family tree of the national park system
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A Chart with Accompanying Text Designed to Illustrate the Growth of the National Park System 1872-1972
by
Ronald F. Lee
In observing the centennial of the world’s first national park, it is fitting that we examine the evolution of our National Park System. The creation of Yellowstone National Park in 1872 set a momentous precedent. From it sprang the trunk of our “family tree.” But this trunk, so prominent in the eyes of the world, often obscures roots of considerable proportion and sometimes greater antiquity. Memorials, monuments, historic sites, cemeteries, battlefields, recreational areas, the parks of the national capital—all had separate and distinctive origins and all finally joined the trunk to form the richly diverse unity that we now call the National Park System. Knowledge of how they grew together in a unified system is vital to understanding the value and meaning of one of America’s proudest possessions—its National Park System.

In this booklet Ronald F. Lee shows the origins and development of the “family tree.” Mr. Lee is a National Park Service veteran of high distinction. He entered the Service in 1933 as historian at Shiloh National Military Park, Tennessee, and rose rapidly to Chief Historian and Assistant Director of the Service, and finally Director of the Northeast Region, the post from which he retired in 1966. He has observed first-hand the growth of the many facets of the family tree, and he has delved into the records to verify his observations.

We of the National Park Service are grateful to Mr. Lee for this lucid and imaginative study of the process by which the National Park System attained its present content and dimensions and to the Eastern National Park and Monument Association for its generosity in publishing this booklet.

George B. Hartzog, Jr.
Director, National Park Service

March 1, 1972
To my wife

Jean P. Lee
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Family Tree Chart

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In the century between 1872 and 1972 the National Park System grew from a single, original great public reservation called Yellowstone National Park to embrace almost 300 natural, historical, recreational, and cultural properties situated throughout the United States, its territories, and island possessions. These properties came to include increasingly diverse categories of areas—not only National Parks, but also National Monuments, National Memorials, National Military Parks, National Parkways, National Recreation Areas, National Seashores, National Scenic Riverways, National Scenic Trails, and others. How did this remarkable growth and diversification occur? Does it make sense today? The simplest way to answer these questions and comprehend the long evolution of the National Park System is through the use of a very old device, a chronological diagram, in brief a *National Park System Family Tree*, which accompanies this publication.

The *Family Tree* has several roots, a main trunk, and seven branches that illustrate the diverse origins and later growth of the principal parts of the System. The main trunk of the tree is the National Park line, which begins in 1872 with the establishment of Yellowstone National Park, the first national park in the world. The several roots converge upon and are incorporated into this main trunk at two major junctures, one in 1916 when the National Park Service was established, and the second in 1933 when all Federal park properties were consolidated by the Reorganization of 1933. Thereafter the System grew in size and scope through three decades from 1933 to 1964. In 1964 it was redefined by identifying three major categories of areas—natural, historical, and recreational—and by assigning each unit to its appropriate category. Separate but interdependent administrative policies were then developed for each category. The System continued to grow vigorously between 1964 and 1972 and a new category of cultural parks was added. The *Family Tree* ends with a diagrammatic illustration of the status
of the System as of March 1, 1972, the beginning of the National Parks centennial year.

The following sections describe and interpret the various roots and branches of the *Family Tree*, here called *lines*, and contain detailed chronologies identifying the place of each unit in the System. The date selected for each area is, with a few exceptions, the date of the *earliest* enabling legislation, executive proclamation, or departmental order authorizing or establishing the area. When a National Monument later became a National Park both dates are shown. Dates of some of the most significant general legislation affecting the National Park System and some other related events are also included. The *Family Tree* illustrates the cumulative achievements of successive Congresses over almost two centuries in preserving major elements of the Nation's historic and natural heritage and gradually uniting them into one National Park System for the benefit of all the people.
Yellowstone National Park, established March 1, 1872, marks the beginning of the National Park line and the center of gravity of the chart. A historian of National Park policies, John Ise, calls the Yellowstone Act “so dramatic a departure from the general public land policy of Congress, it seems almost a miracle.” Although Yosemite State Park, created by Federal cession in 1864 to protect Yosemite Valley and the Mariposa Big Tree Grove, was an important conservation milestone, Yellowstone was the first full and unfettered embodiment of the National Park idea—the world’s first example of large-scale wilderness preservation for all the people. The United States has since exported the idea around the globe.

The remarkable Yellowstone Act withdrew some two million acres of public land in Wyoming and Montana Territories from settlement, occupancy, or sale and dedicated it “as a public park or pleasuring-ground for the benefit and enjoyment of the people.” Furthermore, the law provided for preservation of all timber, mineral deposits, natural curiosities, and wonders within the park “in their natural condition.” The twin purposes of preservation and use, so important and so susceptible to conflict, yet so eloquently reaffirmed by Congress when the National Park Service was established in 1916, were there from the beginning.

Once invented—and Yellowstone National Park was an important social invention—the National Park idea was attacked by special interests, stoutly defended by friends in Congress, and refined and confirmed between 1872 and 1916. During this period fourteen more National Parks were created, most of them closely following the Yellowstone prototype. Their establish-
ment extended the National Park concept throughout the West. Here are the successive areas:

- 1872, March 1: Yellowstone, Mont.-Wyo.-Idaho
- 1875, March 3: Mackinac Island, Mich. (ceded to Michigan, 1895)
- 1890, Sept. 25: Sequoia, Calif.
  Oct. 1: Yosemite, Calif.
  Oct. 1: General Grant, Calif.
- 1903, Jan. 9: Wind Cave, S. Dak.
- 1904, April 27: Sullys Hill, N. Dak. (converted to Game Preserve, 1931)
- 1906, June 29: Platt, Okla.
- 1906, June 29: Mesa Verde, Colo.
- 1910, May 11: Glacier, Mont.
- 1915, Jan. 26: Rocky Mountain, Colo.
- 1916, Aug. 1: Hawaii, Hawaii
- 1916, Aug. 9: Lassen Volcanic, Calif.
- 1916, Aug. 25: Enabling Act to create a National Park Service

Each of these National Parks has its own unique history. Collectively, this history is dotted with names important in conservation including, among many others, Frederick Law Olmsted; Cornelius Hedges and Nathaniel P. Langford; Professor F. V. Hayden; John Muir; William Gladstone Steel; George Bird Grinnell; J. Horace McFarland; successive Secretaries of the Interior from Carl Schurz to Franklin K. Lane; many members of Congress including Rep. John Fletcher Lacey of Iowa and Senator George G. Vest of Missouri; and successive Presidents including Ulysses S. Grant and Theodore Roosevelt.

One milestone in this history is notable—the emergence of a distinction between National Parks and National Forests. Eighteen years elapsed after the Yellowstone Act before another scenic park was authorized, and then three—Sequoia, Yosemite, and General Grant—were created in the single year of 1890. Yosemite and General Grant were set aside as "reserved forest lands," but like Sequoia they were modeled after Yellowstone and named National Parks administratively by the Secretary of the Interior. The very next year, in the Forest Reserve Act of 1891, Congress separated the idea of forest conservation from the National Park idea. That act granted the President authority to create, by executive proclamation, permanent forest reserves on the public domain. Here is the fork in the road beyond which National Parks and National Forests proceeded by separate paths. Within sixteen years, Presidents Cleveland, McKinley, and particularly Theodore Roosevelt established 159 National Forests containing more than 150 million acres. By 1916 Presidents Taft and Wilson had added another 26 million acres. During this same period each new National Park had to be created by individual Act of Congress, usually after many years of work. Nevertheless, by 1916 eleven
National Parks including such superlative areas as Mount Rainier, Crater Lake, Mesa Verde, Glacier, Rocky Mountain, and Hawaii, had been added to the original four and Mackinac abolished, bringing the total number to fourteen and the acreage to approximately 4,750,000.

Establishment of these first National Parks reflected in part changing American attitudes toward nature. The old colonial and pioneering emphasis on rapid exploitation of seemingly inexhaustible resources was at last giving way, among some influential Americans, to an awakened awareness of the beauty and wonder of nature. In his book *Nature and the American*, published by the University of California Press in 1957, Dr. Hans Huth presents a fascinating account of the changing viewpoints toward nature in the United States which preceded and accompanied the rise of the conservation movement. America’s leadership in National Parks is further explained by Dr. Roderick Nash in a stimulating article entitled “The American Invention of National Parks” published in the Fall 1970 issue of *American Quarterly*. In his view it resulted from four main factors—our unique experience with nature on the American continent, our democratic ideals, our vast public domain, and our affluent society.

The movement that resulted in making Yellowstone the world’s first National Park had its specific origins, however, in the discoveries of the Folsom-Cook Expedition of 1869, the Washburn-Doane Expedition of 1870, and the Hayden Expedition of 1871. The spirit of the discoverers, embodied into law through the efforts of Delegate William H. Clagett of Montana, Rep. Henry L. Dawes of Massachusetts, Senator Samuel C. Pomeroy of Kansas, and others, is symbolized by discussions the Washburn-Doane party held around their campfire at Madison Junction on September 19, 1870, as their trip neared its end. Nathaniel P. Langford related the story in his diary published many years later, a story so often retold in later years it has become the single best known Service tradition:

Last night, and also this morning in camp, the entire party had a rather unusual discussion. The proposition was made by some member that we utilize the result of our exploration by taking up quarter sections of land at the most prominent points of interest, and a general discussion followed. One member of our party suggested that if there could be secured by pre-emption a good title to two or three quarter sections of land opposite the lower fall of the Yellowstone and extending down the river along the canyon, they would eventually become a source of great profit to the owners. Another member of the party thought that it would be more desirable to take up a quarter section of land at the Upper Geyser Basin, for the reason that that locality could be more easily reached by tourists and pleasure seekers. A third suggestion was that each member of the party pre-empt a claim, and in order that no one should have an advantage over the others, the whole should be thrown into a common pool for the benefit of the entire party.

Mr. Hedges then said that he did not approve of any of these plans—that there ought to be no private ownership of any portion of that region, but that
the whole of it ought to be set apart as a great National Park, and that each one of us ought to make an effort to have this accomplished.

The appeal of this story lies in the judgment by these Montana pioneers a century ago that, in projecting the future of Yellowstone’s superlative natural wonders, the public good should be placed above exploitation for private gain. Concern that private land claimants would soon seek to exploit these wonders was shared by many supporters of the Yellowstone Act including Prof. Hayden, Delegate Clagett, and Senator Lyman Trumbull of Illinois. The issue of public good versus private gain, seldom as clearly drawn as at Yellowstone, is a recurring theme throughout the history of the National Park System. The whole modern movement for environmental conservation echoes with the same conflict. Yellowstone National Park stands as an enduring symbol of enlightened response to this issue, the kind of response even more urgently needed today if we are to succeed in preserving our environmental heritage.

When establishment of the National Park Service finally came under consideration in Congress in 1916, J. Horace McFarland, President of the American Civic Association and an outstanding conservationist, expressed the views of many others in the following words, taken from his testimony before the House Committee on the Public Lands:

The parks are the Nation's pleasure grounds and the Nation's restoring places, recreation grounds. . . . The national parks, Mr. Chairman, are an American idea; it is one thing we have that has not been imported. . . . Each one of these national parks in America is the result of some great man's thought of service to his fellow citizens. These parks did not just happen; they came about because earnest men and women became violently excited at the possibility of these great assets passing from public control. . . . These great parks are, in the highest degree, as they stand today, a sheer expression of democracy, the separation of these lands from the public domain, to be held for the public, instead of being opened to private settlement.

NATIONAL MONUMENT LINE I, 1906-1916
DEPARTMENT OF THE INTERIOR

While the early National Parks were being created, a separate movement got under way to preserve the magnificent cliff dwellings, pueblo ruins, and early missions discovered by cowboys, army officers, ethnologists, and other explorers on the vast public lands of the Southwest from plunder and destruction by pot-hunters and vandals. The effort to secure protective legislation
began early among historically minded scientists and civic leaders in Boston and spread to similar circles in Washington, New York, Denver, Santa Fe, and other centers during the 1880's and 1890's. Thus was born the National Monument idea. With important help from Rep. John Fletcher Lacey of Iowa and Senator Henry Cabot Lodge of Massachusetts, it was written into law in the Antiquities Act of 1906—with profound consequences for the National Park System.

The National Monument idea extended the principle of the Forest Reserve Act of 1891 to antiquities and objects of scientific interest on the public domain. It authorized the President, in his discretion, "to declare by public proclamation historic landmarks, historic and prehistoric structures, and other objects of historic or scientific interest" situated on lands owned or controlled by the United States to be National Monuments. The act also prohibited the excavation or appropriation of antiquities on Federal land without a permit.

Between 1906 and 1970, under this authority, eleven Presidents proclaimed 87 National Monuments—36 historic and 51 scientific. Sixty-three are thriving National Monuments in the National Park System of 1972, eleven formed the basis for creation of nine National Parks, one became a National Battlefield, one a National Historic Site, one was added to a National Parkway, and ten small ones have been abolished. The Antiquities Act is therefore the original authority for one in every four units of the National Park System. These areas, counting their original boundaries and subsequent additions, contained approximately 12 million acres in 1970. The great majority of these acres, approximately 11,845,000, are in scientific monuments. Only 155,000 acres have been set aside for historic monuments. In addition to 87 National Monuments established under the Antiquities Act, between 1929 and 1969 28 others were authorized by individual Acts of Congress, generally on the pattern of those established by proclamation.

Between 1906 and 1933 three Federal agencies, the Departments of Interior, Agriculture and War, initiated and administered separate groups of National Monuments. In the Family Tree, these form three National Monument lines, one for each department. Following is the first of these three lines, representing National Monuments established between 1906 and 1916 on lands administered by the Department of the Interior.

When President Theodore Roosevelt signed the Antiquities Act on June 8, 1906, Interior Department officials were well aware that the public domain and Indian lands contained remarkable natural wonders, great Indian ruins, and magnificent cliff dwellings that badly needed permanent protection. As early as 1889 Congress authorized the President to reserve the land on which the well known Casa Grande Ruin was situated from settlement or sale. In 1904, at the request of the General Land Office, Dr. Edgar Lee Hewett had made a comprehensive review of all the Indian antiquities lo-
cated on Federal lands in Arizona, New Mexico, Colorado, and Utah. After consultations with many other scientists, particularly those in the Bureau of American Ethnology, he had recommended specific sites for preservation. Hewett's review did not extend to public lands outside the Southwest, however, and no systematic survey had been made by anyone on any public lands to identify natural wonders that should be made National Monuments. The Antiquities Act made no provision for surveys. The Interior Department was therefore forced to rely largely for National Monument proposals upon an improvised combination of sources—recommendations from individual scientists or government officials exploring the West; accidental discoveries by cowboys or prospectors; offers by private citizens of donations of land suitable for preservation as monuments; projects conceived by local citizens and sponsored by members of Congress, some of which had been pending before Congress years before the Antiquities Act became law. On this basis, between 1906 and 1916 the Interior Department recommended and Presidents Roosevelt, Taft, and Wilson proclaimed twenty National Monuments, eighteen situated on the public domain or Indian lands and two — Muir Woods and Sieur de Monts — on donated lands. Seven were historic and thirteen scientific, as follows:

**Historic National Monuments:**
- 1906, Dec. 8 Montezuma Castle, Ariz.
- 1907, March 11 Chaco Canyon, N. Mex.
- 1908, Sept. 15 Tumacacori, Ariz.
- 1909, March 20 Navajo, Ariz.
- 1909, Nov. 1 Gran Quivira, N. Mex.
- 1910, March 23 Sitka, Alaska

**Scientific National Monuments:**
- 1906, Dec. 8 Petrified Forest, Ariz.
- 1908, Jan. 9 Muir Woods, Calif.
  - Apr. 16 Natural Bridges, Utah
  - May 11 Lewis & Clark Cavern, Mont.
- 1909, July 31 Mukuntuweap, Utah
  - Sept. 21 Shoshone Cavern, Wyo.
- 1910, May 30 Rainbow Bridge, Utah
- 1911, May 24 Colorado, Colo.
- 1914, Jan. 31 Papago Saguaro, Ariz.
- 1915, Oct. 4 Dinosaur, Utah
- 1916, July 8 Sieur de Monts, Maine
  - Aug. 9 Capulin Mt., N. Mex.
- 1916, Aug. 25 Enabling Act to create National Park Service

Devils Tower was the first National Monument, proclaimed by President Theodore Roosevelt on September 24, 1906. It was created to protect a well
known Wyoming landmark, a 600-foot-high massive stone shaft sometimes visible in that almost cloudless region for nearly 100 miles and often used by Indians, explorers, and settlers as a guidepost. In December 1906, three more National Monuments were proclaimed — El Morro, New Mexico, famous for its prehistoric petroglyphs and hundreds of later inscriptions, including those of 17th century Spanish explorers and 19th century American emigrants and settlers; Montezuma Castle, Arizona, one of the best preserved cliff dwellings in the United States; and Petrified Forest, Arizona, well known for its extensive deposits of petrified wood, Indian ruins and petroglyphs. Of the twenty National Monuments that eventually composed this group, three later formed the nuclei for National Parks — Mukuntuweap for Zion, Sieur de Monts for Acadia, and Petrified Forest for the park of the same name. Three small areas were eventually abolished — Lewis and Clark Cavern, Shoshone Cavern, and Papago Saguaro. Within the decade of 1906-16 the National Monument idea became well established as a means of creating both historic and scientific parks.

MINERAL SPRINGS LINE, 1832-1916

Mineral springs have been sought out for their medicinal properties since ancient times. Medicinal bathing reached its height of popularity in Europe during the 18th and 19th centuries when tens of thousands of persons sought out such world famous spas as Bath, Aix-les-Bains, Aachen, Baden-Baden and Carlsbad. As mineral springs were discovered in the New World, they also came to be highly valued. By 1800, places like Saratoga Springs, New York, Berkeley Springs and White Sulphur Springs, West Virginia, and French Lick, Indiana, were on their way to becoming popular American resorts.

When significant mineral springs were found on western public lands it was natural for the Federal Government to become interested. In 1832 Hot Springs, Arkansas, was set aside as a Federal reservation to protect some 47 unusual hot springs that emerge through a fault at the base of a mountain. They were considered to have important medicinal properties significant to the nation. In 1870 the area was recognized by Congress as the Hot Springs Reservation and in 1921 it was made a National Park. Hot Springs is a health resort and spa rather than a scenic or wilderness area. Visitors have benefited from taking the waters at Hot Springs for more than a century and a half.
In 1902 the Federal Government purchased 32 mineral springs near Sulphur, Oklahoma, from the Choctaw and Chickasaw Indians. They were considered to have important health giving and invigorating properties. The Sulphur Springs Reservation was placed under the jurisdiction of the Secretary of the Interior who shortly acquired some additional land. In 1906 Congress passed legislation renaming the area Piatt National Park in honor of Senator Orville Platt of Connecticut who had been prominent in Indian affairs and had died shortly before.

When the National Park Service was established in 1916 the Hot Springs Reservation and Piatt National Park were placed in the National Park System. They provide an interesting though somewhat tenuous link to the long history of spas and the ancient custom of “taking the waters.”
A new era for National Parks and Monuments opened on August 25, 1916, forty-four years after the establishment of Yellowstone, when President Woodrow Wilson signed legislation creating a new Federal bureau, a National Park Service. This action culminated years of effort by distinguished citizens and legislators including among others, J. Horace McFarland, President of the American Civic Association; Secretaries of the Interior Walter Fisher and Franklin K. Lane; Presidents William Howard Taft and Woodrow Wilson; Frederick Law Olmsted, Jr.; Representatives William Kent and John E. Raker of California; Senator Reed Smoot of Utah; and, of course, Stephen T. Mather and Horace M. Albright.

The need for a separate bureau to administer and coordinate policies and plans for the National Parks and National Monuments had become widely recognized by 1916. The act created a bureau to “promote and regulate the use of the Federal areas known as national parks, monuments, and reservations hereinafter specified by such means and measures as conform to the fundamental purpose of the said parks, monuments, and reservations, which purpose is to conserve the scenery and the natural and historic objects and the wild life therein and to provide for the enjoyment of the same in such manner and by such means as will leave them unimpaired for the enjoyment of future generations.” The act provided that the Service would supervise the National Parks and National Monuments then under the jurisdiction of the Department of the Interior, together with the Hot Springs Reservation in Arkansas, and such other National Parks and reservations of like character as Congress might thereafter establish. On August 25, 1916, the Interior Department administered 14 National Parks, 21 National Monuments (including Pinnacles, California, transferred from the Department of Agriculture to Interior in 1910), the Hot Springs Reservation and Casa Grande Ruin. Thus the new Service was launched with responsibilities for 37 diverse areas.
When the Service was established, a new idea—the National Park System—was also born. Before 1916 there were individual National Parks and National Monuments but they were uncoordinated and there was no System. Between 1916 and 1933, Stephen T. Mather and Horace M. Albright, the first and second Directors of the Service, with the support of successive Secretaries of the Interior, Presidents, Members of Congress, conservationists, writers, and others laid the foundations for today’s National Park System. Here lie the roots of National Park Service policies and programs still familiar to visitors and employees today— the uniformed ranger service, the information and interpretive programs, and the professional wildlife, forestry, historical, architectural, and landscape services.

During this period, in spite of the dislocations of World War I and the onset of the Great Depression, the National Park System was almost doubled in size. Public lands could still be secured for National Parks and Monuments, and large wilderness tracts were set aside while there was still time. This was the period when Americans began to take to the automobile to “See America First.” Four cars were registered in 1895, eight thousand in 1900, nearly half a million in 1910, and twenty-three million in 1930. The National Park System (1) grew substantially larger; (2) was extended into the eastern United States, becoming truly national; and (3) historical holdings were quadrupled and the groundwork laid for a coordinated national historic preservation program.

