trail shelters, and riding stables. The array of recreational resources reflects the assumption that park and forest visitors would engage in a variety of outdoor activities, which represented a departure from the passive enjoyment of public parks that had been the norm in earlier decades. All of these resources are rendered in the rustic style that was typical of CCC and WPA work during the 1930s.

Small-scale objects include a barbeque pit and free-standing fireplaces. Only one barbeque pit has been identified, and is at Holly River State Park. Built by the WPA ca. 1936 on the Laurel Fork Trail, it consists of five courses of stacked, rectangular cut stone, with an inner lip recessed from the top to hold metal grilles or grates; the pit is no longer used. Fireplaces are among the most numerous New Deal-era resources in the state parks and forests. They have been documented at Babcock, Cacapon, Droop Mountain Battlefield, Hawk’s Nest, Holly River, Lost River, and Pinnacle Rock state parks and at Cabwaylingo, Cooper’s Rock, Greenbrier, Kanawha, and Kumbrabow state forests. All are built of cut, stacked stone and many have brick inserts and metal grills. At Hawk’s Nest, there also are 10 picnic pads with fireplaces built into the back stone retaining walls and two picnic pads without fireplaces. The pads are basically long rectangles with stone retaining walls on three sides with the side walls sloping down to the ground. The fireplaces are about 5 feet high and 4 feet wide, while the pads are one of two dimensions: the smaller are 25 feet long and 11 feet wide; the larger are 37 feet long and 12 feet wide.

Recreational sites include game courts, horseshoe pits, and playgrounds. Game courts are located at Babcock, Cacapon, and Lost River state parks. At Babcock, there are a ca. 1936 shuffleboard court and a concrete ping-pong table that consists of four round concrete columns with a concrete slab top. Later additions include tennis, basketball, and volleyball courts, restroom facilities, a parking lot, picnic tables, and a picnic shelter. An overlook with benches looks out over Mann’s Creek Gorge. At Cacapon, the ca. 1935 facilities include tennis, volleyball, and basketball courts; a croquet court now used as a badminton court; and an abandoned horseshoe pit. Originally, a shuffleboard court was among the amenities but it has been removed. The basketball courts have been expanded and the volleyball court rotated. A baseball field in the main picnic area retains an original metal back stop. Additional horseshoe courts have been added to various locations in recent years. At Lost River, a ca. 1935 game court includes a one-story, gable-end storage building featuring a log façade stained red with white chinking and full dovetail notching. Other elements include four-light wood window sash, herringbone doors with iron hinges and hardware, and a solid stone foundation and steps with cheek walls. There are tennis, badminton, and croquet courts on a hill above the swimming pool. All three are outlined with stacked stone and are currently fenced.

A horseshoe pit has been identified at Pinnacle Rock. The horseshoe pit came about when WPA workers needed fill dirt to build a cistern. The pit is located directly below the cistern on a flat spot created by removing the dirt. Approximately 40 feet long and 8 feet wide, it occupies a terrace at the start of the Homestead Trail.

Cacapon is the only West Virginia state park or forest known to retain CCC-era playground equipment, all built

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of metal and wood. The playgrounds at the North Fork and Middle Creek cabin areas include a swing set and a see-saw. In the main picnic area just west of the lake, the playground has a swing set, a toddler swing set, a slide, a see-saw, monkey bars, and a circular swing with metal center pole. There are also 7 wood and metal benches located in the main picnic and play areas.

New Deal-era swimming pools have been identified at Cabwaylingo State Forest and Holly River, Lost River, and Watoga state parks. Swimming pool areas typically display rustic landscape design and architectural elements as well as a variety of structures. The materials used include stone and wood, as well as concrete. The pools are placed in broad, flat areas, while ancillary features may be sited on slopes or terraces with stone retaining walls, steps, and patios unifying the elements. At Cabwaylingo, the ca. 1936 rectangular swimming pool has a wading pool at one end and a concrete apron. A bathhouse with split wood siding and a double entry stands nearby, as well as a one-story filtration plant. The parking lot for the swimming pool is outlined with stacked stone walls or two to three courses. A large, terraced, cut stone wall extends along the south side of the swimming pool and up a hill.

Built by the WPA, the ca. 1936 swimming pool area at Holly River includes a pool, bathhouse, and filtration plant. The rectangular swimming pool has a wading pool at one end and a concrete apron. The bath house features vertical chestnut logs with cement chinking on the façade and horizontal chestnut logs in the gable ends. The filtration plant is housed in a one-story building with fletch chestnut wood siding, 9-pane wood window sash, and central double doors of herringbone wood. At Lost River, the ca. 1942 swimming pool is 75 feet long by 40 feet wide and is surrounded by concrete walks. Fencing around the pool is partially composed of a stone wall; remaining fencing consists of stone posts with fence rails between the posts and some chain link sections. The one-story bathhouse has a cut stone façade with board siding in the gable ends. The entry at the front gable end retains original light fixtures and double doors flanked by single leaf doors. Watoga’s ca. 1939 swimming pool area is approximately 150 feet long and 81 feet wide, with a full-sized pool and a children’s wading pool surrounded by a concrete apron. A stone fence with stone parapets encloses the pools; originally, horizontal wooden rails extended between the parapets but these have been replaced with solid wood members. The bathhouse at the pool area was built in 1948, as were a stone loggia, flagstone sidewalk, and stone-outlined parking lot.

