

The Twentieth-Century

Landscape Park

Due to "the universal abuse of the word park," the landscape architect Charles Eliot complained in 1888, "the strict meaning of the word is completely lost."

The strict meaning Eliot had in mind defined a large park, or "country park": landscapes which were, in his words, "intended and appropriated for the recreation of the people by means of their rural, sylvan and natural scenery and character."¹ Eliot was not alone in the late 19th century in his concern over the meaning of the word park. John Charles Olmsted, Eliot's professional colleague, also attempted to differentiate between what he called the "large park," and other forms of public open space, in particular small parks and playgrounds. In his keynote address to the first meeting of American Park and Outdoor Art Association in 1897, Olmsted asserted that the "true purpose of the large public park"—a purpose he felt had been forgotten by many municipal park commissions—was "to provide for the dwellers in cities convenient opportunity to enjoy beautiful natural scenery." "Large parks," he continued, "should contain a complete natural landscape, where the boundaries should not be obtrusive, where one may stroll over hill and dale, across meadows and through woods always amid natural surroundings for hours and hours...where many thousands of visitors may be enjoying the scenery at the same time without crowding each other... [where] the roar of street traffic is less noticeable than the rustle of leaves."²

This definition of the large park echoed the rhetoric of park advocates of the previous generation. As early as 1851, Andrew Jackson Downing had insisted that the proposed municipal park for New York have "space enough to have broad reaches of park and pleasure-grounds, with a real feeling of the breadth and beauty of green fields, the perfume and freshness of nature."³ Frederick Law Olmsted (John Charles's stepfather)

had expounded on the virtues of such park scenery for 40 years, and as a professional consultant he had designed many park systems for municipal park commissions. A park "system" implied that a range of park types (such as squares, playgrounds, and parkways) were featured; but the heart of such park planning remained the "sense of enlarged freedom" which was "the most valuable gratification" provided by a large, central