Here is the record up to but not including the Reorganization of 1933:

Natural Areas:

1917, Feb. 26  Mt. McKinley N.P., Alaska
1918, Sept. 24  Katmai N.M., Alaska
1919, Nov. 19  Zion N.P., Utah
1921, March 4  Hot Springs N.P., Ark.
1922, Oct. 21  Fossil Cycad N.M., S. Dak.
1923, Oct. 25  Carlsbad Cave N.M., N. Mex.
1924, May 2  Craters of the Moon N.M., Idaho
1925, Feb. 26  Glacier Bay N.M., Alaska
1925, Nov. 21  Lava Beds N.M., Calif.
    May 22  Shenandoah N.P., Va.
1926, May 25  Mammoth Cave N.P., Ky.
1928, Feb. 25  Bryce Canyon N.P., Utah
1929, Jan. 19  Acadia N.P., Maine

The precise period meant here is from August 25, 1916, when enabling legislation was enacted to establish the National Park Service, to June 10, 1933, when President Franklin D. Roosevelt signed Executive Order 6166 substantially enlarging the National Park System.
1929, March 4 Badlands N.M., S. Dak.
1929, April 12 Arches N.M., Utah
1932, March 17 Great Sand Dunes N.M., Colo.
1933, Jan. 18 White Sands N.M., N. Mex.
1933, Feb. 11 Death Valley N.M., Calif.
1933, March 2 Black Canyon of the Gunnison N.M., Colo.

Historical Areas:
1917, June 29 Verendrye N.M., N. Dak.
1918, Aug. 3 Casa Grande N.M., Ariz.
1919, Dec. 12 Scotts Bluff N.M., Nebr.
1919, Dec. 12 Yucca House N.M., Colo.
1923, Jan. 24 Aztec Ruins N.M., N. Mex.
1923, March 2 Hovenweep N.M., Utah-Colo.
1923, May 31 Pipe Spring N.M., Ariz.
1924, Dec. 9 Wupatki N.M., Ariz.
1930, July 3 Colonial N.M., Va.
1933, March 2 Morristown N.H.P., N. J.

The increase in natural area holdings is spectacular. Six new National Parks were authorized or established, six more were created out of National Monuments or other reservations, eleven new scientific National Monuments were proclaimed from Interior Department lands, and one was authorized by Congress. Each had its own unique qualities and history. These twenty-four reservations, including all subsequent additions, embraced more than 11½ million acres in 1970, more than two-fifths of the acreage in the whole System.

The first of these great reservations was Mount McKinley National Park, Alaska, authorized in 1917 to protect the Dall or white Alaska mountain sheep, caribou, Alaska moose, grizzly bear and other wildlife from threatened depletion or extinction. It is the second largest National Park, focusing on Mount McKinley, the highest mountain in North America, rising 20,320 feet from low surrounding terrain, “magnificently aloof among its mountain neighbors.” Two great Alaskan National Monuments—Katmai, proclaimed in 1918, and Glacier Bay, in 1925 — are each larger than any National Park, making them the largest areas in the System. Katmai contains 2,792,137 acres and was created to protect the scene of one of the greatest volcanic eruptions of recorded history, which occurred in June 1912, leaving behind the famous Valley of Ten Thousand Smokes. Glacier Bay, containing 2,803,586 acres, protects some twenty great tidewater glaciers and their mountain setting, together with abundant Alaskan wildlife.
For the first time, four of the new National Parks were situated in the eastern United States, a highly significant development. Three were authorized in 1926. The Great Smoky Mountains National Park, North Carolina-Tennessee, protects the highest section of the Appalachian Mountains, where sixteen peaks top 6,000 feet. Shenandoah National Park conserves more than 100 miles of the irregular crest of the Blue Ridge in Virginia, affording superb views of the Shenandoah Valley and surrounding country. Mammoth Cave National Park was established to protect a great limestone cavern in southwestern Kentucky from commercial exploitation and make its five levels and extended portions of its 150 miles of underground passages accessible to the public. Isle Royale National Park, Michigan, was authorized in 1931 to protect a forty-five-mile-long wilderness island in Lake Superior, notable for its moose and timber wolves and prehistoric copper mines, and surrounded by 200 smaller islands and countless minor rocks. Lastly, the Sieur de Monts National Monument in Maine was made a National Park in 1919 and renamed Acadia in 1929. Thus five National Parks situated in six widely dispersed eastern states were added to the System during this period—not carved out of the public domain as western parks had been, but acquired the hard way by purchase or donation.

All the other natural areas added to the System during this period were situated in the west. They included six more famous National Parks—Grand Canyon, Zion, Bryce, Hot Springs, Grand Teton, and Carlsbad Caverns; and ten more scientific National Monuments, among them, Death Valley, the fifth largest area in the System, and Lava Beds, Arches, Craters of the Moon, Great Sand Dunes, White Sands and Badlands. Taken altogether the 24 natural areas added to the System in only 17 years between 1916 and 1933 represent a remarkable achievement, a star-spangled list.

The increase in historical holdings during this period was also significant, pointing the way toward the remarkable Reorganization of 1933. Seven prehistoric areas were added to the System, including spectacular Canyon de Chelly, Arizona, where Navajo Indians still live, the largest archaeological reservation in the System, larger even than Mesa Verde; and Bandelier National Monument, New Mexico, the third largest archaeological area. Among six new historical areas were the first to be added to the System in the east—significant forerunners of many more to follow. George Washington Birthplace National Monument, on the banks of the Potomac River at Wakefield, Virginia; Colonial National Monument, embracing Jamestown and Yorktown, and closely related both geographically and historically to Colonial Williamsburg, Virginia; and Morristown National Historical Park, New Jersey, Washington's headquarters during two severe winters of the Revolutionary War—these three areas launched the Service on a new course in historic preservation destined to influence greatly the future growth of the System.
We come now to an event of profound significance for the future of the National Park System — the Reorganization of 1933. On June 10, 1933, President Franklin D. Roosevelt signed Executive Order 6166 which, in effect, consolidated all Federally owned National Parks and National Monuments, all National Military Parks, eleven National Cemeteries, all National Memorials, and National Capital Parks into one National Park System administered by the National Park Service. The story of how the great Reorganization of 1933 was finally brought about after 17 years of effort has been told in fascinating detail by Horace M. Albright in *Origins of National Park Service Administration of Historic Sites*, published by the Eastern National Park and Monument Association, 1971.

The reorganization had three highly significant consequences: (1) it made the National Park Service the sole Federal agency responsible for all Federally owned public parks, monuments, and memorials; (2) it enlarged the National Park System idea to include at least four types of areas not clearly included in the System concept before 1933 — National Memorials, like the Washington Monument and the Statue of Liberty; National Military Parks, like Gettysburg and Antietam with their adjoining National Cemeteries; National Capital Parks, a great urban park system as old as the nation itself; and the first recreational area — George Washington Memorial Parkway; (3) the reorganization substantially increased and diversified the holdings in the System by adding 12 natural areas located in 9 western states and Alaska and 57 historical areas located in 17 predominantly eastern states and the District of Columbia. The number of historical areas in the System was thus quadrupled. The System became far more truly national than ever before.

Each of the six groups of areas added to the System in the Reorganization of 1933 is represented by a separate line of the *Family Tree*. Each group added its own unique history and character to Service background and tradi-
tions. It is vital to understand these factors to comprehend the true nature of the National Park System. On the pages that follow these six lines are treated in this sequence:

National Capital Parks Line, 1790-1933
National Memorials Line, 1776-1933
National Military Parks Line, 1781-1933
National Cemetery Line, 1867-1933
National Monument Line II, War Department, 1910-1933
National Monument Line III, Department of Agriculture, 1907-1933

NATIONAL CAPITAL PARKS LINE, 1790-1933

National Capital Parks is the oldest part of the National Park System, far older than Yellowstone, and traces its origin to the founding of the District of Columbia in 1790. In that year the President was authorized to appoint three Federal Commissioners to lay out a district ten miles square on the Potomac River as the permanent seat of the Federal Government. The commissioners were entrusted with control of all public lands within the District of Columbia, including parks. The original office established by the commissioners in 1791 was succeeded over the years by several offices with other names but similar functions, the legal succession continuing unbroken. As Cornelius W. Heine points out in his valuable work, A History of National Capital Parks (Washington: National Park Service, 1953) today's National Capital Parks office is a direct lineal descendant of the original office established by the first commissioners of the District of Columbia in 1791.

1790 District of Columbia authorized
1791 L'Enfant Plan for National Capital
1849 National Capital Parks placed under newly created Department of Interior
1866 Ford's Theatre acquired
1867 National Capital Parks placed under Chief Engineer, U.S. Army
1890 Rock Creek Park authorized
1896 House Where Lincoln Died acquired
1897 Potomac Park authorized
1900 District of Columbia Centennial
1902 McMillan Plan
1925 Custis-Lee Mansion restoration authorized
1930 George Washington Memorial Parkway authorized
1933 National Capital Parks added to National Park System
President Washington was intensely interested in the new seat of government. Early in 1791 he met with owners or proprietors of lands proposed for the new city and signed a purchase agreement which resulted in acquisition of 541 acres in seventeen different reservations. Lands within these original reservations became the foundation of National Capital Parks. Reservation No. 1, containing 83 acres, became the site of the Executive Mansion and grounds, Lafayette Square, and the President’s Park south of the Mansion. Reservation No. 2, containing 227 acres, became the site of the Capitol and its grounds, and provided land for the eastern half of the Mall. Reservation No. 3, containing 27 acres, provided the site for the future Washington Monument. By 1898 a total of 301 park areas had been developed on the lands included in the 17 reservations purchased by President Washington in 1791.

Washington engaged Major Pierre Charles L’Enfant to prepare a plan for the new capital city. The L’Enfant Plan proposed a city of beauty and magnificence, its central portion dominated by the triangle formed by the Capitol on Jenkin’s Hill — “a pedestal waiting for a monument” — the Executive Mansion, and the Washington Monument, linked by the grand Mall and Pennsylvania Avenue. In addition to the Mall, L’Enfant envisaged a Congress Garden and a President’s Park; fifteen squares, each embellished with statues, columns, or obelisks; five grand fountains; an equestrian statue of Washington; a Naval Column; and a zero milestone. From this plan are derived many of the important features of today’s National Capital Parks.

Rock Creek Park was authorized on September 27, 1890, two days after Sequoia and three days before Yosemite. Congress carried over some of the language of the Yellowstone Act into all three acts. Like Yellowstone, Rock Creek Park was “dedicated and set apart as a public park or pleasure ground for the benefit and enjoyment of the people of the United States,” where all timber, animals, and curiosities were to be retained “in their natural condition, as nearly as possible.” Though not a National Park, Rock Creek Park is today one of the major urban parks in the United States.

The District of Columbia celebrated its centennial as the National Capital in 1900. Unfortunately, important elements of L’Enfant’s plan had been neglected over the years while unsightly developments intruded on open spaces, the most conspicuous being no less than a railroad station on the Mall. As a consequence of the Centennial, Senator James McMillan of Michigan led a movement to correct past mistakes and make a new plan for the entire District of Columbia park system. Four eminent experts were invited to prepare the plan — Daniel H. Burnham, Frederick Law Olmsted, Jr., Charles McKim, and Augustus Saint-Gaudens. The result was the famous McMillan Plan for The Improvement of the Park System of the District of Columbia published in 1902. This great document, a landmark in city planning in the United States, rescued and reestablished the main features of the L’Enfant Plan and added major new features, including an extension of
the Mall westward, creation of East and West Potomac Parks, and provision of sites for the future Lincoln and Jefferson Memorials. It gave impetus to construction of the Arlington Memorial Bridge and acquisition of new park areas. Modern Washington, D.C., one of the most beautiful capitals in the world, is based on the L'Enfant and McMillan Plans. In 1916, when establishment of the National Park Service was under consideration in Congress, J. Horace McFarland cited the beauty of the National Capital, “expressing the dignity of the Nation,” as an example which helped to justify establishing a National Park Service and System.

Space here permits mentioning only a few of the highlights of the rich history of National Capital Parks. The Washington Monument was dedicated in 1885, and the Lincoln Memorial authorized in 1911; Ford’s Theatre was acquired by the government in 1866, the House Where Lincoln Died in 1896; and the Custis-Lee Mansion was authorized for restoration in 1925. In 1930 Congress authorized the George Washington Memorial Parkway, the oldest unit of today’s System classified as a Recreational Area. These and other historic sites, buildings, and memorials constituted a major group of properties when National Capital Parks was added to the System in 1933.

National Capital Parks marked the entrance of the National Park Service into the urban park field, a field in which the Service is today demonstrating national leadership through its Parks for All Seasons program, urban beautification, and ultimately a series of National Urban Recreation Areas in the major cities of the United States.

NATIONAL MEMORIALS LINE, 1776-1933

The twenty-one National Memorials are an important segment of the National Park System for they include such world famous shrines as the Washington Monument, the Statue of Liberty, the Lincoln Memorial, and others added to the System in 1933 and since. These have a long background important to understanding the System.

The Continental Congress authorized the first memorials in our history during the Revolutionary War, just as it also authorized other symbols of nationhood — the flag, coins, and medallions.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Date</th>
<th>Event</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1776</td>
<td>Jan. 25</td>
<td>Monument to Gen. Richard Montgomery authorized</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1783</td>
<td>Aug. 7</td>
<td>Equestrian Statue of Gen. George Washington authorized</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1799</td>
<td>Dec. 23</td>
<td>Marble Monument to George Washington authorized</td>
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<tr>
<td>1833</td>
<td>Sept. 26</td>
<td>Washington Monument Society authorized</td>
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</tbody>
</table>
1848, July 4 Washington Monument Cornerstone dedicated
1853, Jan. 8 Equestrian Statue of Andrew Jackson dedicated
1876, Aug. 2 Washington Monument accepted by United States
1877, March 3 Statue of Liberty accepted by United States
1901, Feb. 23 Grant Memorial, Wash., D.C., authorized
1911, Feb. 9 Lincoln Memorial authorized
1913, Oct. 14 Cabrillo Natl. Monument established
1919, March 3 Perry's Victory Memorial authorized
1925, Feb. 24 Arlington Memorial Bridge authorized
1925, March 3 Mt. Rushmore National Memorial authorized
1927, March 2 Wright Brothers Memorial authorized
1932, May 21 Theodore Roosevelt Memorial authorized

The first memorial was authorized by the Continental Congress on January 25, 1776, to honor General Richard Montgomery, killed during an assault on the heights of Quebec in the midst of a snowstorm on the night of December 31, 1775. Montgomery commanded New York troops sent a few months before on an expedition, which also included Benedict Arnold's forces, designed to win Canada to the Revolutionary cause. It failed before Quebec, and Montgomery, only 37 years old, became one of the first Revolutionary generals to lose his life on the field of battle. When word of his death reached Philadelphia, Congress voted 300 pounds for a monument to Montgomery's memory, and entrusted the fund to Benjamin Franklin, shortly due to leave for Paris, in order that one of the best French artists might be secured to create it. Franklin engaged the King's sculptor, Jean Jacques Caffieri, to design and make the monument. Upon completion, in 1778, it was shipped to America in eight boxes, arriving at Edenton, North Carolina, in the midst of the War, where it remained for several years. Although originally intended for Independence Hall, in 1784 Congress decided to place the memorial in New York. Four years later it was carefully installed under the direction of Major Pierre Charles L'Enfant beneath the portico of St. Paul's Chapel, architecturally one of the most important buildings in the City and the church where Washington worshipped regularly as our first President in 1789. The Montgomery Memorial is still there today, and although not a part of the National Park System, St. Paul's Chapel is now a National Historic Landmark.

The Continental Congress climaxed its commemorative actions in August 1783 by resolving "that an equestrian statue of General Washington be erected where the residence of Congress shall be established." L'Enfant's Plan provided a prominent location for this statue on the Mall at the intersection point of lines drawn west from the Capitol and south from the President's House — later the site of the Washington Monument. Washington approved this site but concluded that the expense of the statue was then unwarranted. It was not erected during his lifetime, but many years later, on January 25, 1853, Congress recalled the authorization passed seventy years
before and provided the funds. The equestrian statue of Washington was executed by Clark Mills, placed in Washington Circle on Pennsylvania Avenue, and dedicated in 1859. It is there today, a significant feature of National Capital Parks and the National Park System, possessing an ancient origin in the halls of the Continental Congress itself.

The death of Washington on December 14, 1799, threw the nation into mourning. A few days later, Congress passed a resolution introduced by Representative John Marshall providing for a marble monument in the Capitol to commemorate the great events of Washington’s military and political life. This monument was not executed as planned. When the centennial of Washington’s birth came in 1832 with no satisfactory monument to his fame in the National Capital, George Watterston, Librarian of Congress, and other civic leaders organized the Washington Monument Society, to erect an appropriate monument from private subscriptions. John Marshall agreed to serve as honorary president. In 1848 Congress transferred a site on the Mall to the Society, and the cornerstone of the Washington Monument was laid on July 4. But progress was slow, and further impeded by the Civil War. When the nation’s first centennial came around in 1876 with the Washington Monument only one-third completed, Congress passed legislation authorizing the transfer of the Monument and site to the United States for completion and subsequent maintenance as a National Memorial. The Washington Monument was dedicated on February 21, 1885.

During the Centennial years the people of France offered the Statue of Liberty as a gift to the people of the United States — another great National Memorial. On March 3, 1877, the President approved a joint resolution of Congress authorizing him to accept the Statue, provide a suitable site in New York Harbor, and arrange for its preservation “as a monument of art and the continued good will of the great nation which aided us in our struggle for freedom.” The Statue of Liberty was dedicated on October 28, 1886.

Each of the other National Memorials has unique interest, too. The first of the many monuments that dot the circles, squares and triangles of National Capital Parks to be completed was the equestrian statue of Andrew Jackson, which occupies the center of Lafayette Square, opposite the White House. It was dedicated in January 1853. Over the years more than 75 other memorials and monuments have been erected in the parks of the National Capital, including the Grant Memorial on the Mall, authorized on February 23, 1901.

The great Lincoln Memorial was authorized by Congress on February 9, 1911, to occupy a site on the extended Mall proposed as part of the McMillan Plan. One of the most beloved of all our National Memorials, it was dedicated on May 30, 1922.

Six more national memorials were authorized before the reorganization of 1933 — the Cabrillo National Monument, California, really a memorial,
proclaimed in 1913; Perry's Victory Memorial, Ohio, authorized in 1919; Arlington Memorial Bridge, Washington, D.C., in 1925; Wright Brothers National Memorial, North Carolina, originally the Kill Devil Hill Memorial, in 1927; Mt. Rushmore National Memorial, South Dakota, in 1925; and the Theodore Roosevelt Memorial, Washington, D.C. in 1932.

In 1933 these National Memorials were added to the National Park System and the National Memorial function assigned to the National Park Service, except Perry's Victory Memorial, which was administered by a commission until it was added to the System in 1936. Also, the fiscal functions of the Mount Rushmore National Memorial Commission were assigned to the National Park Service in 1933 and the Memorial itself in 1938.

NATIONAL MILITARY PARKS LINE, 1781-1933

The National Military Park line, including early battlefield monuments, has a long and little known history. Beginning in 1781 the form of battlefield commemoration evolved during a century and a half and culminated between 1890 and 1933 in development by the War Department of what was in effect a National Military Park System. In 1933, this system numbered twenty areas, of which eleven were National Military Parks and nine National Battlefield Sites. Scores more were under consideration in Congress just before these areas were transferred to the National Park System and the management of battlefields added to the duties of the National Park Service.

1781, Oct. 29 Yorktown Column (I)
1880, June 7 Yorktown Column (II)
1890, Aug. 19 Chickamauga-Chattanooga N.M.P., Va.
1890, Aug. 30 Antietam N.B.S., Md.
1894, Dec. 27 Shiloh N.M.P., Tenn.
1895, Feb. 11 Gettysburg N.M.P., Pa.
1899, Feb. 21 Vicksburg N.M.P., Miss.
1907, March 4 Chalmette Mon., La.
1917, Feb. 8 Kennesaw Battlefield Mon., Ga.
1917, March 2 Guilford Courthouse N.M.P., N. C.
1925, March 3 Fort McHenry N.P., Md.
1926, June 2 Moores Creek N.M.P., N. C.
1926, July 3 Petersburg N.M.P., Va.
1927, March 3 Stones River N.M.P., Tenn.
1928, March 26 Fort Donelson N.M.P., Tenn.
1929, Feb. 21 Brices Cross Roads N.B.S., Miss.
1929, Feb. 21 Tupelo N.B.S., Miss.
1929, March 4 Cowpens N.B.S., S. C.
1930, June 18 Appomattox Court House Mon., Va.
1931, March 4 Kings Mountain N.M.P., S. C.

Inspired by news of the victory at Yorktown, which ended the American Revolution, the Continental Congress on October 29, 1781 authorized the first official on-site battlefield monument in our nation’s history. It resolved:

That the United States in Congress assembled, will cause to be erected at York, in Virginia, a marble column, adorned with emblems of the alliance between the United States and His Most Christian Majesty; and inscribed with a succinct narrative of the surrender. . . .

Funds for the marble column were not immediately available in 1781, and Congress did not implement this resolution until very long afterward — the centennial of Yorktown in 1881. Then the Yorktown Column was raised, in exact conformance to the resolution of the Continental Congress, and is now an honored feature of Colonial National Historical Park.