Recreational structures include trails, trail shelters, and riding stables. New Deal-era walking and hiking trails are extant in all the parks and forests included in this MPD, with the exception of Panther State Forest/WMA. Designed to blend into their naturalistic settings, take advantage of views, and take visitors to key areas, their proliferation reflected the expectation that visitors’ recreational activities would include enjoying the scenic, natural, and historic qualities of each park and forest. The trails were hand-built and typically surfaced with either dirt or gravel; some trails are now paved. New Deal-era trail shelters are located alongside a small number of the trails. At Babcock State Park, the Island in the Sky Trail Shelter, built ca. 1936, is a one-story, hip-roofed structure with a stone foundation and floor and round log columns atop a closed stone wall/balustrade. Watoga State Park’s ca. 1938 shelter on Dragon Draft Trail originally was quite similar but the hip roof has been replaced with a shed roof. It also has wood benches on three sides on the interior. Lost River State Park is exceptional for having six New Deal-era trail shelters. The Cranny Crow Overlook shelter, built ca. 1935, is a one-story shelter of stacked stone with mortar joints. The saltbox-style roof is composed of orinite over wood. The south side of the shelter is open and the remaining three sides have arched openings in the stone with arched stone caps. The remaining shelters are built of chestnut logs. Built ca. 1935, all are one-story with either a saltbox or hip roof. Built on stone piers, the walls are composed of square logs with mortise and tenon joints with wood pegs. One long side is open and a bench spans the opposite wall.

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New Deal-era riding stables have been identified at Babcock, Cacapon Resort, and Lost River state parks. At Babcock, the ca. 1936 barn/stable is a two-story, side-gabled structure with a concrete foundation and two cupolas on the roof. It is three by eight bays and measures approximately 33 feet 6 inches by 74 feet. Finishes include fletch chestnut siding, six-pane wood window sash, and Dutch-style double doors. A small entrance porch is on the north façade and an entry stoop is on the rear elevation. The riding stable at Cacapon was constructed ca. 1935, is 3 bays by 8 bays, and measures 32 feet by 74 feet 6 inches. Built on a stone foundation, it rises one-and-one-half stories and has a side-gabled roof. The walls features fletch chestnut siding. The windows have either six-pane wood awning sash or six-over-six wood sash. A gable-end entry porch has square posts and rails on a wood deck. Finally, the ca. 1935 at Lost River is a two-story, 3-bay by 10-bay barn with a stone foundation. The gambrel roof is punctuated by two monitors. The walls are clad with board siding, and the windows have six-over-six wood sash. Large barn doors are centered on the south end wall. The north end wall has a single door with a shed-roofed canopy supported by square posts and a slatted balustrade. An adjacent paddock is enclosed with stacked stone posts with board rails between the posts.

Also within this category of contributing resources are smaller-scale structures, such as the registration building at Holly River State Park. As its name implies, it has been used to check-in and register park visitors. The 1-by-1 bay, one-story building measures approximately 6 feet by 6 feet. Rising from a rubble stone foundation, the walls also are built with rubble stone with mortared joints. The front-gabled roof is supported by round chestnut logs stained red. Asphalt shingles cover the roof. An entry without a door is centered on the primary gable end wall, while window openings are centered on the remaining three walls. Lacking sash, the window openings are edged with replacement lumber. Meanwhile, Cacapon Resort State Park retains a ca. 1935 miniature log cabin that is now used as a float exhibit during a local heritage festival. Measuring 6 feet by 4 feet, the side-gabled cabin is built with round logs with corner saddle notching. The roof is covered with wood shingles. The windows have 4-pane wood sash.

Historic sites that may be contributing to a historic district include a cemetery, coal mine portal, monument, original settler’s cabins, and a sulphur spring. At Kanawha State Forest, a small graveyard is within the Shrewsbury Hollow picnic and swimming pool area. It contains four graves, two of which are marked for the Shrewsbury family, early settlers in the region. The CCC is believed to have constructed the cut stone wall that encloses the site.

In Kanawha State Forest, the CCC sealed a 1920s coal mine portal with cut stone and mortar. A plaque at the mouth of the portal states, “Mine Closed By CCC / In 1940 / Co. 2599-S, 76 / Holding 11 Million / Gallons of Water / Kanawha State Forest / Charleston, W.Va.” A nearby interpretive sign explains that CCC crews discovered 26 mash barrels abandoned by bootleggers deep inside the mine. Opposite the portal are the remnants of a slag pile dam that was built from mine refuse during the late nineteenth century; the pile dam broke in 1938, destroying part of Camp Kanawha and several bridges.

At Cooper’s Rock State Forest, a large chunk of sandstone with a smoothed center panel bears the following words: IN MEMORY / OF / ROBERT FECHNER / DIRECTOR CCC / 1933-1939. The monument sits directly opposite an information kiosk and at the head of the path to the Main Overlook.

At Pinnacle Rock State Park, there is an abandoned ca. 1890 log cabin that is not currently included in any interpretive programs. At Watoga State Park, the ca. 1887 Workman-Jarvis Cabin was renovated by the CCC ca. 1935. It is a one-story, side-gabled log house with a loft. The square log façade has half-dovetail corner notching

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and cement chinking. Vertical board siding covers the gable ends. The building was renovated again in 1981 by park staff.

Also at Lost River State Park are the Lee Sulphur Springs. Sometime during the nineteenth century, property owners lined the sulphur springs with imported marble. Henry Lee’s heirs and subsequent land owners established a resort centered around the springs that included a hotel, bowling alley, and baths, but none of these resources are believed to be extant (Gioulis 2008:230-231). The CCC rehabilitated the spring and enclosed it with a square stone cube with an outlet. It is further housed in a ca. 1935, one-story, hip-roofed pavilion featuring a stone and concrete foundation as well as round log posts with bracing and a slatted balustrade.

