1. NAME OF PROPERTY

Historic Name: Platt National Park Historic District

Other Name/Site Number: Sulphur Springs Reservation
Travertine District, Chickasaw National Recreation Area
Platt District, Chickasaw National Recreation Area

2. LOCATION

Street & Number: State Highway 7 at US Highway 177 Not for publication: n/a

City/Town: Sulphur Vicinity: n/a

State: Oklahoma County: Murray Code: 099 Zip Code: 73086

3. CLASSIFICATION

Ownership of Property		Category of Property	
Private:	___	Building(s):	___
Public-Local:	___	District:	_X_
Public-State:	___	Site:	___
Public-Federal:	_X_	Structure:	___
Object:	___		

Number of Resources within Property

Contributing	Noncontributing
22 buildings	17 buildings
14 sites	____ sites
45 structures	13 structures
___ objects	____ objects
82 Total	29 Total

Number of Contributing Resources Previously Listed in the National Register: 1

Name of Related Multiple Property Listing: Historic Park Landscapes in National and State Parks MPS

4. STATE/FEDERAL AGENCY CERTIFICATION

As the designated authority under the National Historic Preservation Act of 1966, as amended, I hereby certify that this ____ nomination ____ request for determination of eligibility meets the documentation standards for registering properties in the National Register of Historic Places and meets the procedural and professional requirements set forth in 36 CFR Part 60. In my opinion, the property ____ meets ____ does not meet the National Register Criteria.

Signature of Certifying Official Date

State or Federal Agency and Bureau

In my opinion, the property ____ meets ____ does not meet the National Register criteria.

Signature of Commenting or Other Official Date

State or Federal Agency and Bureau

5. NATIONAL PARK SERVICE CERTIFICATION

I hereby certify that this property is:

___ Entered in the National Register
___ Determined eligible for the National Register
___ Determined not eligible for the National Register
___ Removed from the National Register
___ Other (explain):

Signature of Keeper Date of Action

6. FUNCTION OR USE

Historic:	Landscape	Sub:	park
	Landscape	Sub:	natural feature
	Recreation & Culture	Sub:	outdoor recreation
	Transportation	Sub:	road-related
Current:	Landscape	Sub:	park
	Landscape	Sub:	natural feature
	Recreation & Culture	Sub:	outdoor recreation
	Transportation	Sub:	road-related

7. DESCRIPTION

ARCHITECTURAL CLASSIFICATION: LATE 19TH & EARLY 20TH CENTURY AMERICAN MOVEMENTS: Bungalow/Craftsman; OTHER: NPS Rustic Architecture, Modern American style/Naturalistic Landscape Design

MATERIALS:

Foundation: Stone/Concrete

Walls: Stone/Log/Lumber/Stucco

Roof; Shingle/Tile

Other: Plant Materials (specimen trees, ornamental plantings, natural/naturalized vegetation)

Site Furnishings: Stone/Wood/Concrete

Pavements and Curbs: Packed Earth/Gravel/Asphalt/Stone/Concrete

Retaining Walls and Other Landscape Structures: Concrete/Stone/Packed Earth/Metal Rails

Describe Present and Historic Physical Appearance.

Summary

The Platt National Park Historic District encompasses the former boundaries of Platt National Park, the sixth established national park. It is nationally significant under NHL Criteria 1 and 4 for its seven-year association with the Civilian Conservation Corps (CCC) and for its outstanding illustration of the enduring landscape design and workmanship imprinted by the CCC on America's national parks during the Great Depression of the 1930s. It is an outstanding example of the early twentieth-century naturalistic landscape design and master planning process adopted and perfected by the landscape architects of the National Park Service (NPS) in the 1920s and 1930s. Trained in American universities and colleges, these designers set the standards for and supervised the work of the CCC in national and state parks during the New Deal. The park features an outstanding collection of landscape features—particularly water features associated with the natural streams and springs, finely crafted indigenous stone construction, and planting of native trees and shrubs. Within the nationally important context of National Park Service landscape design (1916 to 1942), the park today represents one of the most cohesive and intact collections of CCC-era landscape design and construction in the national parks.

Generally described as "landscape conservation," the work of the CCC drew from the sophisticated and well-formulated program of design and construction that emerged during the previous decade from the combined talents of NPS landscape architects, architects, and engineers who worked for NPS's Western Field Office in San Francisco. By the end of the 1920s, Chief Landscape Architect Thomas Vint of the field office's Landscape Division was placed in charge of coordinating park plans and establishing design standards for the development of national parks and monuments. Vint modeled his division after a professional design firm. He assembled a team of professionally trained designers, known as "resident landscape architects," who split their time between the San Francisco office--where they worked on master plans, standards and specifications, and drawings for specific projects, and one or more parks--where they conferred with park superintendents, studied existing conditions, and inspected ongoing construction projects. Vint's staff coordinated master plans and project plans with park superintendents, officials of the Bureau of Public Roads, and the NPS field offices in San Francisco. By 1930, an Eastern Office at Yorktown in Virginia was added to Vint's division and a system of project approval emerged that extended from park superintendents and resident landscape architects, through Vint and his counterparts in the Engineering, Forestry, and Sanitation Divisions, and ended with the final approval of the National Park Service Director.

NPS's design program drew from the most advanced theories and sophisticated practices in the field of landscape architecture—represented in the work and writings of the nation's foremost twentieth-century practitioners and educators, including Henry V. Hubbard, Frederick Law Olmsted Jr., Frank A. Waugh, Albert D. Taylor, P.H. Elwood Jr., and O.C. Simonds. Landscape design in the national parks called for the application of professional landscape principles and techniques to a widening array of practical problems in park planning. Its strength lay in the hiring of well-trained professionals—a combination of experienced practitioners of Country Place era-estate design and recent graduates of the nation's growing number of academic programs in landscape architecture.

The National Park Service's landscape program expanded and matured during the New Deal in response to the dramatically increased volume of public works projects and the expansive nationwide program of Emergency Conservation Work. Both the San Francisco and Yorktown offices expanded as increased funding for public works projects became available and made possible the hiring of large numbers of landscape architects, architects, and engineers to work in the central design offices. With the organization of the CCC in national parks, the NPS hired additional designers to work directly for park superintendents on the master plans and

project drawings and to supervise the day-to-day construction activities of CCC crews. By 1934, Vint was transferred to the Washington office and his division renamed the Branch of Plans and Design. As funding, manpower, and creative talent coalesced, the ideas proposed in the first park master plans (coordinated and produced by Vint's staff between 1929 and 1933—for road and trail construction, well-organized park villages, and a myriad of landscape improvements) became a reality.

Director Horace Albright guided the National Park Service in the formative months of the New Deal. Albright was a director of considerable experience, who had worked closely with the service's first director, Stephen Mather, in the years when national park policies were being worked out. Initially he placed Forester John Coffman in charge of the CCC work in the national parks and established a separate program under Assistant Director Conrad Wirth to supervise the state park CCC program. The state program operated through district offices across the county and hired landscape architects to advise park superintendents, oversee CCC work, and serve as itinerant state park inspectors. Not only did NPS's design program flourish during the New Deal, but the National Park System also expanded to include national memorials, battlefields, and monuments. During this period, the NPS helped organize and develop a considerable number of State park systems. Arno B. Cammerer became director of the National Park Service when Albright retired in the summer of 1933.

Few other national parks posed the problems set before the park designers at Platt in the early years of the New Deal, and in few other national parks did the work of the CCC yield such transformative results and leave such a rich and lasting legacy. With a period of national significance from 1933 to 1940—the years when CCC Company 808 was present in the park, the Platt National Park Historic District represents a crowning achievement of the CCC program and NPS design and construction. It also provides a template for studying the persistence and tracing the evolution of a naturalistic design ethic during the New Deal, a period of unprecedented design and construction in the nation's state and national parks.[1]

Description

The 848-acre Platt National Park Historic District is now managed as part of the 9,889-acre Chickasaw National Recreation Area (CNRA), a unit of the National Park Service (NPS) located in south central Oklahoma, about 80 miles south of Oklahoma City and 140 miles north of Dallas and Fort Worth. The land within the boundaries of the former national park makes up most of what today is administratively known as the Platt District.

Today, the Platt District is a highly textured landscape that appears natural but was exceedingly and intentionally manipulated, utilizing the process of park master planning and techniques for landscape naturalization and Rustic architectural design that were formulated by Thomas C. Vint and the Landscape Division of the National Park Service in the late 1920s and guided the unprecedented landscape development of national and state parks during the New Deal. The master planning process treated the Platt landscape as a synthetic whole, enhancing and revealing the park's natural, geological, and aqueous marvels, yet also providing for visitor recreation and the enjoyment of nature. Platt's excellence in planning was supported and affected through the NPS's detailed prescriptions for naturalized design, which were carried out by CCC enrollees working under the supervision of professionally trained designers and skilled local craftsmen.

[1] This context is documented in the "Historic Park Landscapes in National and State Parks Multiple Property Submission," National Register of Historic Places, October 4, 1995; Linda Flint McClelland, *Building the National Parks: Historic Landscape Design and Construction* (Baltimore: The Johns Hopkins University Press, 1998); Ethan Carr, *Wilderness by Design* (Lincoln: University of Nebraska Press, 1998); Linda Flint McClelland, *Presenting Nature, the Historic Landscape Design of the National Park Service, 1916 to 1942* (Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1993). Ethan Carr's *Wilderness by Design* documents the theme study and initial NHL designations under the context, "Landscape Architecture in the National Park System" (1997).

Plantings of native trees and shrubs and manmade constructions of native stone enhanced the natural beauty of Platt's springs and creeks, transforming the heavily visited retreat, into what many have described as an enduring "oasis."

Overall, the park landscape retains excellent historic integrity as a New Deal landscape, because of both the durability of its 1930s design and an exceptionally strong staff tradition of maintenance and upkeep. Originally established by Congress in 1902 as "Sulphur Springs Reservation," Platt National Park (1906-1976) was acquired by the Department of the Interior from the Chickasaw and Choctaw Nations. The goal of the acquisition was to protect the hydrology of the area, particularly the natural sulfur and bromide mineral springs and spring-fed creeks that were purported to have curative powers. Boundary adjustments and land acquisitions over the past century have resulted in an irregularly-shaped park that follows Travertine Creek, meandering west through prairie and post-oak hickory forest from the creek's Buffalo Springs headwaters to its confluence with Rock Creek, then southwesterly along Rock Creek past the park's highest elevations on Bromide Hill.

With the designation of the national park, the original town site of Sulphur Springs centered on Pavilion Springs was dismantled and the town center moved north of the park. Popular interest in the park's mineral waters—for their perceived curative and restorative powers—resulted in the early construction of spring pavilions and rudimentary visitor facilities that were reached by an east-west road running through the park. A north-south highway (now U.S. 177) bisected the park and provided access from the nearby town and the countryside south of the park. Camping and picnicking, as well as wading and swimming, were allowed in the vicinity of several springs and along the park's several creeks. Several preexisting structures were adapted for use as an administration building and employee housing. The wear and tear of heavy visitation to the "Big Tom" spring at Pavilion Springs and other popular springs continued to impact the park environment and create unsightly if not unhealthy conditions. Heavy seasonal rains eroded stream banks, especially near the confluence of Rock Creek and Travertine Creek. With limited funds for construction in the 1920s, National Park Service landscape engineers gradually introduced improvements such as spring enclosures, community buildings, and comfort stations.

Due to National Park Service's program of master planning and the funds and labor provided by the federal "make-work" programs of the New Deal, the park landscape was completely redesigned between 1933 and 1940. A perimeter park road, hiking and bridle trails, and a series of park landscapes—including spring pavilions, dams and associated swimming holes along the creeks, wooded picnic grounds, planned campgrounds, and a maintenance area—took form through the design talents of National Park Service landscape architects and civil engineers and the concerted labor of Company 808 of the Civilian Conservation Corps (CCC). The construction of a 900-foot-long revetment wall along Rock Creek at Flower Park, constructed over several CCC enrollment periods, and the contouring of the stream bank below Black Sulphur Springs to form a gently sloping shoreline stabilized the confluence of Rock and Travertine Creeks.

The park design of the 1930s reaffirmed and upheld the park's original purpose of protecting the springs, while at the same time reflecting the broadening definition of national park recreation in the 1930s. The master plans conceptualized the park as a set of varied development areas that were interconnected in pleasing sequence by the park's Perimeter Road and an interior system of hiking trails. Water became the leading motive in the park's new design—visually dominant in the springs, waterfalls, reflective pools, and flowing water as the visitor on foot or by automobile moves through the landscape, sensually taking in the taste and sound of water from bubbling fountains and seeking recreational pleasure in the park's swimming holes, trails, picnic areas, and campgrounds. In a similar manner, the park's creek system served to link the individual landscapes together geographically as well as thematically, offering relief, refreshment, and recreation to visitors in an otherwise hot, dry climate. NPS planners designed each development area to showcase a specific feature (such as a major mineral spring) or provide a recreational activity (such as camping, swimming, or hiking).

As the park was retrofitted to accommodate increasing numbers of visitors arriving in automobiles, the design of roadside overlooks, parking areas, spur roads, stream crossings, sturdy paths and stairways, and organized campgrounds took on particular importance. Reflecting the evolving, bold new style now known as National Park Rustic, the sturdiest of preexisting buildings were remodeled to meet modern park needs and the state-of-the-art stone park buildings replaced inadequate and outmoded spring-side shelters and comfort stations.[2] The most dramatic change, however, occurred in the transformation of a well-worn and eroded landscape into a tranquil and highly scenic "oasis" through an extensive and unifying program of reforestation and landscape conservation – one focused on the stabilization, naturalization, and recreational enhancement of the park's highly prized springs and streams.

The Springs and Underlying Geology

Platt National Park Historic District (now called the Platt District of Chickasaw National Recreation Area) is located at the northern edge of a range of steep-sided, limestone and conglomerate hills called the Arbuckle Mountains. Once higher than the Rocky Mountains, the Arbuckles—which surround the park on the south, east, and west—have eroded over the millenia. Soil deposits from this erosion have defined the geologic conditions of lower elevations, including the lands that make up the Platt District today. Surface rock in the area is known as the Vanoss formation and contains successive layers of sandstone, shale, and conglomerate. Elevations range from 920 feet in the Rock Creek stream channel to 1,150 feet above sea level at the top of Bromide Hill. A rich variety of geological formations was evident in the park and surrounding region. Not only did these deposits add to the park's scenic beauty and interest, but they also offered an abundance of native stone useful for construction.[3]

The hydrology of the district is intimately tied to its geology as the springs originate in the rock formations beneath the park. Falling rain recharges the Arbuckle Simpson Aquifer to the east of the district. Forced up through fissures, this water emerges as freshwater springs throughout the park. In contrast, the park's mineral springs originate from sandstone beds of the Simpson Group. Water leaches bromide, sulfur, and other minerals out of these rock layers and holds them in solution, resulting in waters with high mineral contents. The original Platt National Park boundaries encompassed at least 31 major springs distributed throughout the park, including 18 sulfur, six fresh-water, four iron, and three bromide springs. Some of these springs became dry in the years after the park's designation, and intermittent droughts caused other springs to stop flowing periodically.

Principal Development Areas and Inventory of Component Resources

The following narrative provides a description of the Platt National Park Historic District and is organized by the key components that formed the 1930s master plans for the park. It first examines the three linking "landscape systems," that form the overall organization of the park and order the visitor's experience: the natural waterway formed by Travertine Creek and Rock Creek; the road system consisting of Perimeter Road, Highway 177, and several access roads; and the trail system. It then examines each of the principal development areas: Bromide Springs and Bromide Hill; Walnut Grove; Black Sulphur Springs; Flower Park;

[2] The context for National Park Rustic style can be found in two sources: Laura Soulliere Harrison, *Architecture in the Parks National Historic Landmark Theme Study* (Washington, D.C.: National Park Service, 1986); William Tweed, Laura E. Soulliere and Henry G. Law, "National Park Service Rustic Architecture, 1916-1942" (National Park Service: Western Regional Office, San Francisco, 1977).

[3] Most of the native stone (limestone primarily) used in the construction projects of the 1930s is believed to have come from several sources, including the excavation of Perimeter Road and trails within the park, and commercial quarries south of the park at Dougherty.

Hillside Spring and Headquarters Area; Pavilion Springs Area; Maintenance Area; Buffalo Pasture, Superintendent's Residence, and Prairie Uplands; Central Campground; Cold Springs Campground; Travertine Island; and Antelope and Buffalo Springs.

For the most part the park resources identified as contributing were designed and constructed during the period 1933 to1940, when CCC Company 808 was active in Platt National Park. This New Deal landscape by the NPS planners includes both the areas of development which took form during the period of significance (contributing sites) and the component facilities built at that time. Several architectural resources were constructed during earlier periods of the park's development, and were incorporated into the 1930s design. Where these resources were retained in the master plans of the 1930s and were present during the period of significance, they are also considered contributing resources.

Another group of resources date to the period 1967-1969 and were constructed at the end of the National Park Service's post-World War II building campaign, Mission 66, or during Parkscape, the building program that followed. These structures are significantly fewer than those dating to the CCC era, and for the most part were generally designed and constructed in a manner that did not significantly alter the designed landscape of the 1930s. Although potentially significant at the state level as important designed resources representative of the Mission 66 design style, these resources were built after the district's period of national significance, 1933 to 1940, and therefore do not contribute to the nationally significant New Deal landscape.

The area-by-area descriptions that follow contain a complete inventory of contributing and noncontributing resources located within each development area. The resource count is based on the CNRA's "List of Classified Structures" (LCS) and the corresponding LCS number is given in each case. Because of the detailed nature of the LCS, a listed feature may include more than one LCS listing (for example, Perimeter Road lists LCS numbers that represent over fifty individual- and batch-numbered culverts that are part of the road). For each development area, references to related maps, figures, and photographs are also given, and, where known, the ETIC reference number for related historic plans and drawings on file with the National Park Service's Technical Information Center has been noted.

Travertine and Rock Creeks

Water in the form of natural springs and creeks gives unity to the overall park design of the New Deal era. As significant features to be protected under the park's original legislation, Travertine and Rock Creeks form the backbone around which the master plan was developed in the 1930s. Both scenic and hydrological characteristics of the two creeks influenced the park's spatial organization and sequential development of the various scenic and recreational areas within the park. Following a natural sequence from east to west, the park's system of streams sprang from the headwaters at Buffalo and Antelope Springs to form Travertine Creek, which flowed westward past Cold Springs to join Rock Creek just south of the Flower Park entrance. The meandering course of Rock Creek entered the park from the north in the vicinity of the Vendome well, an area that remained outside the national park boundaries until the 1980s; it flowed southeast joining Travertine Creek and collecting the waters from Black Sulphur Springs, Pavilion, and Hillside Spring before turning west near Bromide Springs at the base of Bromide Hill and eventually leaving the park at the farthermost northwest corner of the park boundaries. The two creeks today are considered highly important scenic, natural, and recreational resources. The banks along the creeks are generally steep and lushly vegetated. Revetment walls built in the 1930s stabilized the stream channel in various locations to prevent erosion and the undercutting of stream banks; many of these walls have been naturalized with vegetation and are difficult to distinguish from the natural conditions. The Perimeter Road and the park trails, picnic areas, and campgrounds, have been designed to bring park visitors in close contact with these waterways and enhance the scenic and recreational pleasure they provide.

A series of waterfalls graces the course of Travertine Creek. Some of these falls are natural rock outcroppings and travertine formations, others are artificial constructions designed to appear naturalistic and increase the recreational use of the streams. In the early 1900s, many of these were considered local scenic landmarks and were recorded in postcard views. Panther Falls, constructed south of Central campground in 1917, was the first of the artificial waterfalls to be built in the park. In the 1930s, NPS planners redesigned portions of Travertine Creek, constructing naturalistic dams which were either enhancements of existing waterfalls or completely new, engineered features. Of special note are the five CCC-era dams designed to blend into the natural scenery and be indistinguishable from the natural bedrock. Functionally these dams prevented erosion, while creating attractive pools for fishing or swimming. Aesthetically they contributed to the visitor's experience by creating an alternating sequence of quiet reflective pools, waterfalls with pleasing visual and sound effects, and courses with swiftly flowing water. The dams were designed as low walls, ranging one to seven feet, and were constructed of irregular limestone masonry with mortared joints, battered 2:12 on the upstream side and 1:1 on the downstream side. In each, a two-by-three-foot, steel-gated, hidden culvert for flow regulation and cleanout has been inserted in the middle of the dam. The five dams were built along the creek in the vicinity of the redesigned Central and Cold Springs campgrounds and are described under the headings for those development areas.

Park Road System

Today the road system in the Platt National Park Historic District consists of Perimeter Road, State Highway Route 177 (formerly known as Buckthorn Road), and a series of entrance roads and spur roads leading to development areas, such as Pavilion Springs or Cold Spring Campground. Many of these spur roads terminated in parking areas or connected with smaller loop roads that serviced campgrounds or picnic areas. Prior to 1933, the road system in the park consisted of an east-west road running along Travertine Creek and Rock Creek, and a north-south road (formerly known as Buckhorn Road) that more or less bisected the park and passed through the original town site of Sulphur Springs. The park's main entrance road ran through Flower Park and crossed Rock Creek on Lincoln Bridge, constructed in 1909. Circulation through the park was dramatically changed during the CCC years with the construction of Perimeter Road to encompass the entire park. At this time, Buckhorn Road was relocated to the east, the new Travertine Creek Bridge was constructed, and Lincoln Bridge became limited to pedestrian traffic. The new perimeter road utilized much of the old east-west route across the park but included a new segment along the southern boundary of the park to form a two-way circuit encircling the approximately 800-acre park.

Lincoln Bridge established a precedent for rustic design and stone construction in the park, drawing on the region's abundance of native stone. Although rudimentary in design when compared to the park bridges of the late 1920s and 1930s, the stone masonry of the arched bridge reflects an early attempt to use stone irregular in shape and size to create a structure that fit into a natural setting. The Travertine Creek Bridge (1933-34), in contrast, was a concrete structure with ashlar, limestone masonry veneer; exhibiting a similar concern for rusticity, the stonework reflected more advanced ideas about design appropriate for a national park setting.

Constructed in segments between the years 1933 and 1936, Perimeter Road was designed as a continuous park road that provided automobile access to the park's various development areas. It was built to the standards developed and perfected under the NPS's 1926 inter-bureau agreement with the Bureau of Park Roads. It included a wide loop closely skirting the boundaries of the western portion of the park and a narrow, less regular loop in the eastern portion of the park which closely followed Travertine Creek and led to the Buffalo and Antelope Springs. Automobiles could enter the park through landscaped entrances at Flower Park and Bromide Springs on the northern boundary and Route 177 on the southern boundary. Along the entire length of the park roads, the visitor's experience was orchestrated through a sequential set of scenic and recreational features, many of which offered a parking area, access to trails, and other amenities. The road was intended to

appear to lay lightly on the ground (with minimum of cut and fill), and the crossing of the park's many streams required the construction of numerous culverts, fashioned with limestone headwalls according to the NPS standard drawings developed by NPS's Landscape Division. Because Platt's creeks were subjected to great fluctuations in water flow and intermittent flood conditions, low-lying concrete bridges in the form of low water crossings and causeways were introduced; rising water was able to swiftly flow over these structures causing little damage to abutments, headwalls, and decks. Stream banks, at places such as the confluence of Travertine and Rock Creeks near Flower Park and the vicinity of the Rock Creek Causeway, were reinforced with stone retaining walls.

While highly skilled contractors were engaged to construct the road to NPS/BPR standards, the work of blending the new roadway into the natural topography and park setting was left to CCC Company 808, which carried out the extensive work of shaping and planting the roadside. Such finishing work was highly important not only for the desirable natural character it gave to the manmade landscape but also for the elimination of bank erosion that typically followed new road construction. Today the workmanship of the CCC remains intact. Although often invisible to the untrained eye, the graded slopes and plantings of the manipulated road banks have successfully blended into the natural topography of hills and stream valleys.

If one enters the park at the Bromide Spring entrance (Twelfth Street) and follows the westernmost loop of Perimeter Road counterclockwise past Bromide Springs, the road crosses Rock Creek and ascends Bromide Hill, noted for its spacious views of the town of Sulphur to the north and the surrounding countryside to the south and west. Descending the hill along the park's southern boundary, the road intersects with Buckhorn Road, and forms an arc around the Buffalo Pasture (Buffalo were exhibited here in the 1920s and 1930s), intersects with Buckhorn Road, and arcs around the Prairie Uplands. Where the park narrows to the east, the road meanders north and eastward, skirting the park boundaries along the southern bank of Travertine Creek. Originally the road extended almost as far as the eastern boundary where it looped around the headwaters at Buffalo Springs and turned westward along the northern bank of Travertine Creek. Here the road offered glimpses of tumbling falls, reflective pools, and boulder crossings and nearby parking areas as it passed the entrances to the Travertine Island Picnic Grounds, Little Niagara Falls, and the Cold Spring and Central campgrounds. This is the portion of the park where the greatest recreational development of the streams took place under the master plans of the 1930s. Today at Sycamore Crossing the road loops around the picnic grounds at Travertine Island and picks up the original westward route east of Cold Springs. East of its northern intersection with Buckhorn Road, Perimeter Road now, as in the 1930s, crosses Travertine Creek, and extends westward passing south of Flower Park and crossing Rock Creek by way of a low water crossing near Black Sulphur Springs, one of the park's pre-CCC-era spring developments, and passes through Walnut Grove, once the site of the CCC Company 808 camp on the banks of Rock Creek, to connect with the Bromide Spring Entrance.

If one enters the park from the City of Sulphur on the north through the centrally located Flower Park entrance, and follows the former Buckhorn Road southward, crossing Travertine Creek, the road leads past the spur roads to the Pavilion Springs development on the east and parking areas to Hillside Spring and the former Administration Building (Leeper House) on the west. At Pavilion Springs a grade separation, barely visible at road grade, connects the Buffalo Pasture and Pavilion Springs Trails and enables pedestrian traffic to pass safely below the grade of the highway. The road continues past the spur road to the park's maintenance area and eventually passes the road to the 1930s superintendent's residence and the overlook for Buffalo Pasture, before crossing the southern segment of Perimeter Road and leaving the park at the South Entrance.

In 1940, Perimeter Road was a two-way roadway about eight miles long that circumscribed the entire park, closely following and in some areas even passing a short distance outside the park's boundary. In 1969, the creation of the Travertine Nature Center and an associated area for nature study obliterated about 1.8 miles of

the eastern segment of the road that looped around Antelope and Buffalo Springs. Put in its place was the current one-way loop that begins and ends at Sycamore Falls Crossing and wraps around the recreational swimming landscape of Travertine Island. Although Perimeter Road no longer extends to the farthermost eastern section of the park, with access to Buffalo and Antelope Springs now limited only to pedestrian traffic, the key features of this area's 1930s park development remain intact, particularly the spring developments, the sequence of pools and waterfalls (dams), and an intricate system of foot paths and crossings that joined the two spring areas with Travertine Creek. Although abandoned, vestiges of Perimeter Road remain in the form of stone culverts, retaining walls, and bridges.

Today, Perimeter Road is 6.32 miles long and is the primary vehicular access road and scenic drive within the Platt District. The road is generally twenty feet wide, with shoulders generally three to five feet wide. The curvilinear alignment of the road corresponds directly to both overall and local topography. This is particularly evident in steep areas such as Bromide Hill, where the road follows the natural contours of the land as it ascends and wraps around the hill. The road was originally designed to have a maximum grade of 8.25 percent; however, some stretches are a bit steeper. So that the roadway fit harmoniously into the adjoining landscape, the side slopes were graded back to smoothly blend with existing grades at slopes no less than 2:1.

Originally paved in gravel, Perimeter Road was repaved in asphalt between 1938 and 1940, with repaving projects occurring several times since. Similarly, original wood guard rails, constructed in the early 1930s, were replaced by 1940 with boulders that now line parking pull-offs and a roadside overlook. While there is no documentation to indicate that ornamental plantings were intended for Perimeter Road, areas of general vegetation are defined along its length, ranging in character from the enclosed, tunnel-like canopy of the dense forest on the side of Bromide Hill to the open lawn with canopy trees along Rock Creek Causeway.

Contributing and Noncontributing Resources of Park Road System (Map 2)

Name (NHL Count)	Type	Condition	Status/Date

Perimeter Road and culverts (CS-1) Structure Good Contributing/1933-40
6.32 miles of historic road, including road surfacing and grading, concrete and stone masonry culverts, and other small-scale road elements. (LCS: 62836, 413345, 422849, 64157, 253862, 232577, 235046, 253782, 507796,507800, 507804, 507809, 507812, 507814, 507816, 255615, 323788) (Photograph 32)

Abandoned Perimeter Road (NCS-1) Structure Poor Noncontributing/1933-40
Originally designed for two-way traffic, this 1.8 mile-long section of the road encircled Antelope and Buffalo Springs in the southeastern part of the park and included a parking area at Buffalo Springs. It was demolished and abandoned when the nature center was constructed and the road realigned in 1969. A northern segment still shows evidence of the original road prism and profile with 10 functioning culverts with stone headwalls. (LCS: 323749, 422849)

Sycamore Falls Crossing (CS-2) Structure Good Contributing/1934
Located east of Cold Springs Campground, this seventy-by-twenty-two-foot low-water crossing dam is topped by a flat concrete deck. A segmented stone curb lines the deck's downstream side, and a continuous concrete curb lines the upstream side. A two-foot culvert runs underneath. An eighty-foot long concrete apron and dry-laid curb of Arkansas stone was added by park staff. (LCS: 62834)

Limestone Creek Bridge (CS-3) Structure Good Contributing/1934
This bridge is located just east of the turnoff to the Travertine Island parking area. The bridge deck is constructed atop concrete T-beams, and the bridge's masonry abutments are characterized by narrow courses of limestone veneer. (LCS: 62841)

Rock Creek Causeway (CS-4) Structure Good Contributing/1937
This low-water crossing is thirty-two feet wide and 110 feet long. The concrete deck is supported on limestone masonry abutments and a central pair of semi-circular nosings faced in limestone and designed to imitate a natural island. Wet- and dry-laid masonry walls for streambed stabilization extend approximately forty feet upstream and thirty-five feet downstream . Although some wear and minor reconstruction have occurred, the bridge remains true to its original appearance and construction. Preliminary Sketch for Rock Creek Causeway, designed by J.C. Miller, ca 10/01/36, ETIC-107-3027. (LCS: 62862) (Figure 1) (Photograph 31)

Black Sulphur Springs Causeway (NCS-2)
Structure Fair Noncontributing/1933, 1969
Originally built by the CCC, this bridge featured four rustic-style, curving rock-masonry supports that alternated with concrete channels for Rock Creek's water. In 1969, a walkway was added on the upstream side and edge stones were removed, significantly compromising the bridge's historic integrity. (LCS: 62903)

Parking Pullouts (CS-5) Structure Good Contributing/1933-40
Seven pullouts were located along Perimeter Road to provide access to swimming holes, roadside picnic areas, and scenic views. These are paved, and most are lined with boulders. (LCS: 491736, 495000, 495043, 499474, 499527, 499530, 499534)

Abandoned Bridge (CS-6) Structure Fair Contributing/c. 1936
Located west of Buffalo Springs, this stone veneered concrete bridge/culvert led to a former parking area off Perimeter Road. Approximately ten feet in height, the headwalls are constructed of irregular, roughly coursed limestone masonry and extend to form a retaining wall approximately fifty feet in length. The boxed culvert opening is roughly five-by-six feet and has an exposed lintel, stone masonry interior walls, and a concrete ceiling. Masonry railings angle out at each end and weep holes punctuate the parapet walls. (LCS: 62914)

Highway 177 and associated culverts (CS-7)
Structure Good/fair Contributing/1932-40
Formerly known as Buckhorn Road, Highway 177 was the major north-south route through the park since its designation. The road was rebuilt in the 1930s, and one curve has been slightly realigned since then. An important feature is the underpass culvert (ID 62810) which connects the eastern and western portions of Rock Creek Trail (#2) near Pavilion Springs and provides a below-grade crossing for pedestrians. (LCS: 401449, 321268, 62810, 254274, 256073, 322396) (Photographs 27 & 28)

Travertine Creek Bridge (CS-8) Structure Good Contributing/1934
Located on Highway 177 where it crosses Travertine Creek south of the Flower Park entrance, this 150-foot long, concrete bridge has a veneer of limestone ashlar masonry and three rectangular openings. The bridge is thirty-eight feet wide and has a four-foot wide walkway on both sides of the bridge. (LCS: 62802)

South Entrance Piers (CS-9) Structure Good Contributing/1938
This pair of irregularly shaped piers is located on either side of Highway 177 at the southernmost entrance of the park. Set back approximately twelve feet from the road's edge, the piers are constructed of native limestone and rise from a massive base in stepped fashion to form an eight foot pylon at the highest point. Original lettering on the piers has been replaced with modern park signage. Entrance Portal, South Entrance Plan, designed by J.C. Miller, 01-10-38, ETIC-107-3038A. (LCS: 62855) (Figure 2).

Bison Overlook Parking Lot and Retaining Walls (CS-10) Structure Fair Contributing/ca. 1940

Located along Highway 177, this paved parking area overlooks the Buffalo Pasture. The area is defined by irregular, stone masonry retaining walls that are three to four feet tall and have small weep holes along the top to allow water to drain into the spillways below. Walls were repaired and somewhat rebuilt in the 1950s. (LCS: 64186, 397231)

Park Perimeter Fence & Boundary Markers (CS-11) Structure Fair Contributing/c. 1940

Outside Perimeter Road, about nine miles of barbed-over-woven wire fence was installed along the park boundaries; about eight miles remain. Approximately seventy bronze survey pins each embedded in a small, concrete block mark each directional change to outline the park's original boundary. (LCS: 443699, 445447)

Panther Falls Box Culvert Bridge (NCS-3) Structure Fair Noncontributing/1934, 1954

This large double concrete culvert, located on Perimeter Road west of the entrance to Central Campground, was realigned and rebuilt in the 1950s. The culvert functions as a bridge and is twelve feet long and three to seven feet tall. (LCS: 62815)

Nature Center Box Culvert (NCS-4) Structure Good Noncontributing/1969

This large, concrete box culvert was built as part of the Mission 66/Parkscape road revision. (LCS: 62815)

Trail System

As they had with the park road system, the NPS landscape architects in the 1930s deemed the park's original trail system to be "antiquated and totally inadequate" and proposed a new comprehensive trail system to "serve all sections of the park."[4] Today the Platt District's trail system is extensive, reaching the most distant sections of the district. Trails are primarily used for recreational walking and hiking, and some accommodate bicycling. The trails generally provide access to scenic views and portions of the park not accessible by vehicular roads, and vegetation and topography along each trail varies based on its location, providing a variety of visitor experiences with the natural environment. Several trails were built as bridle trails for horseback riding.

Construction of the trails followed the standards for national park trails that were issued by the Office of the Chief Engineer in San Francisco in 1934 (Figure 3). The trails are approximately five feet wide, though the width varies somewhat from trail to trail. In general, trails are surfaced with compacted granite aggregate designed to shed water; in some locations stone culverts and swales have been installed to facilitate drainage. Small-scale features, such as retaining walls, drainage swales, curbs, bridge abutments, and culvert headwalls, were constructed of native stone or faced with stone veneer to create surfaces that harmonized with the natural surroundings; most of these features remain in place today. As the wooden decks of many trail bridges have deteriorated, the original wood-plank-on-log construction has been replaced by decks made of wooden planks and supported on steel beams.

The following inventory describes the long-distance trails that connect major points of interest within the park and are classified as contributing structures. Trails and pedestrian paths that only serve a particular development area are described later in the inventory for that area. Individual small structures along each trail, such as culverts, drains, stairs navigating steep terrain, and stepping stones over creeks are not called out

[4] Charles A. Richey and Jerome C. Miller, Report to the Chief Architect, Construction Report Conservation Work, CCC Camp No. 808, 1 March 1935, 4. CNRA Archives, NARA, College Park, Maryland.

separately unless they are large or architecturally significant. It is also worth noting that trail names have changed multiple times over the years, and the list below makes use of current nomenclature and numbering.

Contributing and Noncontributing Resources of the Trail System (Maps 3, 4, 8, 10, 11 & 12)

Name (NHL Count)	Type	Condition	Status/Date

Bromide Hill Trail #1 (CS-12)
(Map 4) Structure Fair Contributing/c. 1933
This rugged trail with switchbacks extends a distance of about 7200 feet from the Rock Creek Causeway at the base of Bromide Hill to a significant overlook at "Robber's Roost" on the summit. The trail is the most highly engineered of all trails in the park and includes numerous stone culverts and approximately 1500 linear feet of limestone masonry retaining walls of varying construction methods, some dating before 1933. Stone swales and stone features at the highest elevations are of more recent construction. Trail ends at a concrete and stone overlook at Robber's Roost near the parking area on Perimeter Road. The popularity of this destination for its commanding view of the surrounding countryside dates to the late 1800s. (LCS: 62990, 64210, 64212, 323608, 64221, 322009, 396745, 396748) (Photographs 12–15)

Rock Creek Trail #2 (CS-13)
(Maps 3 & 4) Structure Good Contributing/1933-40
This trail, about 5000 feet long, runs eastward along Rock Creek from its intersection with the Bromide Hill Trail (at the base of the hill) to an intersection with Buffalo Pasture Trail (#3) just west of the Highway 177 Underpass (LCS ID 62810) at Pavilion Spring. Trail crosses over six drainage ways where modern plank bridges sit atop CCC-era stone bridge abutments. Portions of the alignment have stone retaining walls and culverts; some culverts date before 1933 and were part of the park's early road system. (LCS: 62991, 64165, 64166, 322721, 64170)

Rock Creek Trail Stone Arch Bridge (CS-14)
(Map 4) Structure Good Contributing/ca. 1933
Located about 4500 feet west of the trail's intersection with Highway 177, the bridge is part of a continuous, stone-masonry retaining wall that runs along the downhill side of a steep slope. At the wall's midpoint, a stone-arch box culvert carries drainage off the slope. The trail curves and narrows to three feet at the arch, which features stone voussoirs and an opening roughly three by five feet in size. (LCS: 63010) (Photograph 12)

Rock Creek Trail Keystone Arch Bridge (CS-15)
(Map 8) Structure Good Contributing/1935-36
This small but elegant stone bridge is located due north of Hillside Spring and just west of Highway 177. It is constructed of ashlar, limestone masonry and features a circular arch with a prominent key stone whose proportions exceed those of the surrounding voussoirs. Designed by J. C. Miller, 12-18-1934, ETIC 107-3033. (LCS: 64164) (Figure 4).

Buffalo Pasture Trail #3 (CS-16)
(Maps 3, 8 & 10) Structure Good Contributing/1935
This 4000-foot trail encircles the Buffalo Pasture. It begins at the staircase on the west side of the Highway 177 underpass and extends southward past Hillside Spring and the Buffalo Pasture Overlook, where it turns southwest and westward to intersect with Rock Creek Trail (#2) east of Bromide Hill. Trail includes stone culverts, steps, swales, and stepping stones, as well as four pairs of stone bridge abutments topped by modern plank bridges. Portions of the trail run along pre-CCC-era road alignments. (LCS: 62992, 62951, 62952, 62953, 323882, 322882, 322583, 255629, 255628, 399296) (Photograph 5)

Pavilion Springs Trail #5 (CS-17)
(Maps 3 & 8) Structure Good Contributing/1933-34
This trail begins at the junction with Buffalo Pasture Trail (#3) immediately west of the Highway 177 pedestrian underpass. It proceeds east through the underpass to an intersection with Travertine Creek Trail (#6), where it then turns south and proceeds southeast to terminate at Perimeter Road. The trail features a flagstone walk and water channel on the floor of the underpass and three sets of stone steps along its route. (LCS: 62994, 62944, 415440, 415655, 415693, 62940) (Photographs 27 & 28)

Travertine Creek Trail #6 (CS-18)
(Maps 3, 11, & 12) Structure Good Contributing/1933-34
The longest trail in the district, Travertine Creek Trail, runs 2.13 miles roughly parallel to the creek. It extends from a naturalistic stone staircase at the intersection of Highway 177 and Perimeter Road just south of Flower Park, runs east along the south side of the creek across from the Central and Cold Springs campgrounds, and terminates at the nature center. Features along the trail include stone culverts, steps, swales, walls, and stepping stones, as well as one pair of stone bridge abutments with a modern plank deck. (LCS: 427588, 62803, 254298, 428363, 415934, 416314, 322570, 416353)

Former Ridgeline Trail (CS-19)
(Map 10) Structure Good Contributing/c. 1940
This remnant trail runs from the north entrance of the Maintenance Area to the former Veterans Hospital Road and Perimeter Road. (LCS: 429914)

Veteran's Trail (NCS-5)
(Map 10) Structure Good Noncontributing/1940, 1984
Running about 1.2 miles from Pavilion Springs past Employee Residence #4 to the Veteran's Center, this trail was relocated in 1984 and roughly follows the town sewer line. (Not listed in LCS.)

Bromide Springs and Bromide Hill

Bromide Springs and Bromide Hill are named for a cluster of bromide springs historically valued for their medicinal qualities (potassium bromide is a natural sedative). Located along Perimeter Road in the western part of the Platt District and measuring approximately fifty-nine acres, the area is bounded by Lindsay Avenue and a residential neighborhood of the city of Sulphur on the north, Perimeter Road on the west and south, and Rock Creek on the east. Natural topography divides the area into two zones, a large, level picnic area on the north side of Rock Creek and a dramatically steep hill on the south side of the creek, where the meandering Bromide Hill Trail (#1) provides scenic views and leads eventually to the overlook at Robber's Roost near the summit. Here the trail terminates near a parking area on Perimeter Road. Today the towering summit provides a dramatic, panoramic view over the Platt District of Chickasaw National Recreation Area and the city of Sulphur. Topography and recreational activities have to some degree dictated the vegetation in the area: the steep slopes of Bromide Hill towering above Rock Creek contain naturalized canopy and understory vegetation, while the flat terrace at the base of the hill today consists mostly of mature shade trees and lawn, providing a more park-like setting.

Before the creation of the federal reservation, the summit of Bromide Hill, sometimes called "Robber's Roost," was rumored to be a hideout for local outlaws. In 1901, the city of Sulphur constructed a cistern at the base of the hill to collect the waters from one of the bromide springs. In the early 1900s, the area around the springs at the base of the hill became a favorite picnicking and tent-camping grounds for visitors drawn to the springs for their restorative and curative properties. After the landscape became a reservation in 1902 and as visitation

increased, park personnel made further improvements, adding trails, roads, comfort stations, and a community house, and designing a succession of increasingly elaborate spring houses to dispense the healing waters.

In the mid-1930s, this area was redesigned in the context of a naturalistic park landscape that focused on day use associated with the natural springs. The area's previous function, overnight camping, was moved to the expanded Central and Cold Springs Campgrounds. The first focus of landscape development by the CCC program here was the design and construction of a formal axial entrance way leading from the town to the Bromide Springs. The design remains intact today: symmetrical entrance walls to each side of the approach road (12th Street) are flanked by massive stone-masonry piers and diminish in height and mass as they extend outward to frame the "T" intersection at Perimeter Road. The terminus of 12th Street is marked by a formal, circular stone terrace and pool whose central fountain originally sent a singular jet of water thirty feet into the air, the composition creating in effect a grand, axial entrance to the park. In contrast to the formal design and allusion of grandeur, the native stone materials and irregular pattern of the flagged walks and masonry walls provide a gentle transition to a naturalistic setting dominated by open lawns, shade trees, and river views. A stone comfort station was built nearby and a new spring pavilion became the centerpiece of the natural terrace along Rock Creek. Both were built of massive stone boulders with battered walls in the rustic vocabulary that had been embraced and perfected by national park designers in the late 1920s and early 1930s. The outflow of the spring was relocated from the southern to the northern side of the creek, necessitating a far more extensive piping and pumping system for distributing the mineral waters. Surrounded by a stone masonry terrace, the pavilion became a key destination for tourists and Sulphur residents, a place where visitors filled jugs of water in the new springhouse, admired the water features, and picnicked in the shade of towering oaks. Although the designs of the 1930s called for the removal of all unnecessary roads in this area, the plans were never completed due to a staff reduction that occurred about the same time the CCC camp closed. As a result, several loop roads are visible today, some of which incorporate alignments of earlier park development. These roads provide vehicular access to the picnic grounds and several extant historic buildings, including a community building and park residence from the early 1920s.

Today the area retains high integrity: all physical features associated with the master plans of the 1930s remain, including several buildings from the NPS's earliest planning efforts in the 1920s. Recreational uses also remain the same, with the exception of camping and collecting and drinking mineral water. This tradition ended in the 1970s when the wells were shut down due to low flow and bacterial contamination. Though historic piping and wells remain in place, they are no longer functional, and replacement fountains with potable city water instead now provide visitors with refreshment on hot summer days.