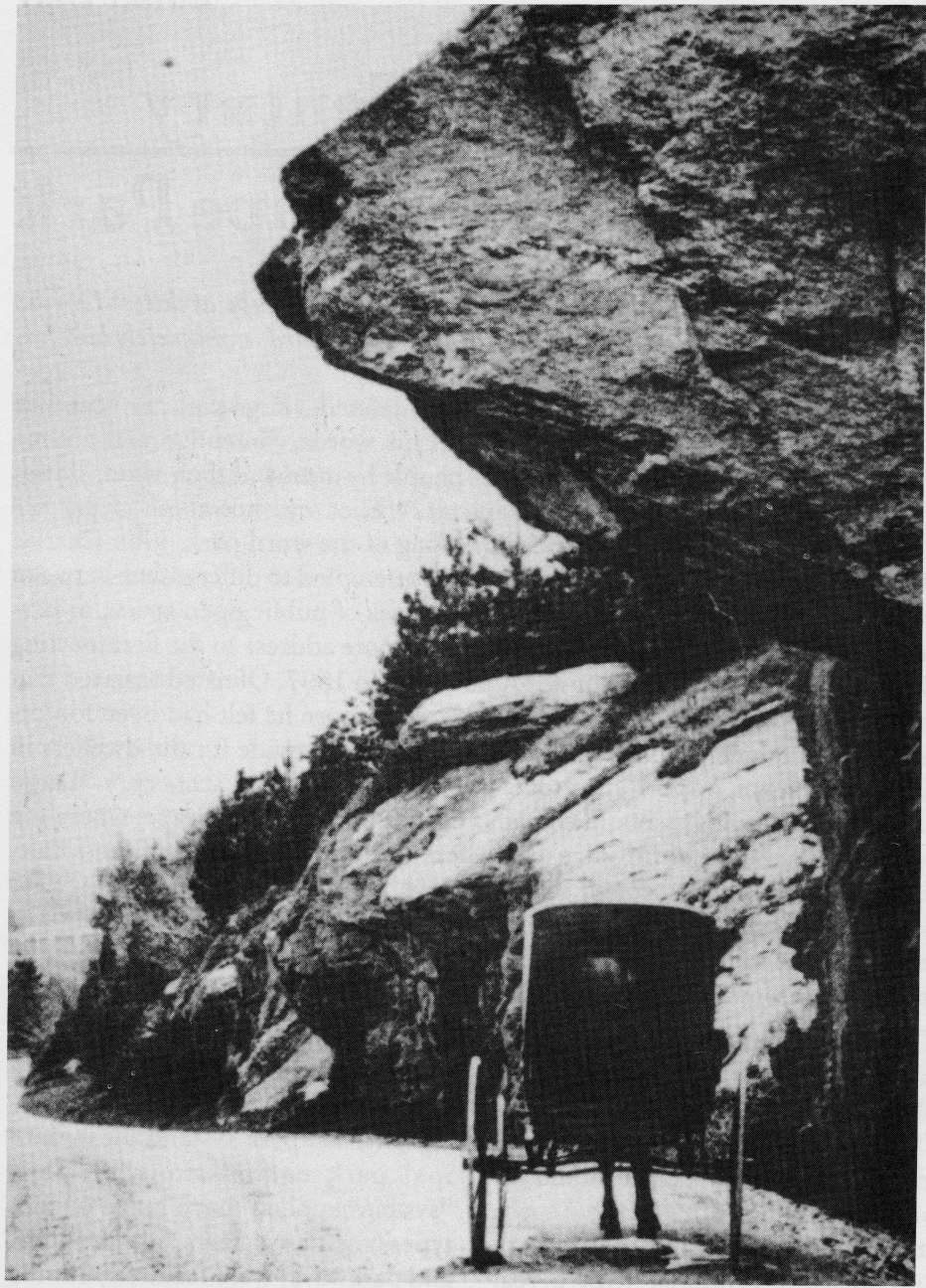


Figure 1. Carriage drive in the north end of Central Park, New York. Through the thoughtful development of drives, paths, and overlooks, existing topography, geology, and vegetation became main attractions of the new park landscape. (Courtesy New-York Historical Society)

park "of a rural character."⁴

But for the next generation of American landscape architects, the "roar of traffic" that J.C. Olmsted felt was inimical to the "true purpose" of a landscape park had grown louder. By the 1890s many municipal park commissions were under great pressure to open their large parks to myriad new uses that went beyond the preservation and management of scenery. Motor enthusiasts, playground advocates, organized sports leagues, and other groups all viewed their activities as legitimate uses of parkland. Open spaces near swelling urban populations became ever rarer, just as the demands on those spaces increased. Landscape parks inevitably hosted a broader range of activities than had been required of them in the 19th century, and they experienced more intensive levels of use. The technological and social changes of the Progressive era challenged 19th-century definitions of "park," and then added new meanings, until (as Eliot feared) the word came to denote public space of virtually any size, appearance, or function.

Certain changes were required for the large, landscape park to remain a viable reform institution in the new century. The belief that large public parks could improve public health, for example, had depended largely on 19th-century miasmatic disease etiology, which held that gasses and odors rising from poorly drained, polluted areas spread disease. But by the end of the century, germ theory

was accepted and advances in public sanitation had made urban epidemics less lethal. Although parks would continue to be associated with environmental health and improvement, they would no longer be considered major factors in the prevention of communicable disease in the 20th century. Also in the late 19th-century, improved transportation had opened up suburban and rural destinations for tourists interested in seeing what Charles Eliot described as the "real country," as opposed to the municipal landscape park. One of Frederick Law Olmsted's most important apprentices, Eliot planned the first "metropolitan system of reservations" around Boston in the early 1890s. Noting that "a crowded population thirsts, occasionally at least, for the sight of something very different from the public garden, square, or ball-field," Eliot remarked that "the railroads and new electric street railways...carry many thousands every pleasant Sunday through the suburbs to the real country...for the sake of the refreshment...the country brings to them." But the areas around Boston possessing "uncommon beauty and more than usual refreshing power" were largely in private hands and "in daily danger of utter destruction." An ancient grove of oaks in Waverley was one such area that had originally elicited his observations; but there were many others to be added to the list, and almost all of them were outside the municipal boundaries of Boston. Working with George C. Mann, the



Figure 2. Lynn Woods Reservation, Lynn, Massachusetts. Electric rail and improved roads made larger scenic reservations farther from city centers both feasible and desirable in the 1890s. (Courtesy Metropolitan District Commission)

president of the Appalachian Mountain Club, and Sylvester Baxter, a journalist from Malden, Eliot organized an effective public relations campaign, and in 1891 the group succeeded in having legislation passed to create the "Trustees of Public Reservations," a group of citizens empowered to hold "real estate such as it may deem worthy of preservation for the enjoyment of the public." A year later, the state legislature authorized a Metropolitan Park Commission, with Eliot as landscape architect and Baxter as secretary, to condemn land and "acquire, maintain, and make available... open

spaces for exercise and recreation" in 37 separate municipalities.⁵

Eliot demonstrated that scenic preservation could be a basis for regional planning in the 20th century, based on the precedent of municipal park and parkway planning in the 19th century. Since improved transportation allowed park visitors to reach suburban woods, waterfalls, and geologic features with close to the same level of convenience that they had once visited municipal parks, the scenic reservation could become an enlarged landscape park in an expanded park and parkway system. The goal of Eliot's scenic reservations