Fire prevention and protection resources that may be contributing to a historic district include fire towers, fire hose cabinets, fire hydrants, and fire warning signs. Extant examples have been identified at Cabwaylingo, Cooper’s Rock, and Seneca state forests, Droop Mountain Battlefield, Lost River, and Watoga state parks, and Panther State Forest/WMA. Cabwaylingo and Seneca retain New Deal-era steel fire towers, although they are no longer used for their original purpose. Droop Mountain Battlefield State Park has a reconstruction of the original CCC tower. At Watoga State Park, the lookout tower is constructed of logs and now serves as a scenic lookout. Lost River and Watoga retain their original red CCC-constructed fire hose cabinets and maintain them in good condition. Cooper’s Rock State Forest has a fire warning sign that already is listed as a contributing resource within the Cooper’s Rock National Register historic district; it is the only fire warning sign known to be extant in the sixteen state parks and forests included in this MPD.

At Panther State Forest/WMA, an 18-foot by 24-foot cabin is adjacent to the fire tower. Its exact date of construction is not known but it likely was constructed as living quarters for the tower’s lookout. The 2-bay by 2-bay cabin is a one-story, side-gabled building with two concrete block interior chimneys and a metal roof. The walls and foundation are concrete block, and horizontal board siding covers the gable ends wall. The small, one-over-one wood windows have smooth concrete lintels and sills. An entry portico on the gable end wall is supported by end knee braces.

CCC/WPA-related resources that may be contributing to a historic district include a selection of service and storage buildings that are still extant. They include former barracks, an employees’ dormitory, a former CCC camp site, blacksmith shops, various utilitarian tool and equipment sheds, and supply houses.

Former barracks are at Cabwaylingo State Forest and Cacapon Resort and Watoga state parks. One of the former barracks is now used as a kitchen in the aforementioned group campsite in Cabwaylingo. Another former barracks is now used as a laundry building at Cacapon, while at Watoga, the former barracks is currently a storage building. All are simply detailed, one-story, gable-roofed buildings of frame construction, with wood siding and exposed rafter tails. A ca. 1935 building is now used as an employees’ dormitory at Lost River State Park. Built on a concrete block and stone foundation, the one-story, cross-gabled building has nine- and six-light wood window sash, many of which are paired, as well as wood siding, an interior concrete block chimney, and a small, shed-roofed entrance porch with square columns and a slatted balustrade.

At Kumbrabow State Forest, the site of the CCC’s Camp Bowers has been identified at the head of Mill Creek near the current junction of County Road 219/16 and Turkeybone Road. The CCC established Camp Bowers in July 1935 to develop and improve the forest. The camp remained active until 1941. Extant features include concrete footers and, in some cases, solid foundations of the camp buildings, making the military layout of the site easily discernable. The camp site is marked with a commemorative sign.

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Blacksmith shops have been identified at Droop Mountain Battlefield and Tomlinson Run state parks and Greenbrier State Forest. All have a similar form consisting of a small, one-story, side-gabled building of frame construction with wood siding. The Droop Mountain Battlefield blacksmith shop has a cut stone chimney while the other two shops have brick chimneys.

The New Deal-era utilitarian buildings include tool and equipment sheds, powder houses, and dynamite sheds. Examples are extant at Babcock, Cacapon Resort, Droop Mountain Battlefield, Hawk’s Nest, Holly River, Lost River, Tomlinson Run, and Watoga state parks and Greenbrier and Kanawha state forests. Most are simple, small-scale, frame buildings with little architectural detailing.

The supply houses at Babcock, Cacapon Resort, and Watoga state parks are identical, providing an example of the standardized designs developed for the CCC during the 1930s. Built on a stone foundation, each is a two-story, side-gabled building with a central two-story, projecting, gabled entrance bay with a forebay supported by large end knee braces. The entry has double herringbone freight doors with original iron hardware and is flanked by six-pane window sash. The walls are clad with wood siding, and a cupola is centered on the roof. The windows have six- and nine-pane wood sash with horizontal iron bars. A small, gabled wing features a herringbone freight door with original iron hardware.

Property Type Significance – Historic Districts

New Deal-era historic districts in West Virginia’s state parks and forests are eligible for the National Register under Criterion A. They are associated with the establishment of the state’s publicly owned park and forest system, and with the CCC and WPA programs created by the Roosevelt administration. These resources also are eligible for the National Register under Criterion C. Individual resources embody the distinctive characteristics of the NPS’s rustic style of architecture and/or landscape design. When considered collectively as a district within a park or forest, the New Deal-era resources represent a significant and distinguishable entity.

Property Type Registration Requirements – Historic Districts

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

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

- Managed forests and plantings that originated during the New Deal period and have been maintained according to professional forestry standards since that time;
- Natural features, such as streams, rivers, hillsides, valleys, and rocky outcroppings, that are characteristic of West Virginia’s topography and geology and are protected from unsympathetic development;
- New Deal-era landscaping features, such as roads, trails, stonework, and other structures, such as swimming pools, picnic shelters, and fireplaces, that were integral to the original landscape design.
- Contributing resources within the historic district should retain original construction materials such as stone and wood; their basic original form; original relationship to other New Deal-era landscape features (i.e., culverts must continue to provide drainage for roads and trails, while water fountains should be in a

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picnic area that also retains shelters, fireplaces, stonework, trails, and/or scenic views); and sympathetic repairs and maintenance using like materials and methods of construction.