Contributing and Noncontributing Resources of the Bromide Springs and Hill Area (Map 4)

Name (NHL Count)	Type	Condition	Status/Date
Bromide Springs Picnic Area (Site-1)	Site	Good	Contributing/1933-39

The site is bounded by the northern bank of Rock Creek and residential lots along Lindsay Avenue. It is a broad grassy plane with shade trees (predominantly black oak) and native, ornamental plantings, and it includes multiple landscape features, such as the network of pedestrian trails (Bromide Springs Trail #10), loop roads, and their associated culverts and boulder guardrails. (LCS: 395888, 255887, 63000, 321539)

Bromide Springs Entry and Fountain (CS-20)

Structure Good Contributing/1934-35

Designed as a formal entry composition, the Bromide Springs Entrance Fountain includes two pairs of ashlar masonry piers (one four feet tall and the other 11) and stone walls at the park entrances at Lindsey Avenue and 12th Street. Continuing into the park, 12th Street, lined with stone curbs and sidewalks, terminates at a circular, flagstone plaza having a central, circular pool and an enclosure of low limestone masonry walls with masonry

seats. The pool's original thirty-foot high central artesian jet is no longer extant. All masonry work is dressed ochre limestone. Design attributed to J.C. Miller, 9-10-34, ETIC-107-3031 (Figure 5). (LCS: 62870, 62864, 64286, 64287, 393483) (Photographs 10 & 11)

Bromide Springs Pavilion (CB-1) Building Good Contributing/1936
This is perhaps the most elaborate composition of landscape/architectural design in the Platt District. The building is a large thirty-two by fifty-foot, open-air, limestone structure with buttressed corners, exposed beams, and stone lattice work. A low, shake roof (with a 6:12 pitch) is framed in rough-sawn lumber. The pavilion contains an elevated, concrete tank system which once held mineral waters piped to the building from the three springs to the southwest. The springs, their associated concrete enclosures, and the pipes and pumping system are extant but no longer functional. The pavilion also houses a central, linear stone fountain with built-in seats that formerly dispensed bromide, medicine and sulfur waters. The pavilion is situated on an elevated flagstone terrace surrounded by low walls and retaining walls; trees growing out of the terrace shade the building (though some are missing or aging). Steps lead down from the south end of the terrace to a sunken garden with a rectangular, twelve- by thirty-foot lily pond situated in a lawn and shaded by a massive cottonwood tree. The space was once enclosed by a pair of large, semi-circular wood benches supported on stone piers; the bench is missing, though its piers remain buried in underbrush. Albert Good praised the building's stonework as having a "rough natural character" with "weathered surfaces" and "stones as large as possible," especially at the building's base, where its buttresses "have the appearance of natural ledge outcropping" (Good, ed., *Park and Recreation Structures*, 1938, Plate I G-17, p. 121) (Figure 6). Pavilion attributed to architect Lyle N. Barcume, Western Branch of Plans and Design, San Francisco, 12-19-35, ETIC 107-3048, sheet 2 (Figure 6). Sign and flagpole details, ETIC 107-2050. Plan for Spring Development by J. C. Miller, 12-17-35, ETIC-107-3048, sheet 4 (Figure 8). (LCS: 62872, 64275, 64262, 64261, 255888) (Photographs 1, 2 &16)

Bromide Springs Comfort Station (CB-2)
Building Good Contributing/1938
Similar in size and form to six other comfort stations in the park, this one-story, Rustic-style rectangular building is approximately thirty-two by twenty-two feet in plan and is constructed of large limestone boulders. The stone walls are buttressed at their bases, merging the building with the surrounding landscape; low stone walls extend from the building to wrap around entrances at opposite ends of the building, providing shelter and privacy. The gabled (modified from the original hip-on-gable), wood-shingled roof is supported by exposed rough-sawn wood timbers and rafters. Individual windows form horizontal bands beneath the overhanging roof. (LCS: 62871)

Bromide Springs Residence and Garage (CB-3)
Building Good Contributing/c. 1920, 1933
Built about 1920 to house the caretaker of the springs, the Bromide Springs Residence (a.k.a. Residence #4) is a pre-CCC-era, wooden frame building in the then-popular Bungaloid style. Roughly thirty-one by thirty-five feet in plan, the building has a limestone-faced foundation, pyramidal roof with exposed rafters, and a shed dormer above an inset porch. A CCC-built garage is associated with the residence and has a gable roof with vertical board siding at the gable ends, shiplap siding on walls, small four-pane windows, and a sixteen-panel garage door with windows in top four panels. The garage faces an adjacent, non-historic (1980) carport.

Bromide Springs Community House (CB-4)
Building Good Contributing/1922
Also known as the Museum Building and Travertine Ranger Station due to past uses, this structure resembles a similar community house built at the same time at the Cold Springs Campground. The building, which has had only minor modifications, is a rectangular wood-frame structure measuring thirty-three by forty-five feet in plan. It has one-over-one double hung windows; gable and shed roofs; and a stone fireplace and chimney on the

west elevation. A 1930s flagpole is located near the structure. Considered a fine example of early NPS rustic design, this building was incorporated into the 1930s master plans. Designed by Chief Landscape Engineer Daniel Hull, ETIC 107-5 (sheet 2). (LCS: 62873, 255634)

Bromide Pedestrian Causeway (CS-21) Structure Fair Contributing/1931
This pedestrian bridge over Rock Creek is eleven feet wide and sixty-five feet long and constructed of concrete with six forty-eight-inch wide weirs allowing water to flow through it. A three-foot-wide walkway is provided for pedestrians on the top of the causeway. It provides access to the Bromide Hill Trail (#1) from the western side of the picnic area. See Trails inventory for a description of the trail and its features. (LCS: 64289)

Bromide Hill Parking Area (CS-22) Structure Good Contributing/1936
Located on the summit of Bromide Hill off Perimeter Road, this parking area includes a retaining wall and culverts. Roughly oval-shaped, the paved lot is about 13,400 square feet in area and is bounded by large boulders. Two sets of steps, the west one historic (1936) and the east one more recent (1980s), lead up slope to the Bromide Hill overlook. (LCS: 62861, 64257, 64258) (Photograph 33)

Arbuckle Job Corps Bridge (NCS-6) Structure Good Noncontributing/1967
Located on the eastern edge of the Bromide Springs area, this arched, limestone masonry bridge with concrete ramps and wing walls was constructed by the Arbuckle Job Corps as part of the park's Mission 66 improvements. (Not listed on LCS.)

Walnut Grove

Walnut Grove is located in the western half of the Platt District, just west of Black Sulphur Springs. It is an open, grassy, partially shaded picnic area located on a moderately flat floodplain terrace just above Rock Creek. About twenty-five acres in size, it is bounded on the north and west by a wooded hillside, and on the south by Perimeter Road and Rock Creek. Along the length of the area's southern edge, six asphalt parking areas lined with boulders and trees serve as viewing points along the creek, which widens out at this point in its descent from Flower Park to Bromide Springs. Dominant tree species shading the lawns and wooded slopes include hackberry, black walnut, Osage orange, and oak.

Part of the federal reservation since its creation, Walnut Grove may have contained agricultural fields in the early 1900s. Starting in 1917 and extending at least through the 1920s, portions of the area served as a paddock for a small herd of deer originally obtained from the Oklahoma City Zoo. Sometime prior to 1933 a double tennis court was built in the center of the area, as part of a campaign to place visitor-attracting recreational features in the park. The tennis court was removed sometime after 1950, when it last appears on an NPS master plan.

In the 1930s, the CCC camp for Company 808 occupied the eastern half of Walnut Grove. Located at the end of a short access road (no longer extant), the camp consisted of a linear quadrangle of temporary buildings which included several barracks and a mess hall, latrine, canteen, shop building, educational building, and supply building, as well as a coal house. After 1940 when the camp closed, the temporary buildings were dismantled and removed, and, in keeping with the 1940 NPS Master Plan, the site was designated an unimproved picnic area emphasizing passive outdoor recreation and day-use visitation. Some improvements were made to the picnic grove during Mission 66, including the construction of a comfort station. Walnut Grove today retains the spatial qualities, creek-side setting, roadside views, and plantings that characterized the site at the end of the period of significance.

Contributing and Noncontributing Resources of Walnut Grove (Map 50)

Name (NHL Count)	Type	Condition	Status/Date

Walnut Grove Site (Site-2) Site Good Contributing
Former site of CCC Company 808 Camp. Area is now used as a picnic grove along Rock Creek. The site includes open grassy area, parking areas lining edge of site, and the old CCC-camp road with its associated topography and culverts. (LCS: 3977364, 397389, 397409)

Walnut Grove Fireplaces (CS-23) Structure Fair Contributing/c. 1933
These four open-air, fireplaces are made of large native boulders deeply embedded into the ground to appear like natural bedrock. Roughly arranged in a U-shaped configuration to support an iron grate, the boulders rise no more than ten inches above the ground. They are believed to be remnants of the CCC camp facilities and are similar to the fireplaces designed in the 1930s for the Cold Springs Campground and the former picnic grounds at Buffalo Springs. (LCS: 62950)

Mission 66 Comfort Station (NCB-1) Building Good Noncontributing/1966
This concrete-block comfort station was built in 1966 after the period of significance. Concrete ADA-access walk was built in 1997.

Black Sulphur Springs

Black Sulphur Springs is located in the central portion of the Platt District, just west of the confluence of Travertine and Rock Creeks. Consisting of a spring pavilion, sandy shoreline, and a shaded picnic area about eight acres in size, this development area is bounded by Perimeter Road to the south, the two creeks to the east and north, and the park boundary at Tishomingo Avenue to the west.

As early as 1902, Black Sulphur Springs was a popular destination in the newly founded park; here visitors gathered to collect and drink sulfured water from its three major springs. By 1906, the three springs flowed at seventy gallons per minute into a joint tile, and in 1915, a wooden pavilion with a cistern was built to house the spring. In 1929, this pavilion was replaced by the existing pavilion, which, in contrast to the park's later Rustic-style structures, is neoclassical in style and metal roof (designed to imitate Mediterranean roof tiling). In 1933, the site was redesigned by resident landscape architect Charles A. Richey, and the 1929 pavilion became part of one of the earliest CCC projects in the park, one still evident today. The open, gently sloping, tree-shaded hillside below the pavilion leads to a sandy shoreline and provides a view across Rock Creek toward Flower Park. On the opposite shore, just downstream of the confluence of Travertine and Rock Creeks, lies a 900-foot long and twelve-foot high stone revetment wall constructed by the CCC to stabilize the creek-side slopes of Flower Park; it is now hidden beneath a dense mat of vines and small shrubs. The spring, housed in the neoclassical pavilion, is accessed by a turnaround and parking area lined with stone curbs and sidewalks; ornamental plantings of cedar, redbud and juniper (partially extant) were located to frame the pavilion as well. Since the area's completion, a picnic area was constructed west of the parking lot; it is a large, level area with scattered canopy trees and appears to have been expanded after 1940. Although plans were approved in 1939 for the design of a new spring enclosure and site plan (one more in keeping with the NPS's naturalistic ideal), they were never executed. Today, the Black Sulphur Springs area appears much as it did at the end of the period of significance and continues to support historic uses such as picnicking, bathing, and wading.

Contributing and Noncontributing Resources of Black Sulphur Springs (Map 6)

Name (NHL Count)	Type	Condition	Status/Date

Black Sulphur Springs (Site-3) Site Fair Contributing/c 1934
The site includes three springs, a beach area along Rock Creek, and a loop road with a semi-circular parking area that is slightly removed from Perimeter Road. The parking area is lined with large barrier rocks and has a central grassy island with stone curbing. Limestone-curbed flagstone walks, approximately three feet wide, lead from the pavilion to the parking area and extend to the causeway/low-water crossing on Perimeter Road. Site plan by Charles A. Richey, June 10, 1933, ETIC-107-1001 (Figure 9). (LCS: 62904, 64288)

Black Sulphur Springs Pavilion (CB-5) Building Fair Contributing/1929
This pavilion is sited on the hill above the confluence of Travertine and Rock Creeks, in an informal grove of trees likely remaining from the original 1930s plantings. The pavilion is a rectangular, open-sided building approximately eleven-by-seventeen feet in plan built on a concrete slab. The corners of the open building are concrete with a stucco finish. Four columns that frame the openings on the long side of the building support a metal tile roof, painted red. A concrete bench lines three sides of the interior, surrounding a central fountain which, though extant, is no longer functional. (LCS: 62902) (Photograph 3)

Black Sulphur Springs Pumphouse (NCS-7)
Structure Fair Noncontributing/1966
This concrete block pumphouse covers a catchment under a manhole, a pump, a pressure tank, and a chlorination unit to treat the water to Oklahoma DEQ standards. There is a tile line connecting two or three springs together that flow to a collection point under the pumphouse, and thence to a hydrant near the pavilion. (LCS: 400685)

Mission 66 Comfort Station (NCB-2) Building Good Noncontributing/1969
This concrete-block comfort station was built in 1969 in the picnic area west of the pavilion. A concrete, ADA-accessible walk was built in 1997. (Not listed on LCS)

Flower Park

About twenty acres in size, Flower Park is a highly distinctive development area that has served as the park's principal entrance. Located south of the Historic Downtown Sulphur Commercial District, it is bounded by Broadway Avenue on the north, Highway 177 on the east, Travertine Creek on the south, and Rock Creek on the west. The park is divided topographically into two primary spaces: an upper hillside on the north that stretches along the town boundary and a lower, level terrace that rises above the two creeks on the south and west. The upper hillside is densely vegetated with red cedar. The lower terrace is an open lawn with scattered trees—oaks, hackberries, elms, and sycamores, many of which date to the period of significance. The lower terrace extends to the banks of Rock and Travertine Creeks.

Before the creation of the federal reservation, this area was known as Central Park and marked the northern edge of the original town site of Sulphur Springs. When the town was moved after the national park designation, Central Park became a transitional landscape between the town, now on the north, and the new national park, a place visitors would pass through on their way from town to the springs. Perhaps as a result of this prominent location, the area was developed in the early 1900s with concrete sidewalks, grassy lawns, wooden benches, and circular flower beds--some of which were planted and maintained by local civic groups. These beds were likely the origin of the park's current moniker, which came into use sometime after the 1920s.

Flower Park's central location also influenced its redesign in the 1930s, as NPS designers proposed that it serve as a mediating space between the "citified" qualities of Sulphur and the naturalized landscape of the park. The resulting design featured some elements perhaps more consistent with an urban park, such as an entry gate composition that featured walled fountains and stone-lined, curvilinear paths of compacted-gravel that wound around a scenic watercourse. The watercourse was created from the outflow from the Vendome, an artesian well located on an adjacent property that also housed a public swimming pool and dance hall (these features were torn down after 1950, and the NPS purchased the land and the well in 1983). The well's prodigious outflow (2500 gallons/minute of sulfurous water) was piped under an NPS-designed and constructed parking lot and then emerged in Flower Park as a meandering, rock-lined creek with an upper and lower pool, numerous waterfall dams, and stepping stone crossings spaced along its length. The outflow drained over a tumbling waterfall into Travertine Creek. Today the Vendome outflow still meanders through Flower Park, although the dams and stream banks are somewhat eroded and undermined and both of its pools are smaller than when they were originally constructed.

The creek's lower pool also served as a surface in which the reflection of Flower Park's major CCC-era building, an ashlar-masonry stone comfort station, could be admired. This view of the NPS Rustic-style structure was designed as Flower Park's major viewshed, to be seen by visitors as they entered the site from the south over Lincoln Bridge, the 1909 Gothic-revival structure designed by Sulphur resident and engineer Howard V. Hinckley.[5]

The slopes that form the edge of Rock Creek on the southern edge of Flower Park became the site of one of the most extensive and earliest landscape conservation projects the CCC carried out in the park. To stabilize the stream banks and protect them from erosion, CCC enrollees from Company 808 constructed a curvilinear, stone revetment wall, about twelve feet high and 900 feet long between 1933 and 1935. Ten feet wide at the base and five feet wide at the top, the wall is constructed of stone and clay and has a 1:1-1/2 foot batter. The wall remains stable today attesting to the success of the conservation project and the durability of the CCC workmanship. Today the stone wall is hidden from sight by a dense mat of naturalized vegetation.

Flower Park's continuing popularity with Sulphur residents, who still regularly stroll in the park alongside tourists, may have prevented major changes (such as a proposed Visitor Center in 1966) from occurring in the park. The site today retains high integrity from the period of significance. All major features dating to the New Deal era are extant and generally in good condition, with the exception of the entry piers, an early CCC project which suffered damage Particularly notable are the pedestrian paths that were recently rehabilitated (2004-2008) after excavation at the site revealed that their distinctive stone edging was still intact and merely hidden beneath the soil.

Contributing and Noncontributing Resources of Flower Park (Map 7)

Name (NHL Count)	Type	Condition	Status/Date
Flower Park Site (Site-4)	Site	Good	Contributing/1933-34

The site includes its associated plantings and gently rolling topography. The site also includes the creek and its grassy banks with its streamside boulders, nine stone dams, two falls, a wooden weir dam, several ponds, multiple stream crossings, and culvert outlet, as well as two engineered stone dams in Travertine Creek visible from Lincoln Bridge. (LCS: 62805, 64285, 62808) (Photographs 21 & 22)

[5] Palmer H. Boeger, *Oklahoma Oasis: From Platt National Park to Chickasaw National Recreation Area* (Muskogee: Western Heritage Books, 1987), 82; A.R. Greene, "Report to the Secretary of the Interior," 5 July 1909, in *Superintendent's Reports*, volume VII, CNRA Archives.

Flower Park Trails (CS-24) Structure Good Contributing/1934
A one-mile system of limestone-edged paths that meanders through Flower Park. Trails have been restored (2004-2007) to their original fifty-four-inch width, except in some areas where one edge was extended to form an ADA-accessible, six-foot-wide path. Trails include two large, hillside staircases with steps of variably sized treads and risers of stone or compacted aggregate. Most treads are lined with limestone, and irregular boulders form coping where treads abut steeper grades. (LCS: 62995, 62811, 62812)

Flower Park Stone Arch Bridge (CS-25) Structure Good Contributing/1934
This NPS rustic-style arched, stone foot bridge, approximately twelve feet long and six feet wide, is located along one of the Flower Park pathways. (LCS: 62809)

Lincoln Bridge (CS-26) Structure Good Contributing/1908-9
Gothic Revival in style, the elevations of this single-arch masonry bridge have a pair of crenellated tower-like form rising above each set of abutments. A small spiral staircase leads from the bridge deck up the inside wall of each tower-like form leading to a viewing platform and a flagpole (the existing poles replaced the original ones removed in the 1930s). The eight electric globe lights on poles that once lined the bridge are no longer extant. Overall, the bridge is approximately 100 feet long, twenty feet tall, and twenty feet wide. The grey limestone masonry is set in horizontal courses on the bridge itself and, uniquely, vertical courses on the tower-like walls. This imposing structure was designed in 1909 by engineer Howard V. Hinckley, and was incorporated into the 1930s master plans for the area. (LCS: 62804) (Photograph 20)

Flower Park Comfort Station (CB-6) Building Good Contributing/1933
Approximately thirty-two by twenty-two feet in plan, the comfort station is built into a hillside. It is constructed of dressed ashlar masonry of yellow-tan limestone. The dressed masonry differs from the district's other comfort stations, giving this building a refined character deemed by the designers as more appropriate for a transitional space near the edge of town. Above the stone walls, exposed and rough-sawn beams and rafters support a gable roof covered in wood shingles. The building's horizontal lines are reinforced by bands of windows under the roofline. The gable roof is a modification of the original hip-on-gable (also known as a jerkinhead or clipped gable) roofline, a modification appearing on all of the park's comfort stations. Originally designed by resident landscape architect Charles A. Richey as Public Works Administration Project No. 1 in Sept. 1933 the work was actually carried out through the labor provided by CCC Company 808. ETIC 107-3010-A (Figure 10). (LCS: 62806) (Photograph 22)

Flower Park Revetment Wall (CS-27) Structure Good Contributing/1933-35
This stone revetment wall, measuring twelve feet high and 900 feet long, was constructed by the CCC along curving Rock Creek to stabilize the stream banks just downstream of the confluence with Travertine Creek. Ten feet wide at the base and five feet wide at the top, the wall is constructed of stone and clay and has a 1:1-1/2 foot batter. The wall is covered with naturalized vegetation. (LCS: 321343)

Flower Park Entry Piers (NCS-8) Structure Poor Noncontributing/1934
This main entrance was an almost symmetrical composition of four ashlar masonry piers and semi-circular walls with recessed arches containing small bubbling fountains. The stone walls and two large piers were damaged by vehicles and large wall elements removed in the 1970s. Today the entry composition bears little resemblance to the one built by CCC Company 808 and illustrated in A. Good, ed., *Park and Recreation Structures*, 1938 (Plate I A-1, p. 20). The original design is attributed to landscape foreman E. Walkowiak, 2 April 1934, ETIC 107-3018 (Figure 11). (LCS: 62801)

Flower Park/Vendome Parking Area and Features (CS-28)
Structure Fair Contributing/1933-34
Accessed via a short, boulder-lined entry road from Broadway Avenue on the Platt District's northern boundary, the parking lot is 160 by 248 feet in size and accommodates approximately 100 cars. A limestone curb and gutter is installed around the perimeter of the lot and outlines several interior islands. There are several limestone-paved drainage swales and a pipe system carries the Vendome Well outflow underneath the parking area. (LCS: 62807, 401348)

Buffalo Pasture, Superintendent's Residence, and Prairie Uplands

The Buffalo Pasture and Prairie Uplands comprise an area of about 390 acres in the south central part of the Platt District. This large area is bounded by the former park Headquarters, Pavilion Springs, and Maintenance areas to the north; the floodplain terrace of Rock Creek to the west; and parts of the city of Sulphur and the Veterans Hospital on the south and east. State Highway 177 (Buckhorn Road) bisects the area. The area's topography is varied, with wooded ravines and high open prairies dominating. The high point in the area is a knoll where the Superintendent's Residence is located at 1050 feet above sea level.

About one-half the acreage of the Buffalo Pasture and Prairie Uplands was acquired in 1904, when the Department of the Interior purchased additional lands to protect the park's springs. Because the area was formerly part of the town site, early development focused on removing former residential structures. In subsequent years, the area contained a mule pasture and wagon camp, and in 1923, a nine-hole golf course was built on the eastern side of Buckhorn Road. In 1934, the western half of the landscape was redeveloped as a pasture for the park's herd of buffalo. Changes included a fence, a dam, and a pond for the bison's drinking water.

Once the bison were relocated to this area and after the golf course was closed in 1937, the area served as a naturalistic prairie setting for the Superintendent's Residence. Today the area retains this naturalized character, with few alterations to the natural topography, structures, or small-scale features. The major change to the area has been the growth of woody species planted around the Buffalo Pasture which, due to fire suppression, have expanded unchecked into previously open areas, altering the overall feeling of the landscape from an open to an enclosed space. A program to remove invasive vegetation is, however, currently underway, and the once open, prairie character of the landscape is being restored.

Contributing Resources of the Buffalo Pasture, Superintendent's Residence and Prairie Uplands (Map 10)
Name (NHL Count) Type Condition Status/Date

Buffalo Pasture (Site-5) Site Good Contributing/1934
This area of about seventy acres is delineated by a 1.63-mile-long wire fence, seven feet in height. It was constructed in 1940 of four-inch metal posts filled with concrete; a few sections have deteriorated or have been replaced. The site contains native woody and prairie grass plants and sustains descendants of bison brought to the park in the 1920s. (LCS: 64187)

Buffalo Pasture Dam, Pond, and Spillway (CS-29)
Structure Fair/Poor Contributing/1934
Located in the southwest portion of the pasture, this stone and earth structure is 200 feet long, seventy feet wide at the base, and twenty feet high. Designed to be heavily screened by vegetation, the earthen dam has a stone and concrete spillway and creates a pond of approximately 0.58 acres, depending on rainfall. (LCS: 64188)

Superintendent's Residence Site and Features (Site-6)
Site Fair Contributing/1933-35
This three-acre landscape serves as the grounds of the Superintendent's House and includes stone terraces and walkways surrounded by an open lawn with foundation and other ornamental plantings. A 200-foot long driveway (LCS 62858) with stone edging (designed to be flush with paving and adjoining yard) provides access today as it did historically; although now paved with asphalt and reconfigured, its integrity is somewhat diminished. (LCS: 337810, 62858)

Superintendent's Residence (CB-7) Building Fair Contributing/1933
A one-story, rectangular, wood-frame building, having about 1700 square feet of interior space, with cream, stucco walls, an intersecting gable roof, exposed rafter tails and beams, decorative red brick chimneys, brown-painted shiplap siding, and concrete window sills. (LCS: 62856)

Superintendent's Garage and Laundry (CB-8)
Building Fair Contributing/1935
This one-story, rectangular, wood-frame building is approximately twenty-by-thirty-four feet in plan and has a rear porch. It complements the Superintendent's Residence in design and materials. (LCS: 62857)

Golf Course Dams (CS-30) Structure Poor Contributing/c. 1923
These three deteriorated, earthen and limestone masonry dams, measuring sixty, twenty, and seventy-five feet in length, are remnant features of the park's former golf course (1923-1937). The dams are located along a drainage ditch east of Highway 177 and south of Employee Residence #2 near Pavilion Springs. (LCS: 64264, 412887, 412890)

Hillside Spring and Headquarters Area

This area is located in the center of the district, on the west side of Highway 177 just south of the north leg of the perimeter road. It consists of Hillside Spring, an open-air spring enclosure, and the Headquarters Area, a small clearing above the spring with the park's original Administration Building, located on a rolling, north-facing slope overlooking Rock Creek. The two spaces are connected by a large stone staircase along the Buffalo Pasture Trail.

Located on what was once the Sulphur town site, this area has undergone many changes over time. The Administration Building, built as the home of lumberyard owner Graves Leeper in 1894, was located just south of the original town center. When all the buildings associated with the original town were removed after the creation of Sulphur Springs Reservation in 1902, this building was retained, probably because of its durable stone construction and adaptability for park use. In 1904 it became the park superintendent's office, and in the 1930s was remodeled and expanded by the CCC. Concurrently, the CCC also built the existing stone masonry spring enclosure, known as Hillside Spring, located just north of the Leeper House, replacing a wooden pavilion which had stood over the spring since at least 1906. A parking lot was added in the 1930s. Vehicular circulation to the Administration Building was also provided by the spur road leading to the Maintenance Area.

The Administration Building, the Hillside Spring enclosure, the staircase connecting them, and a number of small-scale features dating to the New Deal era remain intact and retain historic integrity. Only the vegetation, mostly red cedar planted by the CCC to screen both the building and spring from the highway, has changed significantly, maturing and creating a dense grove around both features.

Contributing Resources of Hillside Spring and Headquarters Area (Map 8)

Name (NHL Count)	Type	Condition	Status/Date

Leeper House or Administration Building (CB-9) Building Good Contributing/1894, 1934

This masonry building, made of local grey-blue limestone, has wooden arched windows, a hipped roof with wooden shingles, two stone chimneys, and a porch (added in 1914). The 1934 remodeling relocated the front entry from the east to the south façade and placed a thirty-two by forty-three foot addition used as a museum and office on the west end, matching the original construction. In 1946 when the museum was relocated, the addition became the park superintendent's office. When Park administrative functions moved to downtown Sulphur in 2002, the building was rehabilitated and made the Platt District Ranger Station. Foundation plantings around the building include redbud, which historically provided significant spring bloom. Associated and remnant stepping stones (leading to a former superintendent's residence) are located directly east across US 177. A parking lot behind the building to the southwest has been enlarged over the years and is noncontributing. CCC-era alterations to the administration building were designed in 1934 by NPS architect A. P. Brown, ETIC107-3028. (LCS: 12509, 405295, 405059) (Photograph 26)

Hillside Spring (CS-31) Structure Good Contributing/1935

This spring enclosure is a native limestone ashlar masonry retaining wall and small flagstone terrace set into shallow ravine on a north-facing slope. The curving wall features two stone benches flanking a central keystone arch located above a shallow, circular basin. Spring water is captured in a concrete tank behind the wall, and flows via an elaborate plumbing system into the circular basin, which overflows into a runnel. A runnel bisects the 600-square-foot flagstone terrace and drains into a naturalized stream and, ultimately, Rock Creek. The enclosure and terrace, located six feet below the grade of the adjacent parking area, are accessed by a set of thirteen limestone masonry steps lined with boulders. In 2008, the stone walls were cleaned and repaired, and a drainage and water proof system was installed behind the wall, resulting in an improved flow of water to the fountains. CCC landscape architect J. C. Miller designed the spring enclosure, retaining wall, and surrounding terrace, 09-01-1935, ETIC 107-3030 (Figure 7). (LCS: 62885, 64274) (Photographs 23 &24)

Hillside Spring Parking Area and Staircase (CS-32) Structure Good Contributing/1934

The horse-shoe shaped parking lot above the spring accommodates about 25 cars. The parking area is delineated by a low stone curb to the west and north and a limestone masonry retaining wall to the south and a central island with two trees runs down its center. An oval center island is also lined with a stone curb. A compacted granite walkway around the western side of the lot connects to a seventy-five-foot long, boulder-lined stone staircase leading to the Headquarters Area. (LCS: 62887, 255346, 405321, 62886) (Photograph 25)

Maintenance Area

The Maintenance Area today comprises an area of approximately seven acres and lies west of the former Administration Building, bounded by the Buffalo Pasture to the south and by Rock Creek Trail to the north. When built in 1933-35, this area was somewhat smaller. It was designed as a quadrangle, with three large buildings—a barn, garage, and office—facing an open, level courtyard. The courtyard was terraced into a gently sloping hillside by low stone walls and was accessed by a curving road leading from Highway 177; these two aspects of the quadrangle's design served to hide this utility area from the public and the more scenic areas of the park. The three buildings were unified not only by the quadrangle layout, but also by their architectural design and materials, which featured wood-shingled roofs; creosote-oil stained wood timbers, framing and siding; and limestone masonry. By the end of the period of significance a few other features were added to the west of the central quadrangle, including some terraces for equipment storage and a magazine for storing

explosives. An employee residence built in the early years of the park and moved to the site in 1931 lies just northeast of the quadrangle.

Today, the quadrangle and other buildings from the period of significance are extant with only minor changes. The area displays high integrity of location, feeling, workmanship, and association primarily because all of its original features are intact and because it still carries out its intended function. However, because the maintenance facilities today serve the maintenance needs of the almost 10,000-acre CNRA (ten times the size of the former Platt National Park) the area has suffered some minor reductions in integrity of design and setting, primarily due to the addition of new buildings and structures to accommodate the needs of new equipment and demand for increased space. Located west of the original quadrangle, the new structures are for the most part small, temporary buildings rather than major capital improvements, and their impact can easily be reversed.

Contributing and Noncontributing Resources of the Maintenance Area (Map 9)

Name (NHL Count)	Type	Condition	Status/Date

Maintenance Quadrangle and Access Road (Site 7) Structure Fair Contributing/c. 1934

The maintenance quadrangle is a rectangular space formed by 420 feet of stone masonry walls and retaining walls varying from five to six feet, topped by a chain link fence, portions of which are missing. Entry piers present in the 1930s are also missing today. The walls and terrace grading create a flat area for parking, storage and equipment staging; the space is enclosed by the barn, garage and office, all contributing buildings. The area is accessed by a curving road off of Highway 177; together the grading of the road and the compound's terrace help hide the area from the main road and public view. (LCS: 62893, 322895, 405348)

Mule Barn (CB-11) Building Fair Contributing/c. 1934

This building (Building 36), about 1500 square feet in interior space, forms the west side of the compound and is a wood frame building with vertical board and batten siding, a wood shingled roof, gable ends sheathed in shiplap, and a stone masonry foundation. Built into the hillside, the west side of the building and retaining wall provided lower level access for machines and animals, while the east side of the building was a loading dock on the same grade as the quadrangle courtyard. The building is currently used for warehouse space. (LCS: 62890)

Maintenance Office (CB-12) Building Fair Contributing/ c. 1934

The maintenance office (Building 37) is a rectangular building, providing about 1000 square feet in floor space. Located on the south side of the quadrangle, it is constructed of rubble masonry with wood-framed windows and doors and a wood shingle roof with wood gables. The building also has twelve original two-over-two windows, exposed lintels, rafter tails, and projecting rake beams and sills. (LCS: 62891)

Truck Shed (CB-13) Building Fair Contributing/ c. 1934

The maintenance shop or truck shed (Building 38) is about 1400 square feet and is located on the north side of the quadrangle. It has two stone walls and two wood frame walls with a series of original wood and glazed vehicle doors facing into the courtyard. The building also has board and batten siding, a stone foundation, and a wood shingle roof with lapped wood gable ends. The side stone wall is connected to the foundation wall of the mule barn. (LCS: 62892)

Residence #6 (CB-14) Building Fair Contributing/1902, 1931

Residence #6 is located east of the quadrangle and was moved to its current location in 1931. Currently used as offices, it is a wood frame building, about thirty by thirty feet in plan, with an entry porch on the east, wide horizontal pine siding, and a shingled gable roof. A carport added in front of the building is noncontributing. The residence's garage (Building 11) was built in 1931 and is similar to garages at Pavilion Springs Residence

(#2) and the Bromide Springs Residence (#4). It is a wood-frame, detached building with a shingled gable roof and wide, brown pine siding. (LCS: 62898, 62899)

Explosives Magazine (CB-15) Building Poor Contributing/ c. 1934
An underground room with a front exposed stone masonry wall with integral retaining wall at entry. Interior is six by twelve feet in plan and has a concrete floor and ceiling. Irregular, dry-laid stone retaining walls are also located north and south of entryway. Building was used to store explosives and is accessed by a narrow spur off the maintenance access road; the spur road is approximately thirty feet long and has a limestone embankment. (LCS: 264020, 443722)

13 Noncontributing Maintenance Buildings (NCB 3 through 15)
Structures Varies Noncontributing/varies
More recent, noncontributing buildings in the area built for CNRA's current needs include: a tank fueling station and three storage buildings west of the warehouse; Building 128 (housing a metal/welding shop and storage for wood and mechanical supplies); Building 126 (a wood shop); Buildings 127 and 129 (storage buildings); two hay storage sheds; an underground paint storage building of rubble stone masonry; a climate-controlled archive storage building west of Residence 6; and a small office building at the southeast corner of the quadrangle. (Not listed in LCS)

Pavilion Springs Area

Pavilion Springs is a wooded area of about 12 acres containing two sites, one organized around a large mineral spring and a second, a residential landscape on a nearby hill. The area is located south of the intersection of Highway 177 and the northern portion of Perimeter Road. Pavilion Springs is located on the former site of "Sulphur Park," which in 1902 was the town's central open square containing seven sulfur springs housed in concrete tiles. A wood-frame pavilion was situated over the largest spring, which was named "Big Tom" and flowed at a prodigious forty gallons per minute. The square was surrounded by a variety of buildings, including stores, bathhouses, a hotel and a livery, but after the creation of the park, all of these building were removed except for the wooden pavilion. In subsequent years, the crude pavilion was rebuilt and improved a few times. In 1936, as other features in the park were nearing completion, NPS landscape architects completely redesigned the area, creating a new, sylvan setting for the activity of "taking the waters." A new, open air stone pavilion, rivaling the one in Bromide Springs in size and design, was constructed in the glen and surrounded by trees. The pavilion was designed to house "Big Tom," which was re-plumbed to emerge from a stone wellhead in the pavilion's center. The area is connected to the park's trail system with stone steps and an underpass under Highway 177. Vehicular access to the area is provided by a short, curvilinear spur road off Highway 177 that terminates at an oblong-shaped, boulder-lined parking area east of the pavilion.

Just south of the new pavilion, NPS designers of the New-Deal era also rehabilitated two existing residences into what they described as a "Residence Grouping." The old, wood frame structures, extant from earlier periods, were completely remodeled, and residential grounds were developed with new outbuildings and landscape features. The vehicular circulation to the two residences was also reorganized and combined with the spur road leading to Pavilion Springs. Additional employee residences were planned for the area but never built. In 1950, one of the residences and its outbuildings were destroyed in a fire, leaving the Pavilion Springs area in much the same condition seen today. Otherwise, the historic resources dating to the period of significance are retained in good condition, giving the overall area strong historic integrity.

Contributing Resources of the Pavilion Springs Area (Map 8)

Name	Type	Condition	Status/Date

Pavilion Springs (Site-8) Site Good Contributing/1936
The site design, as described above, is intact today. The site is roughly an oval-shaped "bowl" and is defined by Highway 177 to the west, the entry road and edge of the parking area to the south and west, and the sloping topography to the north. Grading and small-scale features (swales, culverts and a cheek wall) manage the drainage in the "bowl" and as it moves through the underpass toward Rock Creek. Site elements also include the access drive and oval parking loop, steps leading down to the pavilion from the parking area and steps from the pavilion to the Highway 177 underpass. Vegetation in this area is largely naturalized; a lawn shaded by mature oaks and hackberries is located immediately south of the pavilion. Pavilion shelter attributed to Lyle N. Barcume, Western Branch of Plans and Design, San Francisco. Site plan and parking area designed by J.C. Miller, 4-23-36, ETIC-107-3057 (Figure 12). (LCS: 324053, 395768, 62943, 413343, 253814) (Photographs 27-30)

Pavilion Springs Pavilion (CB-16) Building Good Contributing/1936
The pavilion, a fine example of NPS Rustic-style architecture, is thirty by fifty feet in plan and has a sub-floor and wall footings constructed as monolithic concrete slab. The building is low to the ground, emphasizing its horizontal lines; the yellow pine used for structural members is rough sawn for a pioneer look; and the locally quarried stone marries the building to its surroundings in color and texture. The pavilion has a hipped roofed with wood-shake shingles. In the center of the pavilion is a large oval boulder from which spring water flows into a small rectangular pool. A large wood sign in the interior provides an analysis of the water's mineral content, and a low integrated stone bench lines interior walls. Extensive and elaborate artificial rockwork, covered with lichens, vines and moss, carries water from the pavilion toward Rock Creek. (LCS: 62939) (Photographs 4, 29, & 30)

Pavilion Springs Residential Landscape (Site-9)
Site Good Contributing/1934
Site is defined by the area entry drive to the south and west, and to the north and east, by the flat hill top on which the residence is located. Site includes the curving looped driveway, flagstone sidewalks and patio leading from the garage to the house, as well as stepping stones and a set of stone garden furniture, including a stone pond, table and four benches located due east of the house. Portion of yard fenced in with non-historic chain link fence. (LCS: 62947, 62949, 413346, 416227)

Pavilion Springs Residence (CB-17) Building Good Contributing/c. 1902; 1934
This ca. 1900 wood-frame structure (a.k.a. Residence #2) was completely remodeled in 1934. It is a rectangular building having 1300 square feet of interior floor space. The house has a gable roof with wood siding at the gable ends and exposed rafter tails. Other features include a large brick chimney, brick sills, brick foundation, and a small gabled entry porch. A wood-frame garage, twenty-five by fourteen feet in size, was built in 1934 and is similar in design to the one built at Bromide Springs. The garage has wide shiplap siding on walls, wide vertical siding on gable ends; double-hung windows, plank door and garage door; three historic windows (each having four-over-four panes), and non-historic passage and garage doors. An open carport on concrete piers was added in the 1980s and is noncontributing. (LCS: 62941, 62942)

Central Campground

Central Campground, located on the banks of Travertine Creek, is comprised of about fifteen acres of open and wooded terrain containing ten group campsites. The area is bounded on the north and east by the park boundary

along Broadway Avenue and Wapanucka Avenue; the area is bounded on the south and west by Perimeter Road and Highway 177.

The site has been a campground since the earliest days of the park. In 1902, Central Campground was part of Central Park (from which it derives its name) and was used as campground for large group activities, including Chautauqua-circuit entertainment and Confederate reenactments of Civil War battles. In 1915, two comfort stations were added to the grounds, and by the 1920s, the area was also known as Free Campground No. 2. In 1933 and 1934, the CCC reorganized the site, campsites, and circulation into its current configuration. In accordance with the State of Oklahoma's "separate but equal" policies, the campground was a segregated facility, with separate sections of the campground designated for use by white and African American visitors. By 1937 the campground as a whole was designated for use by the park's African American visitors. Swimming areas within the park were also segregated, and African Americans were permitted to use only the pools located downstream from Panther Falls. One was located below Panther Falls on the other side of Perimeter Road a short distance south of the campground, the other was located between the campground loop road and Perimeter Road. Although signs were removed in the 1940s/ around 1948, the segregation of camping facilities in the park was not eliminated until 1957.[6]

Today, the campground exists much as it did at the end of the period of significance, although its use is now limited to group camping by reservation. The area maintains a high degree of historical integrity.

Contributing and Noncontributing Resources of Central Campground (Map 11)

Name	Type	Condition	Status/Date
Central Campground (Site-10)	Site	Good	Contributing/1934-37

A campground road composed of two, one-way loops defines the overall spatial organization of the campground and divides the area into ten group campsites. Trees and vegetation further define the edges of the campground's two linked, roughly circular open spaces. Associated loop road features include culverts and box culverts. Two short CCC-era trail segments of compacted gravel provide pedestrian circulation within the campground. (LCS: 62817, 62821, 62816, 420283, 420355, 420352)

Central Campground Comfort Station (CB-18) Building Good Contributing/1937

Similar in size and form to six other comfort stations in the park, this one-story, Rustic-style rectangular stone building is approximately thirty-two by twenty-two feet in plan. Constructed of large limestone boulders varying in size and shape, it is built into the hillside. The stone walls are buttressed at their bases, merging the building with the surrounding landscape; low stone walls also extend from the ends of the building to wrap around the entrances and ensure shelter and privacy. The gabled (modified from original hip-on-gable), wood-shingled roof is supported by exposed rough-sawn wood timbers and rafters. Windows form horizontal bands beneath the overhanging roof. (LCS: 62818)

Central Campground Dam (CS-33) Structure Good Contributing/1936

One of five CCC-constructed dams along Travertine Creek, the dam creates a pool for swimming on the southeast side of Perimeter Road, directly south of the east camping loop. Like the other dams, this is a low wall constructed of limestone with mortared joints and a hidden, steel-gated sluiceway for cleanout. A second, natural, waterfall slightly downstream forms the western boundary of the swimming hole. (LCS: 62819)

[6] Terence Young, "'A Contradiction in Democratic Government': W.J. Trent, Jr., and the Struggle to Desegregate National Park Campgrounds," *Environmental History* 14 (October 2009): 651-682. Young traces the development of the NPS policy of nonsegregation and sets June 1942 as the date when Director Newton Drury ordered signs to be removed from campgrounds and other NPS facilities in the Southern states. The actual desegregation of facilities in many parks, however, occurred slowly.

Panther Falls Dam (CS-34) Structure Good Contributing/1917
This five-foot tall, curvilinear concrete dam, without stone facing, creates a swimming pool on Travertine Creek southeast of the Central Campground entrance. The dam is representative of the pre-CCC era construction that was retained in the 1930s master plans. (LCS: 62820)

Cold Springs Campground

Cold Springs Campground is located on a level floodplain in the eastern portion of the Platt District, separated from Travertine Creek by the perimeter road. A wooded area of approximately twenty acres, it is bounded on the south by Perimeter Road and to the north by the park fence and the residential streets of Sulphur. Vegetation in the campground is predominantly native trees, including oaks and hackberry.

The Cold Springs area is named after two springs located in or near Travertine Creek at the base of Mount Airy (the highest point in the district east of Highway 177). As late as 1918, the area was described as containing "cultivated fields," but by the 1920s it was known as "Free Campground #3" and contained three comfort stations and a community house built in 1922.[7] In the mid-1930s, the CCC assisted in completely overhauling the campground, bringing it in line with NPS standards of development (known as the Meinecke system), and creating the landscape evident today. At this time a Rustic-styled checking station built with battered walls of native boulders was constructed, and two new stone comfort stations built to the NPS's improved standards replaced the earlier structures. Due to local and state policies on racial segregation, only white visitors to the park were permitted to use the campground and its nearby swimming pools. Although signs were removed about 1948, segregation in the use of park facilities wasn't eliminated until 1957.

The campground is oblong, its shape defined by an encircling one lane roadway. It is subdivided into two linear, crescent-shaped areas by a central asphalt road leading into the campground. Midway along the central road, two spurs lead to both sides of the loop, further dividing the campground into four major spaces. A network of informal pedestrian paths runs through the grounds, connecting campsites to two Rustic-styled comfort stations and also to swimming holes across Perimeter Road. Sixty-five campsites are located along the campground's three main roadways, generally alternating entrances to the left and right. Today most of the campsites reflect the 1930s configuration, although two have been enlarged to accommodate bigger vehicles and groups. Campsites are more or less circular and are separated from their gravel driveway spurs (thirty to thirty-six feet long) by boulders; campsites also contain modern metal fire-pits that replaced the original U-shaped stone fire-pits. At the campground entrance is an open space containing two group sites and a parking area for the community building and checking station.

Today, the campground remains heavily used, in part because of its attractive, sylvan setting as well as its proximity to excellent swimming holes along Travertine Creek. The tradition of local families holding camping reunions has also contributed to the site's popularity, and historical documentation indicates that some of these family gatherings extend back several decades.[8] Despite the loss of vegetative cover due to age, soil compaction, and weathering, the campground retains most of its 1930s-designed features with only minor changes. The campground exhibits a high level of all aspects of integrity, especially design, setting, materials, feeling, and association.

[7] Boeger, *Oklahoma Oasis*, 141.
[8] See Wray and Roberts, *An Ethnohistory*.

Contributing Resources of Cold Springs Campground (Map 12)

Name (NHL Count)	Type	Condition	Status/Date

Cold Springs Campground (Site-11) Site Good Contributing/1935-39
Site includes campground layout and features as described above, including sixty-five campsites and amenities, access and loop roads and associated culverts and boulder guardrail, drainage swales, and campground trails. This campground was closed in the mid-1930s and redesigned according to the Meinecke principles. The campground provided access across Perimeter Road to Travertine Creek, where naturalistic groupings of stepping stones were installed and several swimming holes formed by the construction of artificial dams. Engineers from the Engineering Division designed a network of new one way roads in July 1935, ETIC 107-5018; these were laid out by CCC Camp NP-1, Project No. 2 in the 5th ECW period (Figure 13). (LCS: 420622, 420623, 420624, 64260, 62829)

Cold Springs Community House (CB-19) Building Good Contributing/1922
The Cold Springs Community House resembles a similar structure at Bromide Springs. Reflecting a so-called "regional vernacular" style, this wood frame building with a concrete foundation and porch along the south side, was designed by Daniel Hull. Located near the campground entrance, it is roughly forty-five by thirty-three feet, and has brown-painted wood siding, a gable roof, and a fireplace and stone chimney centered on the rear wall. Uses have varied over the years; it is currently a staff exercise room. Designed by Chief Landscape Engineer Daniel Hull, 04-29-22, ETIC-107-5, sheet 1 (Figure 14). (LCS: 62826)

Cold Springs Comfort Station #1 (CB-20) Building Good Contributing/1935
Similar in size and form to six other comfort stations in the park, this one-story, Rustic-style rectangular stone building is approximately thirty-two by twenty-two feet in plan and is constructed of large, limestone boulders varying in size and shape. The stone walls are buttressed at their bases, merging the building with the surrounding landscape; low stone walls also extend from the building to wrap around entrances at opposite ends of the building, providing shelter and privacy. The gabled, wood-shingled roof (modified from the original hip-on-gable or jerkinhead roof) is supported by exposed, rough-sawn wood timbers and rafters. The windows are grouped to form horizontal bands under the roof overhangs. One of the park's seven comfort stations appeared in A. Good, ed., *Park and Recreation Structures*, (Plate I H-17, p. 147); Good grouped the Platt example with others from the "Far West" and praised the "treatment of rough rock walls variously described as 'battered,' 'buttressed,' and 'blended to outcrop.'" This example was built to plans drawn by architect Lorimer Skidmore of the Western Branch of Plans and Design, San Francisco, 4-26-1935, ETIC-107-3037. (LCS: 62827)

Cold Springs Comfort Station #2 (CB-21) Building Good Contributing/1935
Located about 600 feet east of Comfort Station #1, Comfort Station #2 is its veritable twin, duplicating it in size, materials, finishes, and construction. The two buildings differ only in location and minor details. (LCS: 62828) (Photograph 19)

Cold Springs Checking Station (CB-22) Building Good Contributing/1938
This small building, twenty-seven by twenty-one feet in plan, is one of the park's best examples of Rustic-styled architecture in the park. Constructed of large, rectangular limestone blocks, the building walls are battered three to four feet at the base, seamlessly transitioning it to the ground plane. The wood-shingled roof has exposed beams and rafters. The building also features a wooden, batten door with iron fittings; shuttered casement windows, and a large information window on the gable end facing the campground's entry road. Designed by Resident Landscape Architect Charles A. Richey, 03-14-36, ETIC 107-3047A. (LCS: 62825) (Photograph 34)

Cold Springs Wood and Garbage Can Enclosures (CS-35)
Structure Good Contributing/1935
This set of nine masonry stone enclosures was built to screen wood storage and garbage disposal areas located along the loop roads. Each enclosure is four-sided square or rectangular structure with walls approximately three feet high and an opening in the wall facing the road. In the original design, a water faucet was attached to the front face of each enclosure; today only one of the structures has a functioning hydrant. These small structures were designed by CCC landscape architect J. C. Miller, 10-08-35, ETIC 107-3045 (Figure 15). (LCS: 62830, 322400, 323759, 430094, 443766, 445435, 480417, 480418, 480419)

Upper & Lower Bear Falls (CS-36) Structure Good Contributing/c. 1936
This pair of stone dams is located in Travertine Creek across Perimeter Road from the Cold Springs Campground. The dams were designed and constructed to create a recreational swimming area and are a part of a series of pools and waterfalls along the creek. Fitted cross-wise into the stream banks to appear as natural ledges, the dams are constructed of mortared stones and are battered at their bases; one has a cleanout culvert and gate. (LCS: 62831, 315720)

Upper & Lower Garfield Falls (CS-37) Structure Good Contributing/c. 1936
A second pair of dams, located approximately 450 feet downstream from Bear Falls, was also designed to create a recreational swimming area that appears to be bounded by two waterfalls. Like the other constructed dams along the creek, these are fitted into the topography to appear natural and are constructed of mortared stones and are battered at their bases. Both dams contain hidden cleanout culverts and gates located at their midpoints. (LCS: 255613, 255614)

Travertine Island

Travertine Island is located in the northeastern portion of the Platt District. This area covers about twenty-two acres and is organized around the confluence of Limestone and Travertine Creeks. The two creeks carve meandering channels through the site's relatively level topography and form a triangular island. Here three landscape areas—known as Little Niagara Falls, the Travertine Island picnic area, and the Lost Cave Falls picnic area—are clustered within and around the central island area. The picnic areas contain many of the park's oldest and largest trees (oaks, sycamores, and hackberries), although some were lost during an ice storm in 2000. The landscape contains numerous stone outcroppings, travertine formations, and a series of natural and designed waterfalls.