was, as it once had been for municipal landscape parks, to provide what he called in 1893 the "space for air, for light, for exercise, for rest, and for the enjoyment of the peaceful beauty of nature which, because it is the opposite of the noisy ugliness of towns, is so wonderfully refreshing to the tired souls of townspeople."⁶ The ideal had not changed. The geographic setting of the landscape park had moved out, however, to where such park development had always made the most sense: the peripheries of the urban sphere of influence. The ultimate justification for such parks remained the same as well. Eliot emphasized the healthful benefits available to the individual—and to society as a whole—through the free, public opportunity for the aesthetic appreciation of landscape beauty.

Many city, county, and state governments, emulated the metropolitan Boston work and soon created regional historic and scenic reservations. In 1895, Andrew Haswell Green, the former comptroller of Central Park, founded the American Scenic and Historic Preservation Society, a group authorized by the New York State Legislature and dedicated to the "preservation of natural scenery from disfigurement, for the creation of public parks for the health comfort and recreation of the people, and for the beautification of cities and villages."⁷ Green hoped the society would "provide the machinery for performing the same work for New York State that 'The Trustees of Public Reservations' provides for the

Commonwealth of Massachusetts."⁸ The society was active in the campaign to preserve the Palisades, a prominent escarpment of volcanic rock along the Hudson River opposite New York City, and subsequently participated in the creation of a series of scenic parks across New York State, including Watkins Glen (1906), Letchworth Gorge (1907), and the extension of the Palisades Interstate Park up the Hudson to Bear Mountain (1910). In Minnesota, the action of the Minneapolis park commissioners in preserving Minnehaha Falls in 1885 served as a precedent for the preservation of Lake Itasca as a state park (1891), and at the Dalles of the St. Croix River (1895), an area of scenic rapids that had been a tourist destination since the mid-19th century. The Dalles became part of another Interstate Park five years later when Wisconsin created a complementary park on the other side of the river.⁹ In California, the Sempirvirens Club was organized in 1900, and after a concerted public relations campaign succeeded in having the California Legislature pass a 1901 bill authorizing a California Redwood Park Commission. Over the next 10 years, the commission acquired thousands of acres of old growth coast redwoods, including the California Redwood State Park in 1902.¹⁰ Before the end of World War I, state governments in Ohio, Idaho, Illinois, Pennsylvania, Connecticut, Indiana, Iowa, New Jersey, and North Carolina all empowered park commissions to acquire and manage

parks in areas determined to have outstanding historical interest or scenic value.¹¹ County governments became active in creating scenic reservations beginning in 1895, when Essex County in northern New Jersey created a system of parks that included scenic reservations on the hills around Newark, as well as smaller parks and playgrounds in the city.¹² In Chicago, a Special Park Commission was organized in 1899 to suggest an outline for a Cook County park system based on Eliot's metropolitan park system. In 1904, the landscape architect for the commission, Jens Jensen, proposed a system of scenic reservations around Chicago based on the scenic, geological, and ecological characteristics of the area.¹³ In the West, municipal governments were sometimes able to create regional park systems. The Denver Mountain Park system, begun in 1912, extended the Denver municipal park and parkway system with in a series of scenic reservations that were acquired outside municipal boundaries. Such mountain parks, with connecting scenic drives, became characteristic of regional park development undertaken by many Western municipalities in the early 20th century.

In all of these cases, the physical development of regional scenic reservations—whether in the suburbs of a metropolis or in relatively remote scenic areas—followed certain tendencies. The geometric gardens, axial site plans, and architectural embellishments that had become com-

mon in city parks since the 1890s usually found no place in larger scenic reservations of the period. Playgrounds, outdoor gymnasia, and other recreational development (which also proliferated in municipal parks at this time) were absent or at least subordinated in larger reservations. The 20th-century scenic reservation, like the 19th-century municipal landscape park, featured curvilinear drives and paths that conformed to topography and offered constantly shifting views in a considered sequence. In the Boston metropolitan parks and other regional parks, views were carefully considered in the placement of roads, buildings, and other facilities; indigenous landscape character and features helped determined the particulars of site planning. In other words the appreciation of landscape scenery remained the primary purpose of these larger parks, as it had been for many municipal parks in the 19th century. Therefore all construction—whether of a simple guard rail or of a large hotel—was designed to remain a consonant, subdued element in the picturesque compositions of landscape scenes.