- Historic sites that are contributing resources, such as gravesites and Civil War trenches, should be protected from unsympathetic development that would damage cultural resources;
- For all contributing resources to historic districts, sympathetic repairs and maintenance using like materials and methods of construction are important to maintaining integrity of design, workmanship, and materials. Interior spaces are of less importance to overall integrity than exterior spaces; however, interior spaces that are frequented by the public should retain original materials and design to the fullest feasible extent.

With regard to integrity, historic districts must have integrity of location and setting. Integrity of design, materials, and workmanship are more likely to be represented by the presence of New Deal-era landscaping features. Managed forests should be managed according to current forestry standards and are expected to incorporate practices that have been developed in the years since the New Deal ended. As such, vegetation, timber harvesting, and planting patterns that have evolved since the New Deal period do not detract from the integrity of design and materials of designed and managed landscapes. Integrity of feeling and association will be maintained if the resource retains physical characteristics that convey a sense of the New Deal period’s aesthetics and construction methods. Integrity of location and setting, along with integrity of design, materials, and workmanship of landscaping features, will convey integrity of feeling and association for New Deal-era historic districts.

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

For a resource to retain integrity of design, workmanship, and materials, original construction materials should be retained to the fullest feasible extent. Additionally, repairs, if present, should have been carried out using new materials that match the original in content, color, texture, shape, and size, and using construction methods as similar to the original as possible. Introduction of unsympathetic components that obliterate or obscure historic materials will erode integrity of contributing resources. At the same time, resources must be maintained in such a way that they continue to fulfill their original function and purpose to the fullest feasible extent. Some contributing resources are subject to weathering and wear and tear through daily use. Maintenance and repair of roads and trails as required to maintain safe usage according to their originally intended purposes should not be construed as eroding their integrity of design, workmanship, and materials. When needed to maintain a resource’s function and usability, introduction of new or replacement mechanical equipment, such as plumbing, water pumps, and electric lights, will not be construed as detracting from integrity of design, workmanship, and materials, so long as the equipment is unobtrusive in appearance either through design or visual screening. Introduction of new surfacing, such as gravel or asphalt on a walking trail or game court will not detract from integrity of design and workmanship so long as the original layout and/or alignment of the resource is maintained. Integrity of materials may be diminished if a new material, such as asphalt, is introduced to a resource that previously had a different surface, such as dirt or gravel. Similarly, introduction of a new form, such as a raised boardwalk on top of a walking trail, detracts from the integrity of materials and workmanship. If, however, the underlying layout and alignment is maintained then integrity of design will be maintained. Consequently, modifications to expand the accessibility of contributing resources, such as the addition of a

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wheelchair ramp to the approach of a footbridge or of a paved path around the perimeter of a reservoir, should not be considered as automatically detracting from the integrity of the resource.

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

For contributing resources to historic districts, certain aspects of integrity are particular to the nature of the resource. For example, historic sites, such as battlefields, coal mine portals, and springs, implicitly retain integrity of location as they cannot be physically moved. For resources such as cemeteries and battlefields, in which the landscape is a key element of the resource’s significance, unsympathetic additions should be strictly limited. Grave markers, soldiers’ monuments, fences, paths among gravesites, and other features typical of cemeteries and battlefields should be maintained without alterations to the fullest extent possible. Monuments erected during the New Deal to mark a historic site or commemorate a historic event should remain in their original placement to retain integrity of location.

Fire prevention and protection resources of substantial stature, such as fire towers, should retain integrity of their original location and setting. Objects, such as fire hose cabinets and fire signs, may be relocated from their original site if the relocation enhanced their continued functionality. Fire hydrants are presumed to be fixed in location as they must be connected to sub-surface water supply lines in order to function. The resource’s setting affects integrity in the sense that the resource’s original purpose should be apparent and feasible. For example, a fire tower’s setting should continue to be heavily wooded.

CCC-related resources may retain integrity of location, but this is not a necessity. The prefabricated and standardized nature of many individual CCC-related resources implies that they were not necessarily intended to occupy the same site permanently. CCC-related resources that were relocated either during the New Deal period or at some point thereafter in order to keep them in use will not have eroded integrity. If, however, a New Deal-era worker camp has been maintained more or less intact, such as at Camp Watoga in Watoga State Park, every effort should be made to retain the camp in its historic configuration.

Cooper’s Rock/Camp Rhododendron Recreational Historic District was listed in the National Register on May 15, 1991. Kanawha State Forest Historic District was listed in the National Register on March 25, 1993. The boundaries and contributing resources in each historic district may be amended in the future to include additional New Deal-era resources (Gioulis 2008:17).

Property Type Description – Structures

Some large-scale New Deal-era structures may be individually eligible for the National Register or be contributing resources to a historic district. This property type includes dams, manmade lakes and ponds, and reservoirs and cisterns. Examples of these engineering resources are evident in all 16 of the state parks and forests included in this MPD. Some have been altered due to replacement of failed materials or deterioration caused by weathering and deferred maintenance.

Dams and manmade lakes and ponds have been identified at Cacapon Resort, Tomlinson Run, and Watoga state parks and Kanawha and Seneca state forests. In ca. 1935 at Cacapon, the tributaries of Indian Run were dammed

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to form a 6-acre lake for recreational purposes. The dam is a stone core dam and the spillway is stone. A stone pedestal/column on the north side of the lake originally was used as an anchor for swimming buoys. In ca. 1940, WPA workers constructed a concrete gravity dam to impede the flow of Tomlinson Run, thus creating the 29-acre Tomlinson Run Lake. A walkway on the east side of the dam provides an observation point of the dam and the stream. Three dynamite shacks associated with the dam’s construction are still extant. The 11-acre fishing lake at Watoga has variously been known as Lake Killibuck, Lake Killbuck, Lake Monongoseneka, but through common usage the lake eventually became known simply as Watoga. It was created by damming Island Lick Run. During the 1950s, the lake was drained, cleaned, and converted to warm-water fishing. The dam and spillway were enlarged and reconfigured during the 1990s to improve local flood control.