During the park's early years, the area was famous as the site of a large falls, named for its resemblance, in miniature, to Niagara Falls in New York. By the 1920s, the area had become a popular swimming hole. The CCC redesigned the area and developed additional recreation and picnic facilities, including an enlarged pool for swimming, a comfort station, stone tables, signage, and a path system with creek bridges and crossings. Perhaps most remarkable was the reconfiguration of Little Niagara Falls and the creation of the park's highest capacity swimming hole. Filled with spring water at a constant temperature of about fifty-five degrees, and surrounded by naturalistic stream banks and lush vegetation, Little Niagara Falls remains one of the most popular recreational areas in the district, drawing huge crowds on hot summer days.

Most of the landscape features installed in the 1930s remain on site today. Changes to the area have been confined to the southwestern portion of the site, where a new comfort station and extensive parking area were constructed as part of the park's Mission 66 development. The addition of these features resulted in the reconfiguration of some of the pathways in the site and the loss of some of the original wood bridge decks that crossed the creeks, though the stone bridge abutments remain. Overall, the site has high integrity of location,

materials, and association, but as a result of new additions, has lesser integrity of design, setting, workmanship and feeling. Overall, integrity for Travertine Island is judged to be fair.

Contributing and Noncontributing Resources of Travertine Island (Map 13)

Name (NHL Count)	Type	Condition	Status/Date

Travertine Island (Site-12) Site Good Contributing/1933-1938
This island and associated stream banks were manipulated to create a recreational landscape with individual swimming and picnic areas. Designed landscape features include stream channels, 1930s log interpretive signage, access roads, parking areas (some lined with boulders), a circular stone bench and an island trail system with creek crossings and remnants of bridges, retaining walls, steps and culverts. (LCS: 62997, 62842, 430507, 64284, 64282, 62843, 62846, 64259)

Travertine Island Comfort Station (CB-23)
Building Good Contributing/1938
This comfort station replaced wooden comfort stations previously located on Travertine Island, and is similar in size and form to six other comfort stations in the park. It is a one-story, Rustic-style rectangular stone building, approximately thirty-two by twenty-two feet in plan, and is constructed of large limestone boulders varying in size and shape. The stone walls are buttressed at their bases, merging the building with the surrounding landscape; low stone walls also extend from the building to wrap around entrances at building ends, providing shelter and privacy. The gabled, wood-shingled roof (modified from the original hip-on-gable or jerkinhead roof) is supported by exposed rough-sawn wood timbers and rafters. Individual windows form horizontal bands beneath the overhanging roof. (LCS: 62839)

Travertine Island Picnic Area (CS-38) Structure Good Contributing/ca. 1933
This large picnic plaza or terrace, approximately forty-five by ninety feet in dimensions, is constructed of compacted gravel and surrounded by a stone wall with integrated seating. Low stone steps create an entry to the plaza, which contains two massive, oblong stone tables and benches, and a stone food preparation counter and firewood storage area, as well as remnants of a smaller, circular stone “children’s table” and seats. Narrow steps (about one-foot wide) constructed of limestone and flanked continuously by travertine stone retaining walls lead from the picnic area to Limestone Creek, though the bottom few steps have eroded away with the stream bank. (LCS: 62840, 430096) (Photographs 8 & 35)

Lost Cave Falls Picnic Area (CS-39) Structure Good Contributing/ca. 1933
This massive, nine-by-four-foot stone table is located on a flagstone terrace measuring twenty-one by fourteen feet. The picnic area is accessed by a stone slab bridge and set of limestone steps flanked by travertine stone steps. (LCS: 62845, 263656, 430512)

Little Niagara Falls Upper and Lower Dams (CS-40)
Structure Good Contributing/ca. 1936
These two dams are located on the approximate site of a natural falls, which was completely redesigned during the CCC years to create a series of picturesque overflows and form pools for swimming. Dams are constructed of battered, mortared limestone walls, one with culvert cleanout and gate, and were fitted into the grade of the adjoining stream banks to create areas for swimming and picnicking. The upper dam is concrete, like Panther Falls, but covered with a thick travertine formation on the top and downstream face. (LCS: 261806, 62844) (Photograph 7)

Mission 66 Comfort Station (NCB-16) Building Good Noncontributing/1966
This comfort station made of concrete blocks is located just west of Little Niagara Falls. It was built after the period of significance. A concrete ADA-accessible walk from the parking area to the building was built in 1997. (Not listed in LCS.)

Mission 66 Parking Lots (NCS-9) Structure Good Noncontributing/1966-67
Two large, asphalt-surfaced parking areas were added southwest of Little Niagara Falls to accommodate parking for the Travertine Nature Center. (Not listed in LCS.)

Buffalo and Antelope Springs

The Antelope Springs/Buffalo Springs and Nature Center area is a wooded landscape of about 140 acres in the easternmost reaches of the Platt District. Beyond the park fence, pastures, woodland, and Oklahoma School for the Deaf's 60-acre outdoor classroom border the area to the north, while private pasture and woodland landholdings form the eastern and southern boundaries. Directly west is Travertine Island and Little Niagara Falls. The Buffalo and Antelope Springs area—sometimes known as the "Head of the Springs"—is an important destination in the park. Here the headwaters of the park's major freshwater swimming creek form. The area is densely vegetated, mostly red-cedar-post oak woodland, which is typically found on former prairies where fire has been suppressed. A few small patches of prairie recall the open vegetative character of the 1930s.

Soon after the park's creation, Antelope Springs and Buffalo Springs became popular destinations, despite the park's poor roads. In the 1930s, NPS designers took advantage of this popularity, extending the park's perimeter road around both springs and enhancing the surroundings with stone structures, plantings, and naturalistic grading. Picnic areas, some with massive stone slab picnic tables, were also developed. As part of the park's Mission 66 prospectus (1955-1969), the National Park Service constructed the Travertine Nature Center, removing two large CCC-era picnic areas and their associated parking lots and abandoning the portion of Perimeter Road east of the new building. In 1969, when the Nature Center was opened to the public, 137 acres adjacent to the center was first established as an Environmental Study Area and later designated a National Environmental Study Area (NESA). Although the NESA program lost funding in the 1980s, the area today is still primarily used for walking, contemplation, interpretation, and nature study. Picnicking, swimming, and wading are not permitted in Travertine Creek east of the Nature Center.

This area of the Platt District today has two focal points; the springs to the east and the nature center to the west. The headwaters meander west from the two springs to form Travertine Creek. Several walking trails wind their way alongside the streams—some following those improved during the CCC-era, others dating to Mission 66. Remnants of the abandoned roadway are still visible, and function as an access trail for maintenance work. Despite changes to the area, the landscape surrounding the Antelope Springs/Buffalo Springs and the Travertine Nature Center retains sufficient historic integrity overall to contribute to the district's integrity. As described below, numerous 1930s features and structures still exist in good condition. These include stepping stones, stone bridge abutments, a series of small dams, and retaining walls. Furthermore, although the Mission 66 additions changed the area's landscape design and layout, the architectural design of the new features were remarkably sympathetic to the naturalistic landscape and Rustic architecture design of the 1930s. Consequently, integrity of location, setting, and materials remains strong, though integrity of workmanship, feeling, and association has diminished.

Some of the finest and most detailed work of landscape naturalization by CCC Company occurred here in the 1930s. It is still clearly evident today and in use. The philosophy introduced in the area's 1970s designation as a nature study area (i.e. that the area be returned to a wild and natural state) continues to guide visitor use in this

area today. As a result, the area has been spared the wear and tear of heavy automobile traffic and the improvements that have accompanied increased visitor use and marred the integrity of CCC-era design and construction in many other parks. Although the architectural treatment of the circular terrace, seating and pool at Buffalo Springs may seem out of place today in such a natural landscape, it remains one of the outstanding and earliest examples of CCC-constructed rusticated stone construction in the park and remains unique service-wide for its design as a spring development under the NPS's program of landscape naturalization. Highly noted for the workmanship and artistry of its flagging and stone work, it was used as a model for subsequent stone work in the park. In contrast to the elaborate spring enclosure at Buffalo Spring, is the highly naturalistic treatment of the spring and outflow at nearby Antelope Spring, where the water springs forth from a steep rocky slope and descends to the creek below through a carefully orchestrated series of waterfalls--the picturesque effects of the natural setting enhanced by manmade dams and stepping stones. The character of an early 1930s stone veneer trail bridge reminiscent of a Chinese "moon" bridge continues to delight park visitors, and hidden from view beneath the wild cover of woodlands are numerous small-scale features marking the picnic grounds and parking area built here in the 1930s; these rustic stone features include stairways, benches, and fire places.

Contributing and Noncontributing Resources in Antelope and Buffalo Springs Area (Maps 14 & 15)

Name (NHL Count)	Type	Condition	Status/Date

Antelope Springs, Stream, Ponds and Dams (Site-13) Site Good Contributing/c. 1933

This site is one of the spring heads for Travertine Creek. Water from Antelope Springs flows over three serial dams and is carried downstream into a series of scenic ponds before it enters Travertine Creek. The spring gushes forth from a naturally occurring cliff of local conglomerate. As the spring waters flow downhill, water collects in picturesque pools created by a series of three low-lying dams, each constructed of earth and irregularly sized limestone and conglomerate boulders. The upper dam and falls are thirty feet long and six feet high, the middle dam and falls are sixty feet long and five feet high, and the lower dam and falls are 150 feet long and eight feet high. The upper and lower dams have pedestrian walkways running over their tops, connecting them to the area's wider trail system. Examples of the artificial dams/waterfalls constructed here by the CCC appeared in A. Good, *Park and Recreation Structures* (Plate II G-1, p. 121, Figure 16). Good described them as "minor naturalistic waterfalls" where "Nature has been a good teacher" and "artificiality cleverly hidden." Groupings of stepping stones and small footbridges, with decks of rough-sawn plank and boulder abutments, added to the area's picturesque design. The naturalistic treatment of this spring and stream is highly effective, and exhibits the influence of Japanese landscape design, particularly the reference to the traditional tea garden. A view of the treatment of stepping stones in this area appeared in A. Good, ed. *Park and Recreation Structure* (Plate I L-1. p. 170, Figure 17), with special note made of "the crossing of stepping stones meeting the well-executed flight of trail steps on the brook bank." (LCS: 64281, 62912, 255607, 255607, 255608, 255606, 64278) (Photograph 9)

Remnant Antelope Springs Picnic Area (CS-41) Structure Poor Contributing/c. 1933

This twenty-three-tread staircase of local limestone leads from Antelope Springs to an abandoned parking lot on the abandoned Perimeter Road. The area around the stairs also contains five U-shaped stone fire pits that were constructed during the 1930s. Similar to those found at Walnut Grove, these were constructed by embedding of native boulders into the soil. (LCS: 64283, 64266)

Buffalo Springs (Site 14) Site Good to Poor Contributing/c. 1933

This site was highly engineered to contain and provide access to one of the park's major springs formerly located in a low, swampy area. The spring enclosure is the focal point and takes the form of a circular exedra 25 feet in diameter; it is made of stone masonry and supported on wood piles. Flagstone paving and a low stone

wall with an integrated seat wall surround a centrally located pool in which the spring bubbles. Water is channeled out of the pool through a stone causeway to a designed stream, where it cascades over a series of three dams, each about twelve feet wide and four feet tall and spaced thirty feet apart. The surrounding topography was graded and the dams were designed to control the scouring of the stream channel and heighten the sound of flowing water. The setting of the spring enclosure includes stream crossings and a flagstone approach; ornamental (but native) plantings of trees and shrubs also graced the area, but blend into the naturalized forest surrounding the site today. The spring enclosure represents some of the earliest stone masonry work by CCC Camp 808 (NP-1). Sharply contrasting to the naturalistic treatment of the Antelope Springs outflow, the Buffalo Springs enclosure is a highly unusual and distinctive example of formal landscape design applied to 1930s national park development. The design is attributed to landscape foreman E. Walkowiak, who also supervised the CCC work here. (LCS: 62910, 62911, 62917, 426382, 426385, 482698) (Photographs 18 & 36)

Buffalo Springs Comfort Station (CB-24) Building Good Contributing/1939
This comfort station resembles six other comfort stations in the park. It is a one-story, Rustic-style rectangular stone building, approximately thirty-two by twenty-two feet and is constructed of large limestone boulders varying in size and shape. The stone walls are battered at their bases, merging the building with the surrounding landscape; low stone walls also extend from opposite ends of the building to wrap around the entrances, thereby providing shelter and privacy. The gabled (modified from original hip-on-gable), wood-shingled roof is supported by exposed, rough-sawn wood timbers and rafters. Windows are grouped to form horizontal bands beneath the roof overhangs. An associated brick and mortar sewer manhole is located west of the building. (LCS: 62909, 482700)

Buffalo Springs Fire-pits (CS-42) Structure Poor Contributing/c. 1933
These six U-shaped fire-pits are constructed of irregular limestone boulders embedded in the earth; each has two holes drilled in each arm of the U to support a missing grate. They are located south of Buffalo Springs Trail #9, about 200 feet east of the comfort station and resemble those still evident at Walnut Grove and Antelope Springs. (LCS: 64277)

Buffalo Springs Arched Bridge (CS-43) Structure Good Contributing/c. 1933
This elegant bridge, located on Trail #9, is horizontally curved and is 35 feet long, 10 feet tall, and is formed over a six foot diameter corrugated steel culvert bolted to a concrete base. Its eighteen-inch-thick limestone veneer is coursed, ashlar limestone masonry, and its round-arched opening is characterized by large, regular-face voussoirs and a keystone. Designed by E. Walkowiak, 9-4-34, ETIC- 107-3024A (Figure 18). (LCS: 62913) (Photograph 17)

Buffalo Springs Trail #9 (CS-44) Structure Good Contributing/1933-40
This trail forms a series of interlocking loops around Buffalo Springs and provides picturesque views of the waterfalls and pools that connect the headwaters with Travertine Creek. The trail was laid out by the CCC in conjunction with stream bank stabilization efforts. CCC-era design and workmanship are visible in the tightly meandering trail, its many stream crossings, and features such as an arched bridge, stepping-stones, stone bridge abutments, and stone-faced culverts. (LCS: 62998, 256310, 64280, 254301, 491666)

Antelope Springs Trail #4 (CS-45) Structure Good Contributing/1933-40
This trail begins on Perimeter Road east of the Nature Center and continues southeast through the Antelope and Buffalo Springs area to meet the Buffalo Springs Trail (#9). Trail contains steps, culverts, stone crossings, large boulder benches, and riprap embankment as it travels past dams and pools that connect the springs with Travertine Creek. (LCS: 62993, 482699, 425687, 507822, 64132)

Travertine Nature Center (NCB-17) Building Good Noncontributing/1969
Inspired by the work of Frank Lloyd Wright, this building was built under the NPS program Mission 66. The building was designed by McKee and Kamrath of Houston and is a large, L-shaped stone building located with a cantilever overhanging Travertine Creek. It is characterized by gently sloping roofs and strong horizontal forms with a wide overhanging roof. An entry terrace and bridge connect the building to the nearby Antelope Springs Trail. The park's interpretive programs are housed here. Although the building does not contribute to the CCC-era landscape recognized by the NHL nomination, it merits future evaluation within the context of NPS Mission 66/Parkscape design. (Not listed in LCS)

Travertine Nature Center Parking Area (NCS-10)
Structure Good Noncontributing/1969
This large, double-tiered parking lot is located off the eastern terminus of Perimeter Road, adjacent to the Little Niagara/Travertine Island parking areas. The lot was designed with stone curbing, integrated native plantings to provide shade, a one-way circulation pattern, and has a drop-off loop at its easternmost end. This parking area was constructed to accommodate visitors to the nature center and study area and reflects the alterations made to Perimeter Road in the late 1960s. (Not listed in LCS.)

Prairie Loop Trail #14 (NCS-11) Structure Fair Noncontributing/1969
This interpretive loop trail was built as part of the development of the Nature Center and associated with the Mission 66-era designation of the Antelope and Buffalo Springs as an Environmental Study Area (ESA). Postdates period of significance. (LCS: 64276)

Tall Oaks Trail #15 (NCS-12) Structure Good Noncontributing/1969
This interpretive trail was built as part of the development of the Nature Center and is associated with the Mission 66-era designation of the Antelope and Buffalo Springs as an Environmental Study Area (ESA). Postdates period of significance. (LCS: 64265)

Dry Creek Trail #16 (NCS-13) Structure Good Noncontributing/1969
This interpretive trail was built as part of the development of the Nature Center and associated with the Mission 66-era designation of the Antelope and Buffalo Springs as an Environmental Study Area (ESA). Postdates period of significance. (Not listed in LCS)

Adjoining Properties Not Included in the District

Beyond the Platt National Park Historic District's northern boundary lies the Historic Downtown Sulphur Commercial District. Flower Park has historically served as the park's principal entrance and continues to form a transitional space between the city's grid and the natural park. Residential streets and city parkland border the other park entrances at Vendome and Bromide Springs. Sections of the city also abut the southern boundary of the park and reflect the initial platting of the town before 1902 when the park was acquired by the federal government. The close proximity of town and park, particularly on the park's north side, has historically allowed city residents easy access to the park and its recreation areas; this close relationship continues today.

Outside the southeastern boundary of the Platt National Park Historic District is the state-managed Veterans Hospital, a facility established in 1922. Outside the southwestern boundary lies Veterans Lake, a sixty-seven-acre impoundment within a 343.74-acre landscape park created by the Works Progress Administration in 1938. The city of Sulphur owned this property until 1983, when it was deeded to the National Park Service in exchange for a 5.6 acre tract of land along Rock Creek north of Broadway/State Highway 7. The lake and its surrounding landscape preserve much of the distant views from the summit of Bromide Hill and is now part of the Chickasaw National Recreation Area; this area, however, is not included in the NHL boundaries because it

was not included in the 1933-1940 national park boundaries or the New Deal-era master plans. The 5.6 acre tract along Rock Creek is not included in the boundaries because it lies outside the current park boundaries and is no longer managed by the National Park Service.

Rock Creek Campground, which occupies the extreme western portion of the present-day Platt District, is not included in the NHL boundary because it was acquired and developed after the period of significance. Although this expansion was authorized by Congress in 1940, the land was not acquired and plans begun for its development until 1942. Construction began in 1950, and the campground opened a year later. Additional campsites and associated features were constructed under Mission 66/Parkscape between 1967 and 1969.

8. STATEMENT OF SIGNIFICANCE

Certifying official has considered the significance of this property in relation to other properties:
Nationally: X Statewide: __ Locally:

Applicable National Register Criteria:	A X B __ C X D
Criteria Considerations (Exceptions):	A __ B __ C __ D __ E __ F __ G __
NHL Criteria:	1, 4
NHL Theme(s):	III. Expressing Cultural Values 5. Architecture, Landscape Architecture, and Urban Design VII. Transforming the Environment 3. Protecting/Preserving the Environment
Area(s) of Significance:	Landscape Architecture, Architecture, Conservation, Politics/Government
Period(s) of Significance:	1933-1940
Significant Dates:	May 16, 1933; June 29, 1940
Significant Person(s):	N/A
Cultural Affiliation:	N/A
Architect/Builder:	National Park Service: Richey, Charles A. (NPS landscape architect) Miller, Jerome C. (NPS landscape architect) Branch, William (NPS superintendent, planner) Walkowiak, Edmund (landscape architect/foreman) Cornell, Harvey (NPS landscape architect)
Historic Contexts:	Architecture in the Parks/Landscape Architecture in National and State Parks, 1917 to 1942 XVI. Architecture Y. Rustic XVII. Landscape Architecture XVI. Architecture W. Regional and Urban Planning 3. Parks

State Significance of Property, and Justify Criteria, Criteria Considerations, and Areas and Periods of Significance Noted Above.

Summary

The 848-acre landscape that comprised the boundaries of Platt National Park in 1940 is nationally significant for its tangible representation of the federal policies in conservation, outdoor recreation, and national resource planning central to the Federal Government's response to the Great Depression under President Franklin D. Roosevelt and became known as the New Deal. The Platt National Park Historic District meets National Historic Landmark Criterion 1 for its highly illustrative association with the Civilian Conservation Corps (CCC), one of the most widespread and popular economic relief programs of the New Deal. At Platt National Park from 1933 to 1940 enrollees from CCC Camp 808 engaged in one of the most carefully orchestrated programs of conservation work in the national park system. The Platt National Park Historic District also meets National Historic Landmark Criterion 4 for its outstanding representation of the design principles and practices of landscape design that were formulated by NPS designers in the early twentieth century and, in the 1930s, became the hallmark of CCC work in national, state, and local parks.

The Platt National Park Historic District provides an outstanding case study of the way the CCC program was implemented by one agency, the National Park Service, and illustrates the logistics, policies, and, most importantly, the results of this collaborative program, which led to the expansion of the National Park System and unprecedented development of the national and state parks during the 1930s. It further demonstrates the essential role that the landscape architecture profession played during the New Deal in enabling the National Park Service to fulfill its dual mandate to provide for the enjoyment and use by the general public while preserving the outstanding features of the national parks unimpaired for future generations. Carried out under the supervision of NPS designers and guided by annually updated master plans, the CCC work at Platt redesigned the park, which had been established by U.S. Congress in 1902, into a highly scenic and popular recreational oasis—a distinction it upholds today. Now a key component of the Chickasaw National Recreation Area, the Platt National Park Historic District is one of the most unified and intact representations of the extensive landscape conservation work of the CCC on national park land. The historic district's period of significance extends from the arrival of the CCC in the park in 1933 to the cessation of CCC activities in the park in 1940.

First authorized as a temporary relief measure called Emergency Conservation Work in March 1933, the program was periodically reauthorized throughout the 1930s. Sometimes known as FDR's "Tree Army," the CCC consisted of thousands of young men working for various government agencies to conserve the nation's natural resources and develop recreational facilities. Envisioned as an interagency effort from the beginning, the CCC became involved in a wide array of conservation projects across the United States and its territories from planting a shelterbelt across the Northern Plains to fighting fires in national forests.

Through the NPS program, hundreds of local, state, and national parks were planned and improved with the labor provided by the CCC. For this reason, the collaboration of the NPS and CCC from 1933 to 1942 marks a high point in the history of the American park movement and signaled the emergence of outdoor recreation and park planning as national priorities. The result of the combined efforts of the CCC and NPS at Platt National Park was the transformation of a national park recognized for its popular but over-used and eroding collection of mineral springs into a highly scenic and enduring recreational park that continues to provide opportunities for motoring, swimming, fishing, hiking, picnicking, overnight camping, as well as the enjoyment of natural springs, streams, and forests.

The Platt National Park Historic District meets National Historic Landmark Criterion 4 for its outstanding illustration of the landscape design principles, master planning process, and artistic workmanship that National

Park Service (NPS) designers formulated in the late 1920s and refined during the New Deal through the supervision of Civilian Conservation Corps (CCC) projects in national, state, and local parks. These principles and practices grew out of a Statement of Policy in 1918 that all improvements in the national parks be carried out according to "a preconceived plan developed with special reference to the preservation of the landscape," and that particular attention be given to the "harmonizing of these improvements with the landscape." In 1932 a revised statement of policy reinforced this design mandate calling upon administrators to retain areas "in their natural condition, sparing them the vandalism of improvement" and stipulating that roads, buildings, and other structures "should intrude upon the landscape or conflict with it only to the absolute minimum."

By 1932, a program of master planning was in place under the supervision of Chief Landscape Architect Thomas C. Vint, and a process of design had been initiated which offered professional oversight by a team of landscape architects having expertise in road and trail design, Rustic architectural design, campground development, and techniques of landscape naturalization. The arrival of the CCC at Platt in May 1933 provided the manpower and the talents to carry out and refine the master plan. What followed was an extensive and unifying program of reforestation and landscape conservation to reverse serious problems of stream erosion; upgrade visitor facilities, especially near the mineral springs; and enhance the park's overall scenic character. Concerted effort was extended with the intention of bringing Platt closer to the standards and quality expected of a national park. The result was the transformation of a well-worn and eroded landscape into a highly scenic and tranquil oasis—one focused on the stabilization, naturalization, and recreational enhancement of the park's highly prized springs and streams.

Platt's landscape features—stone bridges and culverts, a meandering loop road, scenic vistas, rustic buildings constructed of native limestone, terraces and spring enclosures, and plantings of cedars and wildflowers—together significantly comprise a cohesive and seemingly natural environment, designed around a central theme of water in its various elemental forms. The Platt Historic District is particularly distinctive for the way in which it reflects the treatment of naturally flowing water in a well-ordered sequence and protects the park's mineral waters and springs while making them accessible for public enjoyment. Stylistically, the park's new design reflected twentieth-century ideas about the replication and emulation of nature as a basis for landscape design. Defined in 1917 as the Modern American style or Natural style by landscape educators Henry V. Hubbard and Frank A. Waugh, these methods called for a close study of nature, an appreciation of regional character, and a compelling desire to emulate and even enhance the beauty of the native landscape. A broadening interest in wild gardening and a preference for native rather than exotic plant species accompanied this practice, making it suitable for national park work. Today the park showcases an outstanding collection of naturalistic landscape features—particularly sturdy scenic roads and trails, water features associated with the springs and streams, finely crafted indigenous stone constructions, and plantings of native trees and shrubs.

The CCC design of Platt National Park transformed an eroded resort landscape into a unified scenic and recreational environment that was able to accommodate the increasing number of visitors who were arriving in the park in automobiles. The park's scenic and recreational attributes have endured, and today visitors continue to experience and appreciate the springs, streams, waterfalls, swimming holes, picnic areas, and camp grounds. Platt's design therefore derives significance from its outstanding artistic design in naturalistic landscape architecture and an exceptionally high level of integrity, maintained over more than 70 years because of a strong tradition of stewardship and lack of development pressure, both of which protected the CCC-era landscape from revision and destruction.

The Platt National Park Historic District is nationally significant under the NHL Themes and Subthemes, "Transforming the Environment: Protecting/Preserving the Environment" and "Expressing Cultural Values: Architecture, Landscape Architecture, and Urban Design." Platt National Park Historic District is significant for its text-book application of these principles of twentieth-century naturalistic landscape design, the results of

which are today still evident and tangible in the park's carefully graded perimeter road that blends seamlessly with surrounding prairie and forest; an extensive system of more than six miles of serpentine trails; the plantings of native trees and shrubs that embellish rustic spring enclosures and punctuate the park's forests and prairies; and a chain of park's waterfalls and swimming holes that invite visitors to personally experience the park's waters. According to landscape historian Ethan Carr, who developed the NHL theme study for Landscape Architecture in National and State Parks, 1917 to 1942, Platt's "landscape structures and site work are elaborate, of very high quality …Its small-scale design, in particular, is unmatched in the park service in its creation of an intimate human experience with nature."[9]

The district, furthermore, meets the registration requirements for national significance set forth in the "Historic Park Landscapes in National and States Parks Multiple Property Submission (MPS)," which was accepted by the National Register of Historic Places in 1997. As described in the MPS, the tenets of NPS naturalistic landscape design included:

- Protection and preservation of natural scenery and features;
- Prohibition of exotic plants and wildlife;
- Presentation of scenic vistas through the location of park facilities and development of overlooks;
- Avoidance of right angles and straight lines in the design of roads, trails, and structures;
- Use of native materials for construction and planting;
- Use of naturalistic techniques in planting, rockwork, and logwork to harmonize manmade development with natural surroundings;
- Adaptation of indigenous or frontier methods of construction;
- Transplanting and planting of native trees, shrubs and groundcovers to erase the scars of construction and earlier land uses.[10]

Creation of Sulphur Springs Reservation

Platt National Park, established in 1902, was the country's seventh national park and was initially known as Sulphur Springs Reservation. By the mid 1800s, following the Indian Removal Act (1830), the future park lands had become part of the Chickasaw and Choctaw Nations in Indian Territory. Following the Civil War, a frontier settlement developed around an area known as "Seven Springs" located on the banks of Sulphur (now Travertine) and Rock Creeks. These springs—and others nearby—were well-known for their medicinal qualities, since the sulfur and bromide minerals they contained purportedly cured skin and gastrointestinal ailments. By 1896 the town of Sulphur Springs was incorporated and platted on the banks of the creeks. The town soon boomed as tourists came in large numbers to drink the spring waters and bathe in the creeks, and buildings and bathhouses quickly filled the town plat. Among them was a two-story building with a top-floor dance hall hovering over the "Seven Springs," which were soon renamed Pavilion Springs after this distinctive structure.

Unfortunately, the town's rapid growth left the medicinal springs along Sulphur and Rock Creeks vulnerable to overdevelopment, commercialization and especially to pollution, given the town's lack of sanitary facilities. Although Secretary of the Interior Ethan Allen Hitchcock visited the area in 1897 and recommended that the

[9] Ethan Carr, Telephone interview with Heidi Hohmann, March 28, 2008. Carr conducted the initial study of NHL's under the context, Landscape Architecture in National and State Parks, 1917 to 1942, and is the author of *Wilderness by Design.* The following NPS park landscapes have already been designated NHLs under this context: Mount Rainier (development areas, park roads and trails), Going-to-the-Sun Highway, Grand Canyon Village, and Skyline Drive Historic District.

[10] Linda Flint McClelland, "Historic Park Landscapes in National and State Parks Multiple Property Submission" (Washington, DC: National Register of Historic Places, 1997). The property type analysis, including registration requirements, for this study was also published in McClelland, *Building the National Parks*, 487-512, and McClelland, *Presenting Nature*, 271-76.

springs be protected, it was not until 1901 that Orville Platt, a senator from Connecticut and member of the Senate's Indian Affairs Committee, advanced the idea of making the area a federal reservation, after learning of Choctaw and Chickasaw tribal interests in preserving the springs.

Under the auspices of the Dawes Commission, Indian inspectors negotiated with the tribal governments, and eventually the tribes ceded an area of about 600 acres to the U.S. government at a price of twenty dollars per acre. The agreement creating Sulphur Springs Reservation was ratified by the U.S. Congress on July 1, 1902. The act ordered the appropriation of lands to preserve and protect the area's springs, creeks and surrounds, and also required that the town of Sulphur Springs be dismantled and relocated outside the proposed reservation boundaries. In 1904, concerned about additional encroachment and pollution of the springs, the government bought approximately 200 additional acres from the tribes, bringing the reservation's total lands to 848.22 acres.[11]

Early Development of Platt National Park (1902-1933)

Sulphur Springs Reservation officially opened to the public on April 29, 1904. Its initial development was slow because of the unusual task of removing layers of development from the landscape, so that the springs and creeks could return to their natural states as described in the reservation's legislation. More than 800 buildings were condemned and removed from the original town site, many then laboriously hauled by entrepreneurs to the new town.[12]

In 1906, the reservation was renamed Platt National Park, in honor of Senator Platt. By this time the park, managed by the Department of the Interior's Indian Office, was receiving steady Congressional appropriations for development. Perhaps most important were spring and creek improvements for better access to the "healing waters." Concrete tiles and cisterns concentrated the flow of weaker springs and created collection points for dippers and jugs. Roofed spring houses were built to shade visitors, and included a 1907 wood-frame pavilion and cylindrical concrete cistern at Bromide Springs and wooden pavilions at Pavilion Springs in 1911, Hillside Spring in 1915, and Black Sulphur Springs at about the same time. In 1912, park sewage lines were installed with federal funds in cooperation with the city of Sulphur Springs, discharging downstream of the park, to try to further reduce contamination of the park's thirty-three surveyed, flowing springs. In 1917 a five-foot-tall concrete dam (now known as Panther Falls) was built across Travertine Creek at Sylvan Cove to create a swimming hole. The increasing number of visitors to Platt—36,000 in 1913—inspired development for better visitor and vehicular access. An expanded campground was built near Cold Springs, accompanying two other campgrounds. In 1914, the road along Travertine Creek reaching from park headquarters to Cold Springs was improved and extended to Buffalo and Antelope Springs. Other roads and a growing network of trails connected the park's resources, and included the construction of a wire suspension bridge over Rock Creek in1909 and, the same year, a stone arch bridge across Travertine Creek (today called Lincoln Bridge).[13]

During the first decade and a half, the park's development was somewhat haphazard. Improvements were initiated by the superintendent and park staff rather than design professionals—primarily because there was, according to National Park Service (NPS) historian Barry Macintosh, "little coordinated supervision or policy guidance" in national parks until after the official creation of the National Park Service in 1916.[14] A somewhat

[11] JacileeWray and Alexa Roberts, *An Ethnohistory of the Relationship between the Community of Sulphur, Oklahoma, and Chickasaw National Recreation Area* (Santa Fe: National Park Service Intermountain Support Office, 2004), 48. Chapters 1 and 2 present a detailed account of the complex relationships and negotiations that led to the reservation's designation.

[12] Heidi Hohmann and Katarzyna Grala, *Cultural Landscape Report for the Platt District* (Sulphur, Oklahoma: National Park Service, 2004), 18-20.

[13] Boeger 1987, 89; Wray and Roberts, *An Ethnohistory*, 187.

[14] Barry Mackintosh, *The National Parks: Shaping the System* (Washington, DC: United States Department of the Interior, 1991),

eclectic set of landscape features was the result, especially at Bromide Springs and Central Park, areas which abutted Sulphur Springs' two commercial centers. Reflecting simplified ideas of nineteenth-century urban park design, these areas became grassy swards dotted with trees. Flower beds were added and planted by the Civic League of Sulphur beginning in 1909. Eventually, the town sponsored forty flower beds of various decorative shapes and sizes, a tradition which lasted into the 1930s and led to the area being renamed Flower Park. Other typical park features included wood-frame comfort stations and park benches.

Perhaps in response to its potential as a popular "resort" rather than a scenic national park, or perhaps in response to increasing numbers of visitors (173,318 visitors in 1920), improvements during the park's early years included a number of attractions that were later found unsuitable for a national park and recommended for removal in the master plans of the 1930s. For example, between 1917 and 1925, the park maintained a collection of animals—not quite a zoo—which at various times included deer, elk, bison, ostriches, and a bald eagle. Between 1917 and 1923 local businessmen proposed and helped finance the construction of tennis courts and a golf course, facilities viewed as "healthful aids to the curative properties of the waters of the park." Similar commercial development adjacent to the park may have spurred Platt's administrators to add such recreational facilities in a spirit of competition. For example, the Vendome Plunge (1922), which abutted Flower Park, was an artesian swimming pool and dance hall that attracted thousands of visitors every summer.[15]

However, flower beds, zoos, tennis courts, and golf courses did not exactly meet the emerging expectations that resulted from the National Park Service Act of 1916. As the National Park Service's first director Stephen T. Mather and his assistant Horace M. Albright set out to coordinate and guide the new bureau, they issued a landmark Statement of Policy, which defined the principles and objectives for park stewardship in 1918. Foremost among these principles was the direction that any new parks have "scenery of supreme and distinctive quality or some natural feature so extraordinary or unique to be of national interest and importance." In addition, the policy advocated maintaining "in standard, dignity, and prestige" the "national park system as now constituted." By the mid to late 1920s, the agency's emphasis on park quality produced a movement to rid the system of what Albright called "sub-standard national parks." Platt, along with Wind Cave in South Dakota and Sully's Hill in North Dakota, was one of the parks targeted.[16]

Strong opposition came from John William Elmer Thomas, an Oklahoma Congressman (1923-27) and Senator (1927-1951), who protected Platt from removal threats eight times between 1910 and 1940. Despite its lack of grand scenery, Platt gained support not only because of local advocates like Thomas, but also because of its popularity and consistently high number of visitors. In 1914, for instance, Platt had more visitors than Yellowstone, and throughout the 1920s, Platt averaged over 300,000 visitors annually, with approximately 50,000 of these camping in the park.[17]

But a new perspective on the meaning of national park caliber was emerging. "The National Parks are but at the threshold of their usefulness," wrote Herbert Maier, one of the four district officers for the CCC State Park program, to Platt's Superintendent in 1933 in contemplation of an enlarged park area that would include Platt

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[15] Wray and Roberts, *An Ethnohistory*, 187; Hohmann and Grala, *Cultural Landscape Report*, 43-44, 38, 51.

[16] Albright related in his own biography that "Platt was a travesty – a tiny mineral springs in southern Oklahoma, well below national park standards, and we had been trying to get rid of it for years." Horace M. Albright, as told to Robert Cahn, *The Birth of the National Park Service* (Salt Lake City: Howe Brothers, 1985), 223. For more on Albright's assessment of Platt, and on attempts to remove Platt from the National Park System, see also Wray and Roberts, "In Praise of Platt—What is a 'Real' National Park?" *The George Wright Society Forum* 15, no. 1 (1997).

[17] Albright, *Birth of the National Park Service*, 69-73; McClelland, *Building the National Parks*, 134; Wray and Roberts, *An Ethnohistory*, 50-51, 187-89.

and nearby Turners Falls Park, where both CCC and FERA programs were operating, and a sixteen mile strip of land (known as the Arbuckle Trail) connecting the two. Maier continued:

> I am wondering if the next few years will not see a change in view point, or rather value, placed on our national recreational areas so that the use to which a national park is put and the number of visitors it may serve will be a principal criterion in judging its caliber. Possibly not—but we are facing some gigantic national planning problems that bid fair to involve the social and recreational aspects of our people as a whole....While there has always been a rather definite opinion as to the very high scenic standards requisite in an area before it may aspire to National Park status there has, nevertheless been a school of thought which has regarded the matter of scenic standards as relative—not to the superlative examples of a continent, but rather as an area may stand out and above its surrounding territory and adjoining states. This is a point of view which appears more reasonable if we consider the extent to which a proposed area may be utilized for the benefit and enjoyment of the people in their hours and days of recreation.[18]

With the renewal of support for the park, it would fall to the growing staff of NPS design professionals to turn the park into a landscape worthy of the system, a process which began in the late 1920s. By 1929, all parks were required to have a general development outline in keeping with the 1918 Statement of Policy which decreed that planning should precede any park construction. The development outline, later called a master plan, was a comprehensive depiction, in text and graphics, of a park's existing and proposed utilities, buildings, and roadways. Updated annually, park master plans were coordinated by the landscape architects of NPS's Landscape Division in the San Francisco field office. Platt's first master plan was developed in 1932 by Superintendent William E. Branch in consultation with landscape architect Herbert Kreinkamp and junior landscape architect William G. Carnes. This first master plan focused on upgrading existing utilities and infrastructure, building comfort stations, trail building, replacing pavilions at the springs, and reforesting the park. Though not an ambitious design, the master plan set the stage for the park's future redevelopment. Like other parks with a plan ready and waiting, Platt would be able to take swift advantage of the funds and labor of Franklin Delano Roosevelt's New Deal.

The New Deal and the Civilian Conservation Corps

Following the stock market crash of 1929, the United States was plunged into the Great Depression, and by 1933, unemployment in the civilian workforce exceeded 25 percent. At his inauguration in March 1933, President Franklin D. Roosevelt declared: "Our greatest primary task is to put people to work….It can be accomplished … by … treating the task as we would treat the emergency of a war, but at the same time, through this employment, accomplishing great—greatly needed projects to stimulate and reorganize the use of our great natural resources."[19] Thus began the New Deal, FDR's massive plan to rebuild the federal government, reestablish its relationship to business, state and local governments, and at the same time, promote conservation. The President, his advisors, and Congressional leaders promptly defined a variety of programs to employ men and stimulate the economy via massive spending on public works. The Public Works Administration (PWA), headed by new Interior Secretary Harold L. Ickes, would plan and fund large-scale civil improvements from schoolhouses and hospitals to bridges and dams nationwide. The Federal Emergency Relief Administration (FERA), headed by advisor Harry L. Hopkins, funded small-scale civic projects that immediately infused cash into a destitute population. And with greatest rapidity, FDR constituted a committee of the Secretaries of War,

[18] Letter, Herbert Maier from Turner Falls Park, to Supt. Branch, Platt National Park, 9 July 1933, National Archives, Record Group 79, Washington, D.C.

[19] Roosevelt, Franklin Delano. First Inaugural Address, delivered 4 March 1933. http://www.americanrhetoric.com/speeches/fdrfirstinaugural.html (accessed January 7, 2008).

Labor, Agriculture and the Interior "to coordinate the plans for the proposed Civilian Conservation Corps," which would be used to implement "simple work" such as forestry, erosion and insect control, fire suppression and trail construction. The Civilian Conservation Corps (CCC), to be headed by Robert Fechner, was authorized by the Emergency Conservation Act of March 31 and executive order on April 5, becoming the first of the New Deal's "alphabet soup" programs.[20]

President Roosevelt envisioned the CCC as a veritable army of young men fanned out across the country conserving neglected natural resources.[21] Implementation of the national program relied upon interagency cooperation. The Labor Department recruited young men for the program, an overwhelming job given FDR's initial goal of enrolling 250,000 single men ages 18 to 25 in the CCC by July 1, 1933. The War Department took charge of commanding, feeding, clothing, housing, transporting and paying the CCC enrollees, who were grouped into companies of about 200 men. The Agriculture Department and the Interior Department designed and organized the conservation activities, most of which were to occur on state and federal lands.

Although the Agriculture Department's Forest Service would ultimately direct 75 percent of the nation's CCC camps, the Interior Department supervised numerous camps, including some assigned to the Bureau of Reclamation and Division of Grazing. However, the National Park Service was the major participant in and beneficiary of the Interior Department's ECW program: of the 1,477 CCC camps established nationwide by early summer of 1933, Interior supervised 245; of those, the NPS directed 70 in national parks and 102 in state and local parks. By the end of the CCC program almost ten years later, "a total of 2 million enrollees had performed work in 198 CCC camps in ninety-four national park and monument areas, and 697 camps in 881 state, county and municipal areas."[22]

The NPS quickly reorganized to handle its sudden, nationwide list of New Deal assignments. Secretary Ickes assigned NPS Director Horace Albright to be the Interior's representative on the CCC's governing committee. Due to the corps's focus on conservation, Albright assigned NPS Chief Forester John Coffman to direct the overall operation of the Park Service's CCC program under the supervision of Associate Director A.B. Cammerer.

The National Park ECW program utilized the existing NPS administrative structure. In 1927, Director Mather had established a centralized field headquarters in San Francisco to advise superintendents on park development and management. This office was divided into specialty areas of civil engineering, sanitation, landscape architecture, forestry, and education. Coffman headed the Forestry Division, Frank Kittredge headed the Engineering Division, and Thomas Vint headed the Landscape Division. The organization offered numerous opportunities for collaboration among the technical specialists.

Organized in the form of a professional design office, Vint's Division was responsible for developing master plans and guiding design and construction in the national parks—functions that would greatly expand under the New Deal programs. The office in 1929 consisted of six resident landscape architects, each assigned to a set of national parks. By 1933, Vint's staff had grown to fifteen to handle the surge of ECW-related design work. The resident landscape architect assigned to Platt in 1933 was Charles A. Richey. In national parks, the ECW program essentially accelerated the implementation of projects in park master plans. Superintendents administered these projects, but plans were first reviewed and approved by the San Francisco office specialists,

[20] John A. Salmond, *The Civilian Conservation Corps, 1933-1942: A New Deal Case Study* (Durham: Duke University Press, 1967), 11-12; John C. Paige, *The Civilian Conservation Corps and the National Park Service: An Administrative History* (Washington, D.C.: National Park Service, 1985) 2, 8-13.

[21] ECW was the name of the program until June 28, 1937 when the program was reauthorized for another three years and officially renamed the Civilian Conservation Corps according to Salmond, *Civilian Conservation Corps*, 24.

[22] Salmond, *Civilian Conservation Corps*, 121-27.

especially the Forestry Division and the Landscape Division, which in 1934 was renamed the Branch of Plans and Design. By the mid-1930s there was a clear differentiation in the structure of the field offices, with greatly enlarged and separate staffs of architects, landscape architects, and engineers. The number of designers under Vint's leadership greatly increased in coming years in response to the increasing work load due to Public Works Administration allocations for road and trail projects and park buildings and the availability of the newly-formed Civilian Conservation Corps for a wide range of conservation projects and minor building projects.[23]

The NPS was also responsible for developing a state park ECW program aimed at building and improving state and local parks. Also administered by the NPS, the state park program followed a separate track (at least until the consolidation with the NPS program in 1936) and was headed by Assistant Director Conrad Wirth. Oversight for CCC work was provided by four district offices: San Francisco (West Coast District 4); Denver (Rocky Mountain District 3); Indianapolis (Midwest District 2); and Washington, D.C. (East Coast District 1). Each district officer supervised a staff of state park inspectors—many of whom were landscape architects—who visited the CCC camps in state parks, providing technical expertise and design assistance. In each park a landscape architect was assigned to each CCC camp to provide onsite supervision, and for a short time, each state had a centralized technical team consisting of both NPS and state personnel.