Eliot recognized, however, that larger scenic reservations demanded a new balance of landscape development, forest management, and preservation of natural systems. If the 19th-century municipal park had required extensive landscape engineering to produce desired picturesque effects, the 20th-century scenic reservation often eliminated the need for heavy manipulation of topography



Figure 3. South Mountain Reservation, Essex County, New Jersey. Essex County established the first county park system in 1895. Scenic Metropolitan Park Commission parks around Boston. (Essex County Park Commissioners, *Annual Report*, 1905)



Figure 4. Bear Mountain, Palisades Interstate Park, New York. By 1915, the Palisades Interstate Park drew over two million visitors annually. (Courtesy Palisades Interstate Park Commission)

and hydrology, since the land for the reservation (often to a greater degree than the municipal park) could be selected according to its existing scenic qualities. But the formal features and engineering developed earlier in municipal landscape park design were adapted as needed in the more limited development of scenic reservations. In 1897, Eliot described some of the management priorities for the Boston metropolitan reservations in a report to the Metropolitan Park Commissioners. It was "quite unlikely," he wrote, "that there will ever be any need of artificially modifying... [the reservations] to any considerable degree. Such paths or roads as will be needed to make the scenery accessible will be mere slender threads of graded surface winding over and among the huge natural forms of the ground."¹⁴ The element of traditional park design for which Eliot perceived the greatest need was the control of "the vegetation which clothes the surface everywhere." Eliot advocated selected cutting of forests; he believed that "to **preserve** existing beauty, grass-lands must continue to be mowed or pastured annually, trees must be removed from shrubberies, competing trees must be kept away from veteran oaks and chestnuts, and so on.... To prepare for **increasing** the interest and beauty of the scenery, work must be directed to removing screens of foliage, to opening vistas through 'notches,' to substituting low ground-cover for high woods in many places, and to other like operations." He provided watercolor

sketches to illustrate his points.¹⁵

In scenic reservations in other parts of the country the specific remedies may have been different; but landscape architects and park officials managing those parks shared Eliot's concern for the visual experience of regional landscape scenery. If important views were lost or impaired through the growth of vegetation, the public would miss an important aspect of their experience of the place. Keeping vistas open from roads, paths, and overlooks therefore figured in management plans as necessary. Landscape management otherwise was kept as inconspicuous as possible, and physical development exhibited a character considered appropriate to the character of wooded, relatively secluded landscapes. In terms of construction details, this meant that the Boston metropolitan reservations continued the use of native stone masonry and wood construction that had been started in the larger Boston municipal parks, such as Franklin Park.¹⁶ Buildings and facilities considered necessary for day trippers and weekend tourists were not allowed to overwhelm the primary purpose of the scenic reservations: to provide the free and public opportunity for the appreciation of landscape beauty. Other regional parks and regional park systems developed in the years before World War I showed the same inclinations. At Bear Mountain, New York and Lake Itasca, Minnesota, rustic inns were built of peeled logs and boulders, and scenic drives employed and

stone guardwalls and heavy wooden signs.¹⁷ The Bear Mountain Inn was described at the time as "a rugged heap of boulders and huge chestnut logs assembled by the hand of man, and yet following lines of such natural proportions as to resemble the eternal hills themselves."¹⁸ Curvilinear roads and trails, decentralized and minimal services for camping, hiking, and other activities, and minimal alterations to the existing landscape all characterized the development of regional landscape parks in the early 20th century.

Landscape architects such as Charles Eliot provided the formal and conceptual basis for 20th-century landscape park development by adapting their training in 19th-century municipal landscape park work to the scale and context of a regional park. The continuity between municipal and regional park design was particularly evident in the 1890s, when civic improvement, scenic preservation, horticulture, and forestry were among interests shared by landscape architects, civic groups, and other park advocates. The 19th-century park movement also provided legal and administrative precedents for how scenic areas outside of cities could be acquired and administered as public places. The maturing profession of landscape architecture, represented by a second generation of practitioners, provided the technical and aesthetic discipline that suggested how to develop such places for public use—in other words how to make them into parks. If the imposition of

monuments and institutions had altered the carefully composed landscape sequences in Central Park or Golden Gate Park, picturesque aesthetics and Reptonian principles continued to guide development at new state parks like Lake Itasca or California Redwoods. If organized recreation had made inroads on 19th-century urban greenswards and "Keep Off the Grass" signs were taken down, the preservation of natural features, plants, and animals would assume increased urgency in larger reservations farther from the city. If improved transportation technology had made the municipal landscape park obsolete by making what Eliot called "the real country" more accessible to city dwellers, the same technology made scenic reservations viable by bringing day-trippers to the countryside and creating a constituency for regional parks not unlike that which had existed earlier for municipal landscape parks. As the municipal landscape park became, in the words of Richard Morris Hunt, "less of a park and more of a garden,"¹⁹ a new generation of park advocates employed the aesthetic ideals of pastoral calm and picturesque beauty—ideals that had been embodied in scores of municipal parks—to identify and appreciate areas of natural beauty in still rural counties around cities like Boston and Denver, as well as in more remote scenic areas in states like New York, Minnesota, and California.