The battlefield monument idea was given its greatest impetus, however, in Boston in 1823 when Daniel Webster, Edward Everett, and other prominent citizens formed the Bunker Hill Battle Monument Association to save part of the historic field and erect on it a great commemorative monument. The cornerstone was laid on June 17, 1825, Daniel Webster delivering a moving oration before a large audience. The Bunker Hill Monument showed the nation how to crystallize commemorative sentiment and became the prototype for a long series of battlefield monuments erected in the United States throughout the ensuing century. During the Revolutionary Centennial years, 1876-83, Congress appropriated federal funds to match local funds for Revolutionary battle monuments, and through this means imposing monuments were erected at Bennington Battlefield, Vermont; Saratoga, Newburgh, and Oriskany, New York; Cowpens, South Carolina; Monmouth, New Jersey; and Groton, Connecticut. Of these, Cowpens is now a unit in the National Park System, and Bunker Hill, Bennington, Oriskany, and Monmouth are National Historic Landmarks. Legislation is pending before Congress to add Bunker Hill Monument to the National Park System.

The Revolutionary tradition embodied in such monuments, shared in common by North and South, helped draw the two sections together after the Civil War. Troops from South Carolina and Virginia participated in the centennial observance of the Battle of Bunker Hill in Boston in 1875 — the first time Union and Confederate veterans publicly fraternized after the Civil War. It was a moving occasion, and the practice of reunions soon spread to Civil War battlefields, culminating in spectacular veteran’s encampments at Gettysburg in 1888 and Chattanooga in 1895.

Meanwhile, on April 30, 1864, in the midst of the Civil War, Pennsylvania chartered the Gettysburg Battlefield Memorial Association to commemorate
"the great deeds of valor . . . and the signal events which render these battle­
grounds illustrious." This association was among the earliest historic preser­
vation organizations in the country. By 1890 it had acquired several hundred
acres of land on the battlefield including areas in the vicinity of Spangler's
Spring, the Wheatfield, Little Round Top, and the Peach Orchard as well as
the small white frame house General Meade had used as headquarters.

By this time a preservation society had also begun work at Chickamauga
and Chattanooga. In the summer of 1888 General H. V. Boynton of Ohio
revisited these battlefields with his old commander, General Van Der Veer.
Riding over the fields near Chickamauga Creek the idea came to them that
this battlefield should be "a Western Gettysburg—a Chickamauga memorial."

In September 1889, Confederate veterans joined with Union veterans and
local citizens, including Adolph S. Ochs, to form the Chickamauga Memorial
Association.

With interest and support from both North and South Congress decided
to go beyond the former battlefield monument concept to authorize the first
four National Military Parks — Chickamauga-Chattanooga in 1890, Shiloh
in 1894, Gettysburg in 1895, and Vicksburg in 1899. These areas were not
selected at random but constituted, almost from the beginning, a rational
system, designed to preserve major battlefields for historical and professional
study and as lasting memorials to the great armies of both sides. The field of
Gettysburg memorialized the Union Army of the Potomac and the Con­
federate Army of Northern Virginia; Chickamauga honored the Union Army
of the Cumberland and the Confederate Army of Tennessee; and Shiloh and
Vicksburg honored the Union Army of the Tennessee and the Confederate
armies that opposed it. The National Military Park concept contemplated
that the Federal Government would acquire the land with appropriated funds
and preserve the cultural features of each battlefield while States and regi­
ments would provide the monuments, thus combining preservation and
memorialization in one undertaking.

Acquisition of land for Gettysburg National Military Park led to an
important decision by the United States Supreme Court. The Gettysburg
Electric Railway Company, formed early in the 1890's, soon acquired rights
of way for one branch penetrating deep into the battlefield. Believing the
railway would irreparably deface the area, the Gettysburg National Park
Commission recommended condemnation proceedings which were brought by
the Attorney General in 1894. The Company contested the court's award by
claiming that preserving and marking lines of battle were not public uses
justifying condemnation of private property by the United States. The case
reached the Supreme Court. In 1896 Justice Rufus Wheeler Peckham
handed down the court's unanimous decision which read in part as follows:

The battle of Gettysburg was one of the great battles of the world. . . . The
existence of the government itself, and the perpetuity of our institutions de­
pended on the result. . . . Can it be that the government is without power to
preserve the land, and properly mark out the various sites upon which this struggle took place? Can it not erect monuments provided for by these acts of Congress, or even take possession of the field of battle, in the name of and for the benefit of all the citizens of the country, for the present and for the future? Such a use seems necessarily not only a public use, but one so closely connected with the welfare of the republic itself as to be within the powers granted Congress by the constitution for the purpose of protecting and preserving the whole country.

Although Antietam was marked, beginning in 1890, and Chalmette, Kenne­saw Mountain, and Guilford Courthouse were added to Federal holdings before 1918, no other battlefield projects were authorized for a long time. But after the victorious conclusion of World War I, Congressional interest in establishing new National Military Parks and related projects revived sharply. In 1923 Congress established the American Battle Monuments Commission "to erect suitable memorials commemorating the services of the American soldier in Europe." Two years later Congress authorized restoration of Fort McHenry in Baltimore "as a national park and perpetual national memorial shrine as the birthplace of the immortal Star Spangled Banner." Finally, in 1926 Congress authorized the War Department to survey all the battlefields in the United States and prepare a preservation and commemoration plan. Largely as a result of this survey, some twelve National Military Parks and National Battlefield Sites were added to Federal holdings between 1926 and 1933, including Fort Necessity, opening battle of the French and Indian War; Cowpens, Moores Creek, and Kings Mountain, battlefields of the American Revolution; and Appomattox Court House, Brices Cross Roads, Fort Donelson, Fredericksburg and Spotsylvania County, Petersburg, Stones River, and Tupelo, battlefields of the Civil War. Numerous others were in the planning stage.

The National Military Park System was approaching maturity under the War Department in 1933 when all these battlefields were transferred to the National Park Service to become a significant and unique element in the National Park System. Since 1933 the Service has added seven more battlefields to its holdings, the most recent being Wilson's Creek, Missouri, in 1964. Battlefield commemoration is still a continuing Federal function.

NATIONAL CEMETERY LINE, 1867-1933

The National Cemeteries in the National Park System are closely related to the National Military Parks, but also possess distinction in their own right.
Gettysburg National Cemetery is one of the two most revered shrines of its kind in the United States, the other being Arlington. Some understanding of the circumstances that led to its establishment and that of other National Cemeteries during and after the Civil War is necessary to comprehend their place in today's National Park System.

The battle of Gettysburg was scarcely over when Governor Andrew Y. Curtin hastened to the field to assist local residents in caring for the dead or dying. More than 6,000 soldiers had been killed in action, and among 21,000 wounded hundreds more died each day. Many of the dead were hastily interred in improvised graves on the battlefield. Curtin at once approved plans for a Soldier's National Cemetery, and requested Attorney David Wills of Gettysburg to purchase a plot in the name of Pennsylvania. Wills selected seventeen acres on the gentle northwest slope of Cemetery Hill for the burial ground and engaged William Saunders, eminent horticulturist, to lay out the grounds preparatory to re-interments. Fourteen northern states provided the necessary funds.

Saunders planned Gettysburg National Cemetery as we know it today, enclosed by massive stone walls, the ample lawns framed by trees and shrubs, the grave sites laid out in a great semi-circle, state by state, around the site for a sculptured central feature, a proposed Soldier's National Monument. The over-all effect Saunders sought was one of "simple grandeur." The Soldier's National Cemetery, as it was then called, was dedicated by President Abraham Lincoln on November 19, 1863. The speaker's platform occupied the site set aside for the Soldier's National Monument, then awaiting future design. The immortal words of Lincoln's Gettysburg Address endowed this spot with profound historical and patriotic associations for the American people. Gettysburg National Cemetery became the honored property of the nation on May 1, 1872, now a century ago.

The events that followed the battle of Gettysburg were paralleled on the other great battlefields of the Civil War, including Antietam, Chattanooga, Fort Donelson, Fredericksburg, Petersburg, Shiloh, and Vicksburg. Congress recognized the importance of honoring and caring for the remains of the war dead by enacting general legislation in 1867 which provided the foundation for the extensive system of National Cemeteries subsequently developed by the War Department. Eleven of the National Cemeteries established under that authority were added to the National Park System in 1933, each of them enclosed with stone walls and carefully landscaped to achieve the kind of "simple grandeur" that characterized Gettysburg. In every case they adjoined National Military Parks which were added to the System at the same time. The National Cemeteries, however, were the older reservations in every instance, and in several cases, such as Gettysburg, Antietam, and Fort Donelson, provided the nucleus for the battlefield park. The act of 1867 also
provided authority for preserving an important battlefield of the Indian wars when, on January 29, 1879, the Secretary of War designated "The National Cemetery of Custer's Battlefield Reservation."

The National Cemeteries constitute a small but unique part of the National Park System.

The Antiquities Act of 1906 authorized the President to proclaim National Monuments not only on western public lands but on any lands owned or controlled by the United States. Between 1906 and 1933 successive Presidents proclaimed ten National Monuments on military reservations:

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<th>Year</th>
<th>Month</th>
<th>Monument</th>
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<tr>
<td>1910</td>
<td>June</td>
<td>Big Hole Battlefield, Mont.</td>
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<tr>
<td>1923</td>
<td>March</td>
<td>Mound City, Ohio</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1924</td>
<td>Oct.</td>
<td>Fort Marion, Fla.</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Fort Matanzas, Fla.</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Fort Pulaski, Ga.</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Castle Pinckney, S. C. (abolished 3/29/56)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Statue of Liberty, N. Y.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1925</td>
<td>Feb.</td>
<td>Meriwether Lewis, Tenn.</td>
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These ten National Monuments constituted a small and not very representative part of the rich historical resources situated within the historic military reservations of the United States. The first War Department National Monument, Big Hole Battlefield, Montana, was established in 1910 to preserve the site of a major battle fought in August 1877 between United States troops and Nez Perce Indians led by Chief Joseph. Cabrillo National Monument, on the great headland of Point Loma, California, provided the site for a memorial to Juan Rodriguez Cabrillo, Portuguese navigator and explorer who passed this point during his discovery voyage for Spain in 1542 — the first explorer to visit the shores of present-day California and Oregon. Mound City, Ohio, was proclaimed in 1923 to preserve the site of 24 burial mounds of the prehistoric Hopewell Indians.

The next five National Monuments — an impressive group — were established by President Calvin Coolidge in a single proclamation signed October 15, 1924. Fort Marion National Monument, later given its old Spanish name of Castillo de San Marcos, preserved an ancient Spanish fort in St. Augustine, Florida, the first permanent settlement by Europeans in the continental
United States. A second monument protected Fort Matanzas, constructed by the Spanish in 1742 to help defend the southern approaches to St. Augustine. Fort Pulaski National Monument preserved a magnificent early 19th century brick fort, encircled by a moat, located at the mouth of the Savannah River in Georgia. Taken over by Confederate forces at the outbreak of the Civil War, it yielded under bombardment by Federal rifled cannon in 1862. Little Castle Pinckney in Charleston Harbor, South Carolina, was also declared a National Monument but has since been abolished. Finally, the proclamation declared the Statue of Liberty on Bedloe’s Island in the harbor of New York to be a National Monument. The last two War Department National Monuments, Meriwether Lewis and Father Millet Cross, were proclaimed in 1925; but the first was subsequently added to the Natchez Trace Parkway and the second abolished.

Although the authority to proclaim National Monuments on military reservations is still valid in 1972, no others have been proclaimed for 47 years. Instead, after World War II, a number of historic but obsolete fortifications were declared surplus by the War Department and transferred to the National Park Service, the States, or other political subdivisions following Congressional authorization. Examples are Fort Sumter National Monument, South Carolina, now a unit of the National Park System, and Fort Wayne, Michigan, now the property of the city of Detroit. The National Monuments established on military reservations under the Antiquities Act were added to the National Park System in 1933.

NATIONAL MONUMENT LINE III, 1907-1933
DEPARTMENT OF AGRICULTURE

Between 1907 and 1933, six presidents proclaimed 21 National Monuments on National Forest lands administered by the Department of Agriculture:

1907, May  6  Lassen Peak, Calif.  
            Cinder Cone, Calif.  
1907, Nov. 16  Gila Cliff Dwellings, N. Mex.  
1907, Dec. 19  Tonto, Ariz.  
1908, Jan. 11  Grand Canyon, Ariz.  
1908, Jan. 16  Pinnacles, Calif. (trans. to Interior Dept. Dec. 12, 1910)  
1908, Feb.  7  Jewel Cave, S. Dak.  
1908, Dec.  7  Wheeler, Colo. (abolished Aug. 3, 1950)  
1909, March  2  Mount Olympus, Wash.  
1909, July  12  Oregon Caves, Ore.
1911, July 6 Devils Postpile, Calif.
1915, Nov. 30 Walnut Canyon, Ariz.
1922, Jan. 24 Lehman Caves, Nev.
1922, Oct. 14 Timpanogos Cave, Utah
1923, June 8 Bryce Canyon, Utah
1924, April 18 Chiricahua, Ariz.
1929, May 11 Holy Cross, Colo. (abolished Aug. 3, 1950)
1930, May 26 Sunset Crater, Ariz.
1933, March 1 Saguaro, Ariz.

The first two National Monuments in the Department of Agriculture line were Lassen Peak and Cinder Cone, created within Lassen Peak National Forest, California, on May 6, 1907, to preserve evidence of what was then the most recent volcanic activity in the United States south of Alaska. Nine years later these two monuments formed the nucleus for Lassen Volcanic National Park.

Fourteen of the other Department of Agriculture National Monuments were also established to preserve "scientific objects" on federal lands, including some of superlative importance to the nation. Moved by disturbing reports of plans to build an electric railway along its rim, President Theodore Roosevelt proclaimed Grand Canyon National Monument on lands within the Grand Canyon National Forest, Arizona, on January 11, 1908. The reservation contained 818,560 acres, an unprecedented size for a National Monument, thirteen times larger than any previous one. Roosevelt's bold action was later sustained in the United States Supreme Court, providing an important precedent for other very large National Monuments, such as Katmai and Glacier Bay in Alaska and Death Valley in California, proclaimed by other Presidents in later years. Grand Canyon National Monument formed the nucleus in 1919 for Grand Canyon National Park.

On March 2, 1909, two days before leaving office, Roosevelt proclaimed another large scientific area, Mount Olympus National Monument, from lands contained in Olympic National Forest, Washington. The monument, containing 615,000 acres, was established to protect the Olympic elk and important stands of Sitka spruce, western hemlock, Douglas-fir, and Alaska cedar and redcedar. It formed the nucleus for Olympic National Park in 1938.

Twelve other scientific National Monuments on National Forest lands included Bryce Canyon, Utah, proclaimed in 1923 to protect exceptionally colorful and unusual erosional forms. It formed the nucleus for Bryce Canyon National Park. Four caves were also proclaimed National Monuments — Jewel Cave, South Dakota; Oregon Caves, Oregon; Lehman Caves, Nevada; and Timpanogos Cave, Utah. Other significant scientific monuments included Pinnacles and Devils Postpile, California; and Chiricahua, Saguaro, and Sunset Crater, Arizona.
The first of only five historical National Monuments proclaimed on National Forest lands was Gila Cliff Dwellings, New Mexico, established in 1907. It was followed by Tonto and Walnut Canyon in Arizona, and then by Bandelier National Monument, New Mexico, established within the Santa Fe National Forest. Containing 29,661 acres, Bandelier was transferred to the National Park Service in 1932, a year ahead of the others, and is now the third largest archaeological monument in the National Park System.

Although authority to proclaim National Monuments on National Forest lands is still valid, only two others have been proclaimed since the Reorganization of 1933 placed all National Monuments under the jurisdiction of the National Park Service. The two are Cedar Breaks, Utah, proclaimed August 22, 1933, from lands within the Dixie National Forest; and Jackson Hole, Wyoming, proclaimed March 13, 1943, principally from lands within the Grand Teton National Forest.

### NATIONAL PARK SYSTEM AREAS BY CATEGORY FOLLOWING THE REORGANIZATION OF 1933

We have now completed descriptions of each of the six branch lines of the *Family Tree* which joined the main line of the National Park System in 1933. The far-reaching consequences of this consolidation which brought important and diverse areas into the System may be visualized from the following table:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Date</th>
<th>Natural Areas</th>
<th>Historical Areas</th>
<th>Recreation Areas</th>
<th>National Cap. Parks</th>
<th>Other</th>
<th>Total Areas in N.P. System</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1916</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1933 Before Reorg.</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>After Reorg.</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>77</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>137</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Natural areas increased from 47 to 58, reflecting the transfer of 11 scientific National Monuments from the U.S. Forest Service to the National Park Service. Historical areas almost quadrupled in number, increasing from 20 to 77 and becoming unequivocally a major category in the System. The first
unit ultimately to be classified as a Recreation Area was added to the System — the George Washington Memorial Parkway — marking the beginning of a completely new category of areas. Lastly, a magnificent urban park system was added — National Capital Parks, represented on our table as a single area but actually containing hundreds of individual parks destined by 1972 to number 720 separate reservations. The total number of areas in the System more than doubled, increasing from 67 to 137, widely distributed throughout the United States.

Once the Reorganization was achieved, the Service faced the formidable task of assimilating these many diverse areas into the fabric of the existing National Park System. This undertaking brings us to the next segment of the Family Tree.
The long period between 1933 and 1964, which began with the need to assimilate 71 diverse areas into the System, was crowded with other events also tremendously important to the National Park Service. The early years were marked by the great social and economic changes in American life that accompanied the New Deal. Among many other measures in 1933, President Franklin D. Roosevelt instituted a broad program of natural resource conservation implemented in large part through the newly created Civilian Conservation Corps but also supported by other emergency funds. At the program’s peak in 1935, the Service was allotted 600 CCC camps, 118 of them assigned to National Park System areas and 482 to State Parks, employing approximately 120,000 enrollees and 6,000 professionally trained supervisors, including landscape architects, engineers, foresters, biologists, historians, architects, and archaeologists.

The effects of the CCC and other emergency programs on Service management, planning, development, and staffing were profound. Within a few short years, however, came the tragedy of Pearl Harbor, and the nation turned sharply from domestic programs to total mobilization for World War II. Not only was the CCC dismantled with other emergency programs, but regular appropriations for managing the National Park System were cut from $21 million in 1940 to $5 million in 1943, the number of full-time employees was reduced from 3,510 to 1,974 or 55%, and visits fell from 21 million in 1941 to 6 million in 1942. There was only a brief lull after 1945 before military needs again became dominant with the outbreak of the Korean War.
During these years the integrity of the System required constant defense against wartime pressures. But peace finally came and the 1950's and early 1960's witnessed a tremendous increase in travel in our affluent postwar society with personal incomes and leisure time steadily increasing for growing numbers of people, most of whom also enjoyed much greater mobility in the automobile age. Visits to the National Park System mounted from a low of 6 million in 1942 to 33 million in 1950, and 72 million in 1960.

These and other changing conditions, including a great and growing backlog of deferred park maintenance and development projects, posed vast new problems for the Service and System. It was an era marked by the dramatic inauguration and prosecution of Mission 66, the emergence of a national "crisis in outdoor recreation," creation of the Outdoor Recreation Resources Review Commission and the Bureau of Outdoor Recreation, and mounting national concern for better preservation of America's vanishing wilderness.

These sweeping social, economic, and political changes are far too important, complex and recent for more extended treatment here. We will focus our attention on only one aspect of this period—enlargement of the National Park System.

Between the Reorganization of 1933 and the Reorganization of 1964, 102 areas were added to the System as defined today, increasing the total number from 137 to 239. These numerous and diverse areas were established under the able leadership of four successive Directors—Arno B. Cammerer, 1933-1940; Newton B. Drury, 1940-1951; Arthur E. Demaray, 1951 (after serving seventeen critical years as Associate Director to his two predecessors); and Conrad L. Wirth, 1951-64. These four Directors were vigorously supported by successive Secretaries of the Interior and worked closely with many members of Congress to bring about responsible growth of the System. They were aided, too, by an increasingly expert staff whose members, both in Washington and the field, contributed much to this work, including among others, Thomas C. Vint, long-time Chief, Division of Design and Construction; Ben H. Thompson, Chief, Division of Recreation Resource Planning; and Hillory A. Tolson, Assistant Director.

The distribution of the new areas among categories is significant. Of the new additions, 11 were Natural Areas, increasing their number from 58 to 69 or 19%. Seventy-five were Historical Areas, increasing their number from 77 to 152 or 96%. Fifteen were Recreation Areas, increasing their

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1 The precise period meant here is from June 10, 1933, to July 10, 1964, when a new organizational framework was adopted for the National Park System which clearly differentiated between natural, historical, and recreational areas.

2 These figures include nine National Historic Sites and one International Park in non-federal ownership and five reservoir-related Recreation Areas established under cooperative agreements. Since Sept. 28, 1966, the Service has counted these areas as units in the National Park System.
number from one to 16, or 1500%. It is clear that during this period the growth rate for Natural Areas noticeably diminished from previous levels and by comparison with the rate for other categories, even though very important additions of natural lands were still being made. On the other hand the growth rates for Historical and Recreation Areas accelerated sharply. It took the Service a generation, from 1933 to 1964, to assimilate these 102 diverse new areas and the 71 areas added by the Reorganization of 1933 and incorporate them securely into one National Park System.