Although separate in organization, the state and national park ECW programs became interrelated as state park inspectors communicated with national park staff and as the San Francisco office exchanged technical information with the state park designers and officials. The work carried out by the two programs was so similar that by 1936, planning and design work for ECW projects in national parks was regionalized and consolidated within the state park ECW program.[24] Nowhere was the linkage between the two programs as evident as in the south central states, where the need for public parks and the support for the CCC were particularly strong. In *Nature's New Deal* environmental historian Neil M. Maher observed that a large percentage of the 800 new state parks created by the CCC, and much of the expansion of existing state parks in the 1930s occurred in the Southern United States. "Rural southerners," Maher claimed, "kept supporting the New Deal in overwhelming numbers during the 1930s partly because they understood only too well that such work by the Corps increased the potential for outdoor tourism, and with it a boost to the local economy in and around this new recreational landscape."[25]

Not only did the CCC foster the development of new state park systems in Virginia and Tennessee near the new Shenandoah and Great Smoky Mountains national parks but it also facilitated the creation of a state park system in Oklahoma and the expansion of the state park system in Texas. In fact, the relocation of the state park ECW District Office from Denver to Oklahoma City in Spring 1934 reflects in part the concentration of state park Emergency Conservation Work in the central southern states of Arkansas, Texas, and Oklahoma. Considered a western national park, Platt was geographically isolated from the other national parks and monuments of the West; it was, however, central to the flurry of state and local park activity occurring nearby in Oklahoma City (Lincoln Park), in the towns of Ada (Wintersmith Park) and Davis (Turner Falls Park), and at the Lake Murray Recreational Demonstration Area.[26] Early correspondence and field reports indicate that such collaboration was

[23] McClelland, *Building the National Parks*, 197-200, 329-330. In 1934, the Landscape Division was reorganized and renamed, though its functions remained the same: Vint moved to Washington, D.C., to head the Branch of Plans and Design, which was divided into Western and Eastern Divisions, located in San Francisco and Yorktown, Virginia, and headed by William G. Carnes and Charles Peterson, respectively. The other divisions of the San Francisco office were similarly renamed and reorganized into the Branch of Forestry (headed by John Coffman) and Branch of Engineering (headed by Frank Kittredge).

[24] Paige, *Administrative History*, 40-50, 132.

[25] Neil M. Maher, *Nature's New Deal: The Civilian Conservation Service and the Roots of the Environmental Movement.* (New York: Oxford University Press, 2008), 74. In EN 105, 252, Maher credits this insight to Sarah Phillips, "Acres Fit and Unfit: Conservation and Rural Rehabilitation in the New Deal Era" (Ph.D. diss., Boston University, 200der the 4).

[26] Several dozen recreational demonstration areas were established under FERA (Federal Emergency Relief Act); these were

particularly strong between the designers working at Platt and those working for CCC District Officer Herbert Maier, a seasoned park architect, whose staff included a number of highly experienced landscape architects, including Philip Elwood Jr., Frank H. Culley, Harvey Cornell, and George Nason.

According to Neil Maher, the distinction between park conservation and outdoor recreation became blurred by the second half of the 1930s, evoking concern among many conservationists for the overdevelopment of national parks. He offered the following explanation:

> While the landscapes created through the CCC conservation work had a deep past [in Progressive Era reforms], they also immediately began influencing the present politics of both conservation and the New Deal....CCC projects throughout the country's parks raised the issue of outdoor recreation and its proper place within the conservation movement. Rather than separating recreation from the conservation of natural resources...Corps work projects continued to weave Olmsted's philosophy with the ideas of Gifford Pinchot, just as Roosevelt had done when he created the CCC during the spring of 1933. The result was something new and represented the broadening of conservationist thought to include not just trees, but soil and parks as well.[27]

The CCC at Platt National Park, 1933-1940

The first NPS CCC camps—all in the East, close to Washington, where the CCC was being organized—were authorized on April 12, 1933. A camp for Platt National Park was authorized shortly thereafter on April 20, and became one of the sixty-three NPS camps authorized by mid-May. Its development was typical of other CCC camps. By May 16 the first 50 enrollees arrived by train from Fort Sill, where they formed the cadre of Company 808, the first CCC unit in Oklahoma and the only national park project in the state.[28] One week later Company 808 stood at 169 enrollees, all from nearby addresses in Oklahoma, a fact which contributed to their rapid acceptance by the Sulphur community. As at all camps, the Platt enrollees signed up for a six-month enrollment period which could be extended to a year if they desired. Platt's camp operated for fifteen consecutive, six-month enrollment periods, closing on June 29, 1940.

In preparation for the arrival of CCC recruits, Platt's Superintendent Branch by the tenth of May had hired 25 "local experienced men," from the Sulphur area. LEMs, as they were called, were local skilled workers—carpenters, stonemasons, blacksmiths, electricians, and plumbers—from areas surrounding CCC camps, and for whom age and marriage restrictions were waived. LEMs were, retrospectively, essential to the success of the NPS CCC program as they "provided vital guidance and training while laboring with the recruits," most of whom were relatively uneducated urban youth with few skills in construction or conservation.[29] LEMs also and importantly brought their understanding of local conditions—including climate, vegetation, construction materials and building techniques—to each CCC project. At Platt, Superintendent Branch chose W.L. Scott, Sr., and W.L. Scott, Jr., men who owned a local contracting business, as the camp superintendents in charge of work, personnel, and purchasing. Other LEMs included Ernest Barry, a supervising mechanic, and James Byars, a blacksmith.

submarginal lands redesigned by the CCC and NPS to serve as model recreational parks and they were intended to be transferred to state park systems. See McClelland, *Building the National Parks*, 414-20.

[27] Maher, *Nature's New Deal*, 75.

[28] The full company number was NP-1-808 signifying it was the first (and only) National Park (NP) camp, in the Army's Eighth Corps (8) Area, followed by the first available company number (08). Eventually there would be 14 other NPS-supervised CCC camps in Oklahoma, all assigned to work on state and municipal parks.

[29] Carr, *Wilderness by Design*, 263.

By mid-May, the park's technical staff was also in place. The ECW program not only put urban youth to work, it also employed a wide range of professionals. By 1935, nearly 7500 professionals had been hired by the NPS for the ECW, in part because "the unemployed condition of thousands of professional scientists, and educators made them available and eager to participate in the CCC and other New Deal programs. Landscape architects, in particular, were hired to work in state and national park CCC camps."[30] During the 1910s and 1920s landscape architects had relied heavily on employment designing country-place estates for wealthy industrialists and businessmen. The 1929 stock market crash and the economic depression that followed threatened to decimate the profession. According to one estimate, unemployment in the field reached 90% in 1933, prompting landscape architecture professor P. H. Elwood in 1933 to declare the New Deal and the CCC, "a light…on the horizon for the profession of Landscape Architecture." By 1935, it was reported that ninety percent of the profession was working for the government.[31]

The New Deal and the Profession of Landscape Architecture

The nation's worsening economic situation profoundly affected the profession of landscape architecture. Most experienced practitioners whose livelihood was based on the design of grand country-place era estates found themselves without clients. New graduates who had trained in the formal traditions of European gardens—Italy, Spain, and France—and, in some cases, had traveled to foreign countries to study, found the prospects for employment dim. In 1931 in *Landscape Architecture* editor Henry V. Hubbard called upon his colleagues to broaden their services saying: "We now think of ourselves as a force worth considering in the affairs of the country. We believe that we have opportunities of which we have not yet availed ourselves, duties which we have not as yet performed. We are willing to spend time and money in order to begin our honest part in many matters not local and emphatically not confined within the boundaries of the garden or of the private estate."[32] In January 1933—two months before President Roosevelt took office—veteran landscape architect A. D. Taylor made a similar plea: "As exponents of a Fine Art our inherited obligation toward design is so to guide our progress and development as to recognize those major changes in social and economic conditions which may so vitally affect not only the quality but also the kind of design that we make, as well as the method of keeping our professional activities adjusted to fundamental changes."[33] Practitioners were being called upon to be more conservative in expenditures, to expect clients to be less affluent, and to be more competitive in marketing their services. Also teachers of landscape architecture were to adjust their methods to better prepare students for a changing workplace.

Exemplifying the migration of landscape architects to public service were Platt's ECW landscape architects Walter Popham and Jerome C. Miller (who replaced Popham when he transferred to Yellowstone in 1934) and landscape foremen Edmund B. Walkowiak and George M. Merrill, also landscape architects, who worked primarily in the field supervising construction. Other professionals included engineers Ira Stinson and Sam Whittlesey, who worked on the design of roads, bridges, and sewer systems; and forester Donald E. Stauffer, whose specialty was silviculture and who supervised planting, forestry. Stauffer, trained in forestry at Michigan State University, later became Oklahoma's State Forester from 1947 to 1969. As in all national park camps, these men reported directly to the park superintendent, but their work was ultimately approved by the Branch of Forestry, Branch of Engineering, and the Branch of Plans and Design in San Francisco. For Popham and Miller, this meant regular visits from and consultation with Charles A. Richey, the resident landscape architect

[30] Ibid., 249.

[31] Department of Landscape Architecture, *Horizons*, 1933, 1; Phoebe Cutler, *The Public Landscape of the New Deal* (New Haven: Yale University Press, 1985), 85.

[32] Henry V. Hubbard, "Editorial," *Landscape Architecture* 22 (October 1931):54, as quoted in Cutler, p. 87.

[33] Albert D. Taylor, "Landscape Architecture Today: Is the Profession Keeping Abreast of the Changes in Our Social and Economic Life," *Landscape Architecture* 23, no. 2 (January 1933): 87. Taylor, an early student of Waugh and Bailey, was himself one of the nation's foremost estate designers, with offices in Cleveland and Sarasota.

of Vint's staff assigned to Platt. Richey concurrently worked in other southwest parks, including Bandelier National Monument and Mesa Verde and Carlsbad Cavern National Parks. Although none of Platt's designers went on to become individually influential designers, their work collectively left an indelible legacy on the American landscape. In appraising the Depression-era generation of public landscape architects, design historian Phoebe Cutler writes, "[a]s befitted the collective spirit of the day, no one landscape architect stands out, but as a group the profession proved to be to the United States of the 1930s what Daniel Burnham was to Chicago."[34]

It is probably not entirely a coincidence that many of Platt's designers were connected with the landscape architecture department at Iowa State College (now Iowa State University). Popham, a graduate of Harvard's School of Landscape Architecture, had been a professor at Iowa State from 1928 until he was laid off in 1932; Miller graduated from Iowa State with a B.S. in 1929 and an M.S. in 1932; and Richey and Walkowiak received their B.S. degrees in 1930 and 1931, respectively. The exception was Merrill who had studied horticulture at Oklahoma College of Agriculture & Mechanical Arts, another land-grant college.[35]

Iowa State had offered courses in landscape gardening since 1869, and its first degree program in landscape architecture was introduced by Professor Frank H. Culley, a former student of Frank Waugh and one of the first graduates of a land-grant college to receive an M.L.A. from Harvard's graduate program in landscape architecture.[36] Among the Iowa program's first graduates were Arthur Carhart (1917), who became the first fulltime "recreation engineer" in the U.S. Forest Service, and Harvey H. Cornell (1916), who received an M.L.A. from Harvard in 1921, worked for the Minneapolis firm of Morell and Nichols, and joined the National Park Service in 1933 as an inspector for the ECW/CCC work in Oklahoma state parks. When the National Park Service was reorganized in 1937, Cornell became the regional landscape architect for the Southwest Region (Region III), a position which gave him responsibility for approving all design and construction in Platt National Park. By the mid-1920s, the college offered "special preparation for the work of the 'Recreational Landscape Engineer,'" and by 1934, a curriculum for park design focused specifically on producing foremen for park work. As a result, many Iowa State graduates were well-prepared to work in public landscapes.[37]

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[34] Cutler, *Public Landscape of the New Deal*, 5.

[35] While these Iowa State-educated landscape architects are not historically well-known, it is worth noting the "lack of information about the broader population of landscape professionals [that] poses a challenge for historians and landscape architects when attempting to evaluate a property's significance and establish its context" (Birnbaum and Karson 2000, xviii). Miller briefly left the NPS during World War II (he became a draftsman for the Manhattan Project in Los Alamos), but went on afterwards to a long-term NPS career, as did Richey. Richey ended his career as Superintendent of Lake Mead NRA (1954-1969), while Miller eventually became the Southwest Regional Landscape Architect and later the Southwest Director of Operations in the late 1960s and early 1970s. Walkowiak, after changing his last name to Walker, left Platt at the end of the 15th CCC enrollment period and went to work for A.D. Taylor's landscape architecture firm in Cleveland, Ohio. Merrill was a graduate of Oklahoma State University's horticulture program (c. 1931) and was well versed in Oklahoma's ornamental plants having written a thesis entitled "Ornamental Plants Adapted to the Greater Part of Oklahoma."

[36] According to Waugh, who was one of the first to chronicle the history of landscape architecture in America, courses in landscape architecture were first introduced as "modest developments in horticultural education." While graduate education was introduced at Harvard University in 1900, several of the nation's land-grant colleges (i.e. those public colleges developed to education in agriculture and the mechanic arts)--Massachusetts, Illinois, and Cornell--were the first schools to offer undergraduate programs in landscape architecture. Similar programs soon after appeared in Pennsylvania, California, Michigan, Wisconsin, Ohio, and Iowa. See Frank A. Waugh, "Landscape Architecture in North America: A Historical and Critical Survey." Chapter XVIII in Walter P. Wright, ed., *A History of Garden Art* (New York: Dutton, 1928), 454-456.

[37] "Teaching in Landscape Architecture in Iowa State College," *Landscape Architecture*, July 1926, 214; Landscape Architecture Department, *Horizons: A Resume of Departmental News, Fall Quarter, 1934* (Ames: Iowa State College 1934). William Carnes, Vint's second in command at the Branch of Plans and Design, later commented that "when the Depression hit, his colleagues from Iowa State" were "more ready to go to work" and "less interested in breeding dogs and private summer camps" than were LA graduates of Harvard, the nation's most prestigious LA program." (quoted in Cutler 1985, 86). Other Iowa State graduates working in national parks during the 1930s included Harvey Benson ('27) in Shenandoah National Park, Benjamin Breeze ('28) in Acadia National Park; Sanford Hill ('29) in the NPS Regional Office in Omaha (post-1937 reorganization); Frank Mattson ('31) and Eduoard

Philip Homer (P. H.) Elwood, Jr., chair of Iowa State department of landscape architecture, was particularly interested in national parks and was involved with the CCC program from its beginning. Elwood was a Cornell graduate who had worked early in his career as an Instructor of Civic Improvement for renowned landscape educator Frank A. Waugh at Massachusetts Agricultural College (later Massachusetts State College and now University of Massachusetts Amherst). He established a department of landscape architecture at Ohio State before coming to Iowa State in 1923 to head the Iowa program after Culley left to establish a private practice in Denver. In 1927 Elwood led students on an extensive study tour of the western states, including visits to Yellowstone, Glacier, and Yosemite National Parks. By 1930 he was a nationally respected planner and educator. In the summer of 1933, Depression-related university budget cuts enticed Elwood to seek part-time (summer) employment with the NPS in the Rocky Mountain District of Conrad Wirth's state park branch of ECW. Elwood worked as an inspector-at-large for Herbert Maier, the District Officer for District III (which included Oklahoma) and an architect well known for his museum designs at Yosemite, Yellowstone, and Grand Canyon National Parks. Touring parks in the region and advising on everything from road placement to enrollee deployment, Elwood and fellow inspector Harvey Cornell regularly reported to Maier on visits to Platt in conjunction with their oversight of the state park CCC work at nearby Turner Falls Park. Elwood, an inveterate networker, was also involved in hiring foremen and landscape architects for District III CCC camps, often recruiting former and current students for these positions; even after retiring as a state park inspector, he continued to recruit students for similar CCC positions across the country. Elwood was likely influential in the hiring of his colleague Popham (who apparently lost his teaching position in 1932) and his former students Miller and Walkowiak for the CCC work at Platt. [38]

Of equal importance is the involvement of Iowa State's landscape architecture program in matters pertaining to the state's public policy on outdoor recreation and land conservation. In the early 1920s, Iowa was at the forefront of the state park movement (the first meeting of the National Conference on State Parks convened at Des Moines in 1921), and as early as 1924 the State Board of Conservation established a formal policy on "Landscape Work in State Parks," that enabled members of the school's department of landscape architecture to work on design projects for the state parks. Faculty member John R. Fitzsimmons (who held a Bachelor's Degree from Colorado Agricultural College and an M.L.A. from Harvard University) worked through the school's extension program on state park projects that included the completion of master plans and the design of park buildings. Increasingly engaging students in this work, Fitzsimmons in the early 1930s became the head of a central design office established at the college for the CCC work in Iowa state parks. The publication of the *Iowa Twenty-five Year Conservation Plan* (1933) coincided with FDR's creation of the CCC and the call for the expansion of recreational development nationwide. The plan was written by planners Jacob Crane and George Wheeler Olcott, with the expert advice of Iowa State professors Elwood and Fitzsimmons. According to Historian Rebecca Conard, the Iowa plan was a pioneering effort and "the first, comprehensive, statewide conservation study that attempted to relate state park planning and development to broader resource conservation needs." Fundamental and highly relevant to the practical problems that the landscape architects trained at Iowa State encountered at Platt National Park is the following statement from the Iowa survey: "Every phase of public recreation ...is dependent upon three major correlative factors—erosion control, the conservation of surface waters, and the conservation of forest and small cover on the land."[39]

Exline ('32) in the Great Smoky Mountains National Park; E.S. Moellenhoff ('34) in Hawaii National Park; Nelson Royal ('31) at Gettysburg National Battlefield; Ray Wilhelm ('25) in Colonial National Historical Park; and Robert Elliot ('33) at the Blue Ridge Parkway. There are doubtless others, plus many more who worked in state parks.

[38] P. H Elwood, Weekly Reports, State Park Emergency Conservation Work, District Three. June-August 1933. NARA, College Park, Maryland; "Memoir of Walter G. Metschke" (unpublished manuscript), 1998, compiled under the auspices of the Chicago Architects Oral History Project, Ernest R. Graham Study Center for Architectural Drawings, Department of Architecture, The Art Institute of Chicago, 22-21, 44, 122.

[39] Rebecca Conard, *Places of Quiet Beauty: Parks, Preserves, and Environmentalism* (Iowa City: University of Iowa, 1997), 86-

The Transformation of Platt National Park, 1933-1940

Between 1933 and 1940, the CCC, under the supervision of NPS landscape architects and engineers, redesigned Platt National Park from boundary to boundary. The transformation began slowly, with work described as "clean-up." The CCC enrollees cleared away the last remnants of the old town from the park, and reshaped shoulders along park roads. Under the tutelage of CCC Forester Donald Stauffer, recruits also initiated the park's forestry program. Stauffer's first assignment was to "rejuvenate" existing trees, work which entailed trimming and felling dead and diseased trees; thinning stands; removing weedy species; eradicating web worms and fire ants; and fertilizing unthrifty trees. In just the first year of "protection and conservation" 7,281 trees were trimmed and 8,547 trees removed. Stauffer's second objective was an ambitious reforestation program. Over the course of the CCC's seven-year presence at Platt, despite periods of drought, more than 500,000 trees and shrubs were planted, according to historian Palmer Boeger. The first year of reforestation alone saw the planting of 56,185 trees and shrubs, and planting, like tree conservation, would continue through all of the enrollment periods.[40]

According to landscape architects Richey and Popham, the early emphasis on non-technical tasks, true of the CCC throughout the country, was "due to the newness of the program, the lack of adequate developed plans for operation, the shortage of materials and equipment at the outset, and the inexperience and physical condition of the men."[41] This explanation reflects New Deal public works historian Phoebe Cutler's contention that "[i]n part because they underestimated the leadership potential [of landscape architects], the organizers of the CCC at first did not envision the corps as much more than a giant maintenance and forestry crew."[42] In addition, forestry work—vegetation studies, planting, erosion control, and fire prevention—was featured because of the ECW program's supervision by the Forestry Division. However, as administrators in Washington and San Francisco and the park technical staff realized the CCC recruits' full potential, the level of project difficulty increased. By August 1933, Richey, along with several LEMs who were stonemasons, was supervising the enrollees in the construction of the Flower Park comfort station, the first substantial building to take form under Platt's New Deal development program.

In August, new recruits arrived, and Company 808 now fielded 220 enrollees, housed in canvas tents on a temporary site on the park's southeast side. In November, the Army moved the camp to a better drained and ventilated site north of Rock Creek at Walnut Grove, just below Black Sulphur Springs. CCC enrollees erected a standardized CCC camp of wooden Army barracks arranged in a quadrangle, installing some trees, too, "so that when the camp was demolished the planting [still extant today] would be in harmony with the park."[43] The new camp was adjacent to the city of Sulphur, where recruits could spend the portion of their salary they did not send home. "Sulphur used to be a lively place," a former CCC enrollee recalled, "The CCC [barracks] didn't have any air conditioning, and we'd open the windows and doors at night, and the music from the honky tonk, if we weren't up there, would put us to sleep every night."[44]

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87. Author's quotation is from p. 127 & EN 25, 326; the state plan is quoted, p. 128.

[40] Donald Stauffer, "Annual Forestry Report, Civilian Conservation Corps, Platt National Park. May 22, 1933 to April 1, 1934." NARA College Park, Maryland, 1934, n.p. More recent research indicates that this figure may underestimate total planting efforts; see Katarzyna Grala, "Spatial analyses for the vegetation management plan of the Platt Historic District, Chickasaw National Recreation Area," 2004.

[41] Charles A. Richey and Walter D. Popham, "Report to the Chief Architect through the Superintendent of Platt National Park: Construction Report: Conservation Work, CCC Camp No. 808, May 16, 1933 – April 1, 1934," (unpublished report on file at CNRA., 1934), 5.

[42] Cutler, *Public Landscape of the New Deal*, 88.

[43] Richey and Popham, 1934, 2-6.

[44] Wray and Roberts, *An Ethnohistory*, 82.

Meanwhile, Platt's landscape architects, after supervising CCC boys by day, worked to update the park's master plan at night. They found the 1932 plan rudimentary, lacking detailed design drawings and topographic information. Revising the plan proved an immense task. Administered for decades without the benefit of oversight by professional landscape architects, the park programmatically and visually reflected an incongruous mix of activity areas and architectural styles. Worse yet, the existing design could not withstand the park's high volume of visitation, resulting in dangerous traffic problems and trampled campgrounds. In an effort to make the previously neglected park conform in appearance, function, and status with the rest of the NPS system, Richey and Popham proposed an extensive redesign of the park, removing the zoo, moving park residences, constructing a new perimeter road, and revamping the springs.[45]

With a new master plan in place, and Company 808 renewed in October for another six months, establishing the CCC rhythm of half-year "summer" and "winter" "enrollment periods," the pace of redevelopment quickened. Construction of the newly envisioned Perimeter Road began during the second enrollment period in October 1933, with the reconstruction of the 1917 low-water "causeway" across Rock Creek near Black Sulphur Springs. For this project Superintendent Branch secured funding from the PWA, which also supplied $12,000 for the highway bridge across Travertine Creek. Branch finished the latter project with ECW funding and CCC labor, in part because of the superior work of the CCC boys. That first winter Branch also took advantage of $76,400 from the Civil Works Administration (CWA), a temporary program of the FERA that funded park projects. Three hundred locally-hired CWA workers completed utility line relocations, worked on the construction of Perimeter Road, and constructed the stone-dressed Limestone Creek Bridge, which was also finished with ornamental plantings installed by the CCC. The coordination of ECW with PWA and CWA projects (which used different pools of funding and labor) was typical throughout the NPS. Lower-budgeted ECW projects, which focused on "landscape naturalization"—that is, smaller-scale site and planting activities—were used to enhance larger PWA building projects, ensure their harmonization with the surrounding landscape, and erase any signs of disturbance due to construction—all believed essential to upholding the NPS design ethic.

At Platt, however, ECW projects dominated the park's budget and schedule. Forest conservation and erosion prevention projects included transplanting 100 oaks and walnuts to "re-forest" a formerly plowed field adjacent to Pavilion Springs and planting 3000 cedars to stabilize Bromide Hill. A 900-foot-long revetment wall was begun in 1933 on the banks of Rock Creek in Flower Park; constructed of large boulders, it was planted with shrubs and took almost two years to build. A large stone dam was completed in the Buffalo Pasture to provide water for the relocated bison; its earthen sides were similarly planted with vines. To accommodate the ever-growing need for plants, Stauffer and his CCC crews established a native plant nursery near Cold Springs Campground in 1934. Throughout the 1930s plants were grown from locally collected seeds; by 1935 the nursery contained 3500 shrubs and 10,000 red cedar seedlings.[46]

Concurrently, the enrollees under George Merrill and Ed Walkowiak's supervision rebuilt picnic areas at both Little Niagara Falls on Travertine Creek and the headwaters at Buffalo and Antelope Springs, where dead trees

[45] Richey and Popham, 1932, 16; Richey and Miller, 1934, 2; Richey and Popham, "Report to the Chief Architect through the Superintendent of Platt National Park: Construction Report: Conservation Work, CCC Camp No. 808, May 16, 1933 – April 1, 1934," (unpublished report, 1934) 5. CNRA; Richey, Charles A., and Jerome C. Miller. March 1, 1935. "Report to the Chief Architect through the Superintendent of Platt National Park: Construction Report Conservation Work, CCC Camp No. 808, October 1, 1934-March 31, 1935." NARA, College Park, Maryland. Copy on file at CNRA.

[46] Commonly planted local and native species included oaks (*Quercus rubra, Q. stellata, Q. macrocarpa*), elms (*Ulmus americana, U. fulva*), Osage orange (*Maclura pomifera*), ashes (*Fraxinus texensis, F. pennsylvanica*), and black walnut (*Juglans nigr*a) as overstory; red cedar and shortleaf pine and dogwoods (*Cornus florida, C. racemosa*), redbud (*Cercis canadensis*), chittamwood (*Bumelia lanuginosa*) sumac (*Rhus glabra, R. copallina*) as flowering understory.

were removed, topography was re-contoured, and parking lots and massive stone picnic tables were installed. At Buffalo Springs, the work included the creation of a large circular, stone-clad enclosure and terrace, which required extensive excavation and the use of a pile driver to build the structure's concrete foundation in the unstable soils. At the same time, work ensued along the park's "antiquated and totally inadequate" trail system. Begun in the second enrollment period and largely completed by the summer of 1935, almost all of the system was rebuilt and extended. Rustic stepping stones and log and stone bridges were built along the Cliffside, Bromide Hill, and Buffalo Springs Trails to cross the park's multiple streams; the most elaborate of these was a curved stone arch footbridge near Buffalo Springs.

According to NPS CCC historian John Paige, if the first year of the CCC was spent "beginning an effective ECW program/organization," then its second year "saw the growth and expansion of the ECW, along with relaxed restrictions on…the types of jobs that could be accomplished using ECW labor."[47] At Platt, 1934 and 1935 saw a corresponding increase in the scale and complexity of the jobs undertaken by CCC enrollees. Construction on the Utility Area—a quadrangle of truck shed, barn, stable and maintenance shop—was begun in May 1934 and completed by January the following year. The rehabilitation of the nearby administration building was begun before the utility area was even completed. New and formalized park entrances were built in Flower Park in summer 1934 and at Bromide Springs that fall, followed by a complete redesign of Flower Park's Vendome outflow in the summer of 1935, during the fifth enrollment period. The area's flower beds were removed at this time, disgruntling local citizens until the beds were replaced by more informal drifts of wildflowers, sown from native seed collected by CCC enrollees. Other projects undertaken in the summer of 1935 included the parking lot at Black Sulphur Springs and a parking lot and spring enclosure at Hillside Spring. The latter structure was completed by the landscape foremen because of an outbreak of meningitis among the CCC boys, who were quarantined in their barracks. The construction of a 900-foot-long revetment wall along Rock Creek at Flower Park, constructed over several CCC enrollment periods, stabilized the confluence of Rock and Travertine Creeks.

In August 1934, Buffalo and Antelope Springs dried up and the reconstruction of Antelope Springs and its surrounds into a chain of lily ponds and low waterfalls was conveniently begun without water in the stream bed. Construction continued well into 1935. The naturalistic treatment of Antelope Springs, which flowed from an outcropping of local conglomerate, sharply contrasted with the geometrically circular enclosure constructed at Buffalo Springs and is attributed to Jerome "Jerry" C. Miller, who served as the principal landscape architect assigned to Platt's CCC camp from Spring 1934 until the camp was disbanded in 1940. Unfortunately, due to prolonged drought throughout the Great Plains and the nation's interior, the full artistic and recreational effects of this project were not realized until 1938 when due to heavy rains the springs returned to normal flows.

Attempting to address the Dust Bowl effect of the widespread devastation, special FERA drought-relief programs in 1934 temporarily provided Platt an additional 54 CCC enrollees taken from unemployment rolls in Dallas, Texas. Eighteen African-American enrollees joined Company 808 during the third enrollment period, and Superintendent Branch reported: "[C]areful administration has avoided racial complications....The Negro boys live, eat and work separately from the White boys, but receive identically the same consideration, and their work has proved satisfactory." When CCC Director Fechner ordered complete segregation of the Corps in early 1935, the men were reassigned to an all-black CCC camp in Boley, Oklahoma.[48]

With camp strength peaking at 270 men, the park pressed forward with more landscape improvements. The fifth period of enrollment (April-September 1935) saw the closing and removal of the park's golf course and completion of the park's Perimeter Road. Donald Stauffer and Jerry Miller also began the rehabilitation of Cold

[47] Paige, *Administrative History,* 19.
[48] Wray and Robert, *An Ethnohistory*, 63-64.

Springs Campground, which Superintendent Branch had closed in August 1934 due to the effects of soil compaction caused by the 60,000 annual campers, who continued to pour into the park. With the Depression and droughts, visitors "should have stayed home" but "Platt was the cheapest recreation available for people who had little money."[49] Stauffer devised a pruning, trimming, and revegetation program for the campground, while Miller, working with the NPS Engineering Division, designed a brand-new loop and spur layout. During the summer of 1935, LEM masons and their CCC apprentices built two stone comfort stations. But the vegetation recovered slowly, and the campground was not re-opened until 1939.

Meanwhile, change was occurring at the national level. By September 1935, President Roosevelt called for a reduction in the size of the CCC to 350,000 enrollees, down from a maximum of 600,000.[50] The number of NPS CCC camps was correspondingly reduced from 446 to 340, and the number of enrollees per camp reduced from 220 to 160 men. In response, the park service consolidated the two programs in June 1936, transferring national park ECW projects from the Forestry Branch under John Coffman to Conrad Wirth's state park ECW program, which was expanded and renamed the Branch of Planning and State Cooperation. All CCC camps, including Platt, were now administered by four ECW Regions.[51] Platt was placed in ECW Region III, headed by Herbert Maier, whose offices had moved from Denver to Oklahoma City in 1934.[52] In 1937 other administrative programs of the National Park Service were regionalized, with the result that all park design and construction, not just the work of the CCC, was supervised out of slightly reconfigured regional offices. Platt maintained its position under Maier, who became "acting director" of NPS Southwest Region III and design approval became the purview of the newly named Regional Landscape Architect, Harvey H. Cornell, whose experience in park design and familiarity with the Oklahoma landscape were substantial. Soon after the Region III headquarters moved to Santa Fe, New Mexico, where it was geographically closer to the majority of the region's national parks and monuments.

Although such administrative changes affected the assignment of technical staff, Platt seems to have benefited from the continuing attention of its earlier designers, as well as the new oversight and talent provided by Maier and Cornell. Charles Richey, formerly one of Vint's resident landscape architects in San Francisco, became a Region III landscape architect working out of Santa Fe. Although Miller remained duty stationed at Platt and continued to work on the master plans and do site planning, he took on additional responsibility as state park inspector for the CCC work in all the Oklahoma parks. Walkowiak continued supervising construction projects at Platt, which included seven new buildings in the Rustic style. These included four comfort stations replicating those at Cold Springs: one at Central Campground in 1937; one at Travertine Island (1938); one at Bromide Springs (1938); and one at Buffalo Springs (1939). The other three buildings—the Bromide Springs Pavilion (1936), Pavilion Springs Pavilion (1937), and Cold Springs Checking Station (1938)—were more elaborate in both design and function.

Landscape improvements at Platt continued, including ones that expanded the park's recreational value. In the late 1930s, five recreational dams were built to provide swimming holes in Travertine Creek. Proposed as early

[49] Palmer H. Boeger, *Oklahoma Oasis: From Platt National Park to Chickasaw National Recreation Area* (Muskogee: Western Heritage Books 1987), 137.

[50] Paige, *Administrative History*, 21-23. According to Paige, FDR's reductions were implemented in hopes of making the CCC a permanent agency.

[51] For a while in 1935 and 1936, when the Park, Parkway, and Recreational Area Study Act of 1936 was authorized and state park CCC funding and activity reached its peak, the number of state park districts had increased from four to eight to ensure adequate supervision of camps. When FDR's reductions reduced the number of camps, however, the 8 state park districts were decreased to back to four "regions" and when the entire NPS was regionalized, it followed the state park organization (Conrad Wirth, *Parks, Politics and the People* (Norman: University of Oklahoma, 1980), 130-131).

[52] The move from Denver to Oklahoma was likely motivated by a reorganization that increased the number of state park ECW districts and the need for a more centralized location where Maier and his staff had closer supervision over the ambitious CCC programs in the state parks of Oklahoma and Texas.

as 1934, the dams were constructed sometime after 1936. Their naturalistic design existed in stark opposition to the modern and commercial nature of the town of Sulphur's other pools, such as the Vendome and Belleview. Platt's pools, in their sylvan settings, truly made the park, as author Palmer Boeger declared, an "Oklahoma Oasis" for increasing numbers of visitors: when drought temporarily ceased in 1938-39, park visitation surpassed its 1931 record with 358,240 visitors arriving at the park in 36,092 cars.[53] The plantings and grading at Bromide and Pavilion Springs were completed and an entrance portal was constructed at the South Entrance, the later reflecting a simplified and abstracted naturalistic design by Miller that was more in keeping with the CCC designs for the state parks in Maier's district the formal designs Miller and Walkowiak had designed for the park's north entrances several years before.

Such improvements in turn inspired 1938 public works funding for the city's construction of a new sewage treatment plant downstream from Platt on Rock Creek, replacing a 1931 Imhoff system. As Platt's master plan reached completion, Company 808 turned to less glamorous tasks such as road maintenance and the construction of a steel-post fence on the park's boundary. The CCC, in effect, now supplemented Platt's operational park staff as enrollees frequently watered the heavily traveled gravel automobile lanes and cleaned campgrounds after heavy use.

In April 1938, Company 808 belatedly felt the CCC program decline as camp enrollment dropped from 220 to 160. Although Congress had extended the CCC program for another three years in 1937, efforts to make it an independent agency failed.[54] By July of 1939, it was consolidated with other relief programs into the Federal Security Agency. The NPS phased out more camps and supervisory personnel, eliminating technical staff in CCC camps in favor of regional "service units" in December 1939. Platt's technical staff correspondingly moved on, Miller transferring to the regional office in Santa Fe and Walkowiak eventually moving to private practice. In June 1940 Company 808's remarkable seven-year tenure at Platt National Park ended. Its reassignment to Rocky Mountain National Park in Colorado was typical of most CCC camps, which generally relocated every two to three years, but came as a shock to Platt and the city of Sulphur. When the CCC boys left, "[a] feeling like that accompanying an irreparable loss settled on the community."[55] Three years later, in June 1943, the CCC was terminated nationwide following the United States' entry into World War II.

A Context for a Twentieth Century Naturalistic Landscape Style

Platt National Park Historic District's significance under NHL Criterion 4 lies in its full demonstration of the principles and practices of naturalistic landscape architecture, as they had evolved from the nineteenth century urban parks and developed into widespread policies of landscape conservation that shaped the nation's national and state parks in the 1930s. As the chronology above demonstrates, CCC Company 808 transformed Platt National Park from a much-loved, but deteriorating and over-used, resort environment into an enduring scenic and recreational landscape.

Platt's transformation was a product of the formative experience of the National Park Service in park planning, landscape naturalization, and road and trail construction in the late 1920s --and the unprecedented vision and support for public recreation and national park development that occurred during the New Deal. By 1933 when the CCC brought new talents and a considerable work force to the national parks, the NPS had adopted a design ethic that called for the preservation of natural features and the harmonization of development with the natural setting and surroundings of each park. The naturalistic design principles and practices that characterized NPS

[53] Statistics are from Wray and Roberts, *An Ethnohistory*, 188.
[54] The June 28, 1937, renewal legislation also officially changed the program's name from "Emergency Conservation Work" to the "Civilian Conservation Corps."
[55] Boeger, *Oklahoma Oasis,* 151.

design in the early twentieth century were the culmination of trends in landscape architecture and park design that began in the mid-nineteenth century coupled with a deep appreciation for the native flora and land forms (landscape character) of the North American continent.

Naturalistic landscape design in the United States evolved from the landscape gardening practices of nineteenth-century England as seen in the early works of Capability Brown, Humphry Repton, and J. C. Loudon. By the mid-1800s, these practices gained currency in the United States, primarily through the writings of Andrew Jackson Downing, especially his popular *Treatise on the Theory and Practice of Landscape Gardening Adapted to North America*, published in 1841. In the late nineteenth century, principles of Downing's "Modern, Natural, or Irregular style" of landscape gardening were applied to public parks by landscape architects such as Frederick Law Olmsted, Samuel Parsons Jr., Charles Eliot, H.W.S. Cleveland, and others. These designers also absorbed ideas from English gardeners such as William Robinson, who developed the idea of the "wild garden" filled with rock outcroppings and naturalized drifts of woodland plants, and developed techniques that could be applied anywhere to create natural-seeming, picturesque places. Their naturalistic methods included planting vegetation in irregular masses; cutting and framing vistas; screening obtrusive views or man-made structures; and preserving native landforms by grading paths and carriage drives to follow topographic contours. At the same time a "sturdy, Rustic style of architecture for park buildings and structures" also developed, based on "the rugged proportions, naturalistic siting, and use of native stone and timbers characteristic of the Shingle style and the rusticated stonework and bold arches of Richardsonian Romanesque."[56]

The early twentieth century thus saw naturalistic landscape design ideas firmly embedded in the American landscape architect's professional psyche. These ideas continued to evolve, perhaps in response to the profession's increasing concern over the loss of North America's most prized natural scenery, or perhaps as an antidote to the formal trends in landscape design inspired by Beaux Arts principles, influenced by Classical prototypes, and dominated by architectural concerns, as well as architects themselves. The naturalistic principles which Olmsted had perfected did not fall from fashion, but rather took on the added requirement that they be realistic, yet artistically composed, replications or enhancements of the native scene of a particular place or region.[57]

The greatest influence on the evolution of naturalistic landscape design in the twentieth century was the work of a new generation of practitioners, including Warren H. Manning, Jens Jensen, and O.C. Simonds, and the writings of a handful of landscape educators and theorists, some of whom were also active practitioners. Among the most influential was Henry V. Hubbard, who in large part was influenced by the ideas and professional practice of Frederick Law Olmsted. Hubbard became a leading advocate for the national park movement and promoted the role of trained landscape architects in scenery preservation and park design. Upholding nature as both an inspiration and an entity to be preserved, Hubbard wrote in 1917, "The greater and more striking examples of Nature's handiwork will serve the designer as inspiration and as training in appreciation, and he may by his knowledge of their peculiar value...have the duty and the great opportunity of defending them from destruction."[58]

[56] McClelland, *Building the National Parks*, 3. According to McClelland, 91-95, the landscape profession's understanding of "rustic" design grew out of Olmsted's collaboration with Henry H. Richardson in the early1880s on projects for the Ames family of North Easton, Mass., and materialized in the Olmsted firm's development of Franklin Park in Boston.

[57] Olmsted was instrumental in setting the standards for the protection of Yosemite Valley and the Mariposa Grove in California in the 1860s, and he later led the battle to save Niagara Falls from commercial development. The ASLA and American Civic Association had jointly taken on an unsuccessful campaign to block the damming of Yosemite's Hetch-Hetchy Valley in 1914 and several years later successfully lobbied Congress to create the National Park Service.

[58] Hubbard's quotation is taken from Hubbard and Kimball, *Introduction*, 70-71.

In *An Introduction to the Study of Landscape Design* (1917), which he co-authored with Theodora Kimball, Hubbard encouraged the practice of an informal style of landscape design for improvements in natural parks, and recognized the emergence of what he called the Modern American Landscape style. An empirical approach to naturalistic design, adherence to basic principles of pictorial composition, and the use of regionally appropriate materials distinguished this emerging twentieth-century expression of naturalism from the romanticized compositions that marked its nineteenth-century antecedents. Hubbard viewed such work as a way to enhance the natural character of a particular scene by skillfully drawing attention to the elements that give a park its special character or by screening out incongruous or distracting elements. Claiming that such an approach was a wholly American development in landscape design, Hubbard wrote:

> This American style of landscape design traces its origins directly to the English landscape school, but in the American work the designers sought with much more appreciation the preservation and interpretation of natural character.... The choice of indigenous plant material, the study of the arrangement of this material in accordance with its own character and of that in the landscape in which it appeared, is therefore an important consideration in this American style....This mode of treatment of the landscape on large areas has not only the esthetic advantage that thus it may make use of much existing beauty of land-form and vegetation, and thus it can be consistent with land lying beyond its boundaries and so give a still greater sense of freedom and extent.[59]

Hubbard was not the only theorist to recognize the important role of the professional landscape architect in national park design and the relevancy of an empirical approach to naturalistic landscape design. Also published in 1917, Professor of Landscape Architecture Frank A. Waugh's *The Natural Style in Landscape Gardening* similarly defined the Natural style as being "unsymmetrical, not obviously balanced, not apparently enclosed and not marked by visible boundaries."[60] Unlike Hubbard, whose perspective was heavily influenced by practitioners in the Northeast, Waugh embraced the Midwestern work of O.C. Simonds and Jens Jensen and introduced American designers to the horticultural ideas of German practitioner Willy Lange, under whom he had studied in Berlin in 1910. Simply described by Waugh, Lange's method was an ecological one in which native plants were to be arranged in groups according to the relationships that existed in nature, with each group "in its proper soil and on its proper geologic formation."[61] Lange's ideas, filtered through the writings of Frank A. Waugh and coupled with scientific studies of biologists Henry Cowles and Frederic Clements, set the stage for the emergence of an ecological approach to design, and drew attention to the influence of climate, soil, and rainfall on landscape plantings and to the importance of replicating the natural associations that existed among the plants of a particular locality.

In 1917, Waugh applauded the development of the national forest and parks as a "magnificent enterprise" in the hands of landscape architects who he claimed were "best trained in the love of the landscape and in the technical methods by which it alone can be conserved, restored, improved, clarified, and made available." Several years later in the *Textbook of Landscape Gardening* (1922), he wrote "The professional landscape architect should be first of all an artist, capable of seeing, feeling, and understanding . . . the beauties of the

[59] For further discussion of Hubbard's influence on national park design, see McClelland, *Building the National Parks*, 70-81. Hubbard and Kimball's book appeared in 1917--the year following the passage of the Organic Act authorizing the creation of a National Park Service; it immediately became the standard text for students of landscape architecture in the United States and would be published in several editions over the next four decades. The quotation comes from Hubbard and Kimball, *Introduction*, 58.

[60] Waugh, *Natural Style*, 20.

[61] F. A. Waugh, "German Landscape Gardening," *Country Gentleman* 75 (25 August 1910): 790, as quoted in Linda McClelland, "Introduction to the Reprint Edition," *Book of Landscape Gardening* by Frank A Waugh, 1926 (Amherst: University of Massachusetts Press and Library of American Landscape History, 2007), xxxix.

landscape, and capable, too, of interpreting these beauties to others."[62] It was this reverence for nature, especially the "characteristic preference for native plants," that in Waugh's opinion distinguished American landscape architecture from that of other nations. In his chapter on North American landscape architecture for the first edition of Marie Gothein's *History of Garden* written in the English language, Waugh wrote: "The unquestioned merits of American species, especially as to trees and hardy shrubs, give them a conspicuous ascendancy in nearly all American landscape gardening."[63]

Having as its source of inspiration the natural characteristics of a particular place, Hubbard's and Waugh's ideas called for inherently regional applications and a design vocabulary that was drawn from the native landscape. Central to the design process was the designer's role as an interpreter of nature and natural conditions. The emergence of a regional style in the Midwestern United States was the first to gain recognition. A circular written by Wilhelm Miller for the University of Illinois Agricultural Experiment Station, entitled the *Prairie Spirit in Landscape Gardening* (1915), described at length a design process based on the emulation, restoration, and re-creation of land forms and plantings typical of the native landscape.

Both Miller and Waugh credited Simonds and Jensen as the first practitioners of a regionalist style of American landscape design. Jensen's use of native plants and artificial rockwork to define an idealized regional expression of the Natural style is exemplified by his Columbus Park "prairie river" design in Chicago (1917). Simonds work was primarily focused on the landscape of the Midwest but his approach to design was easily transferable to other places. In 1920 he wrote: "The problem for a landscape gardener in any location is to make the most of available materials. It is wise always to work in harmony with what nature has done in the surrounding territory. In any locality, whether dry or moist, planting material should be used which is indigenous to the region or which grows in some other locality having similar soil and climate."[64]

Certain features distinguished twentieth-century Natural or Modern American style from the nineteenth-century "picturesque" park design advocated by Andrew Jackson Downing, Frederick Law Olmsted, William Cleveland, and others. Twentieth-century practice was based on a close, detailed study of nature and, with it, an appreciation of regional character; an aesthetic sensitivity based on principles of unity, variety, harmony, utility and order; search for the verisimilitude of nature; preservation of scenery; an awareness that ecology mattered (merging of science and design); and an emphasis on natural land forms and native species specific to a particular locality. Growing knowledge of plant science and ecology began to influence landscape design and, in 1930, emerging concern about the impact of exotic flora and fauna on national park landscapes led the National Park Service to adopt a policy prohibiting the use of exotic plants in the national parks. This policy was upheld by the revised Statement of Policy in 1932 and was set forth as policy for the CCC work in the national parks.