The American landscape park was born in the city but moved to the

country. As tourism expanded both socially and geographically, the urge to preserve threatened scenery naturally broadened as well. The creation of municipal parks had also helped establish a constituency for scenic preservation; whether appreciating the engineered scenes of landscape parks close to home, or the less contrived beauty of more remote scenic areas, the visual grammar and aesthetic language needed to interpret places as pictures, and land as landscape, remained constant for urban park visitor and vacationing tourist alike. The greatest examples of the 20th-century landscape park would be accomplished, in fact, at the national level, by what was originally formed as the greatest park commission of all time: the National Park Service.

Today, huge numbers of tourists overwhelm many favorite national parks during peak months. In the first years of the 20th century, however, when the Federal Government was only beginning serious efforts to manage the national parks and reservations that had been set aside since 1832, many argued that the parks suffered from a lack of attention rather than a surfeit. Secretary of the Interior Walter L. Fisher called the first National Park Conference in 1911 based on his conviction that "the attendance in the parks [had] not increased as those most familiar with them believe it should have increased...particularly during the past five years."²⁰ Just over 200,000 visitors had visited the 12 existing na-

tional parks in 1911. Appropriations for all national parks between 1906 and 1913 totaled less than one million dollars.²¹ The lack of interest on the part of Congress, it was felt, could be directly attributed to the apparent indifference of the traveling public. Increased appropriations would come only with increased use of the parks; and increased appropriations were needed, ironically, because poorly planned visitor accommodations were already degrading scenery and polluting natural systems in several parks. The numbers of park visitors may have been low by today's standards, but with few facilities and little supervision, those few did great damage. In Yellowstone, poaching of game and vandalism of geologic features were commonplace until 1894, when the Lacey Act finally provided criminal penalties for the infraction of park regulations.²² By that point, visitors had defaced the prominent geyser formations in the park, and hunters had decimated the herds of elk and bison. In Yosemite Valley, sewage from 19th-century hotels and tent camps flowed directly into the Merced River, making that stream unfit for drinking or swimming by the turn of the century. In his tour of national parks in 1916, the geographer Robert B. Marshall, (who was appointed "general superintendent" of national parks in 1915) was "consistently impressed with the total lack of any systematic sanitary arrangements." He observed that "there [was] not an adequate sanitary system in a single park."²³ The Department

of the Interior could offer little assistance to the parks that were its responsibility since it had little money, and no bureau (or even a consistent set of policies) for park management or improvement. Since 1886, the War Department had deployed the U.S. Cavalry to administer Yellowstone, and the troopers eventually ended the most egregious abuses there. After 1890 troops patrolled Yosemite, Sequoia, and General Grant as well. Although these arrangements resulted in dual administrations and overlapping jurisdictions in the parks, they were unavoidable since no other means were available to keep order. "There was no effective national park policy," within the Department of Interior according to historian Donald C. Swain, "only a haphazard, day-to-day administrative arrangement."²⁴

In contrast, the management of the nation's forest reserves epitomized Progressive efficiency in the early 20th century. Gifford Pinchot arrived at the Division of Forestry at the Department of Agriculture in 1898. Connected and ambitious, Pinchot was also professionally trained in the principles of scientific forestry. By redefining the role of the Division of Forestry, he eventually helped redirect government policy regarding the management and use of all natural resources in the public domain. In 1905, Congress transferred jurisdiction over 62 million acres of forest reserves from the Department of the Interior to Pinchot's growing forestry agency. Pinchot's rapid success in the

scientific management of public forests through the issuance of leases and permits demonstrated how the Federal Government could efficiently manage what remained of the public domain in the early 20th century. The complete preservation of an area exclusively for its scenic qualities, however, was ridiculed by Pinchot and his scientific foresters. They felt that improved logging techniques and the regulation of grazing could prevent the degradation of landscape scenery (if necessary) while also allowing for controlled forms of commercial exploitation. Since it prevented planned multiple uses and scientific management, the total preservation of large areas was as outdated and inefficient, in its way, as the opposite extremes of overuse and exploitation of natural resources. By 1905, Pinchot pushed for legislation that would transfer jurisdiction over the national parks to the Department of Agriculture, where they would be managed together with the national forests. Representative John F. Lacey of Iowa prevented the legislation from passing in 1906 and again in 1907.²⁵ Even Roosevelt's Secretary of the Interior, Ethan Allen Hitchcock, supported the transfer of the parks from his department, as did James R. Garfield, who replaced Hitchcock in 1907.