During this period, with some exceptions, the Service tended to emphasize the similarities between areas while minimizing their differences. The System was administered under a single, uniform code of administrative policies derived historically from National Park experience and developed primarily for the management of Natural Areas. Special policies particularly applicable to Historical Areas, however, were gradually incorporated into the code—for example, the important restoration policy adopted in 1938. But more than any other factor, it was Mission 66, under the leadership of Director Conrad L. Wirth, that at long last provided the resources, beginning 1956, to bring all the individual areas, regardless of origin or type, up to a consistently high standard of preservation, staffing, and carefully controlled physical development, and to consolidate them fully into one National Park System. Mission 66 generated widespread interest and support for the National Park System among the American people and brought new vigor and momentum to all phases of National Park Service work.

### Natural Areas, 1933-1964

Four new National Parks and seven scientific National Monuments were added to the System between 1933 and 1964 and three National Parks were created out of existing reservations, as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Month</th>
<th>Day</th>
<th>Location</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1933</td>
<td>Aug.</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>Cedar Breaks N.M., Utah</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1934</td>
<td>May</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>Everglades N.P., Florida</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1935</td>
<td>June</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>Big Bend N.P., Texas</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1936</td>
<td>Aug.</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>Joshua Tree N.M., Calif.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1937</td>
<td>April</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>Organ Pipe Cactus N.M., Ariz.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1937</td>
<td>Aug.</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>Capitol Reef N.M., Utah</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1938</td>
<td>April</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>Channel Islands N.M., Calif.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1938</td>
<td>June</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>Olympic N.P., Wash.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
During his first seven years in office, President Roosevelt established five scientific National Monuments, three of them very large, without serious difficulty, in the same manner as his predecessors. They were Cedar Breaks, proclaimed in 1933 to protect a remarkable natural amphitheater of eroded limestone and sandstone in southern Utah; Joshua Tree, California, 1936, to preserve a characteristic part — initially 825,340 acres — of the famous Mojave and Colorado deserts; Organ Pipe Cactus, Arizona, 1937, to protect 325,000 acres of the Sonoran desert; Capitol Reef, also 1937, to preserve a twenty-mile segment of the great Waterpocket Fold in southern Utah; and Channel Islands, 1938, to protect Santa Barbara and Anacapa Islands, the two smallest in a group of eight islands off the coast of southern California.

Roosevelt's sixth scientific National Monument, however, was another story. Jackson Hole had been talked of as a possible addition to Yellowstone as early as 1892, and from 1916 onward the Service and Department actively sought its preservation in the National Park System. It was John D. Rockefeller, Jr., however, who rescued Jackson Hole for the nation after a visit in 1926 left him distressed at cheap commercial developments on private lands in the midst of superlative natural beauty — dance halls, hot dog stands, filling stations, rodeo grand stands, and billboards in the foreground of the incomparable view of the Teton Range.

Rockefeller began a land acquisition program, and in a few years his holdings in Jackson Hole exceeded 33,000 acres, which he offered as a gift to the United States. Meanwhile, however, bitter opposition developed among cattlemen, dude ranchers, packers, hunters, timber interests, and local Forest Service officials who preferred livestock ranches or forest crops to a National Park, county officials who feared loss of taxes, and members of the Wyoming State administration who were politically concerned. When no park legislation had been enacted by 1943, Rockefeller indicated he might not be justified in holding his property, on which he paid annual taxes, much longer. President Roosevelt decided to act and on March 15, 1943, proclaimed the Jackson Hole National Monument, consolidating 33,000 acres donated by Rockefeller and 179,000 acres withdrawn from Teton National Forest into a single area adjoining Grand Teton National Park.

Roosevelt's proclamation unleashed a storm of criticism which had been brewing for years among western members of Congress. Rep. Frank A. Barrett of Wyoming and others introduced bills to abolish the monument and
to repeal Section 2 of the Antiquities Act containing the President's authority to proclaim National Monuments. A bill to abolish the monument passed Congress in 1944 but was vetoed by President Roosevelt who pointed out in an eloquent message that Presidents of both political parties, beginning with Theodore Roosevelt, had established ample precedents by proclaiming 82 National Monuments, seven of which were larger than Jackson Hole. The proclamation was nevertheless also contested in court, where it was strongly defended by the Departments of Justice and Interior and upheld. Finally, a compromise was worked out and embodied in legislation approved by President Harry S Truman on September 14, 1950. It combined Jackson Hole National Monument and the old Grand Teton National Park in a “new Grand Teton National Park” containing some 298,000 acres, with special provisions regarding taxes and hunting. It also prohibited establishing or enlarging National Parks or Monuments in Wyoming in the future except by express authorization of Congress.

This long and bitter controversy marked the end of an era for the National Park Service. Thereafter establishment of large scientific National Monuments by proclamation—commonly done between 1906 and 1943—became almost impossible, not only in Wyoming but elsewhere. Only two scientific National Monuments were established under authority of the Antiquities Act during the next 29 years—Buck Island Reef, Virgin Islands, containing only 850 acres, proclaimed by President John F. Kennedy in 1961; and Marble Canyon, Arizona, containing 25,962 acres proclaimed by President Lyndon B. Johnson on his last day in office. More significantly, President Johnson declined to proclaim a proposed Gates of Arctic National Monument, Alaska, containing 4,119,000 acres; a Mt. McKinley National Monument, also in Alaska, containing 2,202,000 acres adjoining the National Park; and a Sonoran Desert National Monument, Arizona, containing 911,700 acres. After 1943, through its control of appropriations and legislation, Congress largely nullified Presidential authority to establish new National Monuments.

The Jackson Hole controversy was accompanied by mounting pressure from various interests, especially in the west, to open up protected natural resources in the National Park System for use during periods of national emergency. This pressure reached new heights during World War II. Timber interests sought permission to log scarce Sitka spruce in Olympic National Park for use in airplane production. Livestock interests sought to reopen many areas to grazing to help food production. Mining interests sought permission to search for copper in Grand Canyon and Mount Rainier, manganese in Shenandoah, and tungsten in Yosemite. The military services requested use of park lands for various purposes. In 1942 the Service issued 125 permits to the War and Navy Departments and the next year an additional 403 permits. Troops were trained in mountain warfare at Mount Rainier, for example, military equipment for arctic use was tested at Mount
McKinley, and desert warfare units trained at Joshua Tree. Director Drury, supported by Secretary Ickes, successfully defended the basic integrity of the System in the face of these exceptional pressures while permitting as a last resort only those uses absolutely essential to the prosecution of the war and for which there were no alternative sites.

With the end of World War II a new round of threats to the System accompanied the post-war development of river basins in the United States by the Corps of Engineers and the Bureau of Reclamation. The proposed Bridge Canyon Dam on the Colorado River would have created a reservoir flooding all of Grand Canyon National Monument and 18 miles of the National Park; Glacier View Dam on the Flathead River in Montana threatened to flood 20,000 acres of Glacier National Park; Echo Park and Split Mountain Dams on the Green and Yampa Rivers were expected to create large reservoirs inundating long stretches of wilderness canyons in Dinosaur National Monument; and the reservoir behind the proposed Mining City Dam on the Green River, Kentucky, would have periodically flooded the famous underground Echo River in Mammoth Cave National Park. In the face of strong opposition and national controversy, conservation organizations and the Service, generally though not always working together, managed to meet these and other similar threats and bring the System through this period relatively unscathed.

In spite of these extraordinary pressures, four new National Parks were established between 1933 and 1964 and three others were created out of existing reservations. Everglades National Park, Florida, was authorized May 30, 1934, to protect the largest subtropical wilderness in North America, now also the third largest National Park, situated in the southeastern United States, long under-represented in the System. Everglades is also a beleaguered wilderness threatened by drainage projects, drought, and an international jetport — a testing ground for modern conservation principles. Big Bend National Park, Texas, was authorized in 1935 to protect over 700,000 acres of unique wilderness country along the Mexican border, including the Chisos Mountains and three magnificent canyons in the great bend of the Rio Grande. Olympic National Park, Washington, was established in 1938, over the bitter opposition of timber interests after an ardent campaign by conservationists, strongly supported by Secretary Ickes and President Roosevelt. The park was formed around the nucleus of Mount Olympus National Monument. After a 50-year struggle against power and irrigation interests, lumbermen, ranchers, cattlemen, sheepmen, and hunters, Kings Canyon National Park, California, was finally established in 1940 to protect some 710 square miles of magnificent mountain and canyon wilderness on the west slope of the Sierra Nevada. Virgin Islands National Park, our only National Park in the West Indies, was authorized in 1956 to protect nearly two-thirds of the land mass and most of the colorful off-shore waters of St.
John's Island, in the American Virgin Islands. The park owes its existence to the generous support of Jackson Hole Preserve, Inc., and Mr. Laurance S. Rockefeller. Finally, Petrified Forest, Arizona, long advocated as a National Park, became one in 1958 — formed from the National Monument of the same name. The world-famous crater of 10,023 foot Haleakala, on the island of Maui, was made a National Park in 1960 by detaching it from Hawaii National Park and making it a separate reservation.

Four previously authorized National Parks were also formally established in this period, including the Great Smoky Mountains in 1934, Shenandoah in 1935, Isle Royale in 1940, and Mammoth Cave in 1941. Until 1943, significant additions were also made to several existing National Monuments, including, among others, 305,920 acres added to Death Valley in 1937, 203,885 acres containing the spectacular wild canyons of Utah's Yampa and Green Rivers added to Dinosaur in 1938, no less than 904,960 acres added to Glacier Bay to provide more land for the Alaskan Brown Bear and other wildlife and protect more glaciers, and 150,000 acres added to Badlands in South Dakota both in 1939.

In spite of these achievements, the establishment of large, new Natural Areas became increasingly difficult during this period. Sixty-one of the 64 Natural Areas in the System at the time of the Reorganization of 1964 were originally established or authorized before World War II. It is a more startling fact that of the 23,840,162 acres of Federal land in all the Natural Areas of the System on April 1, 1971, some 22,913,488 acres, or 96%, were contained in National Parks or National Monuments established or authorized before World War II. Congress responded to this and similar realities in other areas of conservation by authorizing creation of the highly significant Land and Water Conservation Fund in 1965, beginning a new era in land acquisition that will be discussed in a later section.

Partly because of the increasing difficulty of adding new Natural Areas to the System, the Service launched a Natural Landmarks Program in 1962. Its purpose was to recognize and encourage the preservation of significant natural lands by diverse owners, mostly non-federal, including state or local governments, conservation organizations, and even private persons. It was designed to complement the Service's Registered National Historic Landmarks program inaugurated in 1960.

On March 17, 1964, Secretary Stewart L. Udall announced the first seven sites eligible for entry on the new National Registry of Natural Landmarks. They were Mianus River Gorge and Bergen Swamp, New York; Corkscrew Swamp Sanctuary, Florida; Elder Creek and Rancho La Brea-Hancock Park, California; Fontenelle Forest, Nebraska; and Wissahickon Valley, Pennsylvania. With this action another tool was added to those available to the National Park Service to help strengthen environmental conservation in the United States.
Seventy-five Historical Areas were added to the National Park System between 1933 and 1964, including nine National Historic Sites and one International Park in non-federal ownership. For purposes of clarity these 75 areas are presented under the nine thematic headings currently used by the National Park Service for Historical Areas:

I. *The Original Inhabitants:*
   - 1934 Ocmulgee N.M., Ga.
   - 1937 Pipestone N.M., Minn.
   - 1939 Tuzigoot N.M., Ariz.
   - 1949 Effigy Mounds N.M., Ohio
   - 1955 City of Refuge N.H.P., Hawaii
   - 1961 Russell Cave N.M., Ala.

II. *European Exploration & Settlement:*
   - 1940 Jamestown N.H.S.,* Va.
   - 1941 Fort Raleigh N.H.S., N. C.
   - 1941 San Jose Mission N.H.S.,* Tex.
   - 1948 DeSoto N. Mem., Fla.
   - 1949 Saint Croix Island N.M., V. I.
   - 1949 San Juan N.H.S., P. R.
   - 1950 Fort Caroline N. Mem., Fla.
   - 1952 Chicago Portage N.H.S.,* Ill.
   - 1952 Virgin Islands N.H.S., V. I.
   - 1952 Coronado N. Mem., Ariz.
   - 1960 St. Thomas N.H.S., V. I.

III. *Development of the English Colonies, 1700-1775:*
   - 1936 Fort Frederica N.M., Ga.
   - 1943 St. Paul’s Church N.H.S.,* N. Y.

IV. *Major American Wars:*
   - 1935 Fort Stanwix N.M., N. Y.
   - 1936 Richmond N.B.P., Va.
   - 1938 Saratoga N.H.P., N. Y.
   - 1940 Manassas N.B.P., Va.
   - 1948 Fort Sumter N.M., S. C.
   - 1960 Wilson’s Creek N.B.P., Mo.

V. *Political and Military Affairs:*
   - 1934 Thomas Jefferson Mem., D. C.
   - 1935 Fort Jefferson N.M., Fla.
VI. Westward Expansion, 1763-1898:
1936 Homestead N.M., Nebr.
1936 Whitman N.M., Wash.
1938 Fort Laramie N.M., Wyo.
1940 Cumberland Gap N.H.P., Ky.-Tenn.-Va.
1941 McLoughlin House N.H.S.,* Ore.
1948 Fort Vancouver N.M., Wash.
1951 Grand Portage N.H.S., Minn.
1954 Fort Union N.M., N. Mex.
1956 Horseshoe Bend N.M.P., Ala.
1956 Chimney Rock N.H.S.,* Nebr.
1958 Fort Clatsop N.M., Ore.
1960 Bent's Old Fort N.H.S., Colo.
1961 Fort Davis N.H.S., Tex.
1961 Fort Smith N.H.S., Ark.

VII. America At Work:
1938 Salem Maritime N.H.S., Mass.
1938 Chesapeake & Ohio Canal, Md.-W. Va.
1942 Gloria Dei Church N.H.S.,* Pa.
1943 Geo. Washington Carver N. Mem., Mo.
1948 Hampton N.H.S., Md.
1955 Edison Home N.H.S., N. J.
1957 Golden Spike N.H.S., Utah

VIII. The Contemplative Society

IX. Society and Social Conscience:
1940 Vanderbilt Mansion N.H.S., N. Y.
1946 Castle Clinton N.M., N. Y.
1961 Piscataway Park, Md.
1962 Frederick Douglass Home, D. C.

*Non-federal ownership.
It is an impressive list. One immediately notes a new national system for classifying historical areas. Instead of such categories as National Military Parks, National Memorials and National Monuments commonly used before 1933, we find new categories based on the principal periods or phases in American history. One of the most important steps taken by the National Park Service to meet its sharply increased responsibilities for historic preservation following the Reorganization of 1933 and passage of the Historic Sites Act in 1935 was adoption of this thematic system of classification.

The origin of this concept — so unlike classification systems found in several European countries based primarily on architectural styles — may be traced to the Educational Advisory Committee appointed by Secretary Roy O. West in 1928. That committee, headed by Dr. John C. Merriam of the Carnegie Institution, submitted a number of basic recommendations to the Secretary in January 1929. One of these, developed by the anthropologist member, Dr. Clark Wissler, American Museum of Natural History, read in part as follows:

In view of the importance and the great opportunity for appreciation of the nature and meaning of history as represented in our National Parks and Monuments, it is recommended that the National Parks and Monuments containing, primarily, archeological and historical materials should be selected to serve as indices of periods in the historical sequence of human life in America. At each such monument the particular event represented should be viewed in its immediate historical perspective, thus not only developing a specific narrative but presenting the event in its historical background.

Further, a selection should be made of a number of existing monuments which in their totality may, as points of reference, define the general outline of man’s career on this continent.

Dr. Wissler’s idea was embraced by a successor body, the Advisory Board on National Parks, Historic Sites, Buildings and Monuments, appointed in 1935 under provisions of the Historic Sites Act, and notably by one of its most distinguished members and later its Chairman, Dr. Waldo G. Leland, Director of the American Council of Learned Societies. The concept was further developed and refined by Dr. Verne E. Chatelain, Chief Historian of the Service until 1937, and members of his staff. Originally numbering some 22 themes, it has gradually evolved until today it numbers nine major themes and 43 sub-themes. The importance of the concept lies in its comprehensiveness, providing the historic preservation program with an underlying framework which embraces the entire history of man on the North American continent and envisages historical holdings in the National Park System as preserving and presenting through carefully selected monuments a noble panorama of the full sweep of that history for the benefit and inspiration of the people of the United States.

The effect of the thematic approach in broadening representation of historic sites and buildings in the System may be seen in the following table:
**Historic Sites and Buildings According to Theme**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Historical Areas in N. P. System</th>
<th>I</th>
<th>II</th>
<th>III</th>
<th>IV</th>
<th>V</th>
<th>VI</th>
<th>VII</th>
<th>VIII</th>
<th>IX</th>
<th>Total*</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1916</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>8</td>
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<tr>
<td>1933</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Before Reorg.</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>After Reorg.</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>59</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1964</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>135</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1972</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>162</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*The figures in the table are cumulative. They do not include eleven National Cemeteries classified as Historical Areas, some seven areas once authorized but later abolished or merged into other parks, and a number of other areas not classified for various administrative reasons.

The National Park System started out in 1916 with only two of nine themes represented — Theme I, *The Original Inhabitants*, and Theme II, *European Exploration and Settlement*, with four areas each. After the Reorganization of 1933, five themes were represented by three areas or more; but Theme IV, *Major American Wars*, with 23 battlefields and forts not counting eleven National Cemeteries, was much the most heavily represented, reflecting the War Department’s long emphasis on National Military Parks. During the last 35 years, however, the historical branch of the *Family Tree* has been growing, steadily though unevenly, according to an intelligible thematic pattern reflecting the broad sweep of social, cultural, economic, political, and military history in the United States.

Much of this would not have happened without the Historic Sites Act of 1935, a logical follow-up to the Reorganization of 1933. On November 10, 1933, President Franklin D. Roosevelt invited his friend and neighbor, Major Gist Blair, to give consideration “to some kind of plan which would coordinate the broad relationship of the Federal Government to State and local interest in the maintenance of historic sources and places throughout the country. I am struck with the fact there is no definite, broad policy in this matter [underlining supplied].” Roosevelt asked Blair to talk the matter over with Secretary Ickes, “who in the transfer of government functions has been given authority over national monuments,” and observed that legislation might be necessary. Before 22 months had elapsed, through the efforts of many persons, including Major Blair and his associates in the Society of Colonial Wars, Dr. W. A. R. Goodwin of Williamsburg, Va., Secretary Ickes, Assistant Solicitor Rufus G. Poole, J. Thomas Schneider, Director Cammerer, Chief Historian Chatelain, Senator Harry F. Byrd of Virginia, Rep. Maury Maverick of Texas, and others, the Historic Sites Act was conceived, drafted, introduced, considered in hearings, amended, passed, and signed by the President on August 21, 1935.
The Act declared “that it is a national policy to preserve for public use historic sites, buildings and objects of national significance for the inspiration and benefit of the people of the United States.” This new and greatly broadened national policy has been the cornerstone of the Federal Government’s historic preservation program ever since 1935, reaffirmed both in the Act of October 26, 1949, which created the National Trust for Historic Preservation, and in the National Historic Preservation Act of 1966. To carry out the policy, the Act assigned broad powers, duties and functions to the Secretary of the Interior to be exercised through the National Park Service, among them: (1) make a national survey of historic and archaeological sites, buildings, and objects to determine which have “exceptional value as commemorating or illustrating the history of the United States;” (2) acquire real or personal property for the purpose of the Act; (3) contract or make cooperative agreements with states, municipal subdivisions, corporations, associations, or individuals to preserve historic properties. The Act established an Advisory Board on National Parks, Historic Sites, Buildings and Monuments. Soon after its passage the Secretary of the Interior established a Code of Procedure for designation of National Historic Sites and created a Branch of Historic Sites and Buildings headed successively during this period by Chatelain, 1935-37; Ronald F. Lee, 1938-51, the war years excepted; and Herbert E. Kahler, 1951-64.

This sweeping legislation had important consequences for the Family Tree. It resulted in establishment of the National Survey of Historic Sites and Buildings to evaluate all historic sites and buildings thereafter proposed for addition to the System and after 1956 all National Historic Landmarks. It provided legal authority for the Secretary of the Interior to designate National Historic Sites which successive Secretaries exercised during this period to add 18 Historical Areas to the System including the Jefferson National Expansion Memorial, Federal Hall, the Old Philadelphia Customs House, the Home of Franklin Delano Roosevelt, and the Adams National Historic Site, and to designate nine other National Historic Sites in non-federal ownership. The Act provided a new and stronger legal foundation for the Historic American Buildings Survey and the Inter-Agency Archaeological Salvage Program. It created a national Advisory Board to help guide the entire program. In brief, the Act gave new impetus, scope, and direction to National Park Service participation in a rising national movement for historic preservation in the United States.

It may be useful at this point to present a comparative table showing the legal basis for all the Historical Areas now in the System. Of 169 areas shown in the following table, 39 were proclaimed by the President under the Antiquities Act, 28 were designated by the Secretary of the Interior under the Historic Sites Act and 102 were authorized by separate Acts of Congress.
Sources of Legislative Authority for Historical Areas*

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<td>39</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>102</td>
<td>169*</td>
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*Not including 11 National Cemeteries authorized by 1867 legislation; but counting seven Historical Areas authorized but not activated, later abolished or absorbed into other areas.

Of 58 Historical Areas established during the last twenty years, 48 were authorized by individual acts of Congress, only eight were designated by the Secretary, and two were proclaimed by the President. It is clear that since World War II the power of the President or the Secretary to establish Historical Areas by proclamation or designation has, largely under pressure from Congress, almost lapsed into disuse. On the other hand, Congress has consistently supported preservation objectives by enacting more than a hundred measures for the protection of individual historic sites and buildings and has reaffirmed its commitment by enacting the National Historic Preservation Act of 1966 and subsequently supporting it with significant appropriations.