Other practitioners called for an ecological approach to landscape design. By 1924 Stephen Hamblin, the director of Harvard's Botanic Garden who had been Waugh's student and had worked with practitioner Warren Manning, called for ecological approach and wrote in *Landscape Architecture:* "Much that nature does we can adopt wholly or adapt to the requirements of civilization. Then in each wood and field we can suggest plants to

[62] Waugh, *Natural Style*, 20, 144-45; Frank A. Waugh, *Textbook of Landscape Gardening Designed Especially for the Use of Non-professional Students* (New York: John Wiley & Sons, and London: Chapman & Hall, 1922), 276.

[63] Waugh, "Landscape Architecture in North America," 425.

[64] Christopher Vernon, "Introduction." *The Prairie Spirit in Landscape Gardening*, Circular 184, by Wilhelm Miller, 1915, reprint (Amherst: University of Massachusetts Press and Library of American Landscape History, 2006), xi. Vernon says that Miller was the first to recognize the distinctive character America's native plants gave American landscape design in O.C. Simond's design of Graceland Cemetery in Chicago. "An American Idea in Landscape Art," in *Country Life in America*. 1903. vol. 4, no. 5 (Sept. 1903: 349-50. The quotation comes from O. C. Simonds, *Landscape-Gardening*, 185, 189-90, as quoted in McClelland, *Building the National Parks*, 88.

be added, to continue the genius of nature, or bring in the feeling of the presence of humanity." In 1929 Edith Roberts and Elsa Rehman published *American Plants for American Gardens* which examined the ideas and put forth plant lists for creating landscapes based on geographical character and location. And in 1930, Elsa Rehman wrote in *Landscape Architecture*: "Intensive observation of the landscape, observation ecologically attuned, is of course the best schooling....To be naturalistic, in the truest sense, the plants have to be assembled in compositions that are true reproductions or sympathetic interpretations of the landscape scene."[65] Calling the decade of the thirties, "a golden era in public landscape work," landscape educator Darrell G. Morrison has written that "CCC crews generally held steadfastly to the tenets of ecologically based design, construction, and management that had been developed within the National Park Service." According to Morrison, the work of the CCC prolonged the decline of this brief period of ecological awareness. By the late 1930s, change was already beginning to occur in professional education and practice: plant science and, with it, ecological concerns once again became subordinate to "geometries of design."[66]

While Waugh's direct experience in park planning stemmed from his consulting in the areas of recreational engineering for the United States Forest Service, he was keen to apply his broader principles of country planning to the work in national and state parks. At the request of his former student Conrad Wirth, who headed the NPS's state park CCC program, Waugh compiled a handbook to guide the "young civilians" in implementing Emergency Conservation. This publication, entitled *Landscape Conservation: Planning for the Restoration, Conservation and Utilization of Wild Lands for Park and Forest Recreation (*1935), combined his early principles on natural landscape gardening, his ideas about planning recreational areas, and his more recent studies on plant ecology, the physiography of lakes and ponds, and forest margins that appeared in the early 1930s in the *Journal of Forestry* and *Landscape Architecture*.[67]

Landscape Architecture in the National Park System

Historian Linda McClelland points out that the greatest practitioners of twentieth century naturalistic landscape design--what Henry Hubbard called the Modern American Landscape style and Waugh the Natural style--were the designers of national and state parks in the 1920s and 1930s:

> These designers, commonly called landscape engineers or landscape architects, readily and confidently drew inspiration from a variety of sources, borrowing both principles that were in keeping with their desire to harmonize and naturalize their construction work and preserve or enhance the inherent scenic beauty of each park. Their work was part of a continuing tradition that began in the nineteenth century urban parks and matured and flourished in the 1930s. Developments in the twentieth century which called for the planting of native plants and trees according to their natural associations and conditions for moisture and drainage opened up new opportunities for park designers. Results included the naturalistic planting of roadsides, the shores of artificial lakes and ponds, the channelization and beautification of streams, and the return of development sites to nature after construction. New demands for public recreation, an

[65] Stephen F. Hamblin, "The Mental Planning of Planting," *LA* 14, no. 2 (January 1924): 94, as quoted in McClelland, Introduction to the Reprint edition, xxxiv; Elsa Rehmann, "An Ecological Approach," *Landscape Architecture* 23 (1933), 4, 239-46, as quoted in Darrell G. Morrison, Foreword, *American Plants for American Gardens, by Edith* Roberts and Elsa Rehmann, reprint (Athens: University of Georgia Press, 1996), xxvi-xxvii.

[66] Morrison, Foreword, xx.

[67] McClelland, *Building the National Parks*, 443-50. Waugh's ecological writings in *Landscape Architecture* included: "Ecology of the Roadside," 21, no. 2 (January 1931): 81–92; "Natural Plant Groups," 21, no. 3 (April 1931): 169–79; "The Physiography of Lakes and Ponds," 22, no. 2 (January 1932): 89–99. *Landscape Conservation* was also serialized in *Park and Recreation*, the journal of the organization of park superintendents, and in 1937 it was republished as a training manual for the CCC organization aimed at preparing enrollees for future careers in park design as well as for their day-to-day fieldwork.

> increasingly mobile society, and the challenges of managing public lands called for the application of these principle and practices to new uses and at greater scales than they had ever been intended. Designers of national and state parks responded with vigor and creative genius and, in the process, forged a coherent and advanced form of naturalistic design."[68]

The principles of the twentieth-century naturalistic design were well-suited to the mission of the National Park Service as set forth in the 1916 National Park Service Act (a.k.a. the Organic Act). Incorporating the words of well-known landscape architect Frederick Law Olmsted Jr., the enabling legislation charged the new agency with providing for the enjoyment of the parks while at the same time leaving them "unimpaired for the enjoyment of future generations."[69]

Not only had the landscape architecture profession lobbied for the creation of the National Park Service, but concerned with town planning and development as well as park and garden design, its members were uniquely qualified to assist the new agency in carrying out its dual mission. The 1918 Statement of Policy required that the NPS hire a landscape engineer (an early term for landscape architect) to advise the agency director and the park superintendents on the planning and design of each park. In so doing, early NPS landscape architects, such as Mark Daniels and Daniel Hull, "adapted the principles of park design and landscape … inherited from Downing, Olmsted, Hubbard and Waugh to the special problems of national parks."[70]

Likewise the Statement of Policy called for the development of plans in advance of any construction. Following standard professional practice, the first plans examined small park villages within each park and took a form similar to town plans. In the late 1920s NPS Chief Landscape Architect Thomas Vint and the staff of the Landscape Division devised a more comprehensive and detailed process for coordinating park-wide development plans, commonly known as master plans. These plans divided the entire park into specialized areas by land use, and treated road, trails, major development areas, and minor development areas as separate categories. According to landscape historian Ethan Carr, master planning was a direct descendant of nineteenth-century landscape park planning, but was expanded to address complex development concerns such as sewage treatment, hotel siting, road and village planning, and impacts of automobile tourism; as initiated at Mount Rainier in 1926, the master plan was "a unified aesthetic conception…which limited the development of roads and other facilities, enhanced a consistent sense of place, and protected scenery from encroachments."[71]

Master planning was supported by a "cohesive style of landscape design which fulfilled the demands for park development, while at the same time preserving… outstanding natural qualities."[72] Working in collaboration with the other divisions, especially engineering, Vint and the Landscape Division established detailed principles of naturalistic design to minimize human intrusion and ensure designed elements harmonized with each park landscape. Specific practices were codified for every type of development. To harmonize roads with the landscape, for example, designers reduced cuts and fills, deployed gracious, curving "wyes" at intersections, carefully excavated around trees and rock outcroppings, and modified blasting to reduce construction scarring. A post-construction "roadside cleanup" program graded banks down so they would rapidly blend the surrounding terrain. Similar principles applied to trail construction, which demanded sensitive excavation to reduce human impacts on fragile environments and preserve surrounding visual qualities. Policies for the design of park buildings that harmonized with the landscape were established as well, and, building on nineteenth-century traditions, a renewed design ethic for Rustic park architecture emerged with an emphasis on

[68] McClelland, *Building the National Parks*, 89.
[69] 16 U.S.C. 1 et seq. (1988), August 25, 1916, ch. 408, 39 Stat. 535.
[70] McClelland, *Building the National Parks*, 190.
[71] Carr, *Wilderness by Design*, 160-61.
[72] McClelland, *Building the National Parks*, 1.

horizontal proportions, buttressed foundations and overhanging eaves, local stone and timber materials; and an architectural theme based on indigenous, regional, or pioneer methods of construction.[73]

Many NPS practices explicitly addressed the interface between built form and the natural landscape, often calling for the use of native vegetation to soften the transition between the ground and structure or to screen artificial construction from view. In the late 1920s the NPS program of road construction implemented practices such as roadside cleanup, using native stone to face bridges and culverts, the shaping and planting of the slopes along new park roads to blend the roadway into the natural setting and erase the scars of construction.[74]

Vint recognized the value that similar practices--screening, topographic grading, artificial rockwork, and foundation planting --might have to general construction problems elsewhere in the parks, and, in 1929, he coined the term "landscape naturalization" to describe a combination of planting design and site work that merged human construction into its environment. This work included: "grading around buildings or elsewhere for better topographical effects; filling and fertilizing of soils; transplanting or planting of trees, shrubs, lawns, flowers, to make artificial work harmonize with its surroundings; erection of outdoor furniture such as stone seats, drinking fountains, flagstone walks, etc.; vista clearing and screen planting and clean up in areas not included in Roadside Cleanup."[75]

Many of the landscape conservation projects carried out by the CCC at Platt National Park and elsewhere were an outgrowth of the Landscape Division's formative ideas about the treatment of roadsides and landscape naturalization. To Vint such work was essential to upholding the NPS policy that all artificial construction harmonize with the natural setting of each park. According to McClelland, landscape naturalization furthermore "enabled park designers to create or maintain the illusion that nature had experienced little disturbance from improvements and that a stone water fountain or a flagstone terrace was as much at home in a park as a stand of hemlocks or meadow of wildflowers."[76]

Landscape naturalization was desirable not only for aesthetic reasons, but also for ecological ones, and it became a guiding principle for the work of the CCC in national parks. Although the work clearly stemmed from nineteenth-century ideas such as pictorial composition and foundation plantings, it fit Hubbard's and Waugh's definitions for an informal Modern American Landscape or Natural style of landscape design, and it accommodated emerging twentieth-century concerns about ecological communities and the use of indigenous plants. Above all landscape naturalization measures and roadside planting practices were consistent with the new NPS policy prohibiting exotic seeds and plants in national parks—a policy established in 1930 and reaffirmed in 1932 in the agency's revised Statement of Policy.[77]

Practical concerns for sanitation, as well as aesthetics, governed the rehabilitation of Platt's natural springs. The precedent for such work was set in 1925 and 1926 when Hull and Vint designed a walled enclosure and

[73] These principles and practices are discussed in McClelland, *Building the National Parks*, Chap. 6 & 7.

[74] Vint to Resident Landscape Architects, "1930 Fieldwork on Naturalization Data Requested," National Archives, Record Group 79, Washington, D.C., as quoted in McClelland, *Building the National Parks*, 262. Roadside cleanup was similar to landscape naturalization, but undertaken within road corridors; it included "clearing dead timber and debris, repairing construction damage, planting slopes, screening the traces of old roads, clearing vistas, and planting old roadways and borrow pits."

[75] Naturalistic planting techniques such as salvaging plants from construction sites and then planting them around buildings were pioneered in 1927-29 by Vint's resident landscape architect Ernest Davidson at Mount Rainier, where grading, site work and extensive planting blended new road and building construction into the surrounding forests. The success of the naturalized plaza, flagstone walkway, ferns and evergreens around the park's Longmire administration building, for example, encouraged Vint to promote similar work in other parks. For a discussion of Davidson's work, see McClelland, *Building the National Parks*, 259-262.

[76] McClelland, *Building the National Parks*, 263.

[77] Ibid., 288-290.

stone terrace which blended with the natural setting at Yellowstone's Apollinaris Spring, a highly popular destination for motorists along the Grand Loop, solving what was considered both a sanitary and aesthetic problem. Hull, the senior landscape architect at the time, worked in cooperation with the public health service—using plantings as well as constructed rock terrace. Hull recommended that the appearance of springs in other parks be similarly studied and encouraged plantings in future projects to the "usefulness and beauty" of each site. Each spring was treated as an individual design problem, where the nature of the spring, its location, and the surrounding environment were all taken into consideration. Such projects served a combination of important purposes and were well-suited for CCC activity: "First, they sanitized popular watering spots. Second, they protected spring areas from the compaction of soil and erosion which resulted from trampling and a constant flow of water. Finally, they offered park designers an opportunity to create rock and water gardens with native plants and local rocks in the tradition of [William] Robinson's wild gardens and the naturalistic waterfalls and fern gardens of American practitioners such as Henry Hubbard, Samuel Parsons, and Ferruccio Vitale."[78]

The advancement of both landscape naturalization and master planning in the NPS in the late 1920s was the groundwork that allowed the immediate and effective implementation of the ECW program in the NPS in 1933. Master planning outlined the work that needed to be done, while "landscape naturalization" was easily equated with the CCC's conservation work. Moreover, the relatively simple tasks of landscape naturalization—vista clearance, site grading, and digging and planting native vegetation—were an expedient match for the abilities of new enrollees. According to NPS historian Linda McClelland, "Emergency Conservation Work in the national parks made possible work that the park service had been trying to justify under ordinary appropriations, including the landscape naturalization program under Vint's Landscape Division and forest protection work under John Coffman's Forestry Division."[79] When presented the opportunity for a New Deal, the NPS was ready to respond. The result was an unprecedented expansion of American parks and recreational facilities. Between 1933 and 1942, CCC camps completed projects in 975 state, local, and national parks and over one million acres of lands were added to state park systems.[80]

The construction of buildings and other structures at Platt during the 1930s remained subordinate to the overriding natural qualities of the landscape. Although no large buildings were constructed at Platt, a host of smaller structures took form that reflected principles of Rustic design; these ranged in size and prominence from the spring pavilions at Bromide and Pavilion Springs, to the smallest culverts and even fire pits barely discernible from the site's underlying bedrock. The architecture of the 1930s, exhibited the principles that Herbert Maier had employed in his design of museums for Yosemite and Yellowstone parks in the 1920. In addition to heading the CCC State Park District Office in Oklahoma City, Maier was considered the park service's leading spokesperson on the design of park structures. A highly talented architect, he passed his understanding of building design on to his inspectors and the designers assigned to the CCC camps in his district through a series of photographic handbooks and portfolios of work he found particularly suitable for national and state parks. His own understanding of landscape design was likely influenced in part by Thomas Vint and in part by Harvey Cornell, a landscape architect with considerable experience in private practice, including work for the concessioner of Glacier National Park. Cornell joined Maier's Oklahoma City staff and later become the Southwest Region's first Regional Landscape Architect.[81]

[78] Ibid., 372; As cited in McClelland, 256, en 11, Hull reported on this project in his 1925 Annual Report to the Director of the National Park Service, 136.

[79] Ibid., 338.

[80] Carr, *Wilderness by Design*, 299.

[81] For further discussion of Maier's influence on NPS design, see Souilliere, *Architecture in the Parks*, 6, 317-320, and McClelland, *Building the National Parks*, 389-400.

Platt's new design focused on the total transformation of the landscape, in complete accordance with NPS principles and practices for naturalistic design and the development plans outlined in the master plan. Easily aligned with the CCC's conservation goals, these practices ranged from erosion control, reforestation, and native plant propagation to distinctive techniques of naturalistic landscape design which had grown out of late nineteenth-century traditions in park design and were tempered by modern interests that prescribed a close study of nature, exclusive use of native plants, and adherence to ecological principles in grouping shrubs, trees and other trees. Although it is unclear how influential Waugh's ideas were on the CCC work along Platt's Rock and Travertine Creeks, it is clear that Platt's designers were well acquainted with Waugh's ideas about motives, trail development, and nature study even before *Landscape Conservation* was distributed to the CCC camps. CCC landscape architects, especially those who trained under Prof. Elwood, were likely familiar with Waugh's textbooks and the series of ecologically-minded articles that originally appeared in *Landscape Architecture*.

National Significance of the Landscape Design of Platt National Park

Platt National Park Historic District stands out among other CCC-built state and national parks as an exceptional example of NPS naturalistic landscape design and an enduring example of the master planning process and landscape conservation methods that guided the work of the CCC. The high artistic significance and exceptional integrity of Platt National Park Historic District make it an exceptionally cohesive and evocative example of the regionally-based naturalistic landscape design for the South Central United States that evolved through the NPS and CCC collaboration in the 1930s.

The redesign of Platt National Park was conceived through a process of master planning and created through an orchestrated series of conservation projects carried out by the CCC under the supervision of National Park Service. The park design of the 1930s reaffirmed and upheld the park's original purpose of protecting the springs, while at the same time reflecting the broadening definition of national park recreation in the 1930s. The master plans conceptualized the park as a set of varied development areas that were interconnected in pleasing sequence by the park's Perimeter Road and an interior system of hiking trails. Water became the leading motive in the park's new design—visually dominant in the springs, waterfalls, reflective pools, and flowing water as the visitor on foot or by automobile moves through the landscape, sensually taking in the taste and sound of water from bubbling fountains and seeking recreational pleasure in the park's swimming holes, trails, picnic areas, and campgrounds. In a similar manner, the park's creek system served to link the individual landscapes together geographically as well as thematically, offering relief, refreshment, and recreation to visitors in an otherwise hot, dry climate. NPS planners designed each development area to showcase a specific feature (such as a major mineral spring) or provide a recreational activity (such as camping, swimming, or hiking).

Platt stands apart from other parks associated with the CCC for several reasons. First, Platt was a national park, not a state park. According to historian John Salmond "more rigid planning, inspections, and supervision…[was] given to those projects proposed for national parks."[82] This was definitely true at Platt, whose seven-year transformation was supervised by highly-qualified designers from both Thomas Vint's NPS field office and Herbert Maier's regional office, as well as by the well-trained, on-site ECW landscape architects and landscape foremen, most of whom had studied landscape architecture with its emphasis on park design at Iowa State. Second, the outstanding design and workmanship, the hallmarks of the CCC work of the Platt National Park Historic District, are evident in the overall plan, major features such as the spring and stream improvements, a cohesive circuit road, extensive plantings, camp ground development, and trail system. These qualities are also evident in a complement of park buildings and myriads of minor structures, such as culverts, retaining walls, flagstone walks, and stepping stones--many of them exhibiting a high quality of naturalistic

[82] Salmond, *Civilian Conservation Corps*, 18.

stonework that successfully harmonizes the manmade construction / blends with the natural setting of woodland, pasture, and stream valley.

Platt's exceptional design appears to be the product of a myriad of varied talents brought together in the park's CCC organization. Platt was a small park without major scenic resources, and consequently, small scale design was used not just to enhance landscape scenery, but actually to interpret it in ways that drew attention to its finest features. Finally, almost all of Platt's construction was completed with ECW funds and CCC labor, unlike most national parks where skilled contractors paid through PWA funds carried out major construction projects.[83] Platt's design consequently was focused primarily on landscape concerns, not architecture, and is therefore especially representative of the naturalistic landscape design of the NPS and the conservation goals of the CCC. Most of the conservation work related to shaping the banks along completed sections of Perimeter Road; the construction and improvement of hiking and bridle trails; campground planning; the stabilization of the banks of Travertine Creek and Rock Creeks; the redevelopment of the park's many natural springs; and the smaller scale projects, such as grading for topographical effects, transplanting native trees and shrubs, and building flagstone walks, which Vint had first classified as "landscape naturalization." Platt's landscape design presents an unparalleled showcase of landscape features related to the treatment of water; these range from picturesque spring pavilions and stone-faced culverts to naturalistic stone revetments and waterfalls. As a whole, the landscape at Platt represents a veritable encyclopedia of twentieth century naturalistic design ideas and effects.

Platt is significant for its associations with the NPS and CCC collaboration and its contributions to the American park movement in the 1930s. In particular, Platt is an excellent example of how the NPS's program of master planning, combined with principles of naturalistic landscape design and Rustic-style architecture, was put into practice under the landscape conservation and building programs of the CCC. Platt also epitomizes the coordinated process of design and construction that characterized all CCC-NPS projects, in which the intentions of NPS designers were implemented through the workmanship, ingenuity, and talents of the CCC enrollees and skilled local craftsmen/artisans known as LEMs or local experienced men.

Platt's redesign in the 1930 and the tangible form it takes today enable us to study the evolution of New Deal landscape design as practiced in the national parks and to trace the role of the professional landscape architect in shaping the legacy of the Civilian Conservation Corps that has left its imprint on recreational landscapes across the nation. This legacy is one of the great contributions of the landscape architecture profession to American history, touching upon its role in conservation, park design, and recreational development. Significant is the profession's response to the exigencies of the Great Depression and the opportunities afforded by President Roosevelt's New Deal. Platt's design history highlights the training of landscape architects in America especially the contributions of educators such as Henry Hubbard, Frank Waugh, and P.H. Elwood, Jr. It also illustrates the broadening of the professional field and the transition from private work to public work that occurred in the 1930s and, as a result, significantly reshaped the profession.

The Master Planning Process

The excellence of Platt's design owes much to the genius of its master plan, which was significantly revised in 1933 under the ECW program. In describing NPS master planning, Thomas Vint wrote that "a park road

[83] The almost total dependence on ECW funding at Platt was in contrast to parks such as Mount Rainier or Yosemite where PWA and CWA project monies built major infrastructure and an array of lodges, cabins and support structures. Between 1933 and 1937, for instance, Platt recorded 1 PWA architectural project costing $1799.00, while Mount Rainier implemented 10 PWA architectural projects costing $34, 289 (Vint 1937, accounting sheets).

system is the controlling element in the overall development for the park."[84] Platt's master plan exemplifies this principle. Prior to the plan, Platt's circulation system, a north-south access route (Buckhorn Road) crossed by an east-west route (paralleling Travertine and Rock Creeks), was dangerous and congested, in large part due to motorists' need to turn around where the roads abruptly ended and retrace their route back to the point of origin. The master plan solved this circulation problem with a perimeter loop road, long a standard of nineteenth-century park design and, by 1930 and a solution commonly applied in the great western national parks. The means for making the park's key features accessible to the visitor, the perimeter loop road dramatically changed the way visitors perceived the park, creating an experience for them wherein the park landscape could be viewed as a seamless whole and where the transition from one feature to the next followed in a seemingly natural sequence. The reorganization of space also led to the relocation of the old buffalo and elk paddocks from the park's center to the peripheral prairie uplands, giving the designers ample space in the center of park to develop Pavilion Springs—the *raison d'etre* for the park's establishment in 1902—as the central jewel in the park's crown of springs. Aesthetically the road affirmed the idea that the park's natural waters and landscape, not imported amusements, comprised the park experience. The master plan brought Platt's natural resources to the forefront of its design, aligning it with the rest of the national parks. That the master plan was successful is reflected in the fact that it did not appreciably change throughout its 1933-40 implementation and is, furthermore, today largely intact and functioning as originally intended.

Roadside Plantings

Perimeter Road also reflects the interplay between engineering and landscape design that is a hallmark of NPS naturalistic design. The successful collaboration between park service landscape architects and engineers had begun in the late 1920s on the design of heroically scenic roads in Glacier, Mount Rainier, and Yellowstone.[85] At Platt, such monumental engineering was not required, but the engineers and landscape architects still sensitively fit the new, sinuous alignment to the park's dissected topography with a minimum of cut and fill. CCC enrollees, using Vint's so-called "Roadside Cleanup" techniques for healing construction scars, graded back side slopes with "ogee" curves, planted the banks with native red cedars, dogwoods, and sumac, and used local stone to construct culverts. The grading and planting of new park roads included a technique known as "bank blending," which was aimed at naturalizing the roadside so that the disturbed banks, often the result of cut and fill operations, were shaped to avoid erosion, encourage natural revegetation, and in time become indistinguishable from the natural surroundings.[86]

Roadside restoration was one of the most important and widespread activities of the CCC in national parks. Nowhere was this truer than at Platt, where this kind of work was featured in every CCC enrollment period. Such work not only created the "inconspicuous park road" advocated in Hubbard's book (and still perceived today), but also met New Deal conservation goals of preventing erosion and restoring indigenous vegetation. Frank Waugh's insights on the ecology of the roadside published first in an article in *Landscape Architecture* and later in the CCC manual *Landscape Conservation* (1935) highlighted the importance of this work. Planting experiments conducted by the CCC teams at Yosemite in 1935 under the guidance of prominent biologist and ecologist Frederic Clements added to the National Park Service's expertise in returning excavated slopes to a natural, self-sustaining condition.[87]

[84] Thomas Vint, "National Park Service Master Plans," reprint, *Planning and Civic Comment,* April-June 1946, unpaginated.

[85] With the construction of the Going to the Sun Road (NHL) in Glacier, a1926 interagency agreement was drawn up between the Bureau of Public Roads (BPR) and the NPS. Simply stated, the agreement designated that the BPR controlled a road's engineering, while the NPS had full supervisory control, particularly in terms of aesthetic and landscape design. In 1927, with the reorganization of the NPS, former BPR engineer Frank Kittredge became chief engineer of the NPS, paralleling Vint's role as Chief Architect and further integrating engineering into NPS design process.

[86] McClelland, *Building the National Parks*, 208.

[87] Ibid., 358.

Forestry and Mass Plantings

Forestry work was another consistent activity of the CCC crews in national parks. The CCC's enabling legislation expressly "called for protection of the nation's forests from fires, insects, and disease" and, as a result, John Coffman, chief of the NPS Forestry Division since 1928, was designated to head the CCC program in the national parks in 1933. Coffman, who believed that fire "was the greatest menace" to the parks because it "mar[red]… the beauty of the scenery" ensured that national fire protection goals would be carried out in the parks by clearing dead timber, controlling insects and building fire breaks. At the same time the NPS participated in the CCC's "nationwide reforestation program," though perhaps with a greater interest in the aesthetic results of such reforestation than the Forest or Soil Conservation Services.[88]

Platt's forestry program exemplifies the way CCC conservation goals were combined with Vint's landscape naturalization ideas. Unlike small-scale landscape naturalization projects intended to screen development or erase the scars of construction, the forestry program focused on mass plantings and large-scale effects. While Forester Stauffer supervised fire protection and tree rejuvenation, landscape architects supervised the planting programs, which would have a greater visual and aesthetic effect. Five types of plantings—reforestation, boundary, ornamental, protective, and nursery plantings—were implemented and produced specific landscape effects still visible in the park today. Reforestation plantings of thousands of oak, walnut, and red cedar planted *en masse* met Dust Bowl conservation objectives, but were also intended to "strengthen the design" by creating spatial enclosure, especially along the perimeter road and park trails.[89] Boundary plantings were also mass plantings (usually red cedar) but, hearkening back to nineteenth-century landscape traditions, screened obtrusive views of the surrounding town. Naturalistic landscape design aesthetics were, however, best expressed in so-called "ornamental plantings," which helped blend structures into the surrounding forest and added seasonal interest. The circular stone spring enclosure at Buffalo Spring designed by landscape foreman Ed Walkowiak, for example, was surrounded by magnolia, holly, flowering dogwood, crabapple, and redbud. As ornamental plantings matured, pilgrimages to see the park's spring bloom became a local tradition. Even today, springtime in the park features widespread drifts of dogwood and redbud, seemingly natural, but originally planted by the CCC.

In contrast were protective plantings, generally dense bands of pines and red cedars planted on steep slopes to prevent erosion or across the prairie uplands to serve as fire breaks. Other protective plantings integrated landscape architecture and engineering. For example, the 900-foot-long, 12-foot-tall and 10-foot-thick battered, boulder revetment wall in Flower Park halted years of bank failure caused by floodwaters and reclaimed several acres of land in Flower Park; at the same time it created a beautiful sinuous edge for the newly redesigned entrance park. Smaller dry-laid stone walls were constructed with pockets of soil for planting shrubs and vines, such as cat-briar and blackberry, in many places along the banks of Travertine and Rock Creeks. Today, the stabilized banks are completely indistinguishable to the untrained eye from natural, plant-covered rock outcroppings. The beauty and durability of these features and their continuing success in preventing stream bank erosion are a testament to the efficacy of Vint's landscape naturalization ideas.

Planting activities were supported by the park's nursery, situated between Central and Cold Springs Campgrounds on the south side of Travertine Creek. Remnants of the nursery, including a tall stand of pine, are

[88] Richard West Sellars, *Preserving Nature in the National Parks: A History* (New Haven: Yale University Press 1997), 126-27; John D. Coffman, "Forest Protection in the National Parks: An Interview Conducted by Amelia R. Fry," 1973, Oral History Project, National Park Service. 1973, 114; Paige, *Administrative History*, 98-102, 126-7; Robert Fechner, "Objectives and Results of the Civilian Conservation Corps Program," Civilian Conservation Corps, Washington D.C., 1938, 22.

[89] Richey and Popham, "Construction Report for May 16, 1933, to April 1, 1934," 1934, 5.

still extant. NPS propagation nurseries had been established as early as the late 1920s in places like Acadia and Sequoia National Parks; by the 1930s, "transplanting and planting wild vegetation was an important activity in most camps, and CCC work followed the best nursery practices of the day."[90] Platt's nursery also provided an abundance of native plants in keeping with the 1932 prohibition on non-native plants, so that even Thomas Vint noted by 1936 that Platt had "gone a long way toward eliminating exotics."[91] Scientific study also supported these ecological practices. At Platt, George Merrill maintained a herbarium as a record of 600 Oklahoma native plants identified by Harvard's Arnold Arboretum,[92] and in the summer of 1937 Stauffer's assistant N.E. Dole surveyed the forests and mapped plant species locations. Throughout the park service CCC-era studies like these have, in the words of Henry Vincent Hubbard, proven to be "a valuable source of information on plant succession, correlation of site and vegetation, natural regeneration, conditions of food and range for wildlife species, and other matters pertinent to the preservation of areas in their natural state."[93] In many parks, today, these studies are used as baseline data for current research. The plant studies made at Platt, for example, support the park's current prairie restoration program.[94]

Campground Development

Landscape naturalization and conservation practices also figured heavily in Platt's campground redesign, as was true at most parks. Throughout the system, but especially at large parks like Sequoia National Park, increasing tourism resulted in denuded, unappealing campgrounds scarred by foot and automobile traffic. In the early 1930s, John Coffman asked Forest Service plant pathologist Dr. Emilio P. Meinecke to consult on NPS campground problems. Meinecke, who had published the booklet *A Camp Ground Policy* for the Forest Service, "recommended revolutionary changes in campground design and management" that have "ever since influenced the design of picnic areas, campgrounds, and waysides in national and state parks and forests." Meinecke's many recommendations included one-way roads with spurs leading to campsites, vegetative screening to provide privacy between them, and use of native plants. In *Camp Planning and Camp Reconstruction* (1934), Meinecke expanded his ideas to the rehabilitation of existing campgrounds, where years and sometimes decades of compaction and damage needed to be reversed. When Platt's Cold Springs Campground closed for rehabilitation, Miller followed Meinecke's instructions to create a tiered layout of one-way loop roads with parking spurs for campsites, each with a requisite stone fire pit, wooden picnic table, campsite marker, and boulder barriers to restrict car movement. The roads were designed by the Office of the Chief Engineer. Daniel Hull's 1922 community building was incorporated into the new campground, and several new comfort stations and a check-in station were built in the NPS's mature Rustic style. Representing Meinecke's belief that a campground is a park visitor's temporary home, Cold Springs Campground remains the most popular campground in the Platt District and is fully packed on summer weekends. The Cold Springs and Central campgrounds thus demonstrate the physical and ecological durability of CCC-era, Meinecke-influenced campground design, and attest to the continuing cultural value of these places as a social and recreational institution.[95]

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[90] McClelland, *Building the National Parks*, 275-6, 344-45.

[91] Katherine Northcut Sallee and D.J. Compton Schoneweis, "A Cultural Landscape Inventory of the Platt District, Chickasaw National Recreation Area, Sulphur, Oklahoma," 1997, unpublished manuscript on file at CNRA.

[92] Merrill began collecting plants in 1935; he was initially assisted by a college student (part of a CCC campaign to hire students for summer work; Platt had two students, one, Yale Moeller, was from Iowa State). Merrill's collection is currently housed in the CNRA archives. The Harvard Herbaria retain a number of Merrill's Platt specimens in their collection, which can be accessed through their online database http://www.huh.harvard.edu/databases/. Merrill also sent specimens to the Missouri Botanic Garden; a list of these is available at http://www.tropicos.org.

[93] Henry V. Hubbard, "Landscape Development Based on Conservation: As Practiced in the National Park Service," *Landscape Architecture* 29, no. 3 (April, 1939), 117.

[94] N. E. Dole, Jr., "The vegetation type survey of Platt National Park" (typewritten report). National Park Service, San Francisco, California, 1937-39, copy on file at CNRA Archives; Grala, "Spatial Analyses."

[95] E. P. Meinecke, *A Camp Ground Policy* (Ogden, Utah: U.S. Forest Service, U.S. Department of Agriculture, 1932), and *Camp*

Trail Design

Another key aspect of park development was trail work, and Platt's extant trails are an excellent representation of the way that NPS design specifications incorporated both engineering and landscape concerns. In 1934, the Office of the Chief Engineer (a.k.a. the Engineering Division) issued Standards for Trail Construction, a pocket-size field guide that was subsequently used for decades to build safe, beautiful, and durable trails throughout the national parks. Platt's crews executed the technical standards with an extremely high level of workmanship; retaining and parapet walls, switchbacks, stone gutters and cross-trail water breaks along Bromide Hill Trail, following the specifications exactly as written.

Platt's trails, especially the steepest up Bromide Hill, are not just an engineering feat; they more importantly show how such engineering could also be interpretive and expressive of a park's natural beauty. In the *Natural Style*, Waugh expounded on how the scenery of a natural park could be manipulated to enhance the visitor's experience and appreciation by creating trails that featured a curving path with a moderate, changing grade and an orchestrated sequence of carefully framed distant views and intimate views of the trail's immediate setting:

> From the entrance forward the natural park is developed in a sort of panorama. The visitor is led from point to point, where he sees picture after picture, some of pleasing foregrounds filled with flowers, some of quiet masses of trees in middle ground, and some inspiring outlooks to distant landscapes. These points are connected by a suitable path or roadway which forms the true backbone of the garden structure.[96]

In *Landscape Conservation*, guidelines Waugh wrote for the CCC work in national parks and forests almost twenty years later, he expanded on his earlier ideas:

> The scenery [along a trail] can also be made additionally attractive if it is presented by means of themes or motives arranged in 'paragraphs.' For example, if the trail leads up a narrow valley with a pleasant stream in its bed, there will be repeated pictures of a brook which will be the subject of principal interest. The stream supplies the motive to be developed. View after view, picture after picture, will be shown at the most effective points. It is desirable that these views should present considerable diversity. In one place the water will be singing over the rocks, in another there will be a quiet pool with reflections, in another the brook will drop over a cliff forming a fine waterfall. It is good technic [sic.] to offer each one of these views at a fairly sharp curve in the trail, so that visitors will face the view at the most effective point.[97]

Platt's trail system, today, forms an interconnected network that provides access throughout the park and showcases the park's natural beauty and varied features. This is essentially the system outlined in the park's master plans of the 1930s. While portions of the lower Bromide Hill Trail took their current form in the late 1920s under the supervision of Vint and Kittredge's design staff, it for the most part reflects the work carried out by the CCC with the guidance of the engineers and landscape architects, landscape foremen, and LEMs assigned to CCC Camp 808. The trails that lead visitors up Bromide Hill to provide expansive views of the surrounding countryside, as well as those that skirt around the Buffalo pasture and those that follow the valleys

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Planning and Camp Reconstruction (California Region, U.S. Forest Service, ca.1934.). Quotation is from McClelland, *Building the National Parks*, 277.

[96] Waugh, *Natural Style*, 81.

[97] Frank A. Waugh, *Landscape Conservation: Planning for the Restoration, Conservation and Utilization of Wild Lands for Park and Forest Recreation*. Washington: Dept. of the Interior, National Park Service, Emergency Conservation Work, manuscript, 1935, 10-11. This later was issued in the CCC Project Training series and serialized in *Park and Recreation*, a periodical for park officials.

of Travertine and Rock Creeks are a perfect depiction of Waugh's words.[98] Indeed, they present picture after picture of tree-framed waterfalls, rushing water, verdant woodlands, stepping stones, rustic log bridges, and naturalistic pools. Platt's trails are thus a tangible expression of the way late nineteenth- and early twentieth-century naturalistic design principles were promoted by landscape educators and theorists such as Frank Waugh, Henry Hubbard, and P. H. Elwood and were brought into widespread practice by NPS designers who guided the work of the Civilian Conservation Corps.

Entrance, Pavilions, and Plazas

Naturalistic landscape design took on various forms in the park, sometimes paradoxically intermingled with conventions drawn from formal design. The design of Flower Park, with its rustic comfort station fashioned from local stone, reflected in an irregularly shaped pool and its gently meandering, stone-lined gravel paths, fitted to the topography of grassy slopes, clearly owes a debt to the design of late nineteenth or early nineteenth century urban parks. Even Richey and Miller noted that Flower Park, located adjacent to Sulphur, was intentionally "somewhat citified," especially the "garden wall entrance treatment" designed for the park's main entry in Flower Park at Davis Avenue. This not-quite-symmetrical composition of piers and curved walls framed Highway 177 with bubbling wall fountains fed by sulfur springs. The entry was finished with extensive ornamental plantings, and was later published in Albert H. Good's *Park and Recreation Structures* (1938), with the notation that "only a block or two removed from the business district…a less finished rendering would have seemed inappropriate."[99] Similarly refined renderings of landscape occurred elsewhere. At Bromide Springs, Platt's other town entrance on 12th Street became a formal, Beaux Arts Style axis, flanked by limestone entry piers and terminated in a semi-circular plaza. The plaza, ringed by a dressed ashlar masonry seat wall, celebrated the park's abundant mineral springs with a 30-foot, artesian water jet visible from town along the half-mile axis. Here one is reminded of Waugh's advice: "If we are planning a river side park, we ought to have at least a glimpse of the river from the entrance, or some planting or sculptured setting to suggest the flowing water."[100] At Hillside Spring, mineral water bubbled up to form a pool in an arched stone grotto set into a retaining wall on a steep hillside. As the pool overflowed, the water fell into a runnel that traversed the terrace and emptied into the natural stream. Here the entire composition, surrounded by a red cedar grove, was reminiscent of fifteenth-century water features at the royal gardens of the Alhambra in Spain.

Such references to urban and European design motifs may seem a bit unusual for national parks in the West, but they were certainly not uncommon when considered in the light of the full range of NPS, CCC, and New Deal landscapes. Landscape design in the eastern parks often utilized historical styles or motives. Landscape Architect Charles Peterson designed Colonial-Revival-style overpasses for Colonial Parkway in Colonial National Historical Park, and Norman Newton instituted a Beaux-Arts style plaza and entrance allée at the Statue of Liberty National Historic Site. Although such conventions would have been discordant in the naturalistic parks of the nineteenth century, the Modern American style allowed a synthesis of the naturalistic and the formal, the natural and the artificial. Charles Platt's *Italian Gardens* and the Beaux-Arts splendor of the 1893 grounds of the World Columbian Exposition, the results of collaboration between architect Daniel Burnham and Frederick Law Olmsted, sparked the interest of American designers in formal design and was a catalyst for their emulation of finest renditions of Italian, French, German, and Spanish gardens of the Renaissance and Baroque periods. Landscape architects had begun creating eclectic European-inspired, formal gardens in the country place estates of America's rich industrialists in the 1890s, and American students of

[98] Although it is impossible to say how closely Richey, Miller, and Walkowiak followed Waugh's ideas as stated in the pamphlet, they would have been very familiar with Waugh's numerous books (all of which were in the Iowa State library) and his ideas on the natural style, having been taught by Waugh's former colleague, P.H. Elwood.

[99] *Platt National Park News*, n.p.; Flower Park Entrance was depicted in Good, *Park and Recreation Structures*, Part 1, Plate I A-1, 20.

[100] Waugh, *Natural Style*, 81.

landscape architecture increasingly sought opportunities to study in Europe, including fellowships at the Academy of Rome. It is not surprising that formal conventions found their way into the public domain in the 1930s. As Phoebe Cutler, author of *The Public Landscape of the New Deal* has pointed out, "Distilled, numerous [landscape design] traditions went into the parks of the thirties. English parks, public and private, and the American country estate, with its prototypical combination of sport and garden, contributed heavily."[101] Design features such as Italianate water cascades, French parterres, and English mazes were hence adopted and adapted for urban parks of the period such as Meridian Hill Park in Washington DC (NHL), and such PWA-funded projects as Bryant Park in New York, Trinity Park in Fort Worth, and the Municipal Rose Garden in Berkeley, among many others. Thus the adaptation of some of these same ideas at Platt by Richey, Miller, and Walkowiak is typical of New Deal landscape architecture, and not surprising, especially given the emphasis on garden history and historical design styles in their curriculum at Iowa State College.[102]

Rustic Stone Construction

The collection of Rustic stone work at Platt most vividly displays the workmanship of the CCC under the supervision of NPS landscape architects. Evidence of this legacy repeats throughout the park landscape in a variety of structures, large and small--from the spacious pavilions housing the springs at Bromide and Pavilion Springs and stylistically unified set of sturdy comfort stations to the numerous waterfalls, entrance developments, flagged terraces, road and trail culverts, retaining walls, woodland steps and stairways, and even the small flue-less fireplaces created through the careful embedding of boulders of native stone. Such work built on nineteenth-century garden traditions of wild gardens and rock gardens made popular by British gardener William Robinson, and on early twentieth-century urban park designs, where artificial rockwork was used along steps and retaining walls and, most impressively, to create rivers and swimming pools that transported urban dwellers to rural "swimming holes."

In contrast to the "citified" or formal structures, which were completed during the CCC's early years (1933-34), Platt's later structures were built in a decidedly informal, Rustic style and include some of the best CCC-constructed examples in the south central United States. Although "rustic" had been used to describe park architecture as early as the late 1800s, by the 1930s the term had taken on particular meaning within the NPS to describe a set of design principles for harmonizing manmade construction with the natural setting of a park or landscape reservation. These principles called for the use of local and native materials, adaptation of indigenous or pioneering methods of construction, the elimination of the line of demarcation between nature and manmade objects, the avoidance of right angles and straight lines in all aspects of design, and massing that emphasized low silhouettes and horizontality.[103] The park's comfort stations, for example, which were carefully sited and used native materials—a rough-finished dark grey and brown limestone quarried in nearby Dougherty and typical of local Arbuckle Mountain geology—demonstrate how NPS designers customized a standardized floor plan to local materials and conditions.

The large pavilions at Bromide Springs and Pavilion Springs demonstrate how NPS designers used landscape conventions and the region's abundance of stone to merge structural improvements with the natural landscape.

[101] Cutler, *Public Landscape of the New Deal*, 48-49.

[102] In addition to their design courses, students in the four-year, landscape architecture program at Iowa State took two courses in landscape theory, two courses in landscape history, three courses in architectural history, and two travel courses in which they toured great works of landscape architecture in the U.S., many of which were country estates that in turn contained eclectic European-style formal gardens (in addition to informal, naturalistic gardens). Both Miller and Walkowiak won awards in the Landscape Exchange, an annual national student competition, for their European-style, Beaux Arts designs for a war memorial and a French chateaux, respectively. Both Miller's and Walkowiak's competition designs use axial geometries not unlike the axial plaza at the Bromide Springs entrance. (*Horizons: A Resume of Departmental News, 1929* Ames: Iowa State College, 25; *Horizons, 1930*, 26-27.)

[103] McClelland, *Building the National Parks*, 394-96.

Overlooking Rock Creek, the shelter at Bromide Springs, with its battered walls and corner piers of cyclopean rock, was set upon a raised flagstone terrace that stepped down to a sunken garden (once surrounded by benches) consisting of a lawn with a simple rectangular lily pool surrounded by embedded flagstone. Set in the ravine below the grade of nearby Highway 177, the shelter at Pavilion Springs was surrounded by a system of flagged walks and stone stairways that provided stepping stones across the stream and in several directions led uphill to nearby foot trails. The site design cleverly responded to the constant flow and substantial volume of outflow from "Big Tom," the principal spring located here and historically one of the most popular in the park. From the central fountain in the center of the open-sided pavilion, the sulphur waters were channeled through hidden discharge pipes and spilled into a downhill stream that flowed in a runnel alongside the walkway beneath the highway to join the larger stream on the opposite side. The elaborate rockwork, frame timbers, and architectural detailing with peg and tenon joints at Pavilion Springs are particularly interesting and, like the stepping stones and footbridges near Antelope Springs, suggest the influence of Japanese design, which may have been inspired by Prof. Elwood's interest in Asian design.[104]

Given the high quality of Platt's later buildings, it is perhaps no coincidence that they represent the mature expression of a unified program of Rustic architecture and naturalistic landscape design. The Pavilions at Bromide and Pavilion Springs, the south entrance, and campground buildings all took form after 1936, when Platt's design work was supervised by professional landscape architects and architects from what would soon become the newly organized regional office in Oklahoma City (later moved to Santa Fe). In anticipation of a park service-wide reorganization, the responsibility for CCC/ECW projects in the national parks was transferred to Assistant Director Conrad Wirth and the district offices which previously oversaw only the CCC work in state parks. Wirth, a landscape architect and former student of Frank Waugh, had spearheaded the state park CCC/ECW and was now placed in charge of the CCC work in the national parks as well. The CCC district office at Oklahoma City continued to be headed by Herbert Maier, the NPS's chief spokesperson on Rustic design, a member of Ab Good's panel of experts that selected the examples shown in *Park Structures and Facilities* (1935), and the architect whose influence on the design of museums and exhibits at Yellowstone, Yosemite, and Grand Canyon was widely known and held in highest esteem.