In ca. 1939 at Kanawha, CCC workers built Davis Creek Dam to form the 1.5-acre Ellison Pond. Pinned to the solid rock streambed and built of concrete and cut sandstone, the impoundment dam is 100 feet in length and approximately 10 feet high. The pond originally was constructed for recreational purposes but, due to contaminated water, never functioned as such. Instead, it was used for flood control. Weir gates originally extended 3 feet beyond the top of the dam but these are no longer extant. Directly above the dam are two stone steps that lead into the pond. On the pond’s west side is a large stone retaining wall faced with sandstone has a set of seven steps going into the pond. At Seneca State Forest, Little Thorny Creek was dammed to form Seneca Lake. The original dam stood 24 feet wide at the top, 16 feet high, and 162 feet long. The CCC constructed the original dam in three months using 116,000 feet of cribbed logs and 4,000 cubic yards of clay. In 1951, the lake was converted to a trout impoundment, and the swimming area was closed in 1957. In 1999, a major rehabilitation project included draining the lake, removing the original cribbed logs, installing a drain pipe liner and new drain valve, enlarging the spillway, and installing a car bridge. At the lake’s tail, a set of stone steps leads down to a flagstone patio; this was built to access the original bathhouse, which has been replaced with a newer bathhouse and storage building.

The CCC built a flagstone dam at Kumbrabow State Forest as part of a fish hatchery station. According to historic drawings, the dam provided fresh water to fish rearing raceways, also built by the CCC. Although the dam is shown on early maps of the forest, recent survey efforts did not identify the dam and it is unknown if it is extant. Kumbrabow also has small log dams that the CCC built across small streams to improve fish habitat and spawning areas (Whetsell 2010). These types of dams also may still be present at other state parks or forests.

Reservoirs and cisterns have been found at Cabwaylingo, Kanawha, and Kumbrabow state forests and Pinnacle Rock and Watoga state parks. Typically built of concrete faced with cut stone, the reservoirs and cisterns provide water for toilets and water fountains at picnic areas and campgrounds. A cistern also is at the rear of the superintendent’s residence at Cabwaylingo State Forest. The reservoirs and cisterns vary in size, with the Kumbrabow State Forest cistern holding 10,000 gallons while those at Pinnacle Rock hold 1,500 gallons. At Kanawha, the reservoir originally supplied water to the CCC’s Camp Kanawha and later to forest facilities. The water pipes ran from the reservoir for a mile down to the camp.

Property Type Significance – Structures

Large-scale New Deal-era structures in West Virginia’s state parks and forests are eligible for the National Register under Criterion A. They are associated with the establishment of the state’s publicly owned park and forest system, and with the CCC and WPA programs created by the Roosevelt administration. These resources are eligible for the National Register under Criterion C. Individual resources embody the distinctive characteristics of a type, period, or method of construction prevalent among New Deal-era projects.

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Property Type Registration Requirements – Structures

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

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

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

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

For a large-scale structure to retain integrity of design, workmanship, and materials, original construction materials should be retained to the fullest feasible extent. Additionally, repairs, if present, should have been carried out using new materials that match the original in content, color, texture, shape, and size, and using construction methods as similar to the original as possible. Introduction of unsympathetic components that obliterate or obscure historic materials will erode integrity of structures. At the same time, resources must be maintained in such a way that they continue to fulfill their original function and purpose to the fullest feasible extent. When needed to maintain a resource’s function and usability, introduction of new or replacement mechanical equipment, such as a new sluice gate, will not be construed as detracting from integrity of design, workmanship, and materials, so long as the equipment is unobtrusive in appearance either through design or visual screening. Integrity of materials may be diminished if a new material, such as poured concrete, is introduced to a resource that previously had a different surface, such as cut stone or flagstone.

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

Property Type Description – Buildings

Some large-scale New Deal-era buildings may be individually eligible for the National Register or be contributing resources to a historic district. This property type includes comfort stations/restroom buildings, administrative buildings, picnic shelters, concession buildings, bathhouses, lodges and inns, superintendent’s and assistant superintendents’ residences, and settlers’ cabins. Examples of these buildings are evident in all 16 of the

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state parks and forests included in this MPD.

New Deal-era comfort stations/restroom buildings are located at Cabwaylingo State Forest, Cacapon Resort State Park, Kanawha State Forest, and Watoga State Park. They are generally side-gabled buildings constructed of stone and wood on concrete pads; some have chestnut siding. The original shake roofing shingles have been replaced with asphalt shingles. Hawk’s Nest State Park features a two-story, circular cut sandstone restroom building.

Administrative buildings include park and forest offices and headquarters; examples are extant at Cabwaylingo, Greenbrier, and Kanawha state forests and Holly River, Lost River, and Watoga state parks. They are generally large in scale, prominently placed within the park or forest, and rendered in the rustic style using wood and stone materials that were immediately available to each location. Most have been altered at least slightly, including adaptive re-use. At Cabwaylingo and Greenbrier state forests, the original administration buildings are now superintendents’ residences. Holly River State Park retains its rustic style, WPA-built administrative building, which also houses a restaurant. The original administrative building at Kanawha State Forest has been the assistant superintendent’s residence for a number of years. The administrative building at Lost River State Park currently houses both park offices and a gift shop while originally it served as a supply house. At Watoga State Park, the administrative building includes offices and a restaurant.