A coalition of park advocates (including Representative Lacey) opposed this position, however, because they opposed logging, grazing, and dam construction in national parks. They contested the transfer of

the parks to Pinchot's Forest Service and recommended instead the organization of a separate national parks bureau within the Department of the Interior. In order to offer a viable alternative for the management of national parks—an alternative that would justify the exclusion of extractive industries and dam construction—park advocates needed to justify other uses for these places. Tourism, they argued, would create economic activity, prevent Americans from spending their money abroad, and inspire patriotic sentiments among an increasingly diverse population.²⁶ Richard B. Watrous, as secretary of the American Civic Association, in 1911 described tourism as the only “dignified exploitation” for national parks.²⁷ Tourism would also mean profits for railroad companies and other concessionaires, who in turn would put their considerable political influence to work on Capitol Hill in favor of maintaining the integrity of the parks. The increasing number of tourists drawn to national parks would be a quantifiable measure of success of this policy, and such public use would justify the exclusion of other forms of exploitation. After 1909, President Taft endorsed the idea of a separate bureau of national parks within the Department of the Interior, perhaps in part as a check on the influence of Roosevelt's chief forester, whose efforts were received with less enthusiasm by the new administration. In 1910, Taft's Secretary of the Interior, Richard A.

Ballinger, also favored the creation of a bureau of parks as a first step towards increasing the number of park visitors.

But politicians such as Ballinger had only vague ideas regarding “comprehensive plans” for how the parks should be “opened up for the convenience and comfort of tourists and campers and for the careful preservation of natural features.”²⁸ There were other park advocates, however, who had been professionally trained in such “park development.” The profession of landscape architecture had grown rapidly in the 19th century in the United States largely due to the enthusiasm shown by hundreds of municipalities for acquiring and developing public parks. In the early 20th century, as tourism—and therefore “park development”—was advocated as the alternative to logging, grazing, and the construction of dams in national parks, landscape architects were called upon to give formal articulation to that development. Mark Daniels, a landscape architect appointed “general superintendent and landscape gardener” of the national parks by secretary of the interior Franklin K. Lane in 1914, acknowledged that “land is not always land, but is sometimes coal, sometimes timber.” He went on to say that, “It is also sometimes scenery, and as such merits the careful study and development that would be extended to other national resources.”²⁹ Daniels began drawing up “comprehensive plan[s] for the road and trail development of all the national

parks." In 1915, Stephen T. Mather, who had just arrived at the Department of the Interior as an assistant secretary charged with the management of the parks, stated as a matter of policy that "all of the improvements in the parks must be carefully harmonized with the landscape, and to this end, engineers trained in landscape architecture or fully appreciative of the necessity for maintaining the parks in their natural state must be employed." In 1918, Mather hired landscape architect Charles P.unchard, Jr. to continue the work Daniels had begun.³⁰

Like a municipal or regional park commission, the National Park Service was authorized in 1916 (in this case by Congress rather than a state legislature), to engage in "park development." In the decades following World War I, Park Service landscape architects and engineers designed scenic roads, campgrounds, administrative "villages," and a myriad of other park facilities in what proved to be the most intensive period of such human alterations in the history of the national parks. It was during this era that the "developed areas" in national parks (and in many state and county parks as well) acquired the consistent appearance, character, and level of convenience that most visitors have since come to associate, almost unconsciously, with their experience of park scenery, wildlife, and wilderness. Mather consulted landscape architects such as Frederick Law Olmsted, Jr., as experts who could provide not only professional design

services, but expert validation as well, analogous (in a more artistic vein) to the scientific expertise provided by Pinchot's foresters. Landscape architects subsequently would plan and design the physical development of national parks from the earliest days of the Park Service.

Many historians have remarked on the "dual" or "contradictory" mandate contained in the 1916 act that authorized the creation of the Park Service within the Department of the Interior. The most often quoted portion of this legislation states the purpose of the new bureau was "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 a manner and by such means as will leave them unimpaired for future generations." Frederick Law Olmsted, Jr., drafted this portion of the legislation.³¹ But to a landscape architect such as the younger Olmsted, steeped in the tradition of American park design, there was no inherent contradiction in preserving a place through its thoughtful development as a park. Without such development—without well designed roads, marked trails, sanitary facilities, and permanent campgrounds—the damage caused by tourists compounded brutally, especially in a fragile environment. And Olmsted knew that bringing people into the parks and facilitating their appreciation of the flora, fauna, and scenic beauty to be found there was the surest means of building a public constituency for preserving such

places in a relatively "unimpaired" state. And this understanding of how best to develop scenic places as "parks," related directly back to the definition of that word that J.C. Olmsted and Charles Eliot had elaborated at the turn of the century: a place preserved through careful physical development that facilitated the public appreciation of scenic beauty.