The realignment of the CCC program was more than an administrative expedient and cost-cutting remedy as the CCC program was scaled back. Moreover, in the south central states it represented a serendipitous fusion of design influences bringing together the expertise of Vint, Maier, their respective staffs, and the team of CCC designers and technical experts that had been assigned to CCC Camp 808 since 1933 and 1934. While CCC landscape architect Jerome Miller assumed additional responsibility for the inspection of state park work, progress on completing Platt's master plan came to the attention of Maier's staff, which included landscape architect Harvey H. Cornell (a 1916 Iowa State graduate who was one of the first students of a land-grant college to receive an MLA degree from Harvard University's graduate school), and architect Cecil Doty (an architect educated at Oklahoma A & M). The horizontality of the shelters, presence of oversized boulders and timbers, and broad overhanging eaves reflected the rustic principles of design that Herbert Maier promoted and

[104] P. H. Elwood and Frank Waugh were both interested in Japanese gardening. Elwood taught the subject in his history class, assigned the design of Asian-themed gardens in studio exercises, and took students on a three-month tour of Asia in 1929. Elwood's impressions on the gardens of Japan and China appeared in *Landscape Architecture* 20, no. 3 (April 1930): 192-200, and photos from this trip became part of the Iowa State slide collection used by students. Elwood also worked with Japanese garden designer Myaida in the early 1920s. It seems likely that his students Richey, Miller, and Walkowiak would have been familiar with these design ideas. The standard text on the subject was Josiah Conder, *Landscape Gardening in Japan*, 1893, reprint (Tokyo, New York and London: Kodansha International, 2002). In the *Book of Landscape Gardening* (1926), Waugh equated Japanese landscape gardening with the "picturesque" style, which he found appropriate for work on landscape reservations (McClelland, "Introduction to Reprint Edition," *Book of Landscape Gardening*, by Frank A. Waugh, reprint (Amherst: University of Massachusetts Press and the Library of American Landscape History, 2007), xviii.

echoed the form and proportions of the picnic shelter built early in the CCC program at nearby Turner Falls Park, a structure admired for the "rugged informality and textural quality" of its stonework.[105]

The excellence of the entire collection of CCC features at Platt is evident from the inclusion of many in Albert H. Good's three-volume *Park and Recreation Structures* (1938). An expanded version of a portfolio of NPS design, *Park Structures and Facilities*, that Good, with Vint and Maier's assistance, had produced in 1935, it was the most comprehensive of a number of handbooks used to inspire park designers throughout the CCC program.[106] Platt facilities featured in Good's book included the Flower Park entry portal, the Bromide Springs Pavilion, one of the comfort stations at the Cold Springs Campground, a wooden picnic table, and most notably, waterfalls along Travertine Creek, pools at Antelope Spring, and a set of stepping stones.[107]

Water as the Park's Leading Motive

To the national park designers at Platt, the preservation of the park's springs and streams posed a complex technical and aesthetic problem. First of all – the park's water resources, particularly its mineral springs -- were the reason for its designation as a national park, yet the resources were threatened by overuse, erosion, and extreme weather conditions, and the facilities that made them accessible to the public were deteriorating, outdated, and inadequate to accommodate the increasing numbers of visitors who were coming to the park. These problems were compounded by continuing drought in the 1930s and the failure of natural rainfall to replenish the springs.

Twentieth-century thinking influenced the way landscape architects viewed the treatment of water. Whereas the form of a still, mirrored surface dominated the treatment of water in nineteenth century naturalistic design, an interest in capturing the changing character and movement of water dominated twentieth century landscape compositions. Landscape writers praised the expressive power and dynamism of water, while practitioners provided models that sought to emulate the finest examples offered by the American landscape.

In *An Introduction to Landscape Design*, Hubbard and Kimball extolled the scenic beauty of America, depicting the majestic falls of Yosemite Valley as an example of Nature's "handiwork" and drawing attention to the role of landscape architects in preserving such places. Similarly manmade water features that convincingly replicated natural ones were praised, including the design by Hubbard's firm of the waterfall at "Mariemont," the Newport estate of Mrs. Mary Emery. *American Landscape Architecture,* edited by P.H. Elwood in 1924, gave iconic stature to examples such as the waterfall at "Mariemont" and recognized similar manmade waterfalls by Ferruccio Vitale (at "Brookside" in Stockbridge, Mass.) and Jens Jensen (at the K.D Alexander Estate in Spring Station, Kentucky). Images of these places had been reproduced in the form of lantern slides for use in the college classroom, establishing a standard to which other professionals could aspire. To Hubbard, the essence of a flowing stream, no matter how large, lay in its continuity. For enhancing natural beauty and increasing artistic effects, Hubbard suggested:

> Just as you can, elsewhere along a stream, add to its apparent importance by making its bed seem to express the work of a greater flow of water than now occupies this bed, so you can magnify the importance of the waterfall by making its setting and the pool at its base apparently the work of a greater carving power than there really is.[108]

[105] The picnic shelter was illustrated in the Inspector's Photographic Manual compiled by Maier and his staff; the praise is Good's and comes from *Park and Recreation Structures*, 1938, Plate II D-6, which also noted the freehand lines, well-scaled rafter ends, and battered walls.

[106] McClelland, *Building the National Parks*, 390; Carr, *Wilderness by Design*, 283-85.

[107] Good, ed., *Park and Recreation Structures*, 1938, Plates I A-1, I G-17, H-17, I L-1, II A-2, and II G-1.

[108] P.H. Elwood, ed. *American Landscape Architecture*) New York: Architectural Publishing Company, 1924), 60-61, 142-43.

O. C. Simonds, the Midwestern landscape architect who helped define the regional expression known as the Prairie Spirit, was particularly noted for his naturalized ponds, lakes, and other water features. His well-known Willowmere, an idyllic lake, at Graceland Cemetery in Chicago, and the lesser-known lily pool at the Edwin C. Shaw Estate in Akron, Ohio, and swimming pool at "Locke Ledge" in Yorktown Heights, New York, appeared in *American Landscape Architecture* (1924). His treatise, *Landscape-Gardening* (1920), recommended a close study of nature and the natural forces. On the artistic effects of water moving through a landscape, Simonds wrote:

> Small streams, known as rivulets, brooks, creeks, and runs, are very interesting features where they exist as nature made them. They are not only interesting in a landscape, but they frequently have waterfalls and rapids that make sounds pleasing to the ear....Sometimes they spread out to form placid pools, and again they are crowded in narrow gorges through which they rush with great energy....Occasionally such streams are found within the boundaries of great parks, and although these parks are developed for the production and preservation of beautiful scenery, they contain no features more attractive than these lively brooks.[109]

On the treatment of springs, Simonds wrote in *Landscape-Gardening* (1920):

> The waters from rain and melting snow which enter the ground at relatively high levels may descend until some impervious stratum is reached, and then flow out as springs where the impervious stratum meets a ravine, a valley, or the bank of a stream. Springs vary in size from a tiny trickling rill that will merely moisten the earth to a large river which issues from its source in such volume as to be navigable from its beginning; but whatever its size, a spring may be an interesting feature in a landscape. The smallest ones may moisten the earth enough for marsh marigolds, forget-me-nots and iris, those somewhat larger may spread out into clear pools, reflecting jewel-weeds and gentians or may tumble over boulders and make cheerful sounds. Its treatment calls for some skill. It should either appear as nature's own production, as though man had done nothing to it, or, if some visible work of man's is necessary, this should seem to serve the spring and be subordinate to it.[110]

Frank A. Waugh had the greatest influence on the treatment of water in the national and state parks during the CCC era. He enthusiastically emphasized the inherent value of water views in the natural landscape—views that ought to be, in his opinion, "sought, preserved and sympathetically displayed." His readers and students alike became captivated by the rich, almost poetic, imagery of moving water in nature, on the one hand, writing of "water running downhill," and, on the other, leading his students in field studies where they made scientific observations and mathematical measurements of natural streams as a preparation for design (such field work represents the beginnings an ecological approach to American landscape design).

Of greatest relevance to the redesign of Platt National Park and its distinctive treatment of the brooks and springs was the emphasis Waugh placed on the idea of motive. Waugh borrowed the idea of motive from the writings and lessons of German landscape architect and Prof. Willy Lange. To Waugh the designer's selection and adherence to a single motive gave a common unifying theme to a park landscape, and was particularly effective in orchestrating the scenes that would make up a landscape in the Natural style.

Hubbard was a member of the firm, Pray, Hubbard & White. The quotation comes from Hubbard and Kimball, *Introduction*, 141-142.

[109] Elwood, ed. *American Landscape Architecture*, 156-57; Simonds, *Landscape-Gardening*, 89-91.

[110] Ibid., 86-87.

Waugh first presented the concept of motive in *The Natural Style of Landscape Gardening* (1917), where he described the river as one of the most popular "topographic" motives to depict the American landscape:

> Wherever a river threads its way through a landscape it is pretty sure to carry with it the dominating landscape theme. Countless beautiful views show up and down its stretches. Masses of hills or trees come into view at every bend. Endless pictures are reflected in its quiet reaches, and endless songs go up from its rocky riffles. Any park lying along almost any river would quite certainly be dominated by the river motive.[111]

Time and time again Waugh drew attention to the design possibilities presented by naturally occurring water features. He undoubtedly sparked the imagination of Platt's designers, who like many students at land-grant colleges, would have been introduced to Waugh's writings early in their training as landscape architects. On the unlimited possibilities of the brook motive, 1917, Waugh wrote in the *Natural Style of Landscape Gardening* (1917):

> If there is only a trickle of water in it one can set back certain stretches so as to make reaches of flat water on which the shadows lie and on the margin of which all manner of aquatic plants will thrive. Then there will be alternating stretches of water singing over stones or flashing in the sun. Foot bridges or stepping stones at suitable points add to the picture. There may be seats in shady nooks from which one can watch the panorama of life upon the brook; while at other points there will be sunny, grassy glades opening back into neighboring meadows or looking out to adjoining lawns.[112]

In the 1926 edition of his *Book of Landscape Gardening*, a popular book for general audience, he expanded the captivating imagery associated with a running brook:

> Nothing can be more appropriate than the glancing, glimmering, vanishing, changing glimpses of running water in a small brook. Such a brook should be wooded, and among the trees there should be loose tangles of vines, shrubbery, brambles and brakes. Rocky impediments in the bed of the brook, if the character of the ground will justify them, give little, tinkling cascades where the sunlight flashes. Here and there a calmer pool may grow some rushes or lily pads. And every turn gives a change of view, and every change of view a new delight. [113]

Waugh repeatedly emphasized the imagery of the river and brook in his writing. In an article, "Running Water," published in *Landscape Architecture* in 1932, he lamented: "It seems that the beauty of running water—its flash and gleam in the sunshine, its singing music, its delightful plant associations—has been comparatively neglected." He then shifted his emphasis to describe "a few of the elementary physiographic principles governing stream flow," principles he and his students had drawn from a five-year study of erosion and deposition along Jim River, a tributary of the Connecticut River that flowed through the Massachusetts campus. Here Waugh moved beyond the scenic and sensual possibilities offered by a study of nature to present a model of flowing water that could be scientifically observed, mathematically calculated, and accordingly replicated. Not only was the observation of nature essential to the attainment of naturalistic effects, but the designer through the careful study of the body of water's changing character as it moved through the landscape could determine how it over time would shape and reshape the surrounding landscape. In this, Waugh demonstrated an innovative ecological approach to what American practitioners since Downing had perceived

[111] Waugh, *Natural Style*, 68-69.
[112] Ibid., 122.
[113] Waugh, *Book of Landscape Gardening* (New York: Orange Judd, 1926), 123.

as a difficult design problem (the difficulty of replicating nature in the artificial construction of rockwork and presentation of water features).[114]

At Platt the leading motive was drawn from the park's purpose to preserve the mineral springs and related waterways—the reason the park had been designated in 1902. This became a principal objective stated in the park's master plan, justifying to a large extent an ambitious plan of redevelopment and recreational development that would have been questioned in most national parks. The transformation of Platt's streams into a picturesque, recreational landscape not only gained the approval of the park designers and landscape architects, it was promoted as a model of naturalistic design. Not surprising was the depiction of the waterfalls along Travertine Creek in the three-volume *Park and Recreation Structures,* the NPS portfolio of photographs and simple drawings published in 1938 as both a guide for CCC work and as an honor roll of successful and praiseworthy design in national and state parks. Editor Ab Good recognized that while the artificial control of stream flow was to be avoided in national parks and monuments, "the situation with respect to lesser parks is somewhat different....there are undoubtedly situations, such as that in which a serious regional shortage of facilities for water recreation exists, which justify this sort of modification of natural conditions."[115]

Commendable solutions for dams were presented in the second volume (Part Two) and were limited only to "dams that cleverly insinuate themselves into park settings by virtue of appearing to be waterfalls of natural origin, or lake-impounding topographic features having natural aspect in considerable degree." Good offered detailed advice. Naturalism could be achieved when the ledge rock is native, by "building out the lower courses in imitation of natural ledges." The surface treatment of the dam was to reflect the park's geology and "in a gorge or glen in which rock stratifications are exposed, attempt should be made to bring to the face of the dam all the characteristics of the native ledge rock." Variety in the size of rocks was desirable to achieving a natural appearance. Special attention was to be given the distribution of water so that structural foundation was "screened by the flow" and portions visible during low water would not reveal the artificiality of "otherwise well-contrived naturalism."[116]

Good held naturalistic dams and steps in high esteem: "Minor dams, naturalized to look like waterfalls, and trail steps are probably the only elements in the development of a natural area to suffer human use which can make successful pretense at being Nature's handiwork." He praised the artificial waterfalls on Travertine Creek where "rock arrangements purported to simulate small natural waterfalls" and remarked that in the "rock-sculpturing" nature had been "a good teacher ...for the fact of artificiality is cleverly hidden." Particularly picturesque in his opinion was the crossing on Travertine Creek, in which a well-executed flight of trail steps led down to an artfully and informally arranged crossing of stepping stones.[117]

Such recreational water features met the foremost practical requirements of sanitation that there be a freely flowing source of water and controls to prevent overcrowding or to detect pollution. Good claimed that the desirability of naturalism in creating such artificial features was due only, in Good's words, to "an obstinate

[114] Waugh, "Running Water" *Landscape Architecture 22, no. 4 (July 1932): 270-80.* Quotations are from 271.
[115] Good, ed., *Park and Recreation Structures*, v. ii, 119.
[116] Ibid., v. ii, 119-123.
[117] Ibid., v. ii, 121-123; Plate 11 G-1; v. i, 170; Plate I L-1. The Platt waterfalls in Plate II G-I were depicted alongside those from state parks in Massachusetts, Nebraska, New York, Arkansas, Oklahoma, and Texas. The images from the three south central states depicted the closest similarities to Platt's topographic and geological character; these parks included Boyle Metropolitan Park in Little Rock, Arkansas; Turner Falls Park, Oklahoma; Mohawk Metropolitan Park in Tulsa, Oklahoma; and Palmetto State Park, Texas. Featured as a "naturalized dam," the Boyle park example illustrated the ways in which a waterfall could be fashioned to appear naturalistic at varying levels of seasonal flow. The stepping stones, reminiscent of those in the garden of a Japanese tea house, were depicted alongside a marsh crossing constructed of embedded wood pilings in Michigan's Ludington State Park.

preference for Nature less modified."[118] In a park such as Platt where the creation of pools for recreation and the enhancement of natural scenery were highly desirable, the introduction of artificial waterfalls and pools called for the utmost realism and sense of authenticity.

However, the less crowded and less polluted nature of state and national park landscapes permitted designers to respond to Good's call "for the return of the 'old swimming hole' of fond recollection."[119] Epitomized by Jens Jensen's stratified limestone pool designs for Columbus Park (1912-1920) in urban Chicago, by the 1930s, these natural, rock-lined swimming pools were falling out of favor in urban areas due to growing health concerns about non-chlorinated waters. Deliberate effort was made in CCC-era parks to enhance and even artificially create naturalistic streams, dams, springs, and pools for swimming, especially in state parks and recreation demonstration areas that emphasized the recreational use of land and water resources. Though popular with visitors, recreational water features—such as Grand Canyon's Phantom Ranch swimming pool and naturalized gardens at Iron and Fern Springs in Yosemite—often proved difficult to maintain and were abandoned or replaced with more modern facilities in later years.[120]

Not only is the extensive development of water features at Platt considered somewhat of an anomaly in national park design, but also the preservation of the water features in the form they acquired during the CCC-era is remarkable considering the area's history of flooding and streambed erosion. The design of such features along Travertine Creek demonstrate that landscape naturalization measures, holistic in approach, were aimed at fulfilling multiple purposes--those of sanitation, utility, aesthetics, and recreation. That Platt's naturalistic water features were illustrated in Good's book is notable because they not only represented a great achievement in the design of artificial and naturalistic rockwork and watercourses, but also signified the success of the NPS planning process at Platt and efforts to upgrade and enhance the inherent scenic character of the once-eroded park.

Farther downstream, recreational use was addressed through the creation of the five dams and corresponding swimming holes as another example of collaborative design merging engineering with aesthetics. Conceived by the Office of the Chief Engineer to provide for the regulation of creek flow and to allow for periodic cleaning, the boulder dams concealed a steel-gated, concrete culvert. The dams were adapted on site to meet local hydraulic and engineering concerns, but the landscape architects ensured that naturalistic rockwork and native plantings would blend the dams into their surroundings. When completed, the dams at full stream level were almost impossible to distinguish from other natural falls along the creek. To this day, visitors to the park are amazed to learn that many of the park's falls and pools are constructed features, designed to complement and enhance the natural setting.

Other waterways at Platt—the stream running through Flower Park and its cascade into Travertine Creek, the meander of Limestone Creek around Travertine Island, the outflow stream at Pavilion Spring, and others—similarly demonstrated the same high level of naturalistic design, fine masonry craftsmanship, and detailed planting. Considered as a system, the waterways are even more important as the most visible element of the park's uniform identity (or "leading motive" as Frank Waugh used the term in 1917) as a landscape based on the comprehensive design and treatment of water. In other words, the park was designed for visitors to experience water in all of its forms, through sight, sound, scent, touch, and taste. The creeks and swimming holes were designed for the active pursuits of fishing, swimming, and bathing; trails, overlooks, and fountains encouraged visitors to peaceably contemplate water's sight and sound; and the large pavilions were designed so

[118] Ibid., v. ii, 120.
[119] Ibid.
[120] For a description of these projects see McClelland, *Building the National Parks*, 371-2, 373-77. Phantom Ranch was featured in Good, ed., 1938, Plate II G-5.

visitors, in the company of others, could drink, smell, and be healed by the water. While most national parks had a grand and obvious guiding motive (whether it was volcanic geology at Yellowstone or majestic mountain scenery at Mount Rainier) which simply needed to be preserved and enhanced, at Platt, the humbler motive of plain water, buried under years of town and resort development, needed more effort to be revealed. One might say the principles and processes of naturalistic design did not just fine-tune Platt's water-dominated image, but in essence created it. And yet, despite the hard work the creative process entailed, the landscape seemed to not have been designed at all. The success of these effects led Henry V. Hubbard, in his 1939 article entitled "Landscape Development Based on Conservation," to place Platt among the most famous of national parks and illustrate the dam and stepping stones at Fish Crossing as evidence of a design process where "much effort has been bent toward preserving…the effect that man has done nothing."[121]

Comparison to the CCC Work in Other National and State Parks

What distinguishes Platt National Park from other state and national parks of the time is the outstanding artistic quality of its *landscape* design and its illustration of CCC-era landscape conservation measures. Unlike Bandelier where national significance is focused on architectural achievement of the NPS designers and the CCC in creating a unified park village based on the massing and detail of ancient pueblos, the national significance of Platt lies in the creation of a unified park environment through the planning of a sequence of development areas and the landscape enhancement of the park's springs, streams, and woodlands.

Previous recognition of national significance has resulted in the National Historic Landmark designation of a number of New Deal park landscapes for their outstanding representation of NPS-influenced park design and construction. This includes the NHL designation under the Architecture in National Parks Theme Study (1986) of the outstanding architectural collection of Pueblo Revival buildings and structures designed by NPS designers and built in large part by the CCC at Bandelier National Monument and a group of innovative interpretive museums, designed in the late 1920s by Herbert Maier for the Yellowstone and Yosemite parks. The approximately one hundred mile Skyline Drive with its many associated overlooks, picnic areas, and overnight facilities in Shenandoah National Park was designated an NHL under the Historic Park Landscapes in National and State Parks MPS. The Landscape Architecture of the National Park Service Theme Study (1998) supported the NHL designation of several national park landscapes for the precedent setting aspects of their design; these included the Going-to-the-Sun Highway in Glacier National Park for its outstanding achievement of highway construction and as the proving ground of the NPS's collaboration with the Bureau of Public Roads, Grand Canyon Village and the development areas of Mount Rainier for their reflection of NPS planning process, Grand Canyon for its village planning in the first decade of the agency's history and Mount Rainier as the proving ground for the NPS master planning process.

While the Mount Rainier and Grand Canyon Village NHL districts include work executed by the CCC, this work is incidental to nationally significant efforts of the 1920s through which the NPS pioneered and established a reputation for park planning, landscape preservation, and construction practices that harmonized with a park's natural beauty. Although the Platt National Park Historic District reflects the high caliber of artistry and craftsmanship in executing the park's master plan through landscape design, it most closely compares with the Skyline Drive NHL district, which represents the achievement of the NPS roads program of the 1930s and its relationship to changing attitudes about the recreational development of national parks. As an outstanding depiction of CCC workmanship and National Park naturalistic landscape architecture, its design caliber compares most closely with that of the Bandelier National Monument NHL District, where NPS

[121] Hubbard, "Landscape Development Based on Conservation," 108. A view of the stepping stone crossing at Fishing Crossing on Travertine Creek appears in Hubbard's article.

architectural design and CCC construction in the Pueblo Revival style resulted in an outstanding model of regionally-based rustic "parkitecture."

The NPS Landscape Architecture theme study led to the NHL designation of several state parks and former recreational demonstration areas (RDAs), giving full coverage, geographically and program-wise, to significant aspects of the NPS CCC program and recreational development outside the national parks; these designations include Bastrop State Park in Texas, Mendocino Woodlands RDA in California, St. Croix RDA in Minnesota, and Guernsey State Park in Wyoming. These state parks have excellent historic integrity and were generally recognized for their complement of period development, the exceptional quality of their original design and planning, and their physical condition. Pine Mountain State Park in Georgia was also significantly associated with Franklin D. and Eleanor Roosevelt's direct association, and exemplary examples of surviving CCC camps have been recognized in Wisconsin and Colorado.

While the involvement of the CCC is a focal point of the Skyline Drive designation, the role of the CCC figured only nominally in the other national park designations. For this reason the NHL designation of Platt National Park Historic District fills a gap in the representation of significant aspects of American's landscape history and the representation of the CCC legacy on American's public lands. Unlike previous designations that recognize the achievement of the CCC in park architecture, road design, and recreational planning, the designation of the Platt National Park Historic District recognizes the transformative achievement of NPS designers and the CCC in applying a combination of landscape conservation measures, derived from the professional practice of landscape architecture, to the restoration of a public landscape for the purpose of preserving its significant scenic qualities and enhancing its recreational value.

What ultimately differentiates Platt from other parks of this era is twofold: first, the essential cohesiveness of the landscape design at Platt—centered on the ebb and flow of water as it springs forth from natural springs and meanders through the park gaining momentum as streams come together; and, second, the extensive use of landscape naturalization techniques that so dramatically and completely transformed the park's scenic and recreational character. While there are national parks that have more and better Rustic-styled architecture or more complex and more influential master plans, few exhibit the close interrelationship of the visitor's coordinated movement through the park with changing passages of scenery. Platt National Park surpasses other parks in the cohesive, integrated qualities of its small-scale design. The high craftsmanship and integrity of Platt National Park Historic District's extant features demonstrate not only how effective a cohesive plan of development can be in drawing attention to the significant natural features of a park, but also how the attention to small design elements and simple conservation measures—trails and steps, creeks and springs, and plantings for open prairies and forested ravines—achieved functional as well as artistic benefits. Platt National Park Historic District, therefore, perhaps more than any other national park, demonstrates the transformative quality and aesthetic achievement of the best naturalistic landscape design of the New Deal-era.

Historic Integrity of the CCC Legacy at Platt National Park

After 1940, surprisingly little change occurred at the park. In the years immediately following the end of the CCC program, "maintenance in work in the parks suffered dramatically" and Platt was no exception.[122] After the war, as funding and park visitation rebounded, the park saw little expansion other than the addition and development of the Rock Creek Campground in 1950, though it had been part of the park's master plan since 1941. Even as the NPS implemented the bold "Mission 66" expansion campaign to meet the needs of postwar automobile tourism, Platt struggled to regain attention and appropriations despite ever increasing visitation

[122] Paige, *Administrative History*, 34.

figures (1,136,586 in 1955).[123] During this period of major NPS funding, Platt acquired relatively little new construction, primarily a few concrete and tile comfort stations. Through a program of more sympathetic design and construction called "Parkscape" which followed Mission 66, the Travertine Nature Center took form near Little Niagara in the late 1960s. The new center's interpretive sphere converted the easternmost portion of Perimeter Road to pedestrian-only access, but the architects, McKie and Kamrath of Houston, known for their interpretations of the "organic" ideology of Frank Lloyd Wright, designed the building and its site to blend with the park's New Deal signature, rather than alter it appreciably.

The other major late twentieth-century change at Platt was administrative, as the park was merged in 1976 with the nearby 9,000-acre Arbuckle National Recreation Area (NRA), which had been established around the creation of the Arbuckle Reservoir in 1965. The two sites were joined, creating Chickasaw NRA. While this change signaled a shift from national park to a larger national recreation area, the change also helped preserve Platt's CCC-era landscape. Pressures of increasing numbers of visitors with new demands for more active recreation like boating and horseback riding were accommodated by new development in other parts of the recreation area, rather than by revision or deletion of the 1930s CCC design.

The historic integrity of Platt's CCC-era design, when compared to the work of the CCC in other national parks, ranks among the most intact. Numerous CCC camps were assigned to the national parks between 1933 and 1942, with the larger parks receiving the services of several camps for multiple six-month periods. Much of the CCC legacy in the larger national parks was dispersed over a much larger area, and resulted from the efforts of a greater number of CCC work teams with varying skills, experience, and supervision. The approach to design in the large parks required less adherence to an overall, single design motive or theme and less rigorous coordination of details and the spatial transition from one development area to the next—two qualities that distinguish the design of Platt.

Conclusion

The high artistic quality of the redesign of Platt National Park still visible today is a testament to the professionalism and design ethic forged by the National Park Service's Landscape Division (later known as the Branch of Plans and Design) and to the high caliber and talents of practicing landscape architects who adapted their professional training and experience to the conservation of American finest natural features and transformation of these places for public enjoyment and recreation during the Great Depression and the New Deal.

The history of Platt's redesign provides a rare opportunity to study and understand the evolution of twentieth-century naturalistic landscape design, particularly the contributions of the landscape architecture profession and the role of the National Park Service and the CCC in shaping this important legacy. The transformation of Platt National Park and the work of the CCC generally, coincided with the emergence of new ideas about landscape ecology with its emphasis on the use of regionally appropriate native species and the employment of conservation measures that enhanced scenic qualities while at the same time conserving natural beauty and expanding the opportunities for outdoor recreation.

[123] As late as 1965, just one year from Mission 66's supposed completion, the park superintendent wrote the regional office: "During the Mission 66 era, Platt National Park has been a park where antiquity has flourished undisturbed….No pox of new development has disturbed the tranquility of the park. The amberine and picturesque details of CCC construction reign in supremacy" as quoted in Hohmann and Grala, *Cultural Landscape Report,* 131. Mission 66 was spearheaded by Conrad Wirth, who had become NPS Director in the 1950s.

Regional variations in naturalistic landscape design, analogous to that formulated and practiced by the Midwestern landscape architects in the early twentieth century, were an inevitable by-product of the NPS's design program in state and national parks during the New Deal. Platt exemplifies the style as it evolved in the south central United States through the collaborative work of national park designers and the CCC. It importantly reflects a synthesis of notable influences, including Thomas Vint's team of resident landscape architects; the talents of designers and landscape foremen assigned to Platt's CCC camp (Jerry Miller, Ed Walkowiak and George Merrill); the stonemason and artisans, who as LEMs lent their expert knowledge and skills to the CCC Camp 808; the genius of Herb Maier's regional organization and staff who stepped in to guide the completion of Platt's master plan; and, above all, the hard work and industry of the thousands of young men who had a hand in its making.

The Platt National Park Historic District today represents one of the finest and most intact of the CCC-era landscape designs in the National Park System, reflecting not only the unified treatment of park roads and trails and Rustic architecture, but moreover the less obvious and more subtle details of landscape conservation that dominated the work of the CCC under the supervision of NPS designers. The park reflects the intention of designers trained to capture, preserve, and even enhance what they perceived as the inherent "genius" of place. In part, the high degree of Platt's historic integrity as a New Deal landscape is a testament to the durability of the New Deal improvements and the effectiveness of the long-term vision held by Platt's designers in the 1930s. As automobile travel to national parks greatly accelerated after World War II, the principles and practices that governed park landscape design in the New Deal era gave way to progressive new ideas about how the National Park Service could best accommodate growing numbers of visitors. Aimed at modernization, two development initiatives, Mission 66 and Parkscape, erased the CCC work in the mostly heavily visited areas of many national parks. The intensive redesign of Platt according to the master plans of the 1930s was essentially complete when its visitation peaked in 1940 and CCC Company 808 was disbanded. Platt continued to be a popular destination, but was spared the large-scale improvements typical of larger parks, making Platt's achievement all the more noteworthy, and its high degree of historic integrity all the more remarkable.

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Previous documentation on file (NPS):

__ Preliminary Determination of Individual Listing (36 CFR 67) has been requested.
_X_ Previously Listed in the National Register.
__ Previously Determined Eligible by the National Register.
__ Designated a National Historic Landmark.
__ Recorded by Historic American Buildings Survey: #
__ Recorded by Historic American Engineering Record: #

Primary Location of Additional Data:

__ State Historic Preservation Office: Oklahoma Historical Society / SHPO
_X_ Other State Agency: Oklahoma State Archives
_X_ Federal Agency: National Archives and Records Administration, RG 79 (College Park, MD and Forth Worth, TX); National Park Service, Chickasaw National Recreation Area
_X_ Local Government: Murray County, Sulphur, Oklahoma
_X_ University: University of Oklahoma, Norman
___ Other (Specify Repository):

10. GEOGRAPHICAL DATA

Acreage of Property: 848 acres

UTM References:	**Zone**	**Easting**	**Northing**
A	14	689370	3820200
B	14	687720	3818350
C	14	684585	3818275
D	14	684500	3820130

Verbal Boundary Description:

The boundary of the Platt National Park Historic District is defined by the park's 1940 boundary as shown by the Chickasaw National Recreation Area, National Park Service plan (see attached maps).

Boundary Justification:

The boundary corresponds to the historic Platt National Park boundary and acreage within the federal reservation in 1940, which is the closing date of the Period of Significance. The boundary coincides with the NPS work and subsequent CCC park landscape developments defined in the historic park master plans of the 1930s.

11. FORM PREPARED BY

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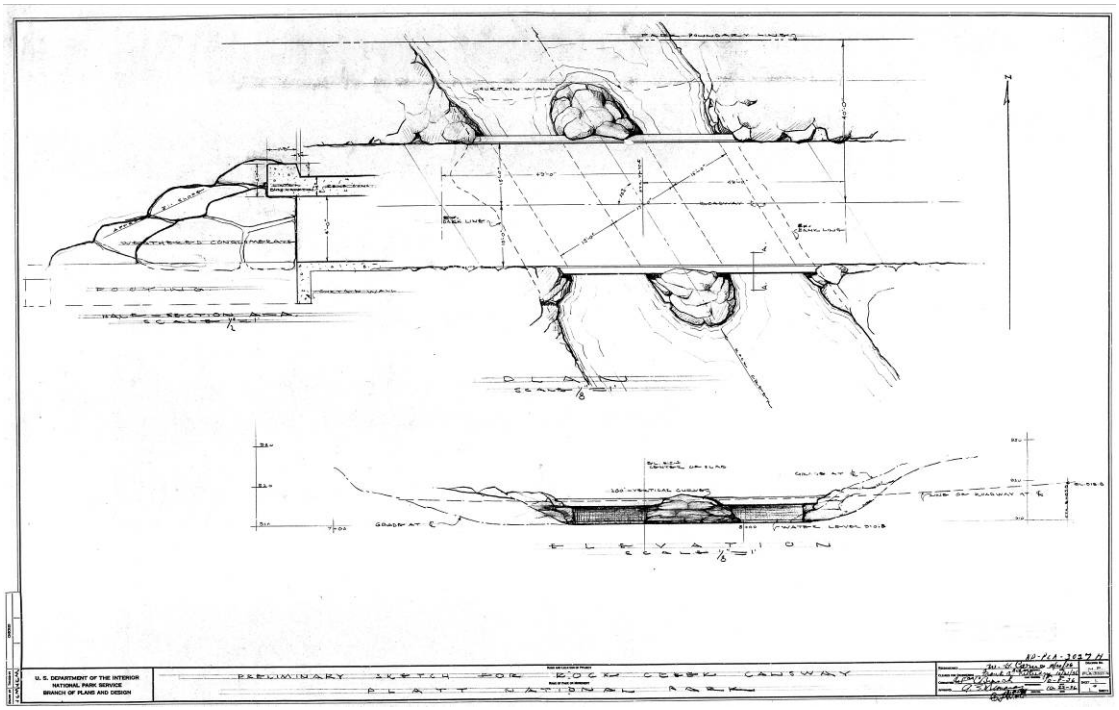


Figure 1. Preliminary Sketch for Rock Creek Causeway, designed by J. C. Miller, 1936

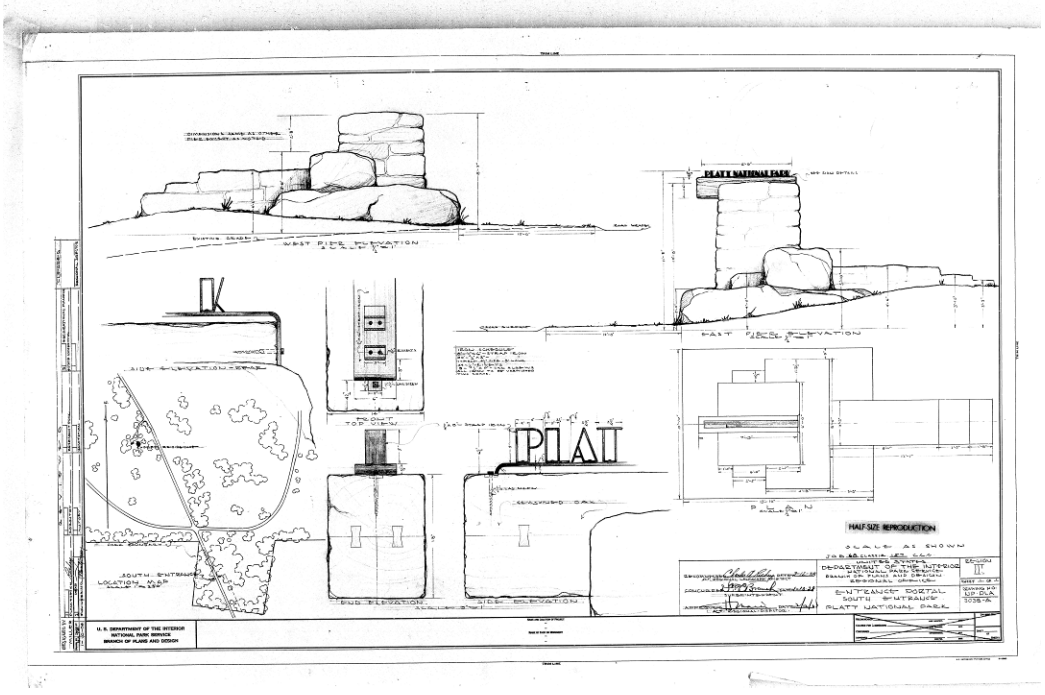


Figure 2. Entrance Portal, South Entrance, designed by J. C. Miller, 1938

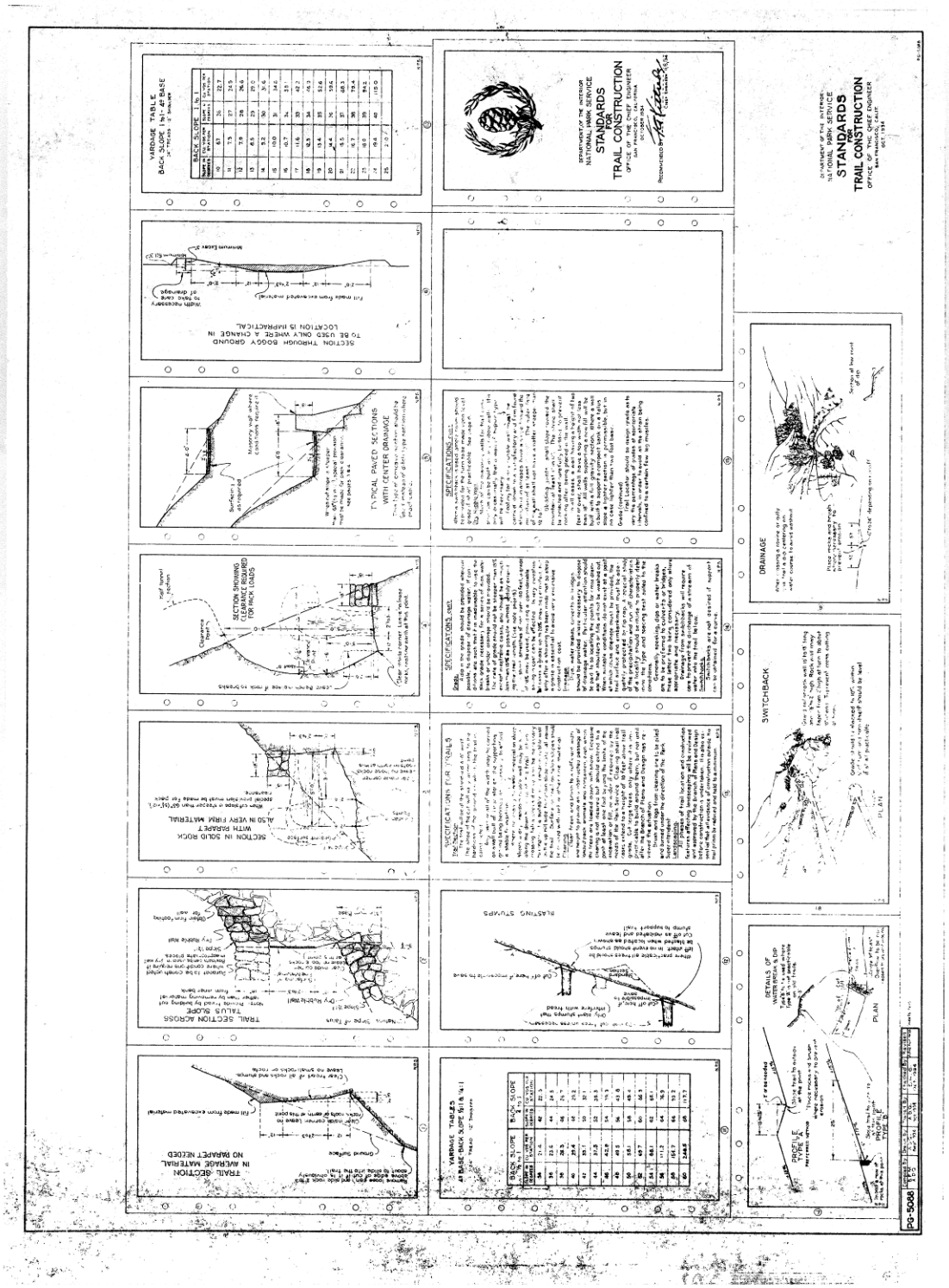
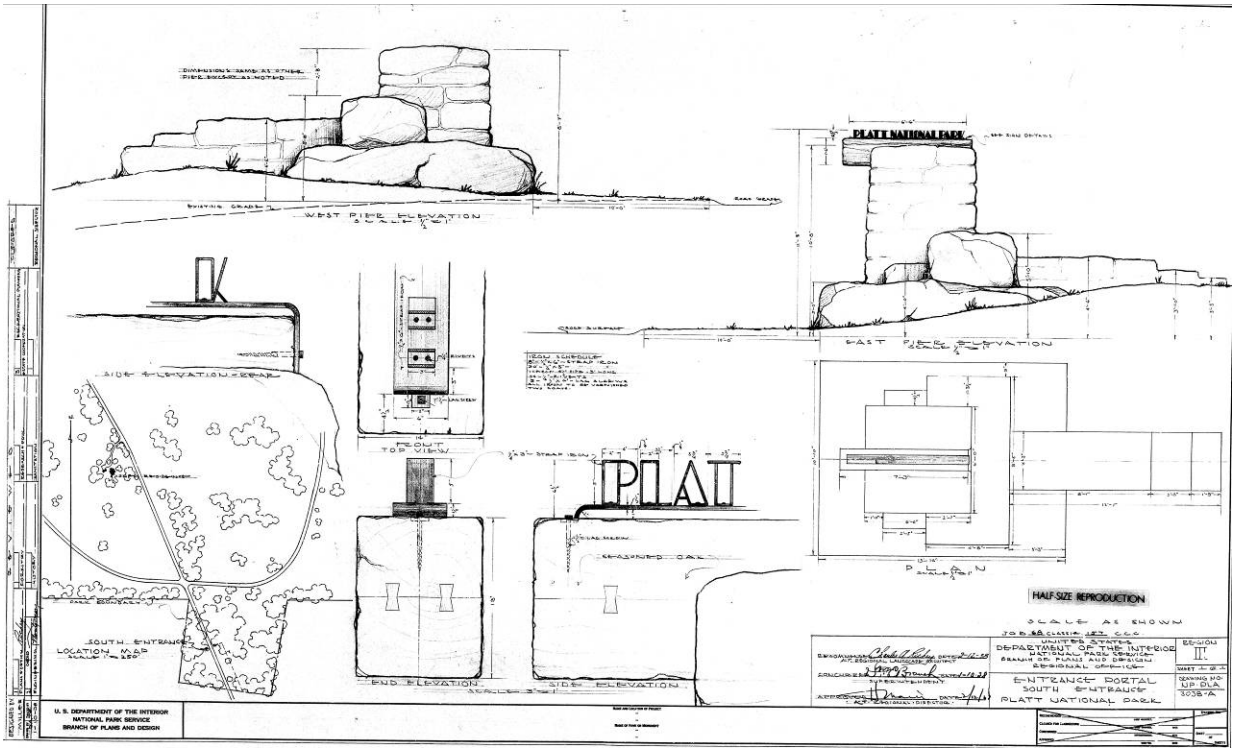


Figure 3. Standard Plans for Trails, Office of Chief Engineer, San Francisco, 1934