Returning to our thematic list, we note that the Service program for preserving prehistoric sites and structures was carried forward very modestly between 1933 and 1964. Six prehistoric areas were added to the System, five of them representing Indian cultures in other geographic and cultural regions than the Southwest where previous emphasis had been placed. They included Indian mound groups in Georgia (Ocmulgee) and Iowa (Effigy Mounds), an ancient Indian quarry in Minnesota (Pipestone), an historic sanctuary and prehistoric site in Hawaii (City of Refuge), and a cave in Alabama (Russell Cave) occupied as early as 6000 B.C.

Some of the most important historical additions to the System between 1933 and 1964 are almost lost to sight in this long thematic list. Jefferson National Expansion Memorial was the first National Historic Site established under authority of the Historic Sites Act. More important, its 37 square blocks embraced a key urban area on the historic St. Louis waterfront — the first major effort of the Service, after National Capital Parks, to conserve and develop a large and important urban historic site. Some architectural monuments, including the Old St. Louis Post Office and the Cathedral, have been carefully preserved, but the main feature of the area is the only major
national memorial of modern design in the United States, and one of a small number in the world — Eero Saarinen’s magnificent stainless steel Arch.

In 1948, responding to recommendations of a study commission, Congress authorized another major urban project, the Independence National Historical Park in Philadelphia, the most important historical area in the United States, embracing Independence Hall and Square, Congress Hall, Carpenters Hall, and many other sites and buildings intimately associated with the winning of our independence and the establishment of our government under the Constitution. The commission method of analyzing complex urban problems was thereafter adopted for Boston, where it led to authorization of Minute Man National Historical Park in 1959. Recommendations for other Boston sites, including the Bunker Hill Monument, Faneuil Hall, and the Old Boston State House, are still pending today. A commission was also established for New York City, where a remarkable complex of urban monuments was developed during this period, adding Federal Hall, Castle Clinton, Grant Memorial, Hamilton Grange, Theodore Roosevelt’s Birthplace, and Sagamore Hill to the previously authorized Statue of Liberty National Monument, whose boundaries were extended to include Ellis Island.

Seven Presidents of the United States were honored by the addition of areas to the System during this period, strengthening a trend that continues today. The Thomas Jefferson Memorial in Washington, D. C., was authorized in 1934, followed in 1935 by Andrew Johnson’s Home and Tailor Shop in Greeneville, Tennessee. The Home of Franklin D. Roosevelt at Hyde Park, New York, was designated a National Historic Site in 1944 and his summer home on Campobello Island, Canada, was established as the Roosevelt-Campobello International Park in 1964, owned and administered by a special joint United States-Canadian Commission. The Adams House in Quincy, Massachusetts, became a National Historic Site in 1946. Theodore Roosevelt’s Birthplace in downtown Manhattan and Sagamore Hill, his home at Oyster Bay, were given to the United States in 1962. The Grant Memorial was added to the System in 1958 and Lincoln’s Boyhood Home in Indiana in 1962. Finally, the White House itself, by authorization of Congress and consent of the President, was made subject to the National Park Service enabling act in 1961.

Each area makes its own unique contribution to the Family Tree but considerations of space preclude much further comment. The number of historic sites and buildings representing Westward Expansion increased from 6 to 22 during this period. They include seven early forts extending across the west from Fort Smith, Arkansas, and Fort Davis, Texas, to Fort Union, New Mexico, and Fort Vancouver, Washington. Sites which commemorate the history of westward migration include Cumberland Gap in Virginia-Tennessee-Kentucky, and Chimney Rock near the Oregon Trail in Nebraska, the McLoughlin House, Oregon, Whitman Mission, Washington, and the
Homestead National Monument, Nebraska. A beginning was also made in preserving sites representing commercial and industrial history, including Salem Maritime, the Chesapeake and Ohio Canal, Hopewell Village, an early ironmaking community in Pennsylvania, and the home and laboratory of Thomas Edison.

During this period the historic preservation program was also extended well beyond the boundaries of the National Park System. The Historic American Buildings Survey was the first Service venture of this kind, organized in 1933 upon the initiative of Mr. Charles E. Peterson of the National Park Service in cooperation with officials of the Library of Congress and the American Institute of Architects. Since 1933 the HABS has gathered more than 30,000 measured drawings, 40,000 photographs, and 13,000 pages of documentation for more than 13,000 of the Nation’s historic buildings. The HABS has had a deep and pervasive influence on the entire historic preservation movement, enormously benefiting scholarship as well as the preservation and restoration of individual monuments and historic districts.

The staff of the National Survey of Historic Sites and Buildings, organized after passage of the Historic Sites Act in 1935, has been the principal originator of professional recommendations to the Director, the Secretary, the Advisory Board, and Congress for the addition of Historical Areas to the National Park System. Beginning in 1960, however, the responsibilities of this Survey staff were greatly extended to include recommendation of an important series of National Historic Landmarks, officially designated by the Secretary of the Interior. On October 9, 1960 Secretary of the Interior Fred A. Seaton announced the first official list of 92 historic sites and buildings eligible for designation as National Historic Landmarks. Almost a thousand Historic Landmarks situated throughout the United States, almost all of them in non-federal ownership, have been designated during the past ten years.

The Inter-Agency Archaeological Salvage Program was organized by the National Park Service in 1946 at the request of the Committee for Recovery of Archaeological Remains to coordinate the salvage of irreplaceable prehistoric and historic Indian artifacts from projected reservoir sites in river valleys throughout the United States, before flooding. This program, which has been conducted for a quarter of a century in cooperation with the Smithsonian Institution and universities, museums, and research institutions throughout the country, has enormously deepened knowledge of American prehistory.

Officials of the National Park Service joined with other preservationists in 1949 to help launch the National Trust for Historic Preservation, chartered by Congress to further the national historic preservation policy set forth in the Historic Sites Act by encouraging greater public participation by the private sector in preservation work. The Secretary of the Interior is designated by statute as an ex-officio trustee. The National Trust has become the
major national focus for citizen sentiment and opinion on historic preservation in the United States.

Through these varied means the National Park Service reached out between 1933 and 1964, in accordance with its charter in the Historic Sites Act, to influence historic preservation not only at the national level, but also in States and communities throughout the country.

RECREATION AREAS, 1933-1964

Between 1933 and 1964 important new terms were added to the National Park Service lexicon—“recreation,” “land planning” and “state cooperation.” The Service responded to the emerging social and economic forces of the New Deal era, among other ways, by greatly expanding its cooperative relationships with the States, securing enactment of the comprehensive Park, Parkway and Recreation Area Study Act of 1936, and initiating four new types of Federal park areas—National Parkways, National Recreation Areas, National Seashores and Recreational Demonstration Areas. By the end of this period fifteen such areas had been authorized or established under the administration of the National Park Service. Because they had much in common, they were collectively designated Recreation Areas in the Reorganization of 1964.

National Parkways:
1933, June 16 Blue Ridge, Va.-N. C.
1934, June 19 Natchez Trace, Miss.-Tenn.-Ala.
1949, Aug. 17 Suitland, D. C.-Md.
1950, Aug. 3 Baltimore-Washington, Md.

Recreational Demonstration Areas:
1936, Nov. 14 Catoctin Mountain Park, Md.

Reservoir-related Recreation Areas:
1946, Dec. 18 Coulee Dam, Wash.
1952, June 27 Shadow Mountain, Colo.
1958, April 18 Glen Canyon, Ariz.-Utah
1962, May 31 Whiskeytown-Shasta-Trinity, Calif.

National Seashores:
1937, Aug. 17 Cape Hatteras, N. C.
1961, Aug. 7 Cape Cod, Mass.
The origin of Recreation Areas as a category in the National Park System stemmed in important part from widened responsibilities assigned to the Service beginning in the 1930's. A central feature of these new responsibilities was administration of hundreds of CCC camps located in State Parks. The National Park Service had actively encouraged the state park movement ever since Stephen Tyng Mather helped organize the National Conference on State Parks at Des Moines, Iowa, in 1921. It was natural for the Service to be asked to assume national direction of Emergency Conservation Work in state parks when that program was launched in 1933. Fortunately for the Service an exceptional administrator, Conrad L. Wirth, was available to lead this complex nationwide program. It was a large and dynamic undertaking, at its peak involving administration of 482 CCC camps allotted to state parks employing almost 100,000 enrollees on work projects guided by a technical and professional staff numbering several thousand. As Freeman Tilden observes in his valuable book, *The State Parks: Their Meaning in American Life*, published in 1962, the fruits of CCC work are still an admired feature of state parks throughout the United States.

As this program got under way it became painfully evident that in the 1930's most states lacked any kind of comprehensive plans for state park systems. Furthermore, the interrelationship of parks, parkways, and recreational areas was even less understood. Against this background the Service sought comprehensive new land planning legislation. The result was the Park, Parkway and Recreation Area Study Act of 1936. Its purpose was to enable the Service, working with others, to plan coordinated and adequate park, parkway and recreational area facilities at federal, state and local levels throughout the country. In 1941 the Service published its first comprehensive report, *A Study of the Park and Recreation Problem in the United States*, a careful review of the whole problem of recreation and of national, state, county, and municipal parks in the United States. Interrupted by World War II, Director Wirth arranged for these studies to be resumed with the inception of Mission 66, and a second comprehensive report was published in 1964 entitled *Parks for America, A Survey of Park and Related Resources in the Fifty States and a Preliminary Plan*. Numerous land planning studies of individual areas, river basins, and regions accompanied and supported these comprehensive reports. The four new types of Federal Recreation Areas added to the System between 1933 and 1964 were generally consistent with recommendations in these studies. Descriptions of these types follow:

**National Parkways.** The modern parkway, fruit of the automobile age, appears to have its origins in the Westchester County Parkways, New York, built between 1913 and 1930. At first, Congress also applied the idea locally
— in the District of Columbia — but later undertook projects more clearly national in scope. Congress authorized its first parkway project in 1913, the four-mile Rock Creek and Potomac Parkway, to connect Potomac Park with Rock Creek Park and the Zoological Park. In 1928, Congress authorized the Mount Vernon Memorial Highway to link the District of Columbia with Mount Vernon in commemoration of the bicentennial of Washington’s birth. This project fulfilled at long last an idea started in 1886 among a group of Alexandria citizens. In 1930 this highway was renamed the George Washington Memorial Parkway, and enlarged in concept to extend from Mount Vernon all the way to Great Falls in Virginia, and from Fort Washington to Great Falls in Maryland (Alexandria and the District of Columbia excepted). One leg of this parkway network — the one that links Mount Vernon to the District — has been completed for its entire length and portions of two of the other three legs constructed. The George Washington Memorial Parkway was added to the National Park System in the Reorganization of 1933, the first Recreation Area to be incorporated into the System. During World War II Congress extended the National Capital parkway network by authorizing the Suitland Parkway to provide an access road to Andrews Air Force Base, and the Baltimore-Washington Parkway, whose initial unit provided access to Fort George G. Meade. The first was added to the National Park System in 1949 and the second in 1950. With these projects National Park Service responsibility for parkways in the vicinity of the National Capital reached its present limits.

The Colonial Parkway in Virginia was the first authorized by Congress beyond the District of Columbia vicinity. It provided a landscaped 23-mile roadway link between Jamestown Island, Colonial Williamsburg, and Yorktown Battlefield as part of Colonial National Monument, authorized in 1930. The National Park Service now considers Colonial Parkway an integral part of Colonial National Historical Park rather than a separate area.

A new era for National Parkways began with authorization of the Blue Ridge and Natchez Trace Parkways during the 1930’s. These were not fairly short county or metropolitan parkways serving a variety of local and national traffic but protected recreational roadways traversing hundreds of miles of scenic and historic rural landscape. These different National Parkways started out as public works projects during the New Deal and were transformed into units of the National Park System.

The Skyline Drive in Shenandoah National Park served as a prototype for the Blue Ridge Parkway. President Herbert Hoover conceived the idea of the Skyline Drive during vacations at his camp on the Rapidan. It was planned in 1931 and begun as a relief project in 1932.

Following President Roosevelt’s election Congress quickly enacted the National Industrial Recovery Act of 1933 to stimulate the economy. Among other provisions it authorized the Public Works Administrator, Secretary of
the Interior Harold L. Ickes, to prepare a comprehensive program of public works including the construction, repair, and improvement of public highways and parkways. Senator Harry F. Byrd of Virginia, aided by others, seized the opportunity to propose the construction of a scenic roadway linking Shenandoah and Great Smoky Mountains National Parks as a public works project. President Roosevelt and Secretary Ickes embraced this proposal provided the states donated the rights-of-way. They agreed to do so and on December 19, 1933, the National Park Service received an initial allotment of four million dollars to start the Blue Ridge Parkway. It was jointly planned by the National Park Service and the Bureau of Public Roads. Congress formally added the Blue Ridge Parkway to the National Park System in 1936.

The Blue Ridge Parkway is considered by many to be a Service triumph in parkway design, providing the motorist with a serene environment conducive to leisurely travel and enjoyment while affording him many insights into the beauty, history, and culture of the Southern Highlands. The 469-mile parkway, sometimes called a grand balcony, alternates sweeping views of mountain and valley with intimate glimpses of the fauna and flora of the Blue Ridge and close-up views of typical mountain structures, like Mabry's Mill, built of logs by pioneers and still operating. Begun in 1933 and well on its way toward completion in 1964, the Blue Ridge Parkway is the best known and most heavily used Recreation Area established by the Service during this period.

The Natchez Trace Parkway is the second major National Parkway, a projected 450-mile roadway through a protected zone of forest, meadow, and field which generally follows the route of the historic Natchez Trace from Nashville, Tennessee, to Natchez, Mississippi. The Old Natchez Trace was once an Indian path, then a wilderness road, and finally from 1800 to 1830 a highway binding the old Southwest to the Union. In 1934 Congress authorized a survey of the Old Indian Trail known as the Natchez Trace for the purpose of constructing a national road on this route to be known as the Natchez Trace Parkway. The survey was completed the next year and in 1938 construction was authorized. By 1964 about half the parkway had been completed linking many historic and natural features including Mount Locust, the earliest inn on the Trace, Emerald Mound, one of the largest Indian ceremonial structures in the United States, Chickasaw Village and Bynum Mounds in Mississippi, and Colbert's Ferry and Metal Ford in Tennessee.

Projects for additional parkways proliferated during the 1930's and many were revived after World War II. Among proposals seriously advanced, some of which were carefully studied were:

Extensions of the Blue Ridge Parkway, northward to Maine and southward to Georgia.
Extensions of George Washington Memorial Parkway, northward for length of C&O Canal and southward to Wakefield and Williamsburg.

Washington, D. C. to Gettysburg Parkway.

Mississippi River Parkway.

Oglethorpe National Trail and Parkway.

In 1964 the Recreation Advisory Council, established by Executive Order 11017, recommended that a national program of scenic roads and parkways be developed. Following President Johnson's Message to Congress on Natural Beauty in February 1965, such a program was prepared by the Department of Commerce entitled *A proposed program for roads and parkways*. It contemplated a $4 billion dollar program between 1966 and 1976. However, the Viet Nam war intervened and no new National Parkways have been authorized in recent years. With deepening national concern for the quality of our environment, in which proliferating automobiles appear to pose more problems than solutions, it seems likely the parkway branch of the *Family Tree* will remain much as it is for sometime to come. It is revealing to recall that the Wilderness Society was organized in 1935 partly to protest such crest-of-the-ridge roadways as the Skyline Drive and the Blue Ridge Parkway, which its members viewed as intolerable intrusions into unspoiled wilderness. Only a small voice in 1935, the Wilderness Society grew in a single generation to become the single most influential citizen voice among many others behind the Wilderness Act of 1964 which, among other provisions, is intended to keep wilderness roadless.

*Recreational Demonstration Areas.* Like the Blue Ridge Parkway, two other Recreation Areas in today's National Park System trace their origin back to the National Industrial Recovery Act of 1933 — Catoctin Mountain Park, Maryland, and Prince William Forest Park, Virginia.

Among many other features, the National Industrial Recovery Act authorized federal purchases of land considered submarginal for farming but valuable for recreation purposes. The land purchases were made initially by the Federal Emergency Relief Administration, but later transferred to the Resettlement Administration so the farmers could be resettled, and then, in 1936, turned over to the National Park Service as Recreational Demonstration Projects. By 1936, 46 projects containing 397,000 acres had been set up in 24 different states, mostly near metropolitan centers, to provide outdoor recreation for people from crowded cities. It was intended from the beginning that most of these projects would be turned over to states and cities for operation and in 1942 Congress provided the necessary authority. By 1946 most of the conveyances had been completed. The National Park Service retained Catoctin Mountain Park, site of Camp David, but 4,500 of its acres were transferred to Maryland. Prince William Forest Park (formerly Chopaawamsic) was retained as a unit administrated by National Capital Parks.
Some recreational demonstration lands were also added to Acadia, Shenandoah, White Sands, and Hopewell Village. Now largely forgotten, recreational demonstration projects left several permanent marks on the National Park System and illustrated again the ability of the Service to help meet changing social and economic conditions in the nation.

_Reservoir-related Recreation Areas._ Five National Recreation Areas were added to the System between 1933 and 1964. This new type of federal park area grew out of large scale reclamation projects like Hoover Dam and multipurpose river basin development programs like the Tennessee Valley Authority which began in the 1930’s and spread to river valleys in all parts of the country after World War II.

Lake Mead was the first National Recreation Area. The Boulder Canyon Project Act, passed in 1928, authorized the Bureau of Reclamation to construct Hoover Dam on the Colorado River. Work began in 1931 and the dam, highest in the Western Hemisphere, was completed in 1935. The next year, under provisions of an agreement with the Bureau of Reclamation, the National Park Service assumed responsibility for all recreational activities at Lake Mead. These were to become extensive, for Lake Mead is 115 miles long with 550 miles of shoreline, several ancient Indian sites, much natural history, and numerous facilities for camping, boating, swimming, and fishing. By 1952 Davis Dam had been built downstream, impounding 67-mile Lake Mohave whose upper waters lapped the foot of Hoover Dam. The National Park Service accepted responsibility for recreational activities around Lake Mohave as part of the Lake Mead National Recreation Area. The great size and importance of this combined recreational complex is easily underestimated by persons who have not seen it. This one National Recreation Area contains 1,913,816 acres, making it roughly the size of Mount McKinley National Park or Death Valley National Monument. On October 8, 1964, Lake Mead was formally established as a National Recreation Area by Act of Congress.

Coulee Dam National Recreation Area was established in 1946, under an agreement with the Bureau of Reclamation patterned after Lake Mead. Construction of Grand Coulee Dam began in 1933 and the dam went into operation in 1941. It impounds a huge body of water named Franklin D. Roosevelt Lake, 151 miles long with 660 miles of shoreline. The National Park Service has developed recreation facilities for camping, boating, swimming, and fishing at 35 different locations around the Lake. Coulee Dam is also well known for its visual and educational interest — the immense dam, long views across blue water and rolling hills, unusual geological features, and a variety of plants and animals, all in an historic context of Indians, trappers, soldiers, and pioneers.

Although Millerton Lake, California, Lake Texoma, Oklahoma-Texas,
and the north unit of Flaming Gorge, Utah-Wyoming were administered by the Service for a time, the first was subsequently turned over to the State of California, the second to the Army Corps of Engineers, and the last to the Forest Service.

Three more National Recreation Areas established during the 1950's are still in the National Park System today. Shadow Mountain, adjoining the west entrance to Rocky Mountain National Park, embraces the recreational features of Lake Granby and Shadow Mountain Lake, two units of the Colorado-Big Thompson Project. Glen Canyon was established in 1958 to provide for recreational activities on Lake Powell formed behind Glen Canyon Dam on the Colorado River, one of the highest dams in the world. Both these areas are administered by the Service pursuant to agreements with the Bureau of Reclamation. The Whiskeytown-Shasta-Trinity National Recreation Area, California, was established by Act of Congress in 1962. The National Park Service, however, administers the recreational facilities only at Whiskeytown Reservoir, while the Forest Service takes care of similar, more extensive facilities at Shasta and Trinity.

By 1964, application of the National Recreation Area concept to major impoundments behind Federal dams, whether constructed by the Bureau of Reclamation or the Corps of Engineers, appeared to be well accepted by Congress. Eight more reservations of this type were authorized as additions to the National Park System between 1964 and 1972.

National Seashores. The National Park Service made its first seashore recreation survey in the mid-1930's. It resulted in a recommendation that 12 major stretches of unspoiled Atlantic and Gulf Coast shoreline, with 437 miles of beach, be preserved as national areas. World War II intervened and by 1954 only one of the 12 proposed areas had been authorized and acquired — Cape Hatteras National Seashore, North Carolina. All the others save one — Cape Cod — had long since gone into private and commercial development. Seashore studies were resumed by the Service in the mid-1950's through the generous support of private donors. These new shoreline surveys resulted in several major reports including Our Vanishing Shoreline (1955); A Report on the Seashore Recreation Survey of the Atlantic and Gulf Coasts (1955); Our Fourth Shore, Great Lakes Shoreline Recreation Area Survey (1959); and Pacific Coast Recreation Area Survey (1959). Detailed studies of individual projects were also prepared as a part of the Service's continuing efforts for shoreline conservation. By 1972 fruits of this program included eight National Seashores and four National Lakeshores of which the first four were authorized before 1964.