Landscape architecture, or "park development," does not immediately come to mind when considering national parks. National parks are, after all, great wilderness preserves, valued primarily for their primeval qualities. The roads, trails, overlooks, and other works of landscape architecture that convey us through and mediate our experience with those larger landscapes are often taken for granted—quite understandably—in the presence of a Grand Canyon or Mount Rainier. The history of the parks as natural resource and biological reserves similarly has overshadowed the history of their physical de-

velopment. Park development, in fact, has often been represented as a necessary evil in an otherwise edenic setting. This unfortunate characterization obscures what Frederick Law Olmsted, Jr., had learned so well from his father and his older colleagues: it is the cultural value invested in natural places through their physical development as parks that best assures the preservation of those places in a relatively natural state. The designed landscapes in national and state parks, as works of art, directly express the value society invests in preserving and appreciating natural areas. Few other arts, with the exception of landscape painting, more fully explore this leitmotif of American culture. Neither pure wilderness nor mere artifact, the national park may be the purest manifestation of the peculiarly American genius which sought to reconcile a people obsessed with progress, with the unmatched price paid for that advance: the near total despoliation of the North American wilderness.

Endnotes

- 1 Charles W. Eliot, *Charles Eliot, Landscape Architect: A Lover of Nature and of his Kind who Trained Himself for a New Profession, Practised it Happily, and Through it Wrought Much Good* (Boston: Houghton Mifflin, 1902), 305. The comment originally appeared in an article published in *Garden and Forest*.
- 2 [American] Park and Outdoor Art Association, *First Report of the Park and Outdoor Art Association, Louisville, 1897* (Louisville, Kentucky: 1898), 8-9.
- 3 Andrew Jackson Downing, *Rural Essays* (New York: George F. Putnam and Company, 1853), 150.
- 4 Frederick Law Olmsted and Calvert Vaux, "Preliminary Report to for Laying Out a Park in Brooklyn, New York: Being a Consideration of Circumstances of Site and Other Conditions Affecting the Design of Public Pleasure Grounds," [1866] in Albert Fein, ed., *Landscape Into Cityscape: Frederick Law Olmsted's Plans for a Greater New York City* (New York: Van Nostrand Reinhold Company, 1967), 98-102.

- 5 Eliot, *Charles Eliot*, 318-319, 384-415. Eliot's comments on the Waverley Oaks originally appeared in 1888 as a letter to the editor of *Garden and Forest*. See also: Commonwealth of Massachusetts, Metropolitan Park Commission, *A History and Description of Boston Metropolitan Parks* (Boston: Wright & Potter Printing Co., 1900), 26, 31.
- 6 The quotation originally appeared in an 1893 report for the Metropolitan Park Commission. Eliot, *Charles Eliot*, 385.
- 7 American Scenic and Historic Preservation Society, *Fourth Annual Report of the Trustees of Scenic and Historical Places and Objects in the State of New York* (Albany: Wynkoop Hallenbeck Crawford Co., 1899), 6-7.
- 8 American Scenic and Historic Preservation Society, *Fifth Annual Report* (1900), 28-29.
- 9 Roy W. Meyer, *Everybody's Country Estate: A History of Minnesota's State Parks* (St. Paul: Minnesota Historical Society Press, 1991), 5-8, 17-19.
- 10 In 1918, another private group in California, the Save-the-Redwoods League, was organized and successfully lobbied for more coast redwood reservations to the north. One of the Californians most active in the Save-the-Redwoods League was Stephen Tyng Mather, who in 1916 had become the first director of the new National Park Service in Washington. Joseph H. Engbeck, Jr., *State Parks of California from 1864 to the Present* (Portland, Oregon: Graphic Arts Center Publishing Co., 1980), 29-33, 41-43.
- 11 Norman T. Newton, *Design on the Land* (Cambridge: Harvard University Press, 1971), 562. It should be noted that historic preservation played as important a role as scenic preservation in the creation of early state parks. Several states and the Federal Government acquired battlefield sites from the Revolutionary and Civil Wars in the 19th century, although the resulting parcels of land tended to be smaller than scenic parks. See: Raymond H. Torrey, *State Parks and the Recreational Uses of State Forests in the United States* (Washington, DC: The National Conference on State Parks, 1926), 20-
- 12 See: Frederick W. Kelsey, *The First County Park System: A Complete History of the Inception and Development of the Essex County Parks of New Jersey* (New York: J.S. Ogilvie Publishing Company, 1905).
- 13 Robert E. Grese, *Jens Jensen: Maker of Natural Parks and Gardens* (Baltimore: The Johns Hopkins University Press, 1992), 64-67.
- 14 The report was published posthumously. Charles Eliot, *Vegetation and Scenery in the Metropolitan Reservations of Boston* (Boston: Lamson, Wolfe and Company, 1898), 7-8.
- 15 Eliot, *Vegetation and Scenery*, 23. The watercolor sketches Eliot provided (by Arthur A. Shurtleff) featured movable flaps, or slides, to represent the proposed removal of trees, clearing of notches, and other effects. This conscious allusion to Humphry Repton's "redbook" presentations again indicated the degree to which Eliot admired and imitated Reptonian theory and practice. In his call for selective thinning of forests both to improve views and to speed the recovery of cutover stands, Eliot again echoed Olmsted, who advocated "the use of the axe" in such cases. To justify his position, Olmsted cited Brown and Repton, in addition to 19th-century scientific foresters, such as Bernhard E. Fernow and Charles Sprague Sargent. Frederick Law Olmsted, "The Use of the Axe," [1889] *Landscape Architecture* 3, no. 4 (July 1913): 145-152.
- 16 In 1893 Eliot had returned to Fairsted as a partner, and the firm (now known as Olmsted, Olmsted & Eliot) was hired by the Metropolitan Park Commission—so in fact the same landscape architects worked on both municipal and metropolitan park systems.
- 17 At Lake Itasca, the Douglas Lodge opened in 1905. The Bear Mountain Inn, another massive rustic lodge, opened in 1915.