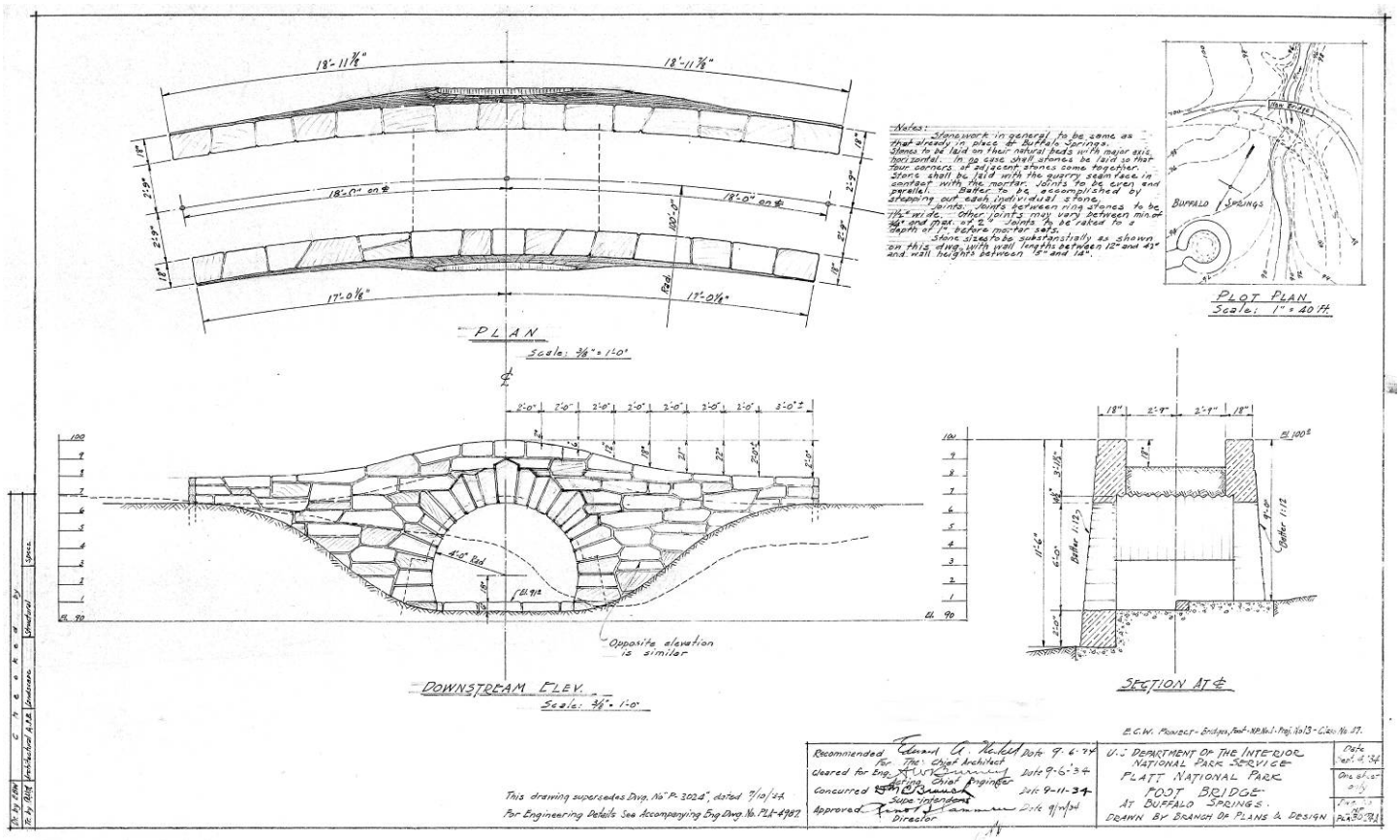


Figure 4. Trail bridge at Buffalo Springs, designed by Edmund Walkowiak, 1934

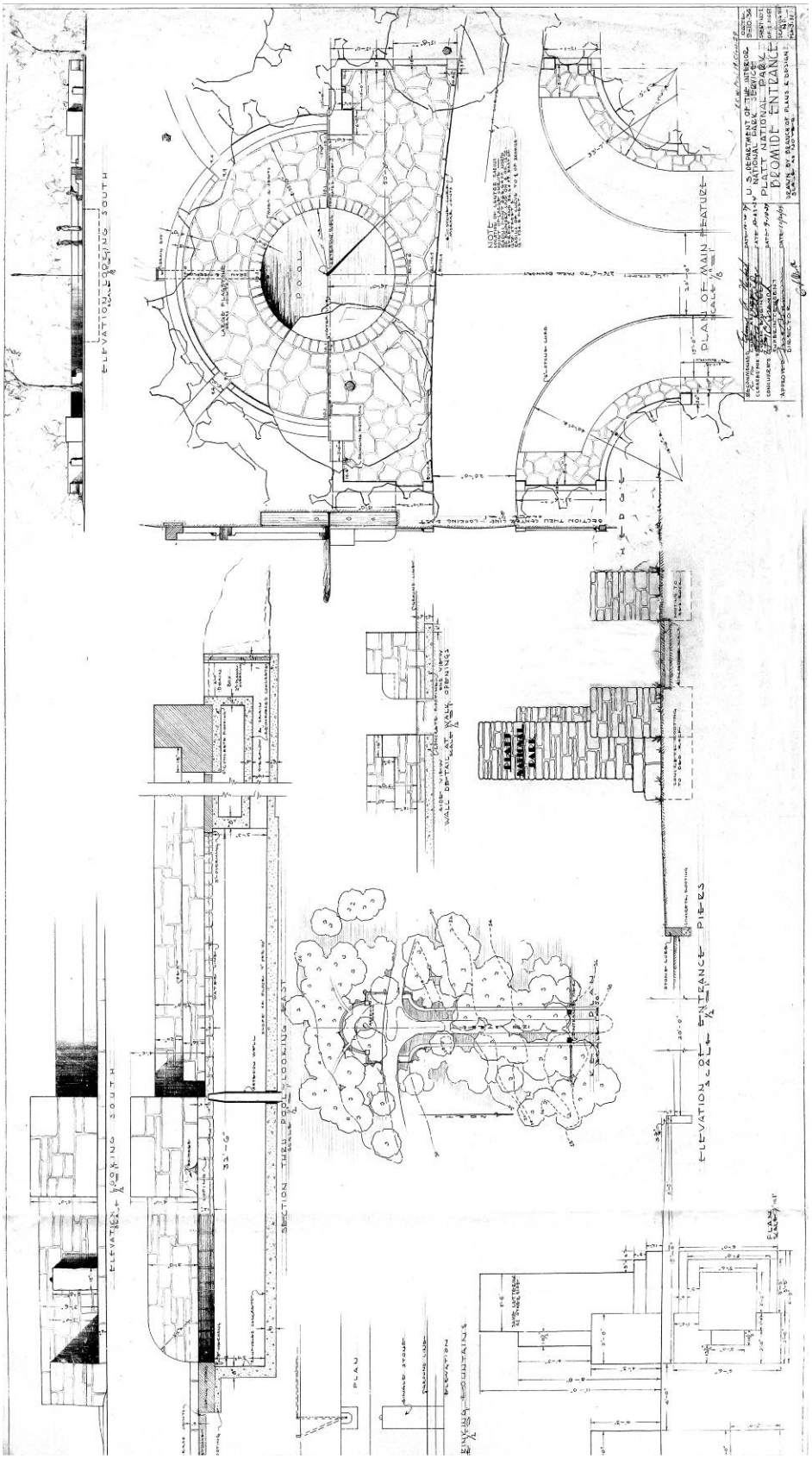


Figure 5. Bromide Entrance Development, design attributed to J. C. Miller, 1934

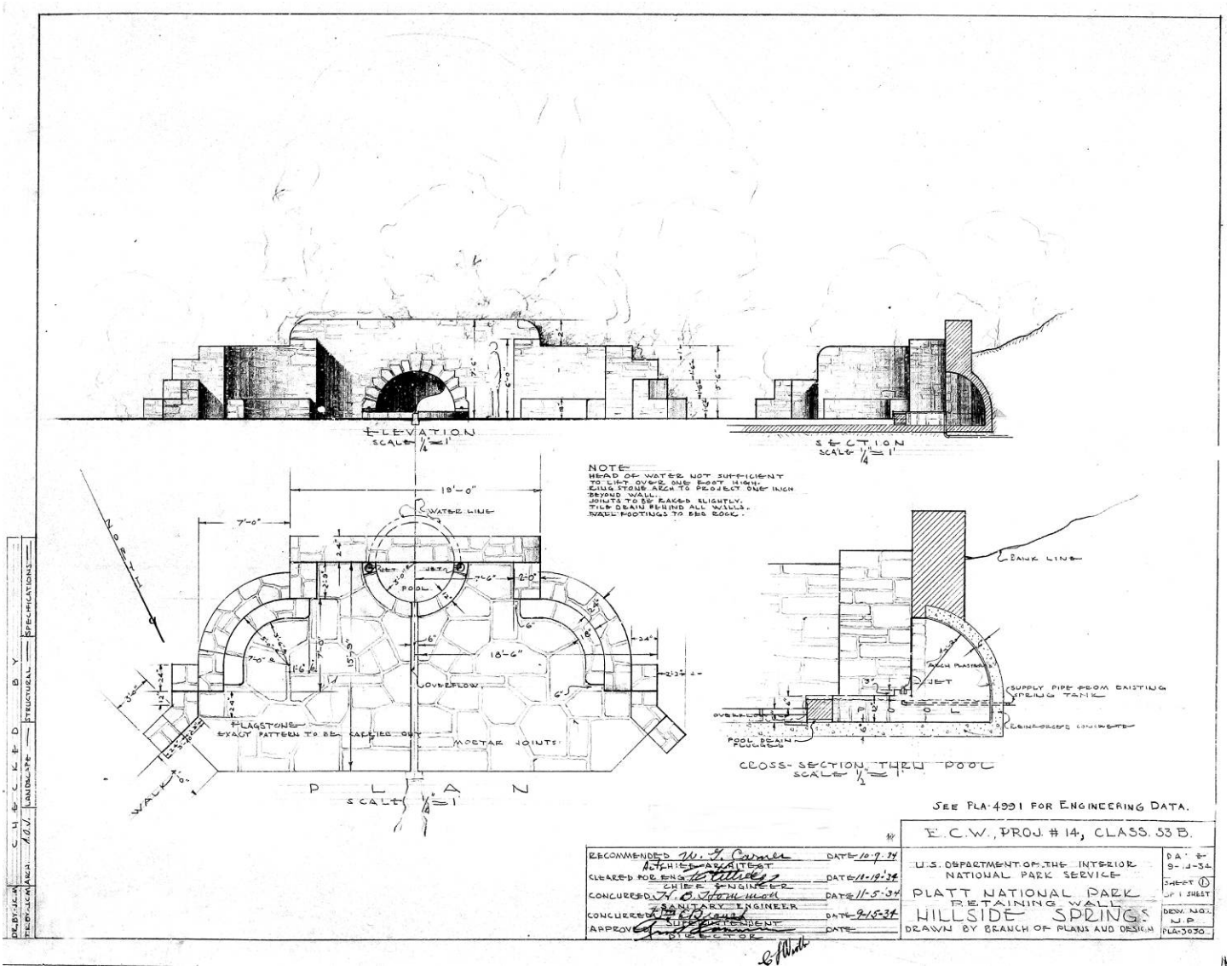


Figure 7. Hillside Springs spring enclosure and retaining wall, designed by J. C. Miller, 1934

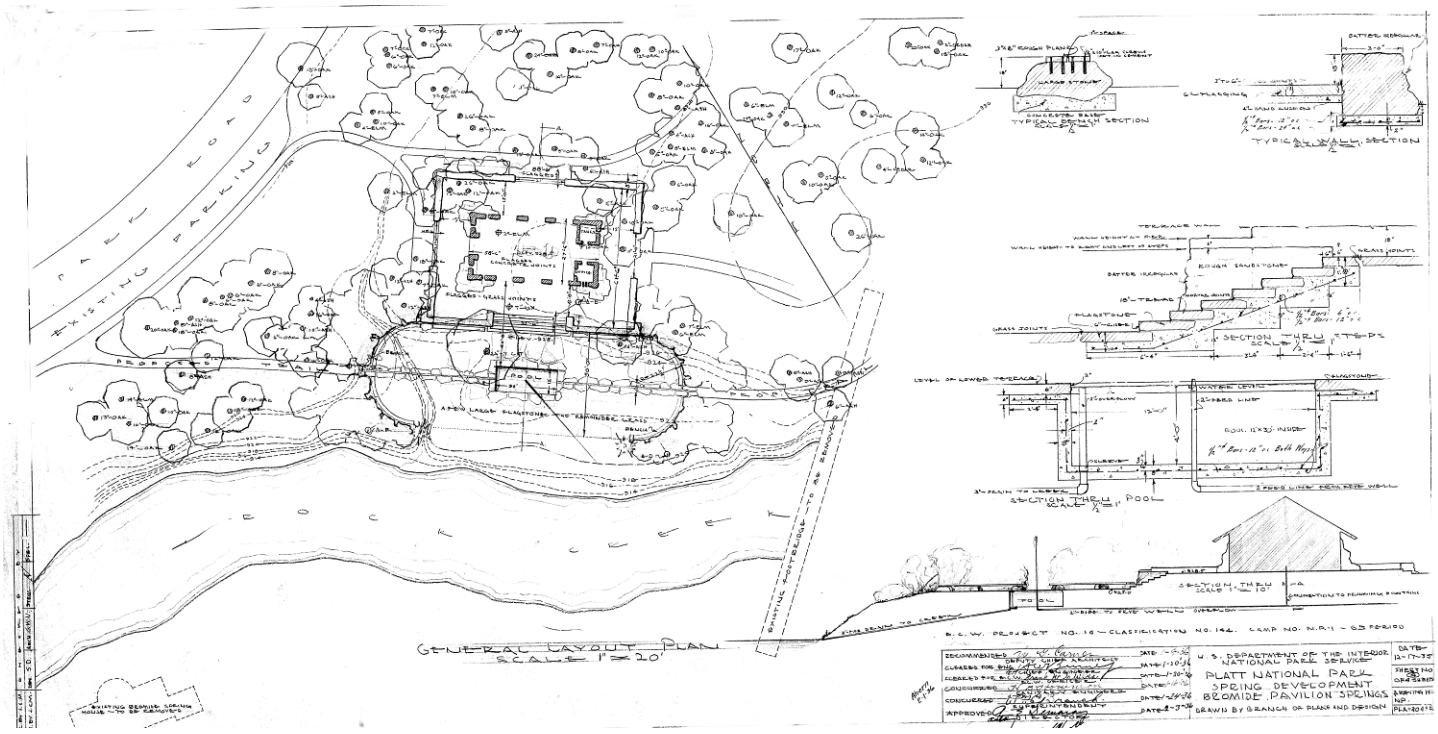


Figure 8. Plan for Bromide Spring Development, designed by J. C. Miller, 1935

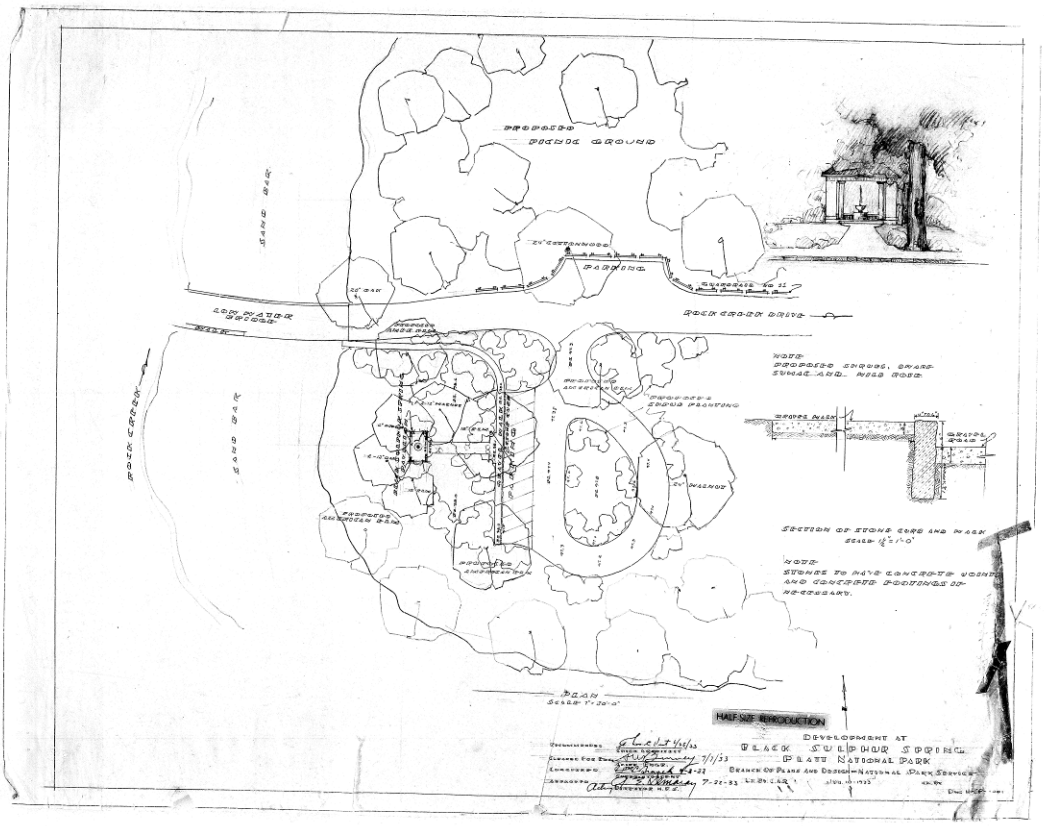


Figure 9. Black Sulphur Spring, Site Plan by Charles A. Richey, June 10, 1933

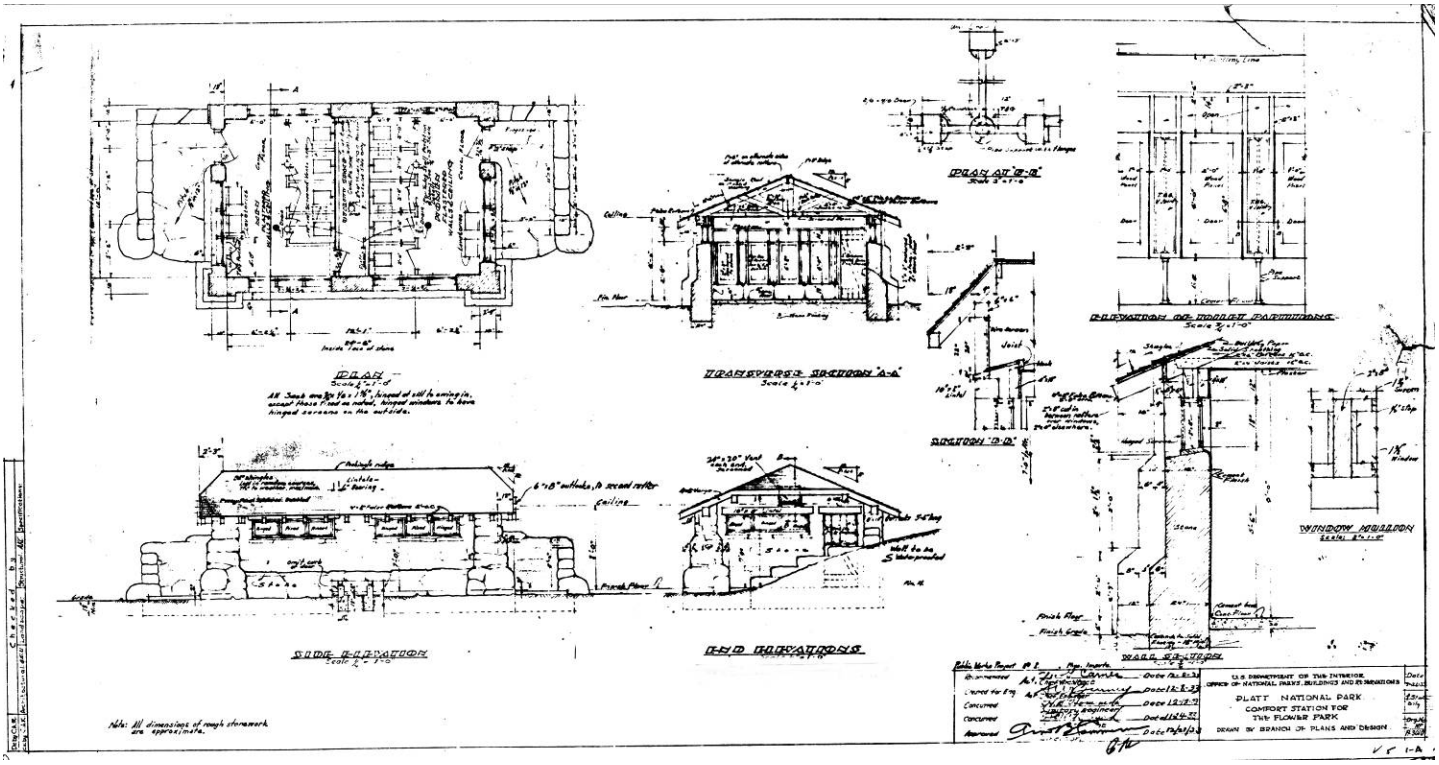


Figure 10. Comfort Station, Flower Park, designed by Charles A. Richey, 1933

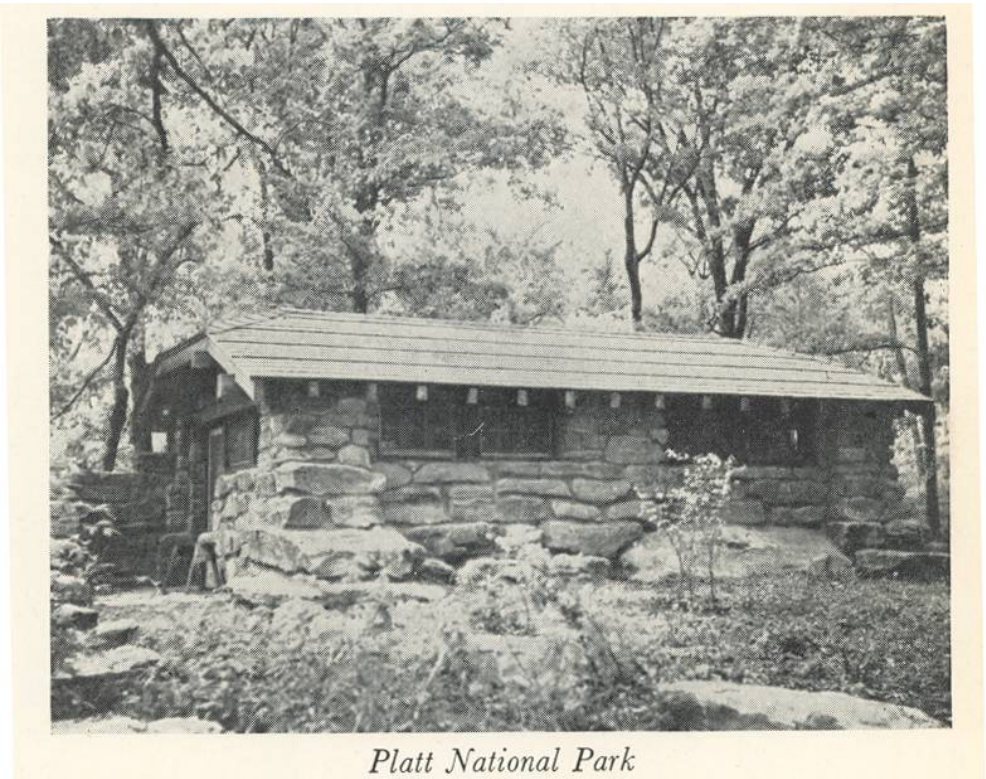


Figure 11. As depicted in *Park and Recreation Structures* (1938), one of the seven nearly identical CCC-constructed comfort stations designed for Platt by Lorimer Skidmore, 1935.

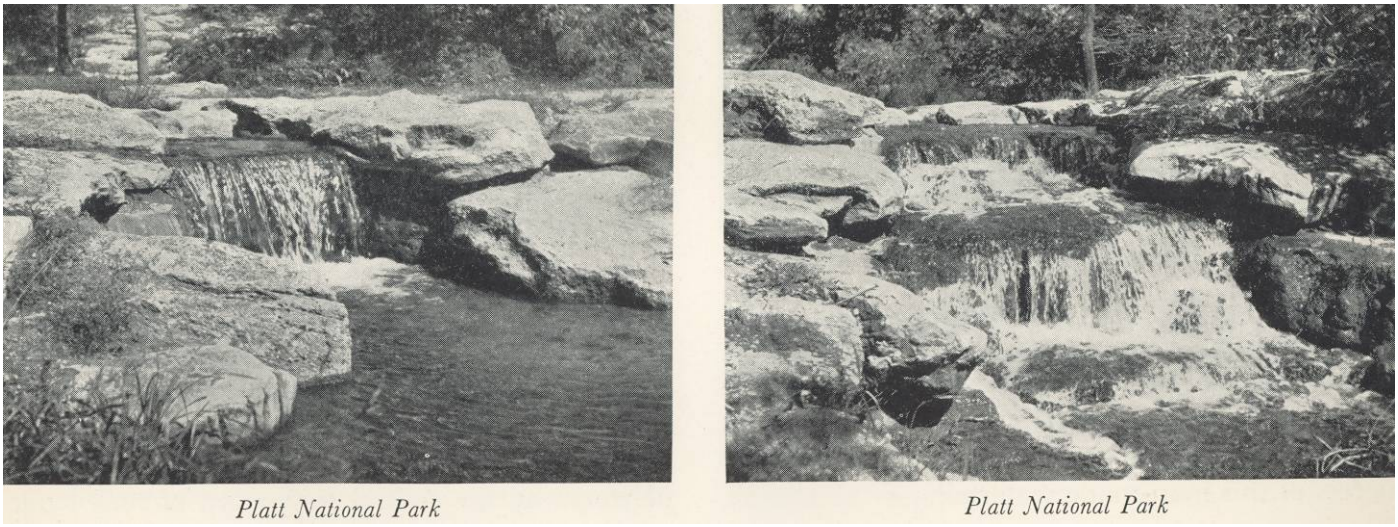


Figure 16. Two views of the CCC-constructed waterfalls at Platt National Park, as they appeared in A. Good, ed., *Park and Recreation Structures*, 1938 (Plate II G-1, p. 121). Good described them as "minor naturalistic waterfalls" where "Nature has been a good teacher" and "artificiality cleverly hidden."

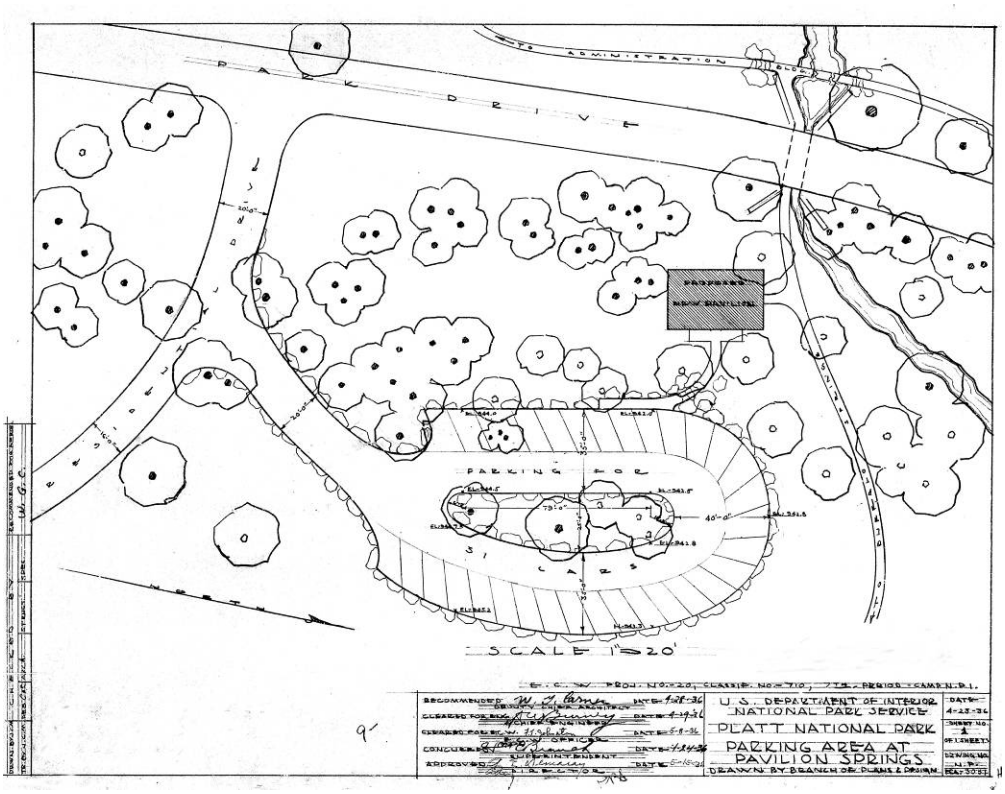


Figure 12. Parking Area at Pavilion Springs, designed by J. C. Miller, 1936

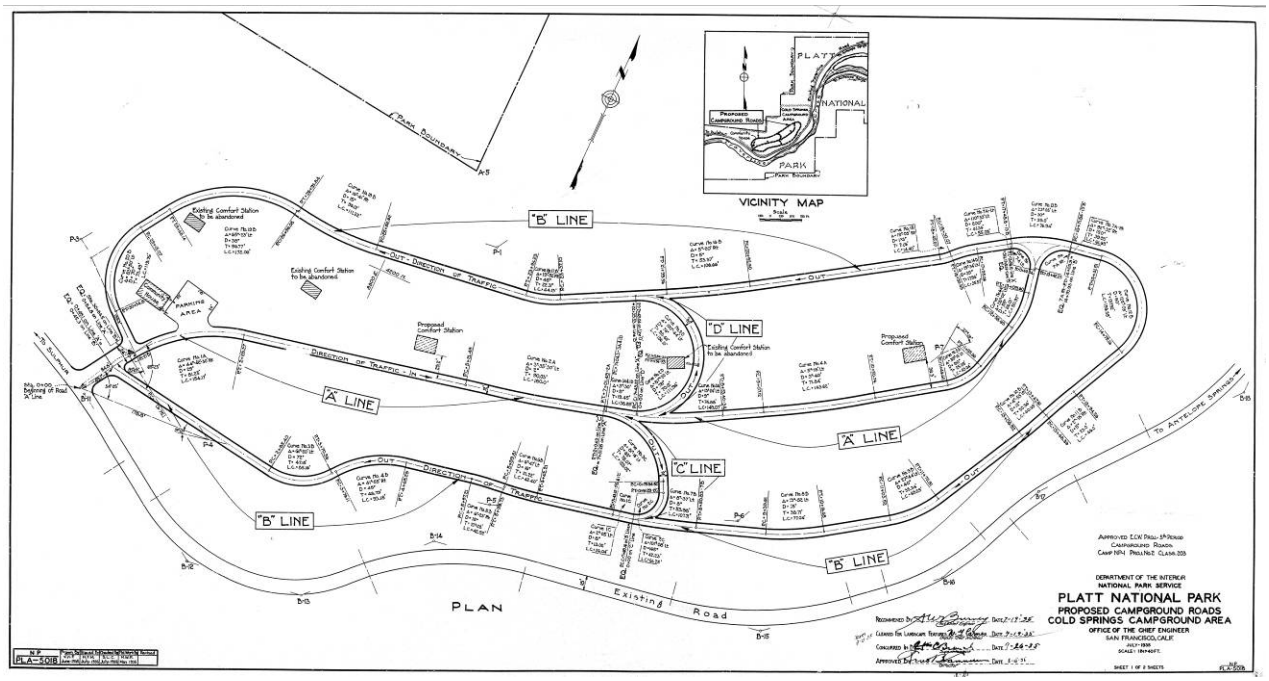


Figure 13. Loop Roads for Cold Spring Camp Ground, designed by NPS Office of Chief Engineer, 1935

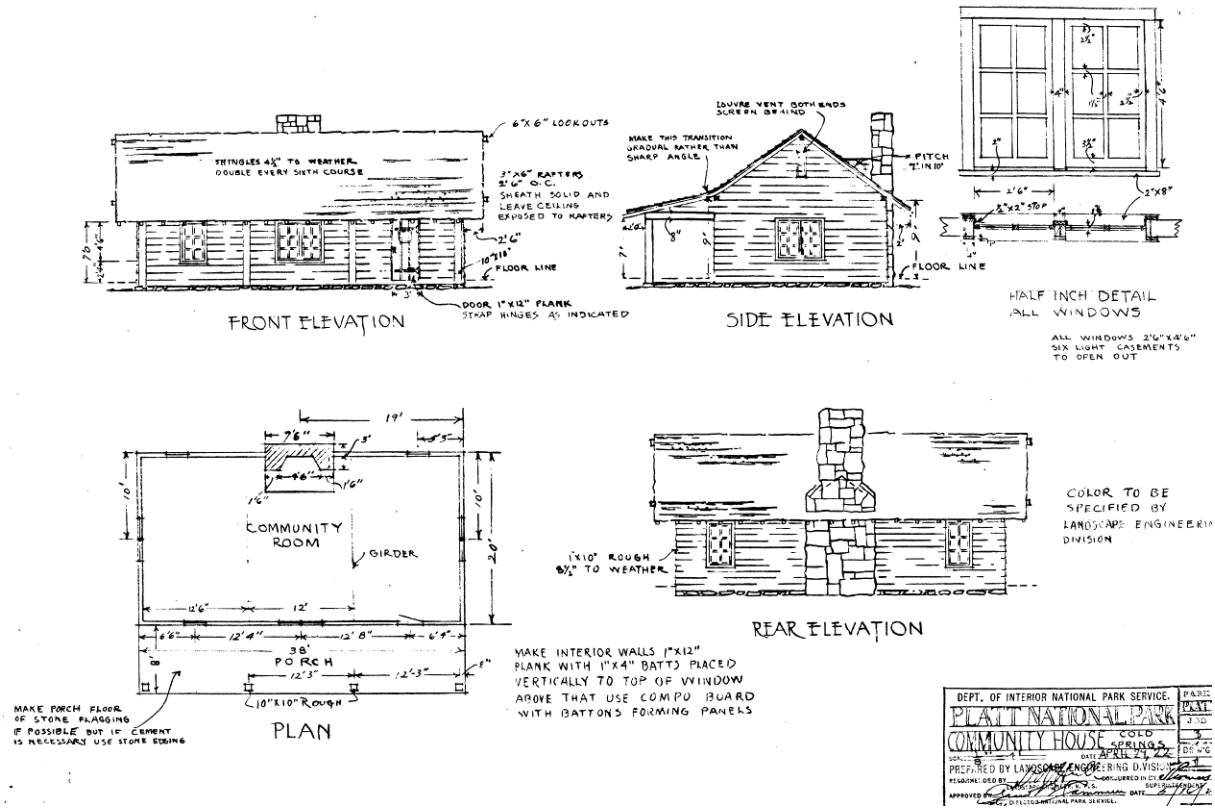


Figure 14. Community House, Cold Spring Campground, designed by Daniel Hull, 1922

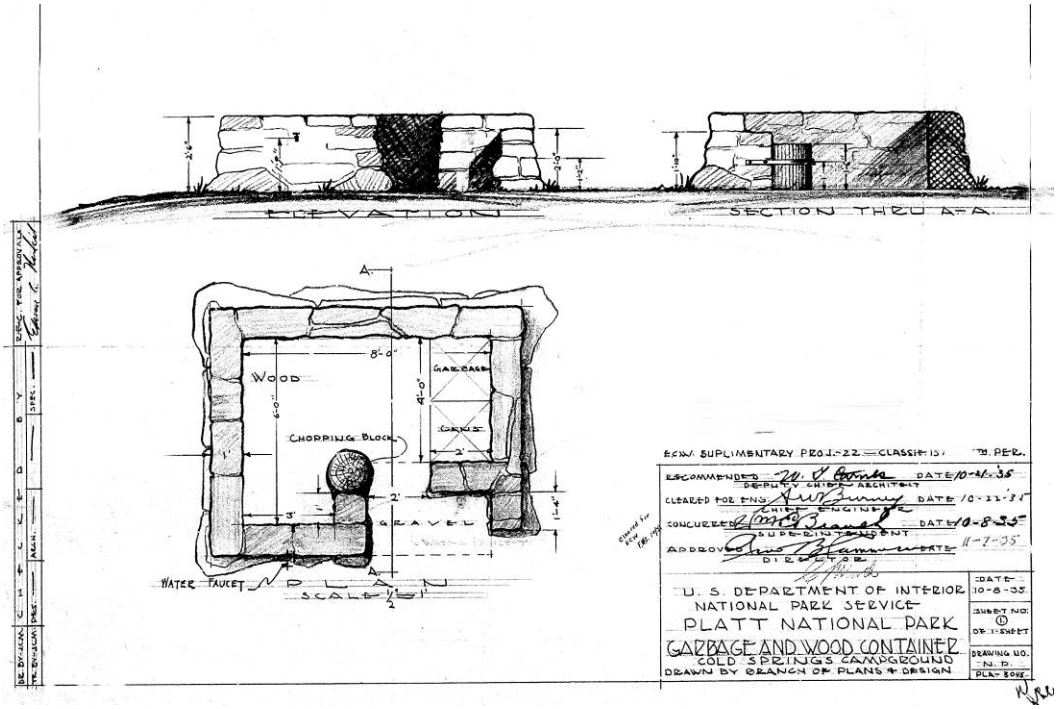


Figure 15. Drawing for Trash and Firewood Enclosure, designed by J. C. Miller, 1935

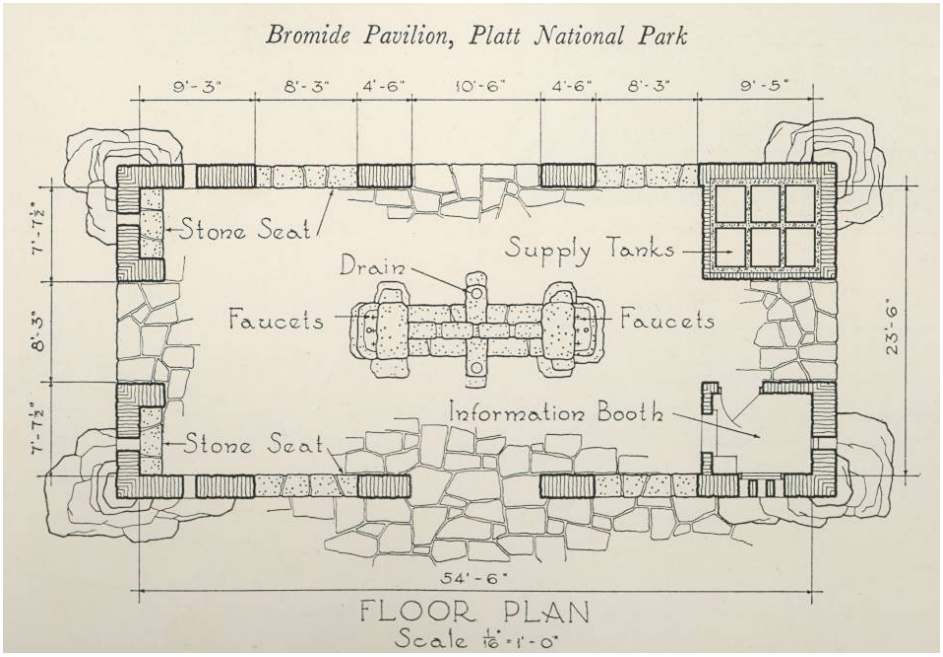


Figure 6. Bromide Pavilion, designed by Lyle N. Barcume, 1935, as it appeared in *Park and Recreation Structures*, 1938 (Plate I G-17, p. 121)

Figure 17. The naturalistic treatment of this stream exhibits the influence of Japanese landscape design, particularly the approach to the traditional tea garden. This view appeared in A. Good, ed. *Park and Recreation Structure* (Plate I L-1. p. 170), with special note made of "the crossing of stepping stones meeting the well-executed flight of trail steps on the brook bank."

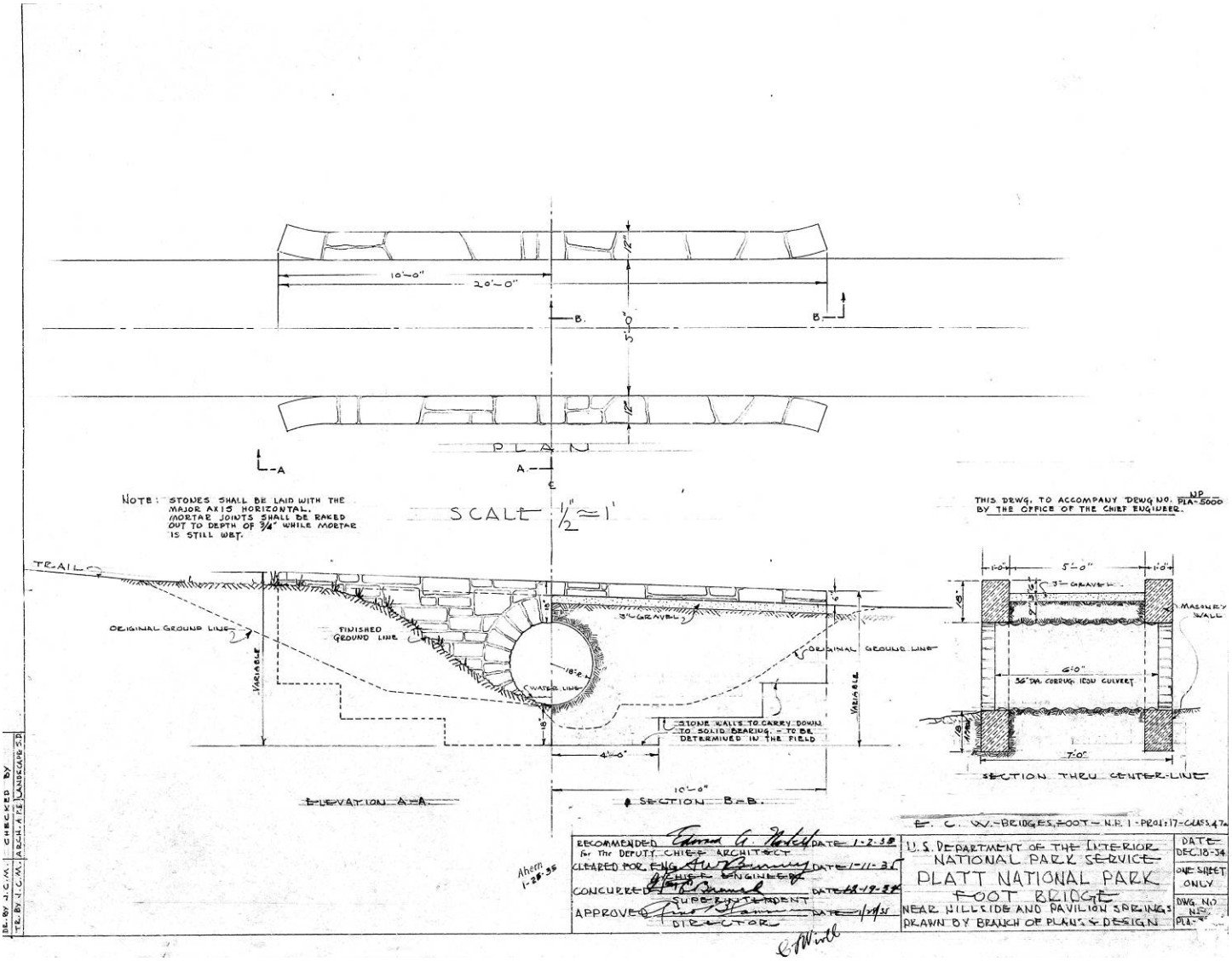


Figure 18. Foot Bridge near Hillside and Pavilion Springs, designed by Jerome C. Miller , 1934

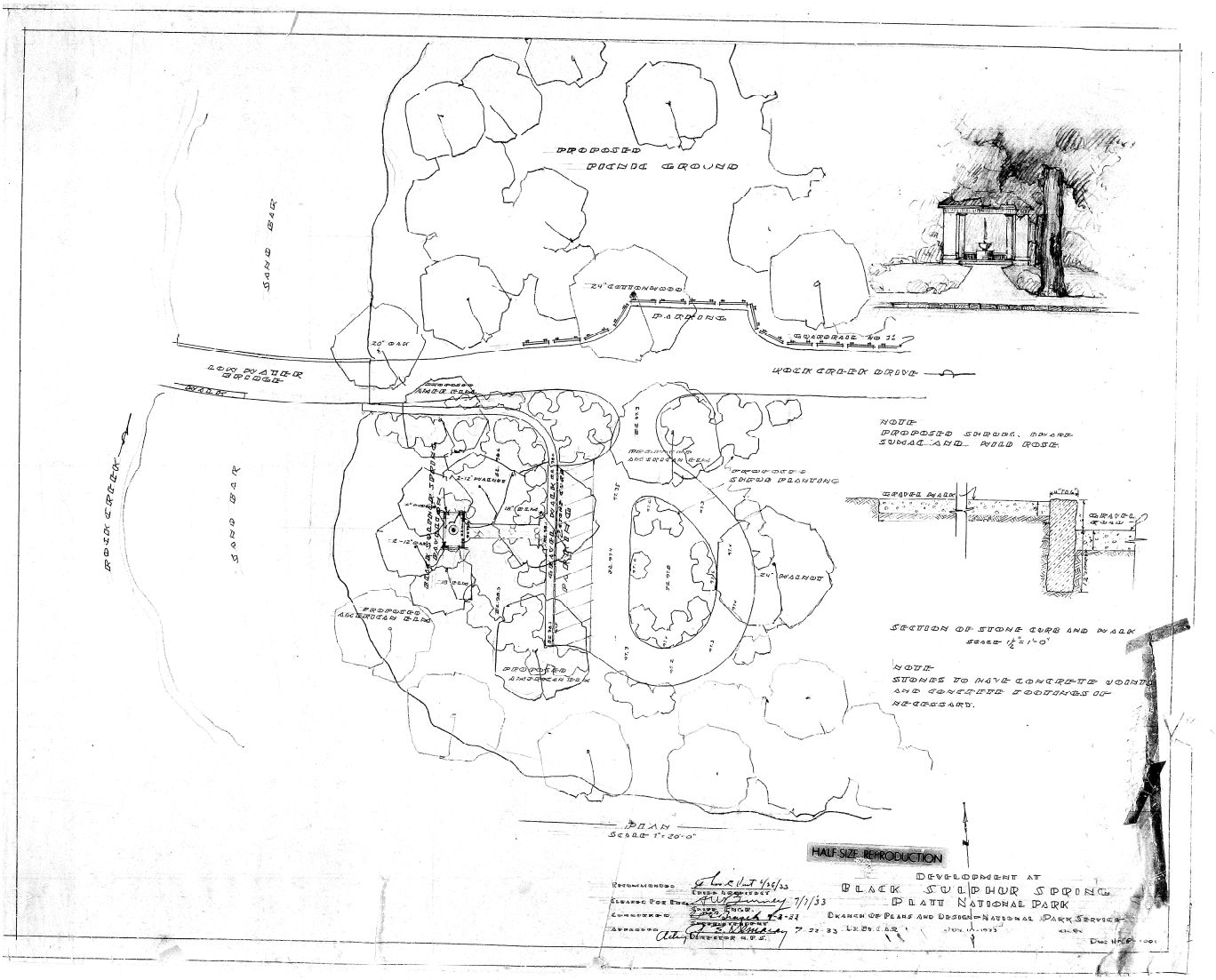


Figure 19. Black Sulphur Springs, Site Plan by Charles A, Richey, June 10, 1933

Rock Creek Viaduct on Perimeter Road (Map 2). Photograph by Ken Ruhnke

Northwest Perimeter Road (Map 2). Photograph by Ken Ruhnke

Switchback and retaining walls on Bromide Hill Trail (Map 4). Photograph by Ken Ruhnke

"S" Curve Bridge, Rock Creek Trail (Maps 3 & 4). Photograph by Ken Ruhnke

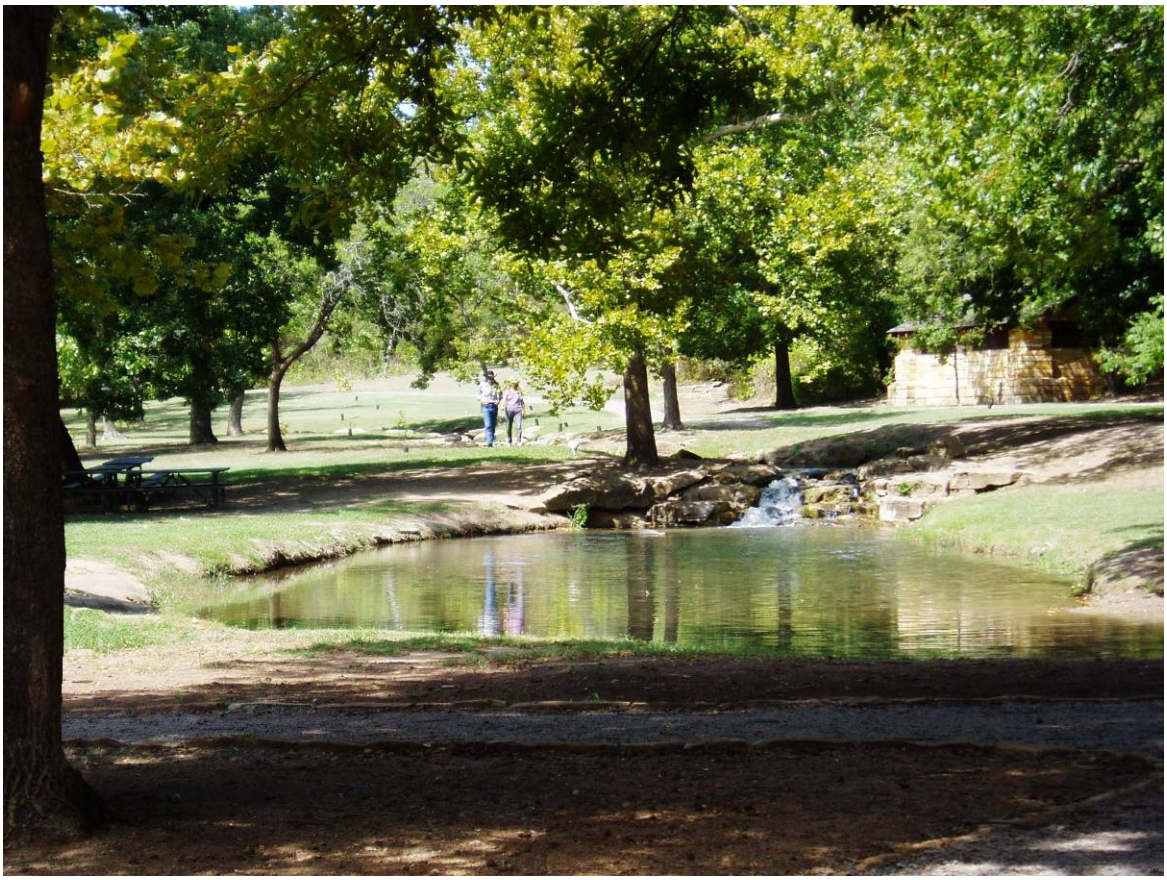
Bromide (12th Street) Entrance (Map 4). Photograph by Ken Ruhnke