Cape Hatteras, North Carolina, was authorized as the first National Seashore by Congress in 1937. Land acquisition lagged, however, until after World War II. Then two generous benefactors, the Old Dominion Founda-
tion, established by Mr. Paul Mellon, and the Avalon Foundation, created by Mrs. Ailsa Mellon Bruce, made substantial and equal grants to the National Park Service which, matched by the State of North Carolina, made acquisition of Cape Hatteras possible. Cape Hatteras protects almost 100 miles of barrier islands and beach along the North Carolina coast. The National Seashore combines preservation of unspoiled natural and historical areas with provision, at suitable locations, for beachcombing, surf bathing, swimming at protected beaches, surf and sport fishing, bird-watching and nature study, and visits to such historic structures as Cape Hatteras Lighthouse and the remains of shipwrecks still buried in the sand. Cape Hatteras was a pioneering example of a new type of area in the National Park System.

Cape Cod National Seashore, authorized in 1961, followed Cape Hatteras into the System. But it was the first of the great series of eleven post-World War II seashores and lakeshores approved by Congress in the last dozen years. It was the first large recreational or natural area for which Congress at the very outset authorized use of appropriated funds for land acquisition. An unusual provision of the Cape Cod act also authorized the Secretary of the Interior to suspend exercising the power of eminent domain to acquire private improved property within seashore boundaries as long as the town involved adopted and retained zoning regulations satisfactory to him. This provision resolved serious problems of conflict between long-settled private owners, the historic towns, and the Federal Government and helped stabilize the landscape without the forced resettlement of numerous families. It also created an important precedent for parallel provisions in legislation authorizing other national seashores and lakeshores where Federal, State, local, and private property interests required similar reconciliation.

This National Seashore protects the great outer arm of Cape Cod, known to mariners from the days of the explorers and Pilgrims. Thoreau named it the Great Beach and said "A man may stand there and put all America behind him." For three centuries, Cape Cod, with its magnificent shoreline, was spared the great industrial buildup of our eastern coast. Combined with a seafaring way of life and a proud heritage, this isolation produced a memorable scene: great sand dunes, salt and fresh water marshes, unique villages, weathered gray cottages, fishing wharves, windmills, lighthouses, and an abundance of shore birds, migratory waterfowl, and other natural and historic features. Real estate subdivisions and commercial development threatened Cape Cod in the late 1950's, and Congress authorized permanent protection of some 27,000 acres of seashore and dune lands embraced in a narrow strip almost 40 miles long, from Provincetown to Chatham.

The National Seashore concept reached the Pacific Coast in 1962 with authorization of Point Reyes, California, embracing more than forty miles of shoreline including historic Drakes Bay, Tomales Point, and Point Reyes itself. Acquisition of lands is still in progress. Protection of this immensely

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important and relatively unspoiled shoreline resource, only an hour's drive northward from Golden Gate, is the objective and obligation of the National Park Service under the 1962 act.

The National Seashore concept reached the Gulf Coast in 1962 also with authorization of Padre Island, Texas. This great shore island stretches for 113 miles along the Texas coast from Corpus Christi on the north almost to Mexico on the south, and varies in width from a few hundred yards to about three miles. There is some private development at each end of the island. The National Seashore boundaries encompass the undeveloped central part of the island, over eighty miles long. Padre Island is a textbook example of a barrier island built by wave action and crowned by wind-formed dunes.

**Conclusion**

The above account of Recreation Areas added to the National Park System provides only a partial glimpse of the exceptional momentum developed by the national movement for parks and recreation between 1933 and 1964. The National Park Service, especially through the leadership of Conrad L. Wirth, as CCC administrator, planner and Director, played an influential role in that movement throughout this period. The need for more outdoor recreation facilities approached crisis proportions before the end of the 1950's, the result of growing population, increasing leisure time, rising incomes, and the automobile age. In 1958 Congress created an Outdoor Recreation Resources Review Commission to make a new comprehensive study of recreation facilities in the United States. The Commission presented its report, *Outdoor Recreation for America*, to President John F. Kennedy in 1962. Based on that report, Secretary Udall established the Bureau of Outdoor Recreation in the Department of the Interior in April 1962 and transferred longstanding National Park Service responsibilities for the formulation of a nationwide outdoor recreation plan and important aspects of cooperative relationships with States to the new bureau. In May 1963, Congress passed organic legislation confirming the responsibilities of the Bureau of Outdoor Recreation. With this action a new chapter in federal participation in outdoor recreation began.
For purposes of clarity we have presented the *Family Tree* 1933-1964, as if it consisted of three branches — natural, historical, and recreation areas. Our presentation obscures the fact that in actual practice these three branches were not established until 1964. Before that date the Service undertook to assimilate these diverse areas into one largely undifferentiated System. That System was guided by a single code of administrative policies derived largely from National Park experience but—with the addition of policies on historic preservation — made equally applicable to all areas.

On July 10, 1964, Secretary Stewart L. Udall signed a memorandum to the Director of the National Park Service instituting a new organizational framework for the National Park System. This new framework, based on recommendations made by Director George B. Hartzog, Jr., was a major step forward in the evolution of the System. The memorandum stated: “It is clear that the Congress had included within the growing System three different categories of areas — natural, historical and recreational. . . . A single broad management concept encompassing these three categories of areas within the System is inadequate either for their proper preservation or for realization of their full potential for public use as embodied in the expressions of Congressional policy. Each of these categories requires a separate management concept and a separate set of management principles coordinated to form one organic management plan for the entire System.” The memorandum outlined the principles of resource management, resource use, and physical development that should characterize each category, and approved a new statement of long-range objectives. This landmark memorandum be-
longs in the select series of Secretarial statements, beginning with Franklin K. Lane's letter of May 13, 1918, to Stephen T. Mather, that have had great and lasting influence on the growth of the System.

Years ago there were good reasons for an undifferentiated System. After the transfer of 57 historical areas in a single action in 1933, clearly the first Service task was to assimilate them. The administrative policies which obtained when those areas were under the jurisdiction of the War Department were incompatible with longstanding National Park Service policies in such fields as public information, interpretation, forestry, plans and design, and concessions. The Service started its task of assimilation by applying its own well-established park policies to the new additions as rapidly as possible. Service officials were also concerned that if the historical areas were set off by themselves, some dedicated nature preservationists would endeavor to separate them as a group from the System so that it might be made to consist solely of natural areas. Public efforts by some conservationists to achieve that objective may have justified their concern. In the background was the belief that retaining the historical areas as an integral part of the System would strengthen the hand of the Service in Congress because most historical areas were located in eastern Congressional districts with no other intimate ties to the Service. No doubt this was true. Unfortunately, this belief prompted some Service officials to value the historical areas as much for the support they brought to natural areas as for their intrinsic value as parts of our common national heritage. It took the Service more than thirty years after 1933 publicly to recognize the historical areas as a separate segment of the System with distinct roots and character of its own, yet interdependent with the other segments containing natural and recreational areas. This was one of the most important and timely insights of the Reorganization of 1964.

Assimilation of recreation areas into the National Park System is a separate story. For a long time after its establishment in 1916, the Service opposed taking responsibility for any area whose primary justification was provision of active outdoor recreation for large numbers of people. It was thought that state parks, county and municipal parks, and other public reservations, not National Parks, should take care of most public recreation needs. Years ago there was justified concern that if the Service opened its arms to administer recreation facilities at Federal reservoirs, mass recreation and possibly artificial lakes might soon invade the National Parks as well, and such choice places as Yosemite Valley, Yellowstone Lake, and Mount Rainier might lose their superb natural qualities and become little more than playgrounds. Furthermore, the National Park Service did not have primary jurisdiction over lands in such recreation areas as Lake Mead, which was basically under the Bureau of Reclamation. Service responsibilities derived from a cooperative agreement. The consequence was that many conservationists and some officials opposed accepting National Recreation Areas as
fully qualified units of the National Park System. The Act of August 8, 1953, defined the System in such a way as to leave them out:

Sec. 2. (a) The term “National Park System” means all federally owned or controlled lands which are administered under the direction of the Secretary of the Interior in accordance with the provisions of the act of August 25, 1916 (39 Stat. 535), as amended, and which are grouped into the following descriptive categories: (1) National parks, (2) national monuments, (3) national historical parks, (4) national memorials, (5) national parkways, and (6) national capital parks.

(b) The term “miscellaneous areas” includes lands under the administrative jurisdiction of another Federal agency, or lands in private ownership, and over which the National Park Service, under the direction of the Secretary of the Interior, pursuant to cooperative agreement, exercises supervision for recreational, historical or other related purposes, and also any lands under the care and custody of the National Park Service other than those heretofore described in this section.

The Reorganization of 1964 prepared the way for Congress to replace the 1953 definition of the National Park System with a revised concept. For the first time it clearly and unequivocally established recreation areas as one of the three segments of the National Park System. Furthermore, it had the tremendous merit of differentiating recreation areas from natural areas. By this means, some of the earlier concern that identical policies might govern both natural and recreation areas was dissipated.

Important fruits of the Reorganization of 1964 were realized in 1968. In that year Director Hartzog issued three publications of fundamental importance to the future management of the National Park System: Administrative Policies for Natural Areas . . .; Administrative Policies for Historical Areas . . .; and Administrative Policies for Recreation Areas . . .. It had taken almost a century for the Service to fully articulate and distinguish the fundamental concepts contained in these publications. Although they had been implicit in the evolving history of the National Park System now they were made explicit. As we shall later see, in 1970 Congress adopted a new definition of the National Park System consistent with the Reorganization of 1964, and it is in effect today.
Between 1964 and 1972 the National Park System experienced unusual growth. Under the leadership of Director George B. Hartzog, Jr. and Secretaries of the Interior Stewart L. Udall, Walter J. Hickel, and Rogers C. B. Morton, 62 areas were authorized, added to the System, or given new status, in eight years. Of these 13 were natural areas, including five new National Parks; 29 were historical areas, including a series of historic sites and buildings honoring seven former Presidents of the United States; 20 were recreational areas, including eight National Seashores and Lakeshores, three National Scenic Riverways, and one National Scenic Trail; and one was a Cultural Area, an entirely new category in the System. This remarkable growth benefited much from groundwork laid during preceding years but it also derived substantial impetus from the "New Conservation," a term widely used to describe the drastically enlarged scope of the conservation movement which took shape during the 1960's.

The New Conservation

Although it had other roots, for present purposes the "New Conservation" may be considered as beginning with the 1962 report of the Outdoor Recreation Resources Review Commission, establishment of the Bureau of Outdoor Recreation the same year, and creation of the Land and Water Conservation Fund in 1964. This important Fund played a determining role in enlargement of the National Park System during this period. The movement had many other aspects too important and complex for extended discussion here. Secretary of the Interior Stewart L. Udall articulated important aspects of the "New Conservation" in his book The Quiet Crisis and in his annual reports. Important developments affecting the System included passage of
the Wilderness Act in 1964 and the beginnings of the National Wilderness Preservation System. In 1965 President Lyndon B. Johnson convoked the White House Conference on Natural Beauty, which gave new emphasis at the highest levels of government to the importance of aesthetic values, primarily natural but also cultural. In the ensuing years, under Mrs. Johnson's leadership, the natural beauty movement spread from Washington, D.C. — where important aspects were demonstrated in National Capital Parks for all the nation to see — to States and communities all over America. Historic preservation became part of the “New Conservation” with enactment of the highly important National Historic Preservation Act in 1966. Among other important steps he took to extend and deepen the “New Conservation,” President Richard M. Nixon launched his Legacy of Parks program and proposed World Heritage Trust in 1971.

Underlying all these widening concerns of the 1960's and early 1970's was a growing national conviction that partial conservation programs, however meritorious, were inadequate to meet modern problems. The fabric of life, it was finally realized, is seamless. This conviction grew as millions of Americans saw with their own eyes the steady spread of air and water pollution in their own neighborhoods to levels hazardous to life. The intolerable consequences of dramatic off-shore oil spills, deadening smog, filthy rivers, and diminishing open space were evident on every hand. Scientists announced that the very foundations of life on earth were in jeopardy because of the profound impact of modern technology on the total ecology of the globe. But among all the factors that forced Americans to turn their full attention to the life-giving qualities of their environment, none equalled the landing on the moon. The truth came as a revelation. Viewed from outer space, the planet earth is a small green orb in an apparently lifeless immensity and man's only home.

The first comprehensive response to this revelation was Congressional passage of the National Environmental Policy Act signed by President Nixon on January 1, 1970. This legislation has been called by Senator Henry Jackson of Washington “the most important and far-reaching environmental and conservation measure ever acted upon by the Congress. . . . The survival of man, in a world in which decency and dignity are possible, is the basic reason for bringing man's impact on his environment under informed and responsible control.” The act established new national environmental goals for the United States and forged new administrative instruments for environmental conservation. Under its authority, during 1970, President Nixon created two major new agencies. One, the Council on Environmental Quality in the Executive Office of the President, monitors environmental conservation. The other, the Environmental Protection Agency, consolidates into one agency the major Federal programs dealing with air pollution, water pollution, solid waste disposal, pesticides, and environmental radiation. After
these developments, the roles of the National Park System and Service in American life had to be viewed anew in the light of their relationship to the quality of our total environment.

One specific response was development of a National Park Service program for environmental education beginning as early as 1968. The program was called NEED, or National Environmental Education Development, aimed especially at bringing school children to a critical awareness of their environment, but also directed to all park visitors. It included designation of Environmental Study Areas on National Park System lands to be used primarily by school children to help them understand their total environment, its many interdependent relationships, and their part in it. In 1971 a further program was adopted to confer national recognition on non-federal sites possessing outstanding quality for environmental education by designating them National Environmental Education Landmarks. Secretary of the Interior Rogers C. B. Morton designated the first eleven sites in 1971, situated in nine states and the District of Columbia.

In a broad sense, all the interdependent and developing programs of the National Park Service are aimed at contributing to the formation of a new environmental ethic among the American people, "a foundation on which our citizens may renew and preserve the quality of our national life." The National Park System in all its unity and diversity came to be seen as an on-going expression of America's continuing regard for its land and its history, one of the wellsprings for a new land ethic supported by a renewed sense of our national identity.

**NATURAL AREAS, 1964-1972**

Ten new natural areas were authorized or established during this period, including five National Parks, four scientific National Monuments, and one National Scientific Reserve, an entirely new type of natural area. In addition two long-established scientific National Monuments were made National Parks and one reservation within National Capital Parks was accorded new status as a separate area. The list follows:

1964, Sept. 12 Canyonlands N.P., Utah
1965, June 15 Guadalupe Mountains N.P., Texas
1966, Oct. 15 Guadalupe Mountains N.P., Texas
1968, Oct. 18 Biscayne N.M., Fla.
1969, Aug. 20 Florissant Fossil Beds N.M., Colo.
1970, Feb. 3 Theodore Roosevelt Island, D. C.
(formerly National Capital Parks reservation)
1971, Jan. 8 Voyageurs N.P., Minn.
1971, Nov. 12 Arches N.P., Utah (formerly Arches N.M.)
1971, Dec. 18 Capitol Reef N.P., Utah (formerly Capitol Reef N.M.)

Five new National Parks and two more created out of existing National Monuments is a notable achievement in eight years. It would have been impossible without vigorous efforts by the National Park Service going back many years, aided by newly awakened public and Congressional interest, and the financial base provided when Congress authorized the Land and Water Conservation Fund in 1965. These seven National Parks brought the total number to 38 and added significantly to the geographical distribution and diversity of scenic and scientific values conserved in the System.

Canyonlands National Park, Utah, was established in 1964 to protect a wild area of exceptional scenic, scientific, and archaeological interest at the confluence of the Green and Colorado Rivers in southeastern Utah. The park contains over 337,000 acres. Both rivers are entrenched in labyrinthine gorges, and above their confluence the landscape is dominated by a great plateau called the Island in the Sky. The park contains numerous petroglyphs made by Indians a thousand years ago.

Congress authorized the Guadalupe Mountains National Park in 1966 “to preserve . . . an area in the State of Texas possessing outstanding geological values together with scenic and other natural values of great significance.” The area had been proposed for inclusion in the System as early as 1933. The park’s mountain mass and its adjoining lands contain 81,000 acres and protect portions of the world’s most extensive and significant Permian limestone fossil reef.

North Cascades National Park, Washington, embraces over half a million acres of wild alpine country containing jagged peaks, mountain lakes, glaciers, and wildlife. From the start this undertaking was surrounded by intense controversy involving clashes among timber and mining interests, conservationists, local governments, and several Federal agencies, including the Forest Service, the Bureau of Outdoor Recreation, and the National Park Service. The park was finally authorized in 1968.

Redwood National Park, California, was authorized the same year, also after long and bitter controversy, “to preserve significant examples of the primeval coastal redwood forests and the streams and seashores with which they are associated for purposes of public inspiration, enjoyment and scientific study.” Redwood National Park is 46 miles long, north and south, and
about 7 miles wide at its greatest width. It includes 30 continuous miles of Pacific Ocean shoreline which, with adjoining hills, ridges, valleys, and streams, protects 56,201 acres of redwood forest, bluffs, and beaches. The boundaries include three well-known California State Parks distinguished by their magnificent redwood groves — Prairie Creek, established in 1923; Del Norte in 1925; and Jedediah Smith in 1929. California has not yet chosen to transfer these lands to the United States, but they are conserved in cooperation with the Service, which administers adjoining Federal lands.

Finally, Voyageurs National Park, Minnesota, was authorized in 1971 “to preserve, for the inspiration and enjoyment of present and future generations, the outstanding scenery, geological conditions, and waterway system which constituted a part of the historic route of the Voyageurs who contributed significantly to the opening of the Northwestern United States.” The park is planned to contain some 220,000 acres of wild northern lake country.

Arches National Monument, Utah, originally established in 1929 by Presidential proclamation under the provisions of the Antiquities Act, was made a National Park by Act of Congress approved November 12, 1971. The area protects giant arches, windows, pinnacles and pedestals, all the extraordinary products of erosion. On the same day, President Nixon approved legislation adding a substantial area of public lands to Canyonlands National Park, bringing its total to 337,258 acres. On December 18, 1971, Capitol Reef National Monument, Utah, originally proclaimed in 1937, was also made a National Park by Act of Congress.

Three new scientific National Monuments were authorized by Acts of Congress during this period and one — Marble Canyon, Arizona — was proclaimed by President Johnson under provisions of the Antiquities Act of 1906. These actions increased the number of scientific National Monuments to 37 and widened somewhat the geographical distribution of natural areas preserved in the System. Agate Fossil Beds National Monument, Nebraska, protects world-renowned quarries containing outstanding deposits of well-preserved Miocene mammal fossils which throw light on an important chapter in evolution often called the Age of Mammals. Biscayne National Monument, Florida, preserves a significant example of a living coral reef in the Upper Florida Keys. Florissant Fossil Beds National Monument, Colorado, protects a wealth of fossil insects, seeds and leaves of Oligocene period which survived in an ancient lake bed. The area includes a remarkable display of petrified Sequoia stumps. Marble Canyon National Monument, Arizona, protects a spectacular 50-mile canyon of the Colorado River between Glen Canyon and Grand Canyon.

Ice Age National Scientific Reserve was authorized by Congress in 1964—a new type of natural area in the National Park System. It is a cooperative undertaking between the Federal Government and the State of Wisconsin,
“to assure protection, preservation, and interpretation of the nationally significant values of Wisconsin continental glaciation, including moraines, eskers, kames, kettleholes, drumlins, swamps, lakes, and other reminders of the ice age.” The act authorized the Secretary of the Interior to formulate a comprehensive plan for the area in cooperation with State and local governmental authorities who will continue to own the lands with the Federal Government providing assistance in the form of grants. As amended in 1970 the law provides that in addition to grants made pursuant to the Land and Water Conservation Fund Act of 1965, the Secretary of the Interior is authorized to make grants not to exceed twenty-five percent of the actual cost of each development project within the reserve to a total not exceeding $425,000. In addition the Secretary is authorized to pay up to fifty percent of the annual costs of management, protection, maintenance, and rehabilitation. These are unusual provisions and their implementation by the Service and the State will be followed with close attention by park conservationists. Ice Age National Scientific Reserve may become the prototype for a new kind of natural area in the System.

Although ten significant new natural areas were added between 1964 and 1972, their importance was overshadowed by enactment of the Wilderness Act. That act was a response to deepening national concern for the preservation of America’s remaining wilderness in the face of mounting pressures from burgeoning technology, growing population, rising incomes, and increasing leisure time and mobility (78,000,000 automobiles in 1967). After years of passionate effort by devoted conservationists, Congress passed the Wilderness Act in 1964, a milestone in conservation history. The act read in part:

In order to assure that an increasing population, accompanied by expanding settlement and growing mechanization, does not occupy and modify all areas within the United States and its possessions, leaving no lands designated for preservation and protection in their natural condition, it is hereby declared to be the policy of the Congress to secure for the American people of present and future generations the benefits of an enduring resource of wilderness. For this purpose there is hereby established a National Wilderness Preservation System to be composed of federally owned areas designated by Congress as “wilderness areas.”

The act defined wilderness as “an area where the earth and its community of life are untrammeled by man, where man himself is a visitor who does not remain.” For purposes of the act, wilderness was also defined as an area of undeveloped Federal land, primeval in character, without permanent improvements or human habitation, protected and managed to preserve its natural conditions. Wilderness areas should contain at least 5,000 acres of land.

The act required the Secretary of the Interior to review, within ten years, every roadless area of 5,000 contiguous acres or more in the National Parks, National Monuments, and other units of the National Park System and re-
port to the President on the suitability or unsuitability of each such area for preservation as wilderness. A recommendation from the President to Congress to designate a particular wilderness area would become effective only if approved by Act of Congress.