With the exception of Panther State Forest/WMA, all of the state parks and forests included in this MPD feature New Deal-era picnic shelters. Partially due to their ubiquity, the picnic shelters are integral to the public image and identity of West Virginia’s New Deal projects. The shelters also represent the essence of rustic architectural and landscape design. Among the most impressive examples is the Long Branch Picnic Shelter at Cabwaylingo. The ca. 1936 building is a one-story, side-gabled building with cut stone pillars supporting the roof. The 1-by-1 bay building measures 20 feet wide by 12 feet deep on the exterior. A stone wall encircles the shelter. The stone floor features a raised relief carving of a pine tree with crossed axes and the words “U.S.” and “CCC” alongside it. Such artistic embellishments are emblematic of the high level of craftsmanship practiced by CCC enrollees and are found on other New Deal-era architectural resources in West Virginia as well. A ca. 1938 picnic shelter at Tomlinson Run State Park is another fine example of this resource type. Built by the CCC, it is a long, one-story, side-gabled building with massive, cut sandstone chimneys on each end elevation. The overall exterior dimensions are 70 feet by 22 feet 3 inches. The façade also is clad with cut sandstone, while horizontal board siding clads the gable ends. The central section of the picnic shelter is open and has large, square columns with oversized, slightly scrolled brackets. The structural framing consists of hand-hewn roof trusses held together with iron strapping and wood pegs. The interior of the shelter has a stone floor, as does each fireplace alcove. The sandstone fireplaces have arched lintels with keystones and a fire box opening measuring approximately 3 feet by 5 feet. Each stone typically measures 2 feet seven inches wide by 1 foot 2 inches high by 1 foot 1 inch deep. Each mantel has projecting square end stones supporting a wood plank.

At Cooper’s Rock State Forest, the ca. 1937, T-plan concession building originally functioned as a first-aid station with living quarters in the two-room log cabin at the rear. It is constructed on a solid sandstone foundation with a crawl space in the rear. The primary façade features a round log structural system that originally was open but was enclosed when the building was adapted to its current use in ca. 1950. A large, centered, gabled entry bay is flanked by side-gabled pavilions that also have been enclosed. The rear two rooms feature round log construction with cement chinking and corner saddle notching. At Droop Mountain Battlefield State Park, the Civil War museum is housed in a former rental cabin built ca. 1935 by the CCC. In contrast, the concession building at Hawk’s Nest State Park appears to be fulfilling its original use.

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New Deal-era bathhouses have been identified at Cabwaylingo State Forest and Cacapon Resort, Holly River, and Lost River state parks. Cabwaylingo retains three historic bathhouses. The first, at Rick Ridge, is a ca. 1937, one-story, side-gabled building with a central monitor roof with a cut sandstone veneer over concrete block walls and foundation. The second, near the swimming pool, is a ca. 1936 one-story, hip-roofed building with gabled bays on the front and rear, exposed rafter tails, a double entry, and split wood siding. The third is a ca. 1937, two-story, side-gabled building that is now used for storage. The first floor is below grade and originally functioned as a bathhouse for a swimming area once located in the creek to the rear of the building. It has three metal roof monitors, concrete block walls on the first story and horizontal board siding on the second story, and two garage bays on the primary façade.

The ca. 1935 bathhouse at Cacapon is a particularly striking example of rustic architecture. The two-story, side-gabled building has a central gabled bay and projecting entrance bay with flanking gabled wings set at an angle to the center bay. A massive exposed stone end chimney, cut stone on the first story, and fletch chestnut siding on the upper story are among the rustic materials used. The primary entry features double doors flanked by shuttered paired windows with original iron hardware and is accessed via a flagstone deck with stone columns. The rear elevation has a centered bay with a porch accented by stone columns, wood rails, and flagstone flooring on the first story and an upper-story, partially open porch highlighted by a turned balustrade and paired square posts. Original exterior light fixtures are found at the bathhouse and its parking lot.

The WPA built the bathhouse at Holly River. It is a ca. 1936, one-story, hip-roofed building with vertical chestnut logs on the façade, horizontal chestnut logs at the gables, 12-paned fixed wood sash, and transoms over the entries. The Lost River bathhouse, built ca. 1942 by the CCC, is a one-story, side-gabled building centered, gabled bay on the front and rear buildings. The walls feature cut stone with board siding at the gable ends. The primary entry retains original light fixtures, double doors flanked by single leaf doors, and tripartite windows.

Cacapon State Resort Park features the first lodge built in the West Virginia state park system. Constructed ca. 1935 on a stone foundation, it is a long, two-story, 5-bay by 7-bay building with gabled wings and three large stone chimneys. Board-and-batten siding has been applied over the original log walls, while horizontal board siding covers the original board and batten siding at the gable ends. A two-story porch on the west façade shelters the original entrance. On a side elevation, a one-story, shed-roofed porch with square posts opens to a flagstone deck.

Superintendent's and assistant superintendent's residences are extant at Babcock, Cacapon, Droop Mountain Battlefield, Hawk's Nest, Holly River, Lost River, Tomlinson Run, and Watoga state parks and at Cabwaylingo, Cooper's Rock, Greenbrier, Kanawha, and Kumbrabow state forests. Although built in the rustic style, they display variations in ornamental detailing. Some incorporate Colonial Revival elements and others have Craftsman details. The Craftsman influence is especially evident in the superintendent's residences in West Virginia's state forests. These aspects include low-pitched gable roofs with overhanging eaves, exposed rafter tails, front porches with square columns, and the frequent use of large stones for the chimneys and foundations.