- 18 Palisades Interstate Park Commission, *Palisades Interstate Park, 1900-1960* (Bear Mountain, New York: 1960), 31.
- 19 Quoted in David Schuyler, *The New Urban Landscape: The Redefinition of Urban Form in Nineteenth-Century America* (Baltimore: The Johns Hopkins University Press, 1986), 96.
- 20 In his opening address, Fisher also stated that "the parks have not received the attention they deserve. They have grown up like Topsy, and no one has been particularly concerned with them." Department of the Interior, *Proceedings of the National Park Conference Held at Yellowstone National Park, September 11 and 12, 1911* (Washington, DC: U.S. Department of the Interior), 3.
- 21 Platt National Park and the Hot Springs Reservation accounted for an estimated 145,000 of the total number of visitors. The third and fourth most visited parks were Yellowstone (23,054) and Yosemite (12,530). Congress appropriated \$819,181.67 between 1907 and 1913 for national parks, and an additional \$326,809.48 was raised through automobile and concession fees. Department of the Interior, *Reports of the Department of the Interior for the Fiscal Year Ending June 30, 1913* (Washington, DC: U.S. Department of the Interior, 1914), 114-116.
- 22 Hillory A. Tolson, *Laws Relating to the National Park Service and the National Parks and Monuments* (Washington, DC: U.S. Department of the Interior, National Park Service, 1933), 32-33.
- 23 Department of the Interior, *Report of the Superintendent of National Parks to the Secretary of the Interior for the Fiscal Year Ended June 30, 1916* (Washington, DC: U.S. Department of the Interior, 1917), 15.
- 24 Donald C. Swain, "The Passage of the National Park Service Act of 1916," *Wisconsin Magazine of History* 50, no. 1 (September 1966): 5.
- 25 Samuel P. Hays, *Conservation and the Gospel of Efficiency: The Progressive Conservation Movement, 1890-1920* (New York: Atheneum, 1979), 196.
- 26 The landscape architect Mark Daniels, among others, fully expressed this set of aspirations for national parks by 1914. Department of the Interior, *1915 Annual Reports*, 843-852.
- 27 Quoted in Alfred Runte, *National Parks: The American Experience*, Second Edition, Revised (Lincoln, University of Nebraska Press, 1987), 92.
- 28 Department of the Interior, *1910 Annual Reports*, 57-58.
- 29 Daniels was paraphrasing an earlier comment by Secretary Lane in the first portion of this observation. Department of the Interior, *1915 Annual Reports*, 843, 849.
- 30 Department of the Interior, National Park Service, *Report of the Director of the National Park Service to the Secretary of the Interior for the Fiscal Year ended June 30, 1918* (Washington, DC: U.S. Department of the Interior, National Park Service, 1918), 10; Department of the Interior, National Park Service, *1919 Annual Report*, 25.
- 31 Horace M. Albright and Robert Cahn, *The Birth of the National Park Service: The Founding Years, 1913-33* (Salt Lake City: Howe Brothers, 1985), 36.



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