The National Park Service has recently been engaged in a massive effort to complete a review of all roadless areas within the National Park System by 1974. By January 1, 1972, many potential wilderness areas had been studied and two — Petrified Forest and Craters of the Moon — had been designated by Acts of Congress.

As the first century of the history of the National Park System drew toward a close, much remained to be done fully to carry out the provisions of the Wilderness Act, but more than a score of wilderness areas appeared to be nearing designation within the System.

Director Hartzog substantially broadened and strengthened the Natural Landmarks Program in 1970. On August 18 the Federal Register published an official list of 150 Natural Landmarks, located in 41 States then eligible for entry on the National Registry. The list was accompanied by a statement from the Director which officially set forth for the first time the principal natural history themes according to which natural lands would henceforth be inventoried and classified by the National Park Service, as follows:

**Landforms of the Present**
- Plains, plateaus, mesas.
- Cuestas and hogbacks.
- Mountain systems.
- Works of volcanism.
- Hot water phenomena.
- Sculpture of the land.
- Eolian landforms.
- River systems and lakes.
- The work of glaciers.

**Geological History of the Earth**
- Precambrian.
- Cambrian—Ordovician.
- Silurian—Devonian.
- Mississippian—Permian.
- Triassic—Cretaceous.
- Paleocene—Eocene.
- Oligocene—Recent.

**Land Ecosystems**
- Tundra.
- Boreal forest.
- Pacific forest.
- Dry coniferous forest and woodland.
- Eastern deciduous forest.
- Grassland.
- Chaparral.
- Deserts.
- Tropical ecosystems.

**Aquatic Ecosystems**
- Marine environments.
- Estuaries.
- Streams.
- Underground ecosystems.
- Lakes and ponds.
Criteria for Natural Landmarks to be designated within these themes were also set forth and examples given of the kinds of areas which could qualify. They included outstanding geological formations; significant fossil evidence; an ecological community illustrating a physiographic province; a habitat supporting a vanishing, rare, or restricted species; a relict fauna or flora; examples of scenic grandeur; and others. For our purposes the establishment of natural history themes and criteria is full of significance for the possible direction of future growth of the Family Tree.

Just as historical themes undergird the Historical Area segment of the National Park System so too natural history themes will undergird the future growth — not only of the National Registry of Natural Areas — but also of the entire Natural Areas segment of the System.

HISTORICAL AREAS, 1964-1972

Twenty-nine historical areas were added to the System between 1964 and 1972 and two were consolidated bringing the total number to 172. These new historical areas were located in 21 States and the District of Columbia, further extending the System's geographical representation. They were distributed among eight of nine major themes in American history as follows:

I. The Original Inhabitants:
   1965, May 15 Nez Perce N.H.P., Idaho
   1965, Aug. 31 Alibates Flint Quarries and Texas Panhandle Pueblo Culture N.M., Tex.

II. European Exploration and Settlement:
   1965, June 28 Pecos N.M., N. Mex.
   1965, Oct. 22 Roger Williams N. Mem., R. I.

IV. Major American Wars:
   1966, July 23 George Rogers Clark N.H.P., Ind.
   1970, Oct. 10 Fort Point N.H.S., Calif.

V. Political and Military Affairs:
   1965, Aug. 12 Herbert Hoover N.H.S., Iowa
   1965, Aug. 31 Fort Scott Historic Area, Kansas
   1965, Sept. 30 Pennsylvania Avenue N.H.S., D. C.
   1966, June 30 Chamizal N. Mem., Tex.
   1966, Sept. 9 San Juan Isl. N.H.P., Wash.
1966, Nov. 2 Ansley Wilcox House N.H.S., N. Y.
1969, Dec. 2 William Howard Taft N.H.S., Ohio
1971, Aug. 18 Lincoln Home N.H.S., Ill.

VI. Westward Expansion:
1964, Aug. 30 Fort Bowie N.H.S., Ariz.
1964, Aug. 31 Fort Larned N.H.S., Kan.
1966, June 20 Fort Union Trading Post N.H.S., N. D.-Mont.

VII. America At Work:

VIII. The Contemplative Society:
1964, Aug. 31 Saint-Gaudens N.H.S., N. H.
1968, Oct. 17 Carl Sandburg Home N.H.S., N. C.

IX. Society and Social Conscience:
1964, Aug. 31 John Muir N.H.S., Calif.

Limits of space preclude detailed comments on these many individual areas, though each is unique. A few highlights, suggestive of general trends, deserve special attention.

There was a notable continuation of the previous tendency to preserve places associated with the lives of American Presidents in the National Park System. Seven former Presidents were honored in this manner between 1964 and 1972. In the order of their presidencies, they were Abraham Lincoln at his home in Springfield, Illinois; Theodore Roosevelt at the Ansley Wilcox House, Buffalo, New York, where he took the oath of office following the assassination of William McKinley; William Howard Taft at his birthplace and early home in Ohio; Herbert Hoover at his birthplace, boyhood home, and burial place, West Branch, Iowa; Dwight David Eisenhower at his home and farm, Gettysburg, Pennsylvania; John Fitzgerald Kennedy at his birthplace and boyhood home, Brookline, Massachusetts; and Lyndon B. Johnson at his birthplace and boyhood home in Texas. In addition, the handsome Theodore Roosevelt Memorial situated in natural surroundings on Theodore Roosevelt Island, Washington, D. C., was dedicated by President Johnson on October 27, 1967. Designed by Eric Gugler, the memorial incorporates a seventeen-foot bronze statue of Roosevelt by Paul Manship in an oval terrace ornamented by two fountains and four granite slabs inscribed with tenets of Roosevelt's philosophy of citizenship. Seven other Presidents are also represented in the National Park System by historic sites or memorials.

Other additions to historical areas during this period are fairly evenly distributed among seven themes, two or three sites for each. It may be noted
that two sites were added under Theme VIII, The Contemplative Society—
homes of the American sculptor, Saint-Gaudens, and the poet and writer, Carl
Sandburg. With these additions the System now contains three sites repre­
senting the Contemplative Society. Three sites were added under Theme IV,
Major American Wars — George Rogers Clark National Historical Park,
Indiana, the Andersonville Prison site in Georgia, and Fort Point, California.
With these additions the System now contains 36 sites commemorating
Major American Wars. The contrast in representation between Theme VIII,
The Contemplative Society, with a total of three sites and Theme IV, Major
American Wars, with 36 is striking and deserves reflection.

New directions for historic preservation within the National Park System
were developed further during this period in two unusual undertakings —
the Nez Perce National Historical Park, Idaho, and the Fort Scott Historic
Area, Kansas, both authorized in 1965. Though quite different, both projects
involve continuing cooperative arrangements between the National Park
Service, the States, other political subdivisions, and quasi-public and private
organizations and individuals.

The Nez Perce National Historical Park provides an instrument for
coordinating the preservation and interpretation of 23 related historic sites
geographically distributed over 12,000 square miles in northern Idaho.
These sites represent the history and culture of the Nez Perce Indians and of
the whites who eventually engulfed them — explorers, fur traders, mission­
aries, soldiers, settlers, gold miners, loggers, and farmers. The sites in this
park include historic Nez Perce gathering places, explorers’ campsites,
historic missions, battlefields, natural formations, and historic Lolo Trail
and Pass under a variety of ownerships and will so continue. The park is a
joint venture between the National Park Service, other Federal agencies, the
State of Idaho, several local governments, the Nez Perce Tribal Executive
Committee, private organizations and generous individuals. The Secretary of
the Interior has an important coordinating role. Independence National
Historical Park, Philadelphia, authorized in 1948, involves similar coopera­
tive relationships and served as a partial precedent for Nez Perce. Ice Age
National Scientific Reserve is a somewhat parallel example of cooperative
relationships in the field of natural areas but under state management.

Fort Scott Historic Area, Kansas, authorized by Congress in 1965 also
illustrates a new type of cooperative historic preservation project. The act
authorized the Secretary of the Interior to commemorate and mark — but
not acquire as Federal property — the sites of certain historical events in
Kansas that occurred between 1854 and the outbreak of the Civil War. These
include Fort Scott; sites associated with John Brown in Osawatomie; Mine
Creek Battlefield; and the sites of the Marais des Cynges massacre and
Quantrell’s raid. The Secretary was also authorized, under certain conditions,
to make grants to the city of Fort Scott for land acquisition and development
necessary to display the fort to the public and to provide historical information to enhance public understanding. All these authorizations were contingent upon the execution of satisfactory cooperative agreements with the city or other property owners.

The importance of the addition of 29 historical areas to the System between 1964 and 1972, notable as it is, was over-shadowed by the deeper significance of passage of the National Historic Preservation Act of 1966. This landmark legislation grew out of recommendations made by a Special Committee on Historic Preservation established in 1965 under the auspices of the United States Conference of Mayors with a grant from the Ford Foundation. The eleven-member committee was headed by Hon. Albert Rains, for many years a distinguished Representative in Congress from Alabama and former Chairman, Housing Subcommittee of the House, and included high ranking officials of Federal, State, and local governments and the National Trust for Historic Preservation. Its report *With Heritage So Rich*, published early in 1966, spoke eloquently of the depth and diversity of our historical heritage, the mounting dangers to its preservation, and the need for a new and broadened national preservation policy and program.

Congress responded to the Rains Committee report, and to strong recommendations from the Secretary of the Interior and other Federal officials, notably Director Hartzog, by enacting the National Historic Preservation Act of 1966, signed by President Johnson on October 15. The new law greatly enlarged the scope and character of National Park Service participation in the historic preservation movement in the United States.

1. It authorized the Secretary of the Interior to expand and maintain a National Register of districts, sites, buildings, structures, and objects significant in American history, architecture, archaeology, and culture. By March 1, 1972, the National Register of Historic Places contained some 3,614 entries, with many additions being made each year.

2. It authorized a program of matching grants-in-aid to the States to help them prepare comprehensive statewide historic preservation surveys and plans. By 1972 survey and planning grants had been made to most of the States totaling over $2.25 million dollars annually.

3. It authorized matching grants to the States for "brick and mortar" acquisition and preservation projects. By 1972 grants had been made under this authority for some 175 projects widely distributed through most of the States, and additional grants were being authorized annually.

4. It authorized matching grants to assist the National Trust for Historic Preservation to meet its responsibilities under its Congressional charter. By 1972 the National Trust was receiving over $1 million dollars in grants annually.

5. It established a high-level Advisory Council on Historic Preservation whose members include the Secretaries of Interior, Commerce, Treasury,
Housing and Urban Development, the Attorney General, the Administrator of the General Services Administration, the Chairman of the National Trust, and ten interested and experienced citizens. The Council's duties include advising the President and Congress on matters relating to historic preservation. The Director of the National Park Service or his designee is Executive Director of the Council.

(6) It established procedures to insure that no registered site or building would be adversely affected by a Federal or Federally assisted undertaking or licensing action without first giving the Advisory Council formal opportunity to comment.

Congressional and Presidential interest in this program continues to be strong. In 1970 Congress amended the National Historic Preservation Act to add the Secretaries of Agriculture, Transportation, and the Smithsonian Institution to the Advisory Council; provide for United States' participation in the International Centre for the Study of the Preservation and Restoration of Cultural Property (Rome Centre); and extend the appropriation authority for grants three additional years at an additional total authorization of 32 million dollars.

In 1971, President Nixon took another major step to strengthen Federal participation in historic preservation. On May 13 he signed Executive Order 11593 calling for "Protection and Enhancement of the Cultural Environment." In an accompanying statement he said:

As we approach the American bicentennial, it is fitting that we devote greater attention to the protection and enhancement of our cultural heritage. By my order today I am directing Federal agencies to assure that the Government's own historic properties are identified, nominated for listing on the National Register, and preserved at professional standards.

The order is now being implemented. Some fifty Federal agencies have designated representatives to work with the National Park Service on historic preservation matters. Each agency is required to locate, inventory, and nominate to the Secretary of the Interior by July 1, 1973, all sites, buildings, districts and objects under its jurisdiction or control that appear to qualify for listing on the National Register. Thereafter, among other responsibilities, each agency is required to initiate measures to provide for the maintenance of such registered sites, through preservation, rehabilitation, or restoration at professional standards prescribed by the Secretary of the Interior. There are estimated to be thousands of significant historic sites and structures on military reservations, public lands, national forests, and other Federal holdings to which new protection will now be extended in cooperation with the National Park Service.

Through these various means, the National Park Service is now stimulating new historic preservation efforts at the grass roots level throughout the United States. This was one of the principal purposes of the National Historic Preservation Act of 1966 — to see to it that the historical and cultural
foundations of the Nation are “preserved as a living part of our community life and development in order to give a sense of orientation to the American people.”

## RECREATION AREAS, 1964-1972

Between 1964 and 1972, 20 new recreation areas, situated in 35 of the 50 States, were added to the National Park System. Eight were National Seashores or Lakeshores, eight reservoir-related Recreation Areas, three National Scenic Riverways, and one a National Scenic Trail. The last two categories were entirely new to the System. These additions more than doubled the number of recreation areas, increasing it from 17 to 36. The list of additions follows:

### National Seashores and Lakeshores:
- 1964, Sept. 11 Fire Island N.S., N. Y.
- 1966, March 10 Cape Lookout N.S., N. C.
- 1966, Nov. 5 Indiana Dunes N.L., Ind.
- 1971, Jan. 8 Gulf Islands N.S., Fla.-Miss.

### Reservoir-related Recreation Areas:
- 1965, March 15 Sanford R.A., Texas
- 1965, Nov. 11 Amistad R.A., Texas

### National Scenic Riverways:
- 1964, Aug. 27 Ozark, Mo.
- 1968, Sept. 4 St. Croix, Minn.-Wisc.

### National Scenic Trail:
The rapid growth in the number of recreation areas in the System during this period was a consequence of several factors including groundwork laid by the Service in earlier surveys and creation of the Land and Water Conservation Fund. Concurrently with those developments, President John F. Kennedy formed a Recreation Advisory Council composed of the Secretaries of the Interior, Agriculture, Defense, Commerce, and Health, Education and Welfare, plus the Administrator of the Housing and Home Finance Agency, to coordinate Federal programs for outdoor recreation. In 1963, the Council's Policy Circular No. 1 established criteria for new National Recreation Areas.

The Council expected new National Recreation Areas to be established by act of Congress and to be limited in number since most of the outdoor recreation needs of the American people should be met locally. Whatever their type — Seashore, Lakeshore, Riverway, or Reservoir — National Recreation Areas were expected to be spacious, including as a rule not less than 20,000 acres of land and water, with high recreation carrying capacity based on interstate patronage. They were also to have natural endowments well above the ordinary in quality and recreation appeal, transcending that normally associated with State and local recreation areas but less significant than the unique scenic and historic elements of the National Park System. They were to be situated where crowded urban populations could easily reach them and to be of a nature justifying Federal investment. While some National Recreation Areas would be incorporated into the National Park System others would be managed by the Forest Service, the Corps of Engineers, and possibly other Federal agencies. Within this general framework, 20 Recreation Areas were added to the System between 1964 and 1972, classified into four types as follows:

National Seashores and Lakeshores. Eight new National Seashores and Lakeshores were authorized in seven years, tripling their number — a sparkling accomplishment. Preservation of most of these areas had been actively sought by the Service since the 1950's when seashore surveys were largely completed. There are now 12 such areas in the System, including five along the Atlantic shoreline, two along the Gulf coast, one on the Pacific coast, and four around the Great Lakes. These areas reflect the national determination to save significant and unspoiled examples of all our vanishing shorelines while it is still possible.

In most cases creation of these reservations stabilized a rapidly deteriorating shoreline landscape threatened by real estate subdivisions, highway construction, and commercial development and preserved natural and historical values in imminent danger of loss. At the same time they provided important outdoor recreational opportunities in a natural environment while holding back from offering facilities for mass recreation in the Jones Beach style of highly intensive use. The balance between preservation and use contemplated by Congress varies from area to area.
Fire Island National Seashore protects some 25 miles of the largest remaining barrier beach off the south shore of Long Island, 50 miles from downtown Manhattan. It contains relatively unspoiled and undeveloped beaches, dunes, and other natural features. The Secretary is to administer Fire Island "with the primary aim of conserving the natural resources located there."

Assateague Island preserves a 35-mile barrier island of beach, marsh, ground cover, and marine and wildlife along the Maryland-Virginia portion of the Atlantic Ocean shoreline. The boundary embraces the Chincoteague National Wildlife Refuge and Assateague State Park, which continue as separate reservations although management plans are coordinated. The Secretary is directed by law to administer the area "for general purposes of public outdoor recreation, including conservation of natural features contributing to public enjoyment."

Cape Lookout, North Carolina, authorized in 1966, protects three barrier islands of the Outer Banks below Cape Hatteras, embracing beaches, dunes, salt marshes, and Cape Lookout Lighthouse.

Gulf Islands National Seashore, Florida and Mississippi, was authorized on January 8, 1971, to protect four Gulf Coast islands, a portion of Perdido Key, the ancient Naval Live Oaks Reservation, and several historic Spanish and American forts "for public use and enjoyment."

Pictured Rocks, Michigan, was the first of four successive National Lakeshores authorized by Congress. When completed it will embrace a unique scenic area on the south shore of Lake Superior some 32 miles long containing multi-colored sandstone cliffs, broad beaches, bars, dunes, waterfalls, inland lakes, ponds, marshes, hardwood and coniferous forests, and abundant wildlife. These resources are to be preserved "for the benefit, inspiration, education, recreational use, and enjoyment of the public."

Indiana Dunes, Indiana, protects a section of the southern shore of Lake Michigan between Gary and Michigan City containing beaches, 200-foot high sand dunes, and hinterlands. This area was proposed as a National Park as long ago as 1917 but failed because of World War I. A State Park was established there in 1923. The preservation and public use clauses of the law are patterned after those for Cape Cod.

Apostle Islands, Wisconsin, was authorized to protect 20 of the 22 Apostle Islands and an 11-mile strip of adjacent Bayfield Peninsula along the south shore of Lake Superior. These clustered islands are heavily forested, with shores marked by steep slopes, picturesque arches and pillars of stone, and protected bays and inlets with white sand beaches.

Sleeping Bear Dunes, Michigan, the fourth National Lakeshore, preserves outstanding natural features, including forests, beaches, dune formations, and ancient glacial phenomena along a 34-mile stretch of the eastern main-
land shore of Lake Michigan together with similar resources on nearby North and South Manitou Islands.

Reservoir-related Recreation Areas. Eight new public reservations were added to the National Park System during this period to conserve and use recreational resources surrounding major Federal reservoirs. These additions brought the total number to thirteen. Four of these new areas — Bighorn Canyon, Delaware Water Gap, Lake Chelan and Ross Lake — were authorized by special Acts of Congress and are named National Recreation Areas.

Bighorn Canyon National Recreation Area, Montana-Wyoming, embraces a 71-mile-long reservoir called Bighorn Lake, impounded behind Yellowtail Dam, constructed by the Bureau of Reclamation across the Bighorn River in the heart of the Crow Indian Reservation. The lower 47 miles of the reservoir lie within the rugged, steep-walled Bighorn Canyon.

Ross Lake and Lake Chelan National Recreation Areas, Washington, were authorized in 1968 as reservations contiguous with and complementary to North Cascades National Park. They were planned as areas in which to concentrate the locations of physical developments, especially accommodations for visitors, next to but outside the National Park — the first time a provision of this particular type has been made at the very outset in conjunction with the establishment of a National Park. The Ross Lake area lies between the North and South Units of the National Park, bisecting it. It includes most of 24-mile Lake Ross, the lands on either side, and Diablo Lake and portions of the Skagit River valley. The Lake Chelan area adjoins the National Park on the southeast but embraces only a small part of the artificial lake. The North and South Units of the National Park and these two National Recreation Areas collectively embrace 1,053 square miles of magnificent mountain country in the Cascade Range near the Canadian border.

Delaware Water Gap National Recreation Area, Pennsylvania-New Jersey, was authorized by Congress in 1965 to encompass the Corps of Engineers' 37-mile-long Tocks Island Reservoir, and 70,000 acres of outstanding scenic lands in the adjoining Delaware Valley, including the famous Delaware Water Gap. This National Recreation Area is the only one in the System east of the Mississippi River. It is located within approximately 50 miles of New York City and 90 miles of Philadelphia, and has been planned to serve ten million visitors annually. Within the last two years, however, the concept underlying the Tocks Island Dam, a unit in the comprehensive plan for the Delaware River Basin, has been vigorously attacked by many conservationists on the grounds that it will seriously damage the natural Delaware Valley environment, and contradict policies adopted by Congress in the National Environmental Policy Act of 1969. The protests against Echo Park Dam in Dinosaur National Monument during the 1950's, and later over Lake Powell
and Glen Canyon, reflected a similar viewpoint. Now, however, the National Environmental Policy Act has made it obligatory for Federal agencies to evaluate and report on environmental effects previously ignored or at best treated lightly. The current struggle over plans for Tocks Island Dam and the Delaware Water Gap National Recreation Area may well foreshadow vigorous environmental protests against new reservoirs in relatively unspoiled country and against their accompanying recreation areas. If this proves to be the case, this sub-category in the System may be slow to grow in the future.

Four other reservoir-related recreation areas — Amistad, Arbuckle, Curecanti and Sanford — were established during this period by cooperative agreements between the National Park Service and other agencies pursuant to legislation enacted in 1946. That legislation authorized the use of Service appropriations for the “administration, protection, improvement and maintenance of areas, under the jurisdiction of other agencies of the Government, devoted to recreational use pursuant to cooperative agreements.” These four are simply called Recreation Areas.