Hawk's Nest State Park boasts a ca. 1935 complex that includes a superintendent's residence attached to a museum and observatory. The plan is basically two rectangles at angles to each other and connected by a hyphen. The residence originally was a picnic shelter but was soon converted to staff lodging with alterations and additions made to the building over time. Connected to the residence via an enclosed hyphen, the museum occupies a tall, one-story, side-gabled building with a raised cut stone foundation. A three-sided, gable-roofed

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bay with multiple-pane wood windows projects from the rear wall. A massive, cut stone chimney is on northeast wall; on the interior, it is accented with a stone surround and wood mantel. The roof has two gabled dormers on the front and three on the rear. Log construction with “V” saddle notches and cement chinking and horizontal board siding are visible in the gable ends and on the dormers. The interior features an exposed roof truss system of large square logs and is supported by square logs with scrolled brackets and chisel-point ends. The interior side walls are divided into bays that originally housed the museum’s display cases. Historic metal light fixtures and tongue-and-groove wood flooring are extant. On the southwest wall of the museum, an elevated, gable-roofed hyphen leads to a two-story, hip-roofed, hexagonal observatory building with a circular deck on the upper floor. The lower walls are built of cut sandstone topped by a circular deck supported by large knee braces with chisel point ends. The upper portion of the observatory features a series of six- and three-pane wood window sash. The observatory is surrounded by a stone wall with stone piers and square wood rails.

At Lost River State Park, ca. 1800 and ca. 1840 settlers’ cabins were preserved by the CCC. The ca. 1800 cabin was dismantled and reconstructed by the CCC around 1935; at that time, they added the existing cut stone chimney and foundation to the building. Built on a cut stone foundation, it is a two-story, side-gabled log house with a painted log façade, six-over-six wood window sash, and an asphalt-shingled roof. A one-story, shed-roof porch with square posts and slatted balustrade spans the primary facade. The second cabin, known as the Bill Tussing Cabin, also was dismantled and reconstructed by the CCC, with the addition of a stone chimney. It is a one-and-one-half-story, side-gabled, single pen log house. Built on a stone pier foundation, the log walls feature half-dovetail and full dovetail notching, while wood shakes cover the roof and gable ends.

Property Type Significance – Buildings

Large-scale New Deal-era buildings in West Virginia’s state parks and forests are eligible for the National Register under Criterion A. They are associated with the establishment of the state’s publicly owned park and forest system, and with the CCC and WPA programs created by the Roosevelt administration. These resources are eligible for the National Register under Criterion C. Individual resources embody the distinctive characteristics of a type, period, or method of construction prevalent among New Deal-era projects.

Property Type Registration Requirements – Buildings

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

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

- Original construction materials (generally stone and wood), particularly on exterior surfaces;
- Their historic relationship to the overall New Deal-era landscape design and naturalistic setting for administrative areas;
- Their basic original form and rooflines;
- Original rustic design details and/or ornamentation;
- Sympathetic repairs and maintenance using like materials and methods of construction.

With regard to integrity, buildings described in this section typically must retain integrity of location. Some

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historic buildings were relocated from their original locations during New Deal construction projects and then rehabilitated. Consequently, these types of historic resources do not have to be in their original locations in order to retain integrity of location. Such resources, however, should remain in the locations where they were placed during the New Deal.

The building’s setting should demonstrate continuity over time. For example, buildings designed to be in public areas should continue to be in areas frequented by the public. Areas that have changed function over time, such as from service to public or from recreational to service, will have eroded integrity of setting. For a building to retain integrity of design, workmanship, and materials, original construction materials should be retained to the fullest feasible extent. With regard to historic buildings renovated by New Deal workers, such as settlers’ cabins, the workers sometimes added architectural features, such as chimneys, and these should be retained for maintain integrity of design, workmanship, and materials as they are relevant to the rustic design tenets described herein.

Repairs to buildings, if present, should have been carried out using new materials that match the original in content, color, texture, shape, and size, and using construction methods as similar to the original as possible. Introduction of unsympathetic components that obliterate or obscure historic materials will erode integrity. Interior spaces of buildings are of less importance to overall integrity than exterior spaces; however, interior spaces that are frequented by the public should retain original materials and design to the fullest feasible extent. Integrity of feeling and association will be maintained only if the resource retains physical characteristics that convey a sense of the New Deal period’s aesthetics and construction methods. Integrity of location and setting are necessary to convey integrity of feeling and association for administrative resources. Buildings also should retain at least some degree of integrity of design, workmanship, and materials in order to convey integrity of feeling and association.

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

Architectural resources still in use by employees and/or the public must conform to current building codes and must meet requirements for physical accessibility established under the Americans with Disabilities Act (ADA). Common and minor modifications (identified below) will not sufficiently affect the integrity of a building to cause it to be ineligible for listing. Common, acceptable modifications include:

- Changes to the interior configuration of spaces and interior finishes and features;
- Alterations (including replacement in kind) of deteriorated decorative and structural elements such as porch railings, columns, and stonework;
- Modifications or additions for fire exits;
- Replacement in kind of windows and doors;
- The addition of paving and ramps to increase physical access in compliance with ADA so long as their materials and designs are complementary to rustic design principles and naturalistic settings.

G. Geographical Data

The following parks and forests are included in this MPD: Babcock State Park; Cabwaylingo State Forest; Cacapon State Park; Coopers Rock State Forest; Droop Mountain Battlefield State Park; Greenbrier State Forest; Hawks Nest State Park; Kanawha State Forest; Holly River State Park; Kumbrabow State Forest; Lost River

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State Park; Panther State Forest/WMA; Pinnacle Rock State Park; Seneca State Forest; Tomlinson Run State Park; and Watoga State Park.