Amistad Recreation Area, Texas, has unique features because it is on the international boundary between the United States and Mexico. Amistad Dam, constructed across the Rio Grande by the International Boundary and Water Commission, was dedicated by Presidents Nixon and Diaz Ordaz on September 8, 1969. The dam impounds Amistad Lake, which will extend 74 miles up the Rio Grande and have an 850-mile shoreline of which 540 miles will be in Texas. By cooperative agreement with the International Boundary and Water Commission, the National Park Service is responsible for planning, constructing, and managing recreational facilities and programs for the public on the United States side of the international reservoir. It is an unusual responsibility, even for the National Park Service.

Arbuckle Recreation Area, Oklahoma, is situated within a few miles of Platt National Park, with which it is jointly administered. It embraces the eight-mile-long Lake of the Arbuckles impounded by the Bureau of Reclamation's Arbuckle Dam and adjoining recreational lands.

Curecanti Recreation Area, Colorado, comprises three reservoirs and adjacent lands located in the deep canyons of Gunnison River in western Colorado. These reservoirs are or will be impounded behind three dams constructed by the Bureau of Reclamation — the Blue Mesa, Morrow Point, and Crystal Dams — all elements in the Curecanti Unit of the Colorado River Storage Project.

Sanford Recreation Area, Texas, embraces 20-mile-long Lake Meredith and adjoining lands. The reservoir is impounded behind the Bureau of Reclamation's Sanford Dam on the Canadian River. The Recreation Area adjoins the Alibates Flint Quarries and Texas Panhandle Pueblo Culture National Monument near the south side of Lake Meredith.

The obverse of a recreation area established around a reservoir behind a
dam is one created to preserve a free-flowing river for its own value. This new and alternative concept for river-related recreation brings us to the next category.

**National Scenic Riverways.** A new kind of Recreation Area was introduced into the National Park System in 1964. On August 27 of that year Congress authorized establishment of the Ozark National Scenic Riverways in Missouri, the first National Riverway. This new area is in effect an elongated park, embracing all or stretches of two wild, free-flowing rivers, the Current and Jacks Fork, which flow unimpeded for 140 miles. The park is planned to protect 113 square miles of land and water managed to provide many recreational benefits while preserving scenic, scientific, and natural qualities. Land acquisition arrangements are marked by sensitive regard for the respective interests of Federal, State, and local governments and private owners of improved property. Three Missouri State Parks — Big Springs, Alley Springs, and Round Spring — which protect significant caves and springs have been added to Federal holdings with the consent of the State. The National Park Service is undertaking a comprehensive recreational program on the riverways, with emphasis on preserving and interpreting their natural wonders and interesting early-American folk culture.

Ozark National Scenic Riverways reflected a determination in Congress to take new steps to protect America’s natural environment, so widely threatened by such forces as the population explosion and the juggernaut of modern technology. On October 2, 1968, President Johnson signed a comprehensive new law to provide for a **National Wild and Scenic Rivers System.** It contains a statement of national policy highly important to the National Park System:

(b) It is hereby declared to be the policy of the United States that certain selected rivers of the Nation which, with their immediate environments, possess outstandingly remarkable scenic, recreational, geologic, fish and wildlife, historic, cultural, or other similar values, shall be preserved in free-flowing condition, and that they and their immediate environments shall be protected for the benefit and enjoyment of present and future generations. The Congress declares that the established national policy of dam and other construction at appropriate sections of the rivers of the United States needs to be complemented by a policy that would preserve other selected rivers or sections thereof in their free-flowing condition to protect the water quality of such rivers and to fulfill other vital national conservation purposes.

The act established three kinds of riverways: (1) wild river areas, (2) scenic river areas, and (3) recreational river areas. It identified eight rivers and adjacent lands in nine States as the initial components of the national wild and scenic rivers system — St. Croix, Minnesota and Wisconsin; Wolf, Wisconsin; Eleven Point, Missouri; Middle Fork of the Clearwater, Idaho; Feather, California; Rio Grande, New Mexico; Rogue, Oregon; Middle Fork
of the Salmon, Idaho. The first three were to be administered by the Secretary of the Interior, the next four by the Secretary of Agriculture, and the last by either as might be subsequently determined. Twenty-seven other riverways were identified as potential additions to the National Wild and Scenic Rivers System and their study authorized. It was anticipated that of these some would be designated and managed by States and their political subdivisions provided they met national criteria.

St. Croix National Scenic Riverway, placed under Service jurisdiction in 1969, protects lands and waters along some 200 miles of the lovely St. Croix River and its Namekagon tributary. It is canoe country marked by wildness, solitude, clear flowing water, and abundant wildlife. Under the comprehensive plan for this riverway, the Northern States Power Company early announced its intention to donate 25,000 acres of its property along the St. Croix River to public agencies, about 7,000 acres going to the National Park Service, 13,000 to the Minnesota Department of Natural Resources, and 5,000 to its Wisconsin counterpart. These transfers with some subsequent adjustments are taking place over a period of years. The Wolf National Scenic Riverway was scheduled to be placed under Service jurisdiction in 1969, to protect 24 miles of fast, wild water ideal for canoeing, fishing, and scenic enjoyment. The land involved must be acquired from the Menominee Indians who have so far been unwilling to part with it. Establishment of the area awaits resolution of this problem.

**National Scenic Trails.** The year 1968 was remarkable for conservation legislation. On the same day he approved the Wild and Scenic Rivers Act, President Johnson also signed the *National Trails System Act*. It established another highly significant national policy:

Sec. 2. (a) In order to provide for the ever-increasing outdoor recreation needs of an expanding population and in order to promote public access to, travel within, and enjoyment and appreciation of the open-air, outdoor areas of the Nation, trails should be established (i) primarily, near the urban areas of the Nation, and (ii) secondarily, within established scenic areas more remotely located.

(b) the purpose of this Act is to provide the means for attaining these objectives by instituting a national system of recreation and scenic trails, by designating the Appalachian Trail and the Pacific Crest Trail as the initial components of that system, and by prescribing the methods by which, and standards according to which, additional components may be added to the system.

The act provided for recreational trails, scenic trails, and connecting or side trails. *National Scenic Trails* may be designed only by Act of Congress. *National Recreation Trails* may be designated, under certain circumstances by the Secretary of the Interior or the Secretary of Agriculture.

The act established two National Scenic Trails as initial components of
the National Trails System: (1) the Appalachian Trail in the eastern United States, extending approximately 2,000 miles along the crest of the Appalachian Mountains from Mount Katahdin, Maine, to Springer Mountain, Georgia, to be administered by the Secretary of the Interior, in consultation with the Secretary of Agriculture; and (2) the Pacific Crest Trail, extending 2,350 miles northward from the Mexican-California boundary along the mountain ranges of the West Coast States to the Canadian-Washington border near Lake Ross, to be administered by the Secretary of Agriculture in consultation with the Secretary of the Interior. The act requested the two Secretaries to study the routes of 14 other trails as potential additions to the National Trails System.

The Appalachian National Scenic Trail was established in 1968 and immediately added to the National Park System. The Trail has a long history. It was conceived in 1921 by Benton MacKaye, forester, philosopher, and dreamer, who thought the trail should be the backbone of a primeval environment, a refuge from a mechanized civilization. Initially four older New England trail systems, including the Long Trail in Vermont, begun in 1910, were linked to begin the Appalachian Trail. Additions were made farther south, including long sections through National Forests in Virginia and North Carolina. The initial Trail was completed from Georgia to Maine in 1937 when the last two miles were opened on Mount Sugarloaf in Maine.

The Secretary of the Interior has appointed an Advisory Council for the Appalachian National Scenic Trail including members to represent each of 14 States, the Appalachian Trail Conference, and other private organizations, and involved Federal agencies. The official trail route was designated by the National Park Service by notice in the Federal Register on October 9, 1971. The Secretary of the Interior is responsible for development and maintenance of the Trail within federally administered areas, but encourages the States to operate, develop, and maintain portions of the trail outside federal boundaries.

During 1972, studies of four other potential National Scenic Trails were being conducted by the Bureau of Outdoor Recreation in cooperation with the National Park Service, the Forest Service, the States, and other agencies. Special attention was being given to (1) Continental Divide Trail from the Mexican to the Canadian border; (2) Potomac Heritage Trail, from the mouth of the Potomac River to its source including the 170-mile Chesapeake and Ohio Canal towpath; (3) North Country Trail, linking the Appalachian Trail in the Vermont-New York vicinity to the Lewis and Clark Trail in North Dakota; and (4) the Oregon Trail from Independence, Missouri, to Fort Vancouver, Washington. These studies will include recommendations on the proposed Federal administering agency, which in some cases, perhaps in several, is likely to be the National Park Service.

Under the new law components of the National Trails System will include not only National Scenic Trails but also National Recreation Trails. On June
2, 1971, Secretary of the Interior Rogers C. B. Morton designated 27 new National Recreation Trails in 19 States and the District of Columbia. Of these, 20 will be administered by state or local authorities and the remainder by Federal agencies. One of these National Recreation Trails is situated within the National Park System—the Fort Circle National Recreation Trail, 7.9 miles long, within National Capital Parks.

NATIONAL CAPITAL PARKS AND URBAN PARKS, 1964-1972

We have not traced the important history of National Capital Parks after becoming a part of the System in 1933. Suffice it to say here that a great deal was accomplished during those decades to focus national attention on National Capital Parks as an outstanding example of urban park lands and programs. The Natural Beauty program of the 1960’s as developed in Washington, D. C., under the leadership of Mrs. Lyndon B. Johnson made a particularly conspicuous impression on the nation.

Between 1964 and 1972, National Capital Parks continued its significant role as a demonstration area for urban park programs for the nation. A Summer-in-the-Parks program was initiated in National Capital Parks in 1967 to provide supervised recreation for deprived city children and others. It has been expanded to a program called Parks for All Seasons, and the ideas and techniques are now being exported by the Service to other interested major American cities. Other innovative programs include development of an integrated bicycle and walking trail system for Washington, D. C., and the surrounding counties, and leadership in environmental education.

As the first century of National Parks drew to a close, proposals were being developed for National Urban Recreation Areas in several major American cities in addition to Washington, D. C. Best known and farthest advanced in Congress was a proposal for Gateway National Recreation Area in the New York City metropolitan area to include lands at Sandy Hook, New Jersey, and Breezy Point Beach, Jamaica Bay, Floyd Bennett Field, and possibly other areas. On February 7, 1972, President Nixon proposed legislation to establish a Golden Gate National Recreation Area in and around San Francisco Bay. Altogether the area would encompass some 24,000 acres of fine beaches, rugged coasts and readily accessible urban parklands, extending approximately 30 miles along some of America’s most beautiful coastline, north and south of Golden Gate Bridge.
There is mounting national emphasis on the importance of meeting and solving longstanding problems of deteriorating urban centers in America including their park and recreation problems. The Bureau of Outdoor Recreation has helped focus public attention on needs and opportunities in this field. By considering establishing National Urban Recreation Areas, the National Park Service is endeavoring to make a constructive response to this emerging and urgent national need.

**CULTURAL AREAS, 1966-1972**

Through the generosity of an imaginative benefactress, a new type of area was added to the National Park System in 1966. The benefactress was Mrs. Catherine Filene Shouse and the area was her estate, Wolf Trap Farm, in the Virginia hills of Fairfax County, half an hour from Washington, D. C. Mrs. Shouse donated Wolf Trap Farm, containing 117 acres, to the United States in order that it might be preserved as a center for the performing arts in the National Capital area. Congress authorized establishment of the area on October 15, 1966.

A handsome auditorium named Filene Center has been built in a ten-acre clearing. It seats some 3,500 spectators and there is room for 3,000 more on adjoining lawns. During the summer of 1971 a 10-week inaugural season of concerts, opera, and ballet was launched at Wolf Trap Farm, with the aid of a private foundation. The summer’s performances were widely applauded. Perhaps more importantly, initial steps were taken to form the Wolf Trap Company from some 60 young people selected in nationwide auditions. In cooperation with American University, Wolf Trap also gave credit courses in the performing arts to some 800 high school and college students during the summer of 1971.

Because it has been an exceptional success, Wolf Trap Farm is looked upon by the National Park Service as a possible prototype for a new type of unit in the System — a cultural park. Of course every unit in the System — natural, historical, or recreational — is also cultural. Nevertheless, the Service has become keenly aware of certain currents in contemporary American life that suggest a strong desire among the American people to observe and participate in a wide range of cultural activities, from the revival of folk arts to the enjoyment of the performing arts.
In order to develop appropriate responses to this public desire and need, the Service, with approval of the Secretary of the Interior's Advisory Board, has established a new category of parks, Cultural Areas. This category is another expression of the trend represented in other phases of Service work by the Living History programs, and certain aspects of environmental education. As the first century of National Parks drew toward its close, the System included its first Cultural Park, Wolf Trap Farm Park for the Performing Arts, officially opened to the public on July 1, 1971. Others are actively proposed, suggesting that the concept may receive major implementation.
part VII

THE FIRST CENTURY

We have completed our account of the first century’s growth of the National Park System with all its branches and fruits. America’s National Parks have hundreds of descendants in scores of other countries on all the continents. But that is another story — important, fascinating, and very well told by others. We make no attempt to relate it here.

The Family Tree graphically illustrates the gradual emergence and present status of the diversified National Park System in the United States. Here is a summary of the System as it stood on March 1, 1972.

Natural Areas:
- National Parks 37
- National Monuments 35
- Natl. Scien. Res. 1
- Other 1
- Total 74

Historical Areas:
- Historic Sites and Buildings 153
- National Memorials 19
- Total 172

Recreational Areas:
- National Parkways 5
- Reservoir-related Recreation Areas 13
- National Seashores & Lakeshores 12
- National Scenic Riverways 3
- National Scenic Trails 1
- Former Rec. Dem. Areas 2
- Total 36

Cultural Areas:
- Performing Arts Center 1
- Total 1

National Capital Parks:
- Urban System 1
- embracing 720 reservations
- Total 1

GRAND TOTAL 284

87
For comparative purposes, we also present the following tabulation to illustrate the status of the different categories of areas at various intervals during the past century. Areas merged with others or abolished during this period do not show in this tabulation.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Date</th>
<th>Natural Areas</th>
<th>Historical Areas</th>
<th>Recreation Areas</th>
<th>Cultural Areas</th>
<th>N. Cap. Parks</th>
<th>Other</th>
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<tr>
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<td>16</td>
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<td>1</td>
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<td>226</td>
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<td>74</td>
<td>172</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
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<td>284</td>
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Closely related to the National Park System, though not a part of it, are the various categories of landmarks and registered historical and natural properties officially designated by the Secretary of the Interior for inclusion on national lists. On March 1, 1972, there were 1,013 National Historic Landmarks and 2,601 other historical properties officially entered on the National Register of Historic Places, or a total of 3,614. There were also 167 Registered Natural Landmarks, and 11 National Environmental Education Landmarks.

It is also relevant to examine the number of visits to the principal categories of areas — a subject on which many conservationists are meagerly informed. These are the figures for the calendar year 1970, the latest year for which statistics are available:

*Visits during 1970:*
- Natural Areas 53,978,300
- Historical Areas 57,803,800
- Recreation Areas 51,513,000
- National Capital Parks 9,011,800

Total 172,307,500

It is a surprise to find the number of visits to each of the three principal categories of areas roughly equal. Of course, visits to natural areas are likely to be of longer duration than visits to historical or recreational areas. However, day-use predominates throughout the System.
Can any useful conclusions be drawn from this chronicle of its first hundred years as the National Park System enters its second century? We choose to leave that exercise for our readers to pursue. It is enough here to observe that the record of the System’s first century invites reflection and pondering by everyone dedicated to conserving our national heritage.

We conclude our presentation with the definition of the National Park System written into law in 1970 by the Congress of the United States. The General Authorities Act of that year, Public Law 91-383, signed by President Nixon on August 18, 1970, reads in part as follows:

Be it enacted by the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States of America in Congress assembled, That Congress declares that the national park system, which began with establishment of Yellowstone National Park in 1872, has since grown to include superlative natural, historic, and recreation areas in every major region of the United States, its territories and island possessions; that these areas, though distinct in character, are united through their inter-related purposes and resources into one national park system as cumulative expressions of a single national heritage; that, individually and collectively, these areas derive increased national dignity and recognition of their superb environmental quality through their inclusion jointly with each other in one national park system preserved and managed for the benefit and inspiration of all the people of the United States; and that it is the purpose of this Act to include all such areas in the System and to clarify the authorities applicable to the system.
This account of the growth of the National Park System benefited much from the researches and writings of others and the generous help of many colleagues and friends. It seemed unnecessary to burden the general reader with footnotes and a bibliography but a number of important references are cited directly in the text for those who may wish to delve further into Service history. I gratefully acknowledge here some of the other major references used and assistance cheerfully given me by individual persons.

The Service is greatly indebted to the late Edmund B. Rogers, long-time Superintendent of Yellowstone National Park, for compiling with infinite patience and meticulous care 108 volumes of official documents which illuminate the legislative history of the National Park System. Rogers work is entitled *History of Legislation Relating to the National Park System through the 82d Congress*. One complete set of this voluminous collection of carefully arranged photostats, with helpful chronological tables and lists, is on deposit in the Departmental Library, U.S. Department of the Interior, Washington, D.C. Mr. Leonard Bikowski, Librarian, was most helpful in providing me with access to this invaluable collection, which I used extensively. Readers should know that some years ago the Service distributed two duplicate sets of the Rogers collection among the regional offices and the parks where relevant volumes should still be available for consultation by interested persons.

On a smaller scale, but indispensable, is a body of documents compiled by former Assistant Director Hillory A. Tolson entitled *Laws Relating to the National Park Service, the National Parks and Monuments* (Washington: United States Government Printing Office, 1933). Two supplementary volumes cover legislation enacted in later years—*Supplement I*, July 1933 through April 1944 (Thomas Alan Sullivan, comp.) and *Supplement II*, May 1944 to January 1963 (Hillery A. Tolson, comp.). Thomas Alan Sullivan also compiled *Proclamations and Orders Relating to the National Park Service up to January 1, 1945* (Washington: United States Government Printing Office, 1947). These helpful volumes, and in some cases later unbound supplements, are available in the Service’s central and regional offices and many parks. While not so widely available the *Annual Reports* of the Director of the National Park Service and the Secretary of the Interior are full of valuable historical data. The Service’s information publication entitled *National Parks & Landmarks: areas administered by the National Park Service and related properties as of January 1, 1972* is a mine of useful knowledge, updated every two years.

There are many histories of individual parks—books, pamphlets, articles, manuscript histories—far too many to list here. Examples range from Louis C. Cramton’s *Early History of Yellowstone Park and Its Relation to National Park Policies* (Washington: United States Government Printing Office, 1932) and Carl P. Russell’s *One Hundred Years in Yosemite* (Yosemite: Yosemite Natural History Association, 1957) to such recent productions as Harley E. Jolley’s *The Blue Ridge Parkway* (Knoxville: University of Tennessee Press, 1969). There are excellent though little known histories of the Washington Monument, the Statue of Liberty, and many other historical areas. For years the Division of History has actively encouraged the writing of administrative histories of parks lacking such accounts and two or three appear each year. It is to be hoped the Service will compile and issue a bibliography of these and other contributions to Service history as an encouragement to research and understanding. It would make a good Centennial project.

Perhaps the single most informative element in this publication is the *Family Tree* chart itself. I am indebted to Vincent Gleason and his colleagues, particularly Dennis McLaughlin for developing my initial sketch into the expressive work of graphic art which accompanies this publication. I am also indebted to Mr. Gleason for suggesting the format of the book. Bruce Hopkins provided valuable editorial assistance on the galley proofs and all the later stages of production, and Linda Meyers aided on design and layout.

I benefited much from the generous and knowledgeable help of a number of colleagues and friends. I am indebted to Chief Historian Robert M. Utley for carefully reading and skillfully editing the entire manuscript. Assistant Director Theodor R. Swem also read the manuscript and offered suggestions which substantially improved the accuracy of its later portions. John R. Vosburgh, Chief, Branch of Features, reviewed the entire text and his knowledge saved me from a number of errors. Members of the Director’s
Centennial Advisory Committee encouraged me to complete and publish the *Family Tree*, particularly former Directors Horace M. Albright and Conrad L. Wirth, former Associate Director Eivind Scoyen and the Honorable Ben Reifel, long-time Representative in Congress from South Dakota. Others to whom I am indebted for advice and help include Frank Barnes, Harthon L. Bill, Chester L. Brooks, William C. Everhart, Cornelius W. Heine, Ruth Anne Heriot, T. Sutton Jett, Stanley McClure, Bruce J. Miller, Franklin R. Mullaly, Murray H. Nelligan, George A. Palmer, John D. R. Platt, Horace J. Sheely and Frank Ugolini. Mrs. Sharon Anderson, my secretary, aided me in compiling the numerous chronological tables in the text and typed the entire manuscript with great care.

Publication of the *Family Tree* at this time was made possible through the wise counsel of my long-time colleague and friend, Herbert E. Kahler, the help of his associate, Robert J. Smentek, and the generous support of the Board of Directors of the Eastern National Park and Monument Association.

Lastly, I express my special appreciation to Director George B. Hartzog, Jr. for encouraging me to undertake this publication and for providing me with the opportunity to complete it. He read the first draft of the manuscript in its entirety and offered valuable suggestions. His continuing support made the publication possible.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Abbreviation</th>
<th>Description</th>
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<tr>
<td>N.B.S.</td>
<td>National Battlefield Site</td>
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<td>National Cemetery</td>
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