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H. Summary of Identification and Evaluation Methods

The multiple property listing of New Deal resources in West Virginia state parks and forests is based upon the *New Deal Historic Resource Survey* (Gioulis 2008). In 2007-2008, a grant from the West Virginia State Historic Preservation Office (SHPO) funded the survey of New Deal resources in sixteen West Virginia’s state parks and forests. Funding also was provided by the NPS in the U.S. Department of the Interior and administered by the West Virginia Division of Culture and History. Regulations of the U.S. Department of the Interior strictly prohibit unlawful discrimination in departmental Federally Assisted programs on the basis of race, color, national origin, age or handicap. Any person who believes he or she has been discriminated against in any program, activity or facility operated by a recipient of Federal Assistance should write to Office of Equal Opportunity, National Park Service, 1849 C Street, NW, Washington, DC 20240.

The survey focused on New Deal-era resources at Babcock State Park, Cabwaylingo State Forest, Cacapon Resort State Park, Cooper’s Rock State Forest, Droop Mountain Battlefield State Park, Greenbrier State Forest, Hawk’s Nest State Park, Holly River State Park, Kanawha State Forest, Kumbrabow State Forest, Lost River State Park, Panther State Forest/WMA, Pinnacle Rock State Park, Seneca State Forest, Tomlinson Run State Park, and Watoga State Park.

Background research began at the West Virginia Division of Natural Resources offices in Charleston to examine blueprints, photographs, and other historic research material for the pertinent parks and forests. Also consulted were the main archives at the Cultural Center in Charleston as well as the West Virginia Collection at West Virginia University. Online research included websites for New Deal programs in general, the CCC and WPA in particular, and for each park or forest, either through WV State Parks or the WV Division of Forestry (Gioulis 2008:3).

Field investigations at each park or forest began with meeting the Superintendent or another staff member to review available on-site data about New Deal-era resources. Staff also provided contact information for former CCC enrollees in possession of relevant information. During fieldwork, individual historic resources were digitally photographed, measured, and documented. Only gross exterior measurements were recorded. When numerous examples of a resource type existed, such as fireplaces, water fountains, and culvert heads, these were grouped in a single entity; similarly, roads within a park or forest were treated as a single site, as were trails. For example, 35 fireplaces are located in three separate areas of Cooper’s Rock State Forest. The resource is noted in the List of Sites as one object with the number of resources noted in each location in the description: fifteen fireplaces in the picnic area and so on (Gioulis 2008:4).

Concurrent with the site visits, further research took place at local libraries, along with an overall review of the New Deal program at the Cultural Resources Center, Bicentennial House in Morgantown, courtesy of Mr. Larry Sypolt. Mr. Sypolt is generally recognized in the state as the authority on the New Deal program in West Virginia. Another state resident, Mr. Robert Whetsell of Elkins, shared his experiences about the New Deal resources during his completion of a video about the same. Mr. Sypolt also arranged an exhibit at Glenville State College on the New Deal program in Gilmer County and Glenville. Other exhibits consulted included the collection at the CCC Museum in Quiet Dell, West Virginia; a personal memoir exhibit of Watoga State Park held at the Hillsboro Public Library; the CCC Museum at Watoga State Park, and a New Deal exhibit at the Cultural Center in Charleston (Gioulis 2008:5).

Several CCC enrollees were interviewed by telephone or via email. These included Mr. Raymond Daugherty,

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Camp Hardy, Lost River State Park; Mr. Stanley “Judd” Anderson, WPA, Holly River State Park; and Mr. Clark Galford, Camp Seneca, Seneca State Forest. Previous Superintendents of Babcock State Park were also interviewed by mail, telephone, and in person. These included Mr. Mark Wylie, current Superintendent of Watoga State Park, Mr. Sam Cowell, current Superintendent of Carnifex Ferry State Park, and Mr. Clyde Crowley, Retired Superintendent (Gioulis 2008:5).

Historic photographs of the resources and/or parks and forests were provided by the West Virginia Collection at West Virginia University; the West Virginia Division of Natural Resources; West Virginia State Archives; the individual parks and forests; and the personal collection of Mrs. Bonnie Watts, Office Clerk at Cabwaylingo State Forest. Mr. Ken McClintic, current Superintendent of Holly River State Park, and Mr. Stanley “Judd” Anderson, author provided photos of Holly River State Park’s construction and resources (Gioulis 2008:5).

Findings of the field investigations and background research were reported for each park and forest, and included a Park/Forest Map, Preface, Methodology, Outline History of the Park/Forest, a List of Sites, UTM References, Analysis and Recommendations, and a Bibliography. UTM references were noted in the survey report and on the Historic Property Inventory (HPI) forms prepared for the project. Resource locations also were noted on individual USGS sheets submitted for each park and forest (Gioulis 2008:4-5).

The properties are grouped under four historic contexts that conform with the four major themes that best define the New Deal-era resources: (1) state park and forest development in West Virginia from 1933 to 1942; (2) New Deal and CCC federal relief programs in West Virginia’s state parks and forests from 1933 to 1942; (3) rustic style architecture in West Virginia’s state parks and forests built between 1933 and 1942; and (4) landscape design in West Virginia’s state parks and forests between 1933 and 1942.

The property types are organized by function. Integrity requirements were based on knowledge of existing properties. The architectural and physical features of the surveyed New Deal-era resources, derived from the aforementioned survey, were considered in developing the outlines of potential registration requirements. The nominated parks and forests included with this MPD are the first phase of nominations. They were chosen because they are representative of the important historical events and architectural and landscape designs documented during the survey.

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