Fountain at Bromide Entrance (Map 4). Photograph by Ken Ruhnke

Pavilion, Black Sulphur Spring (Map 6)

Bromide Spring Pavilion (Map 4). Photograph by Heidi Hohmann

Bromide Springs Pavilion after construction

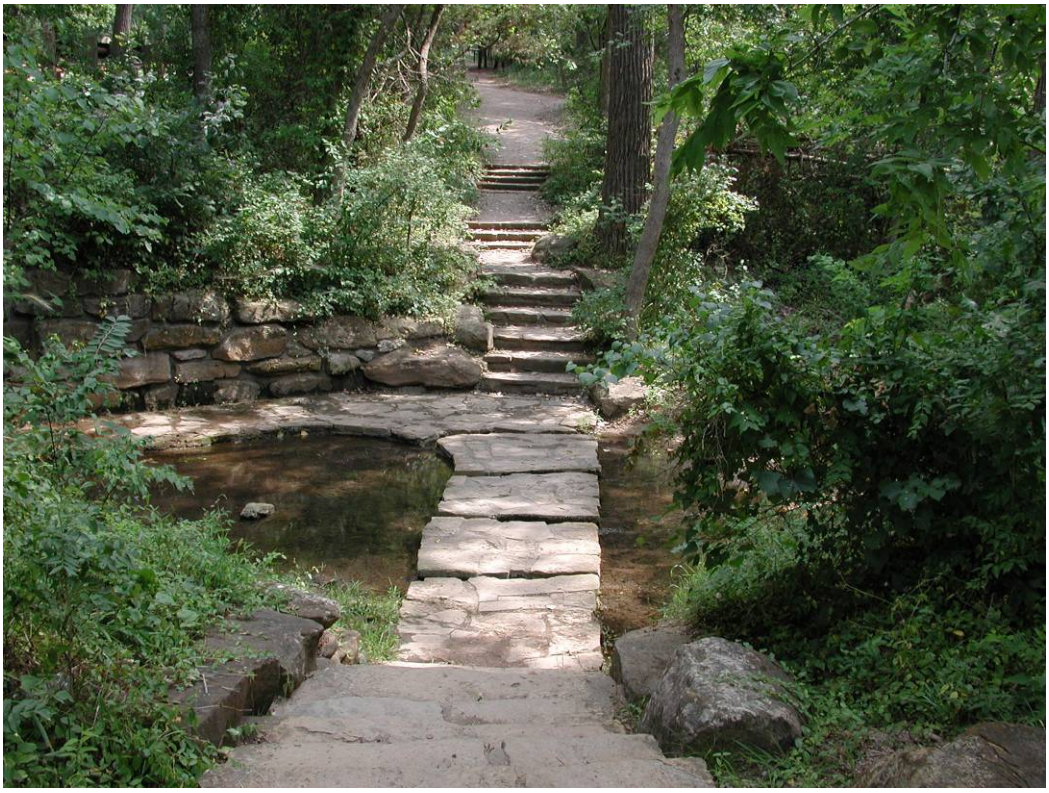


Pool, waterfall, and paths at Flower Park (Map 7). Photograph by Ken Ruhnke

Lincoln Bridge in Flower Park (Map 7). Photograph by Ken Ruhnke

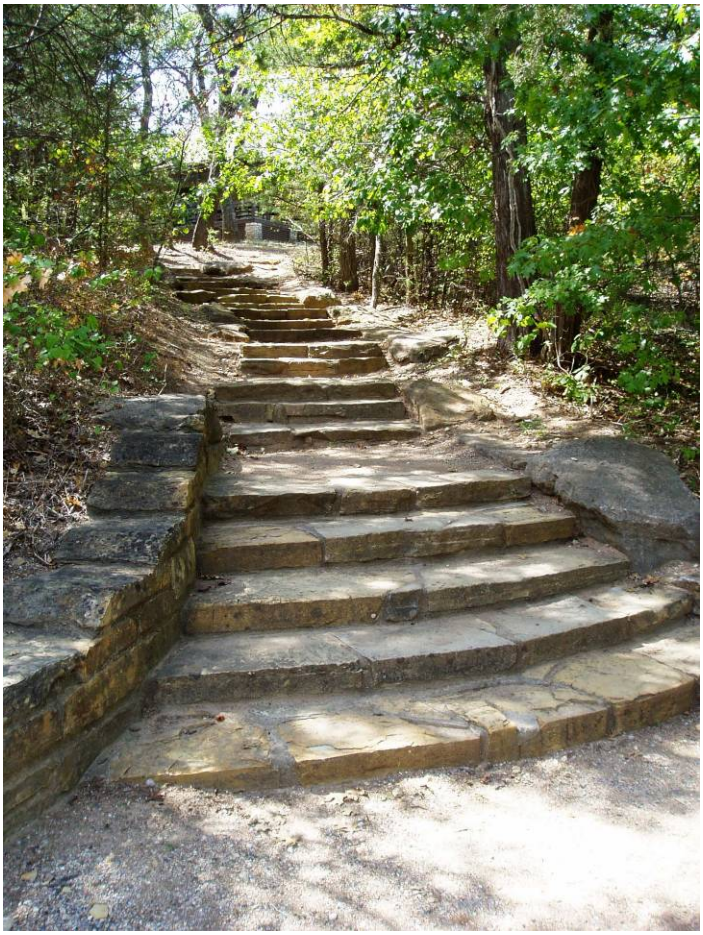
Pavilion at Pavilion Springs (Map 8). Photograph by Heidi Hohmann

“Big Tom” Spring at Pavilion Springs (Map 8). Photograph by Ken Ruhnke



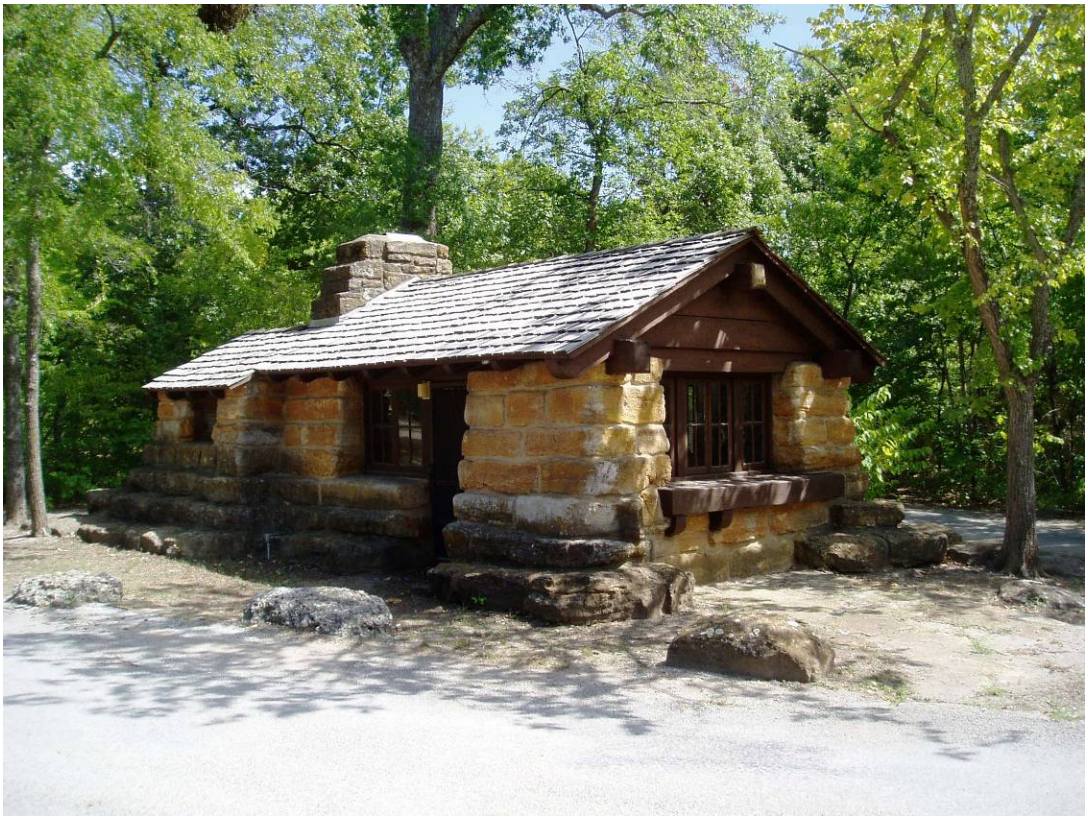
Buffalo Pasture Trail (Map 8). Photograph by Heidi Hohmann

Enclosure and terrace at Hillside Spring (Map 8). Photograph by Ken Ruhnke



Stairways leading to Administration Building (Map 8). Photographs by Ken Ruhnke

Stepping stones, stone retaining walls, and underpass near Pavilion Springs (Map 8). Photograph by Ken Ruhnke



Check-in Station, Cold Spring Campground (Map 12). Photograph by Ken Ruhnke

Picnic Area with stone table and benches at Travertine Island (Map 13). Photograph by Heidi Hohmann

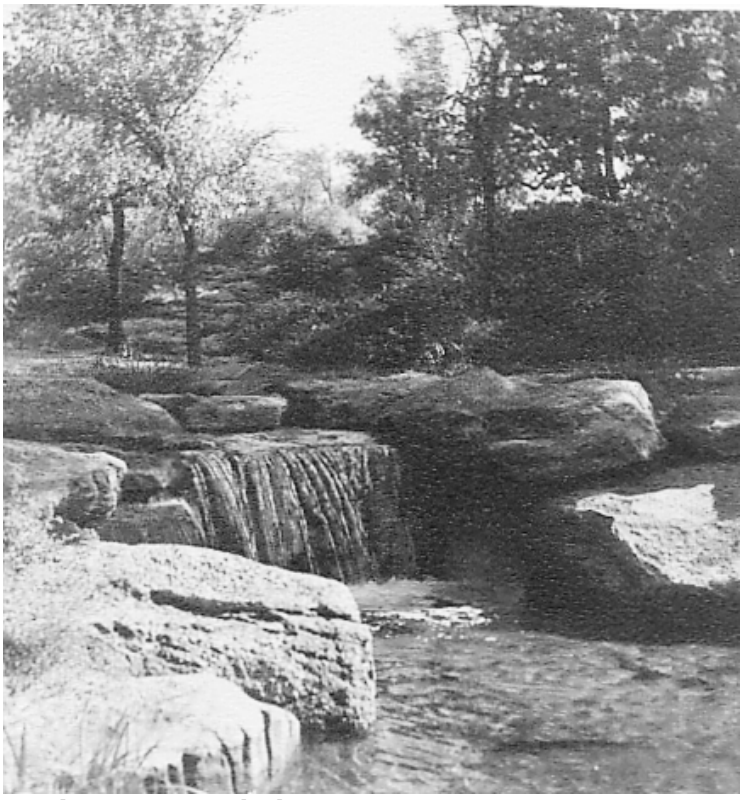
Little Niagara Falls (Map 13). Photograph by Heidi Hohmann

Buffalo Spring Enclosure (Maps 14 & 15). Photograph by Ken Ruhnke

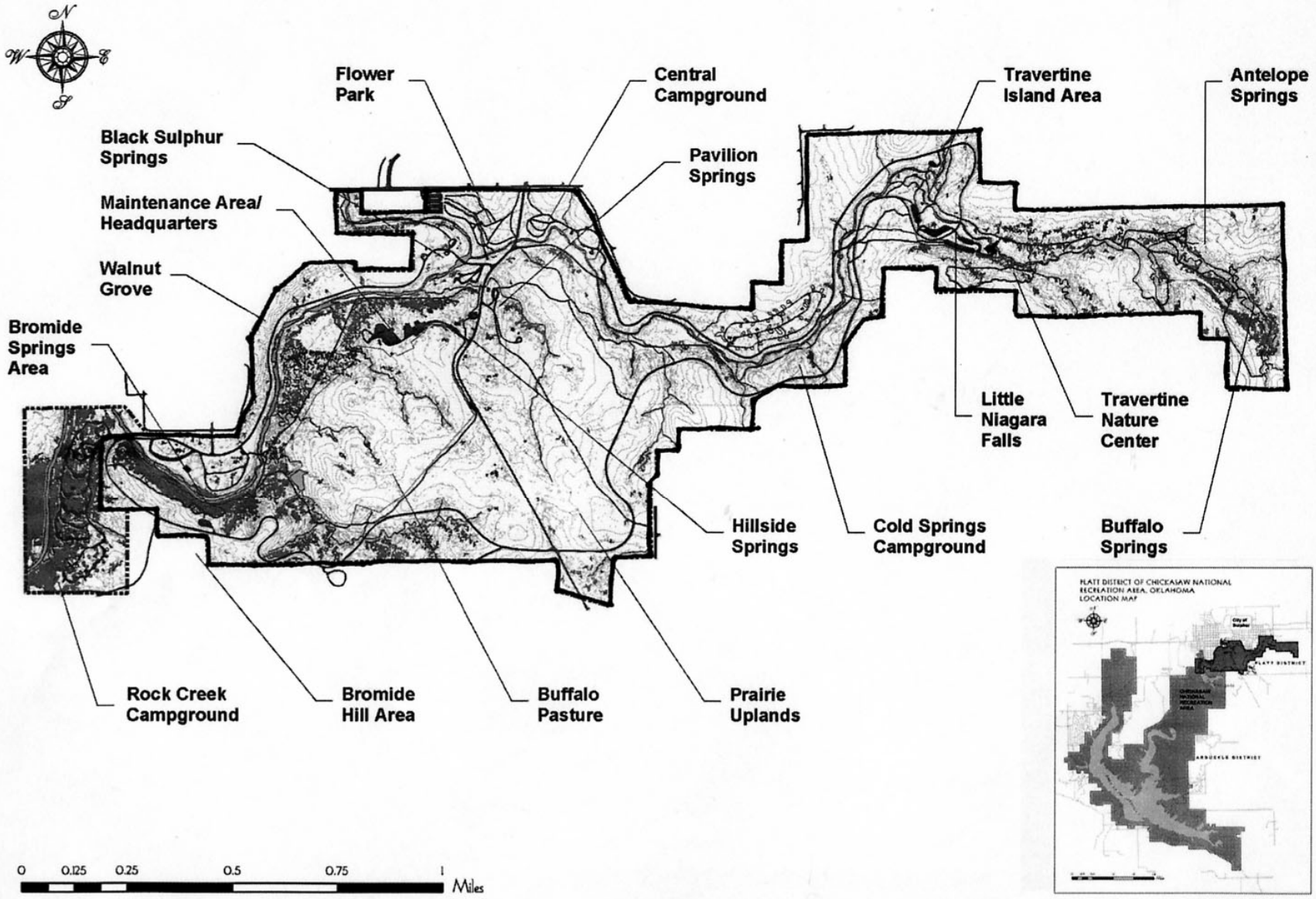
Buffalo Spring in the 1930s.
Photograph courtesy Chickasaw National Recreation Area

Buffalo Arched Bridge (Maps 14 & 15). Photograph by Ken Ruhnke.

Path to Antelope Springs (Maps 14 & 15). Photograph by Heidi Hohmann

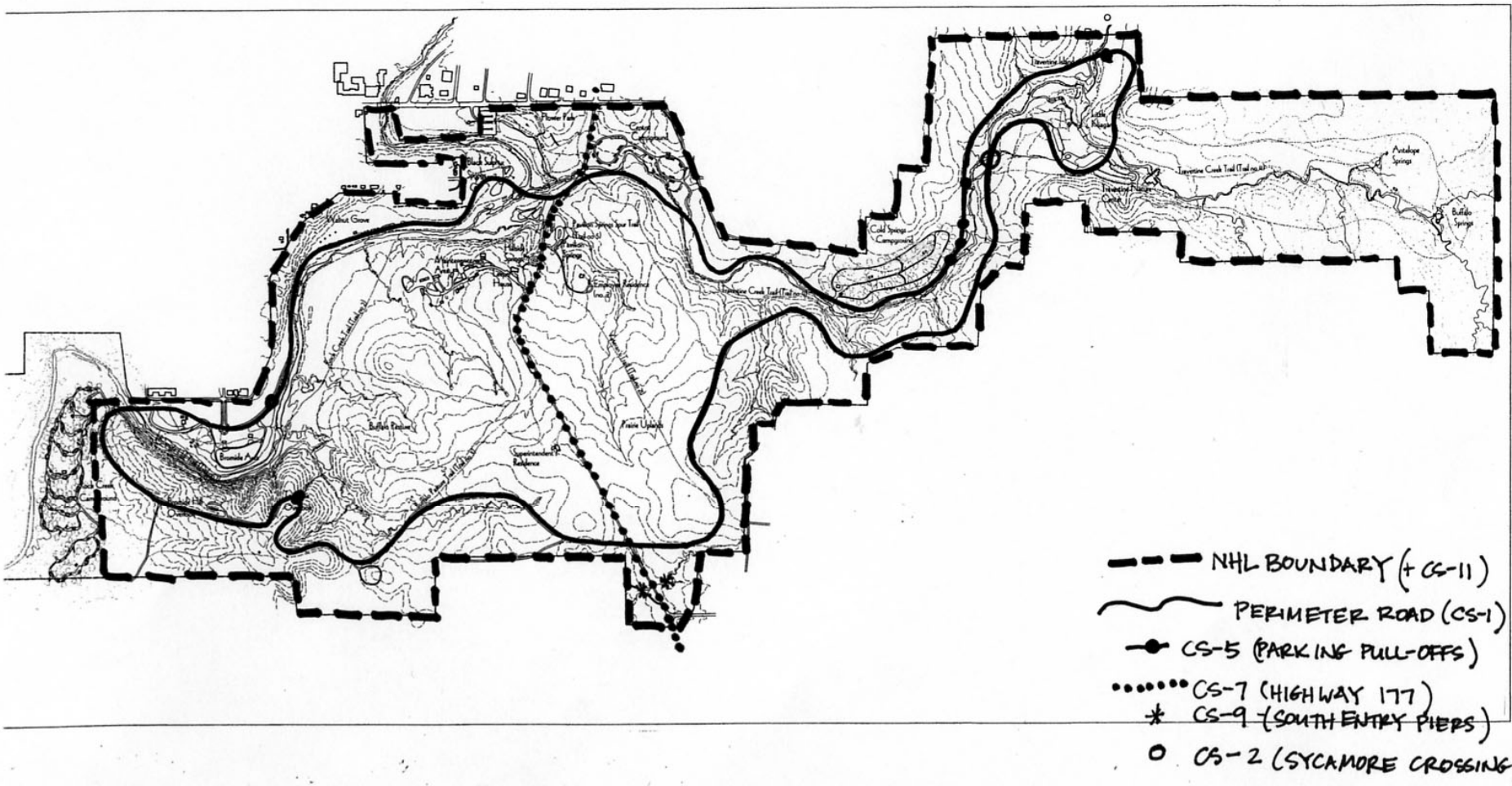


Antelope Spring in the late 1930s.
Photograph courtesy of Chickasaw National Recreation Area



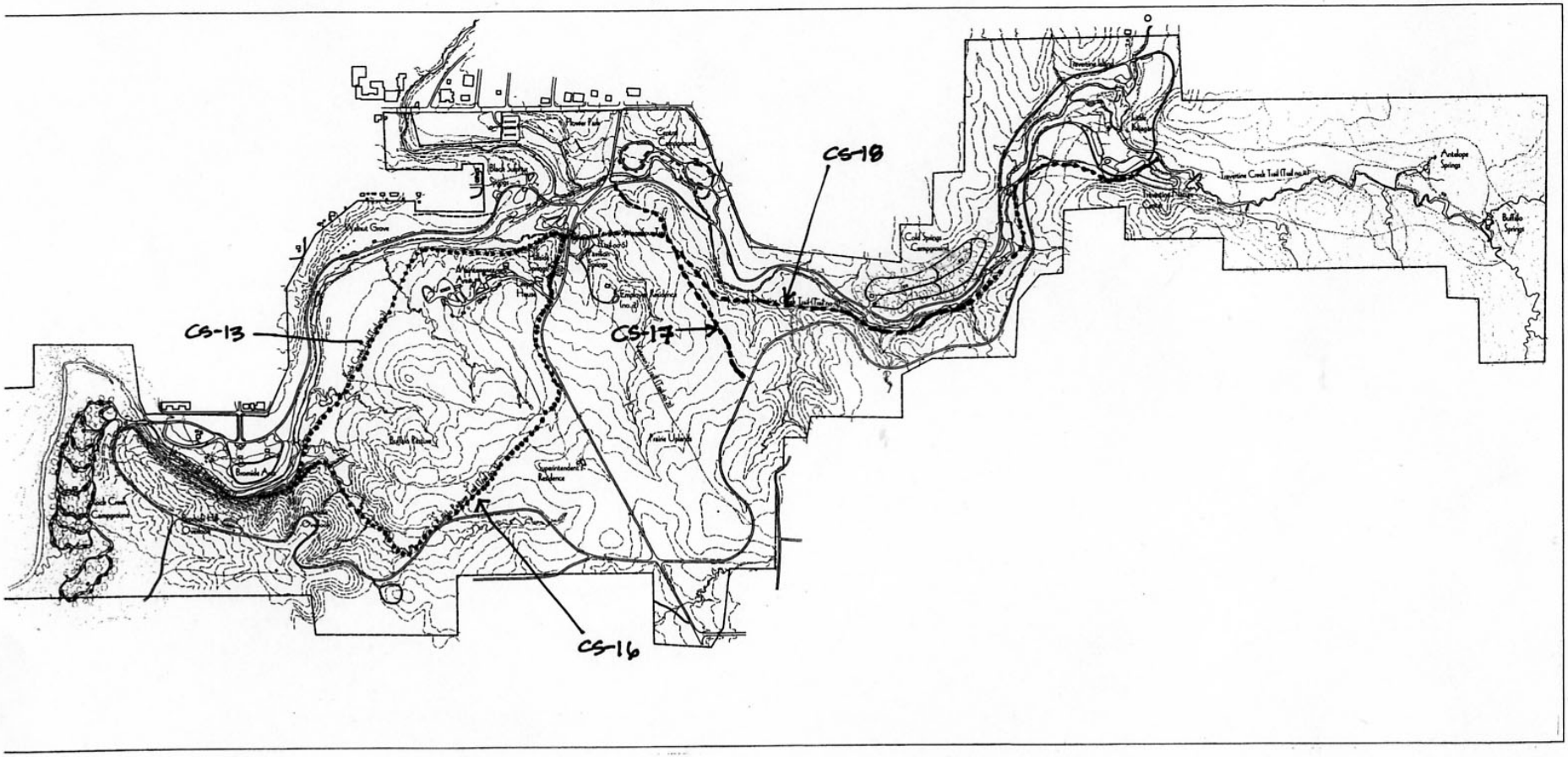
NHL BOUNDARY

MAP 1:
OVERALL PLATT DISTRICT



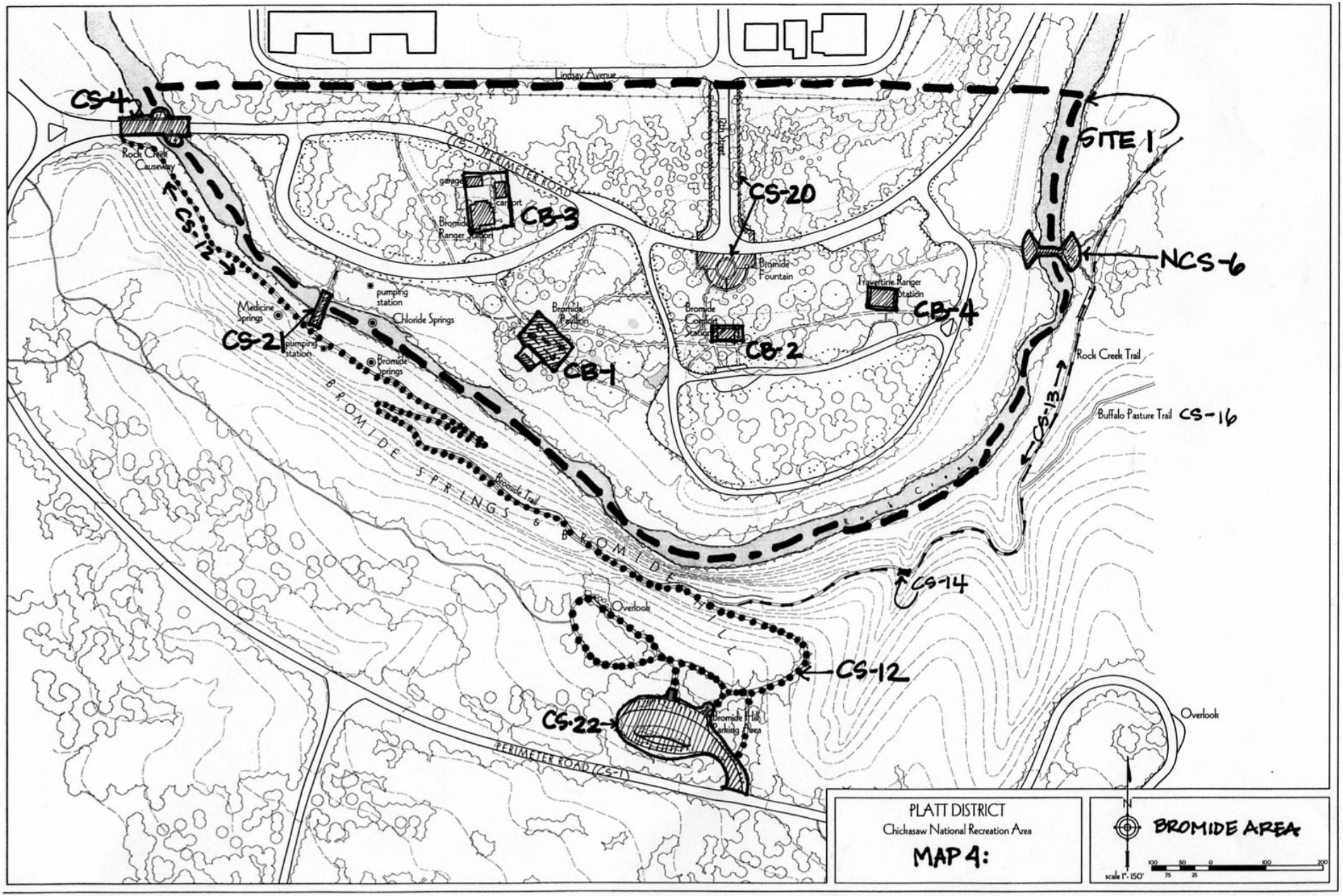
MAP 2:

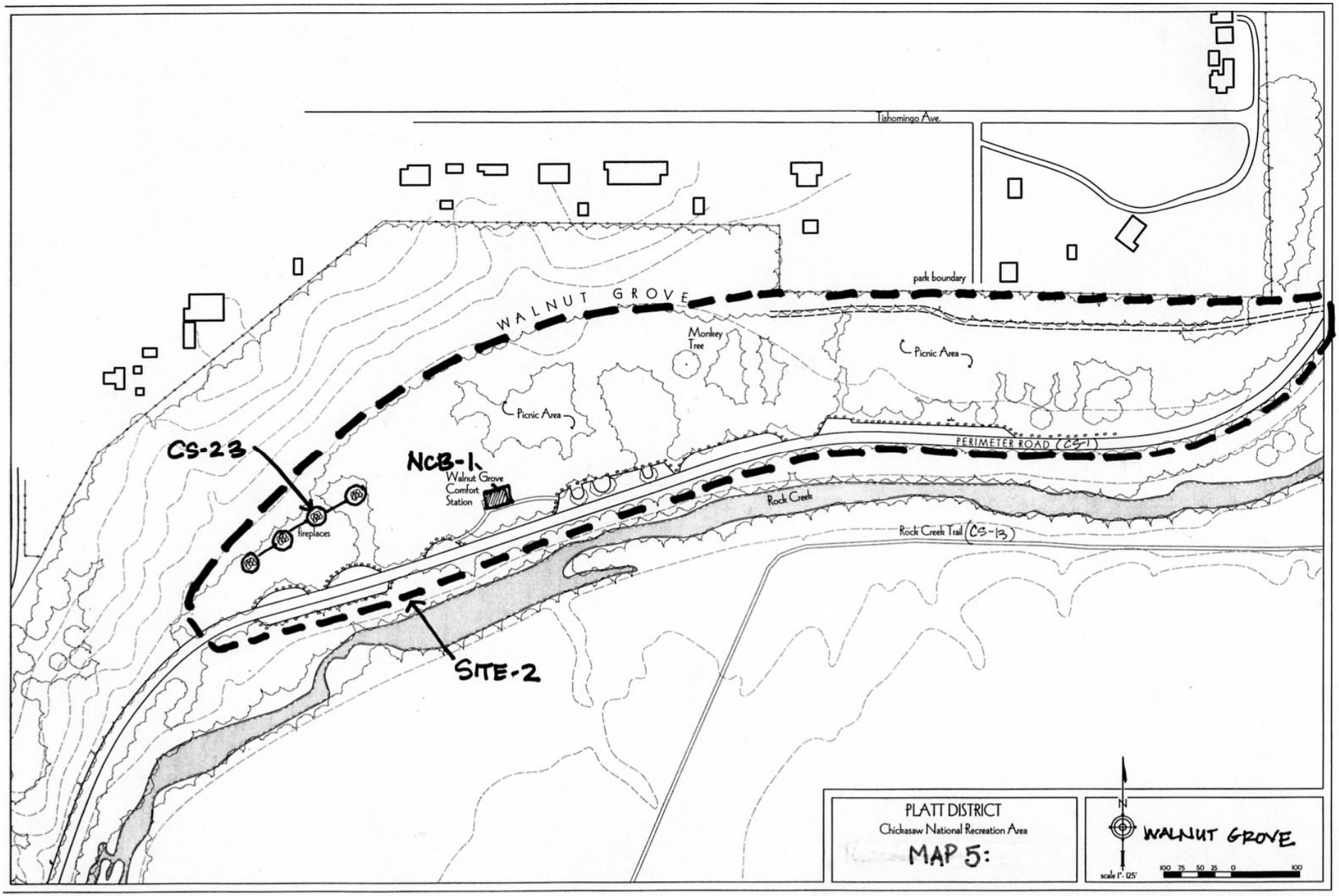
OVERALL PLAN PLUS ROADS

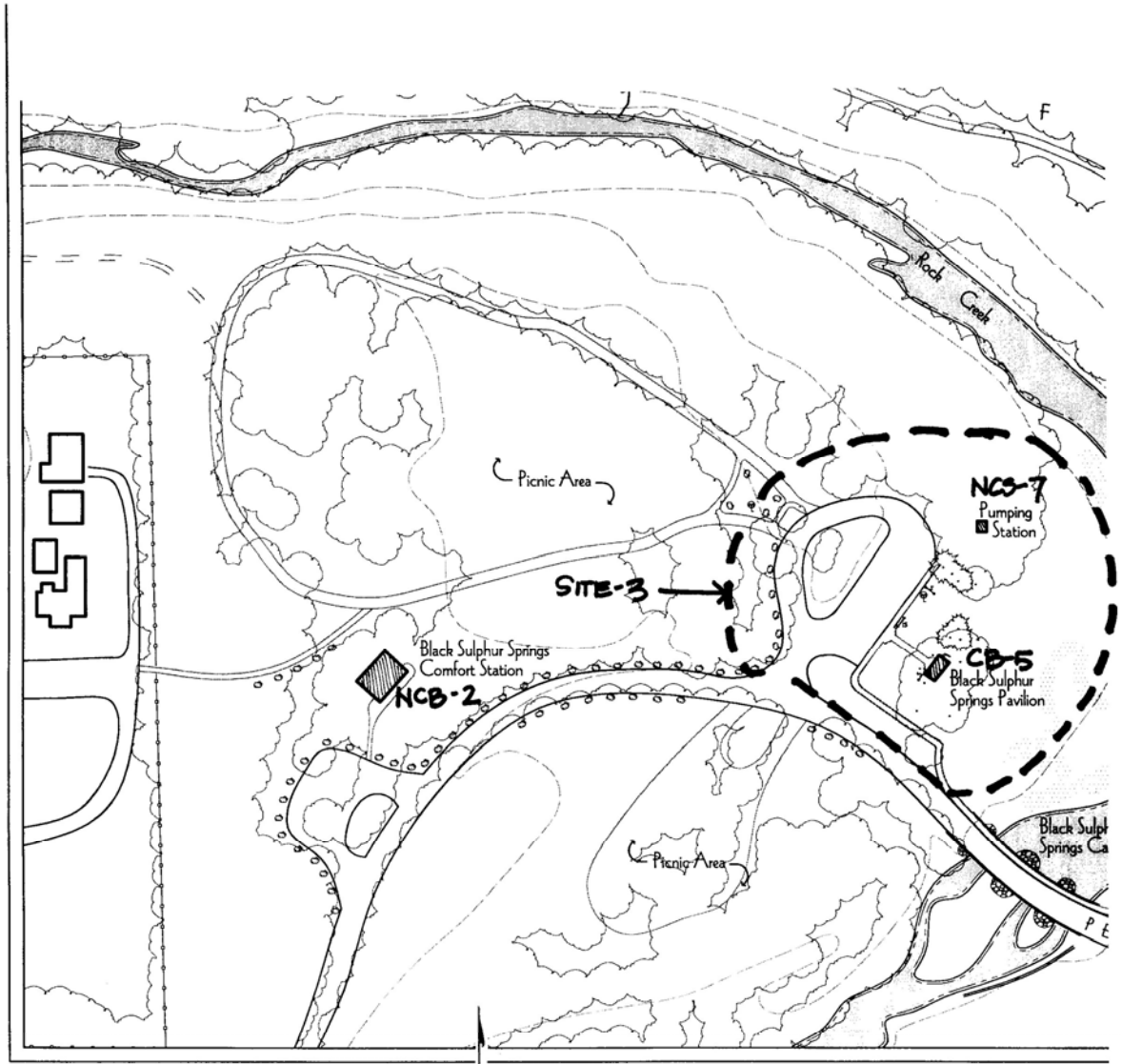


MAP 3:

TRAILS
(trails not numbered appear at a larger scale on other maps)

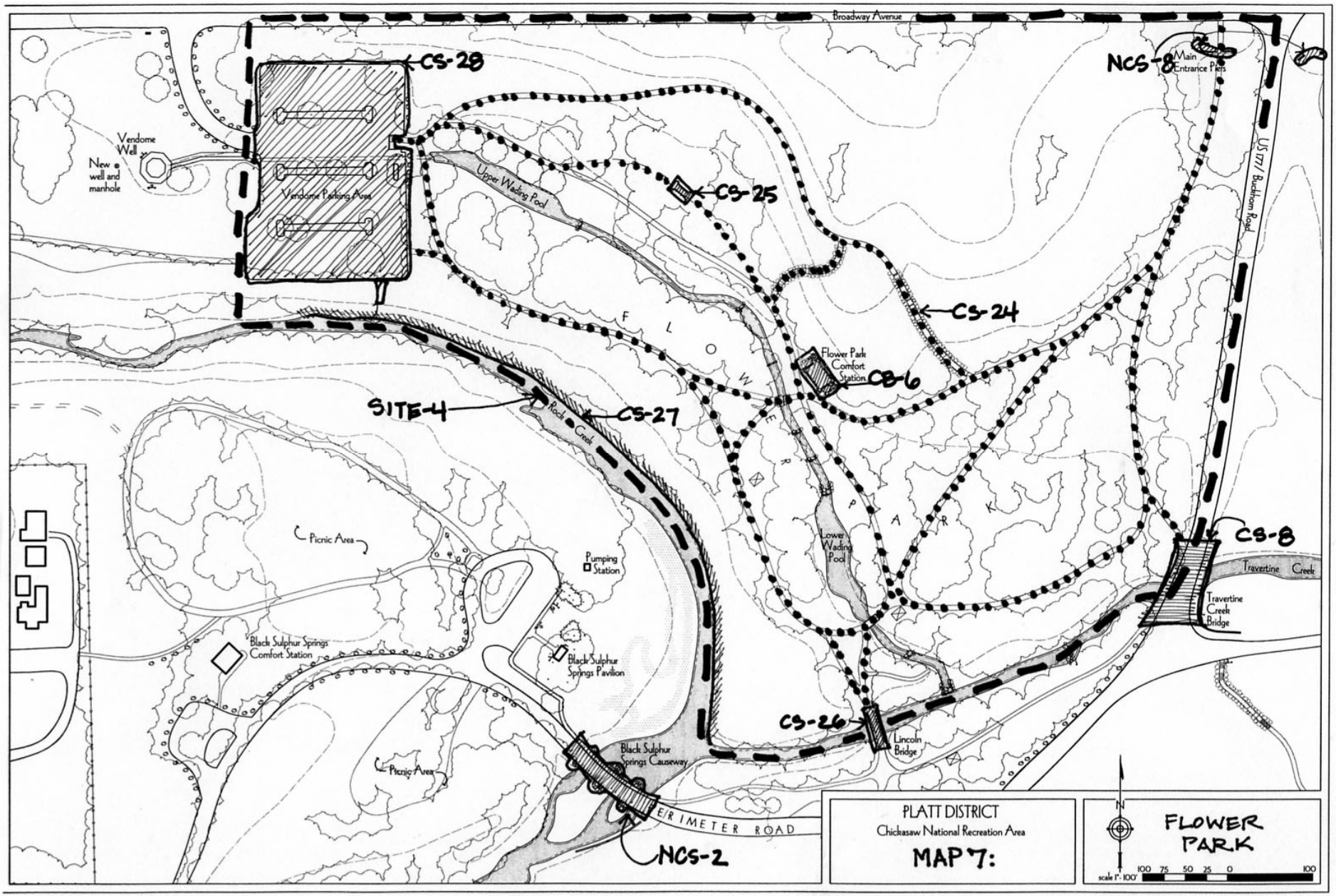

Lindsay Avenue
CS-4
Rock Creek Causeway
CS-11
PERIMETER ROAD
garage
carport
Bromide Ranger Station
CB-3
12th Street
CS-20
SITE 1
NCS-6
Bromide Fountain
Travertine Ranger Station
CB-4
pumping station
Medicine Springs
Chloride Springs
CS-21
pumping station
Bromide Springs
Bromide Pavilion
CB-1
Bromide Comfort Station
CB-2
Rock Creek Trail
CS-13
Buffalo Pasture Trail
CS-16
BROMIDE SPRINGS & BROMIDE
Bromide Trail
CS-14
Overlook
CS-12
CS-22
Bromide Hill Parking Area
PERIMETER ROAD (CS-1)
Overlook
PLATT DISTRICT
Chickasaw National Recreation Area
MAP 4:
N
BROMIDE AREA
scale 1"=150'
100 50 0 100 200
75 25

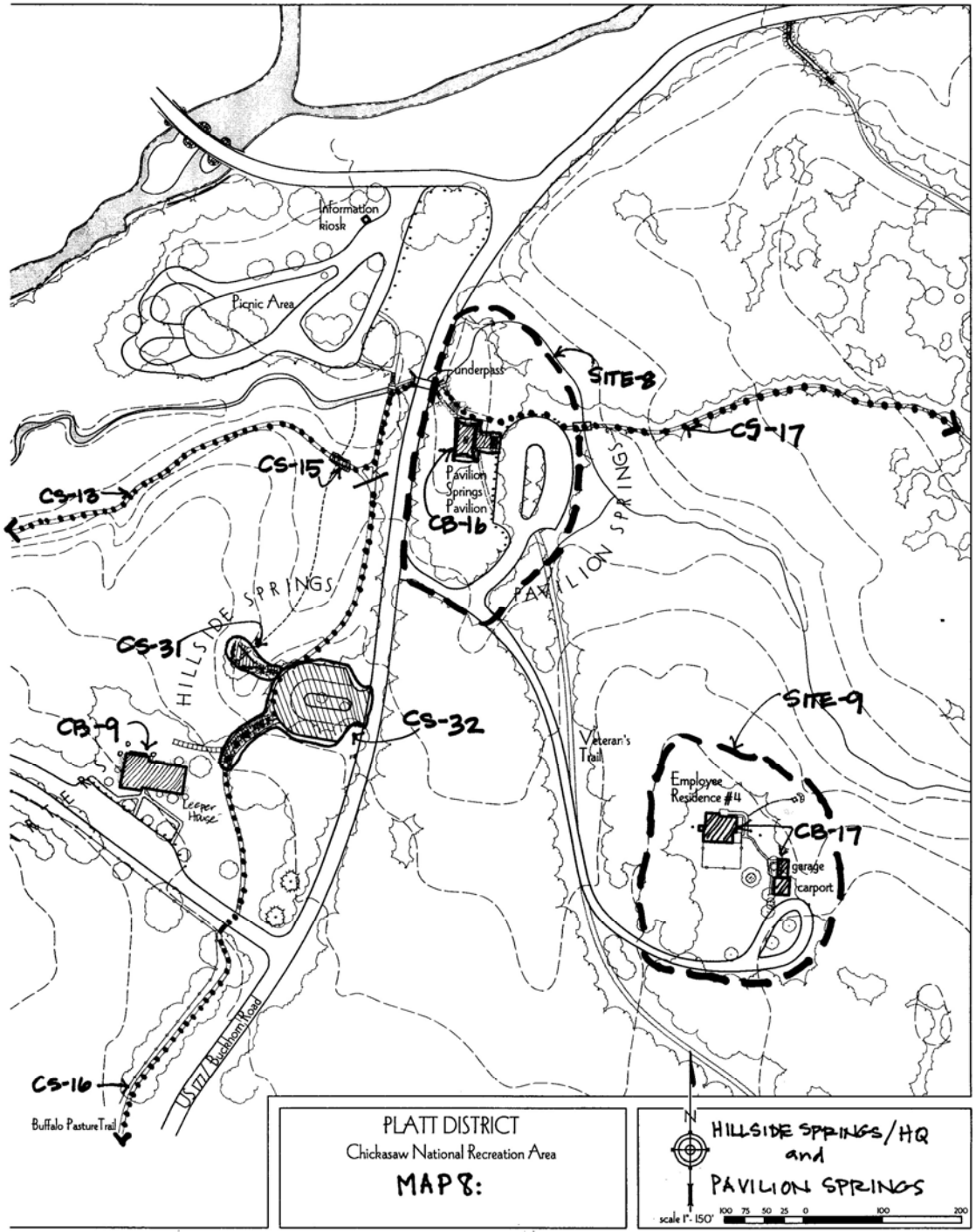

Tishomingo Ave.
park boundary
WALNUT GROVE
Monkey Tree
Picnic Area
Picnic Area
PERIMETER ROAD (CS-1)
CS-23
NCB-1
Walnut Grove Comfort Station
Fireplaces
Rock Creek
Rock Creek Trail (CS-13)
SITE-2
PLATT DISTRICT
Chickasaw National Recreation Area
MAP 5:
N
WALNUT GROVE
scale 1"= 125'
100 75 50 25 0 100

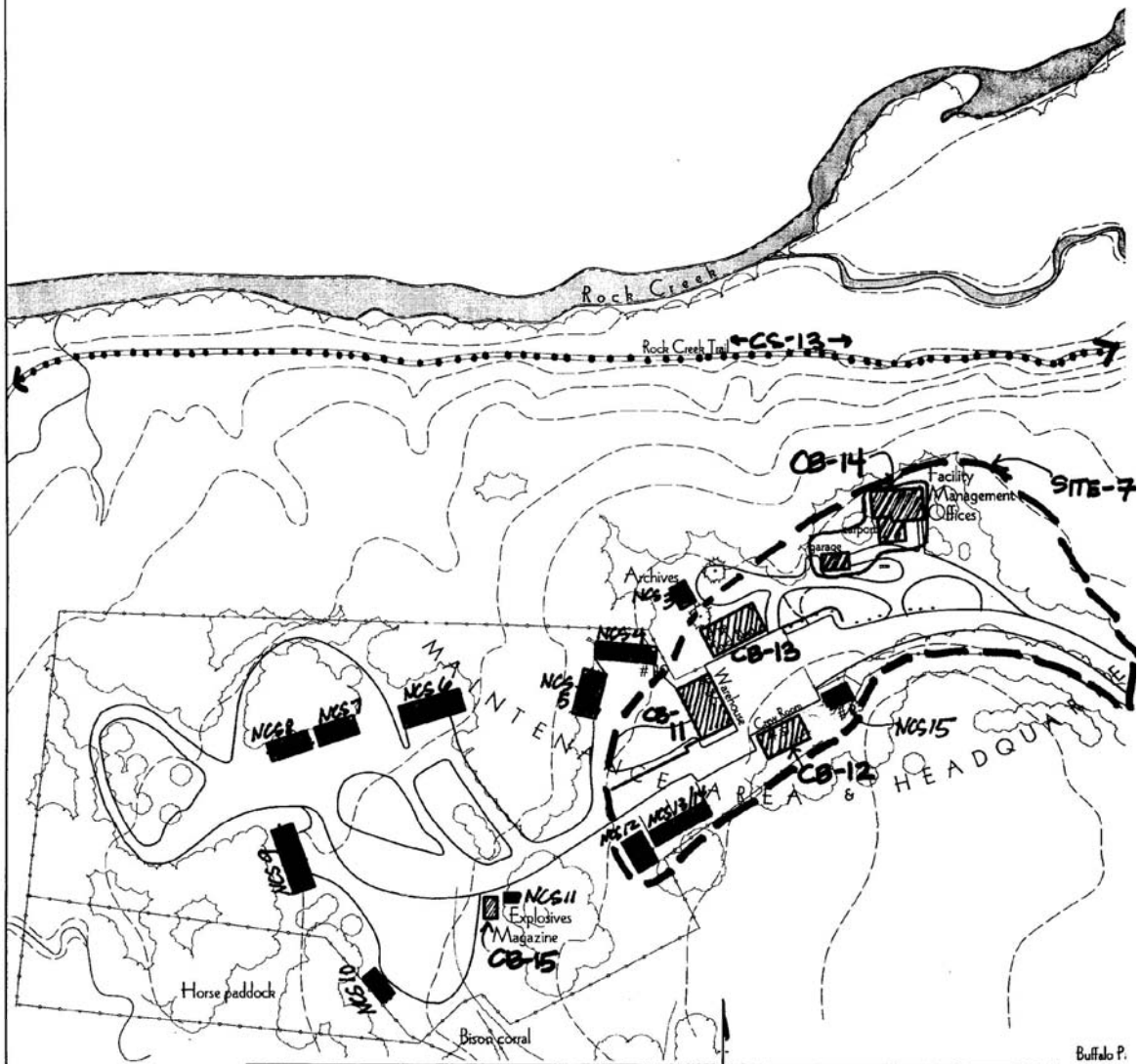


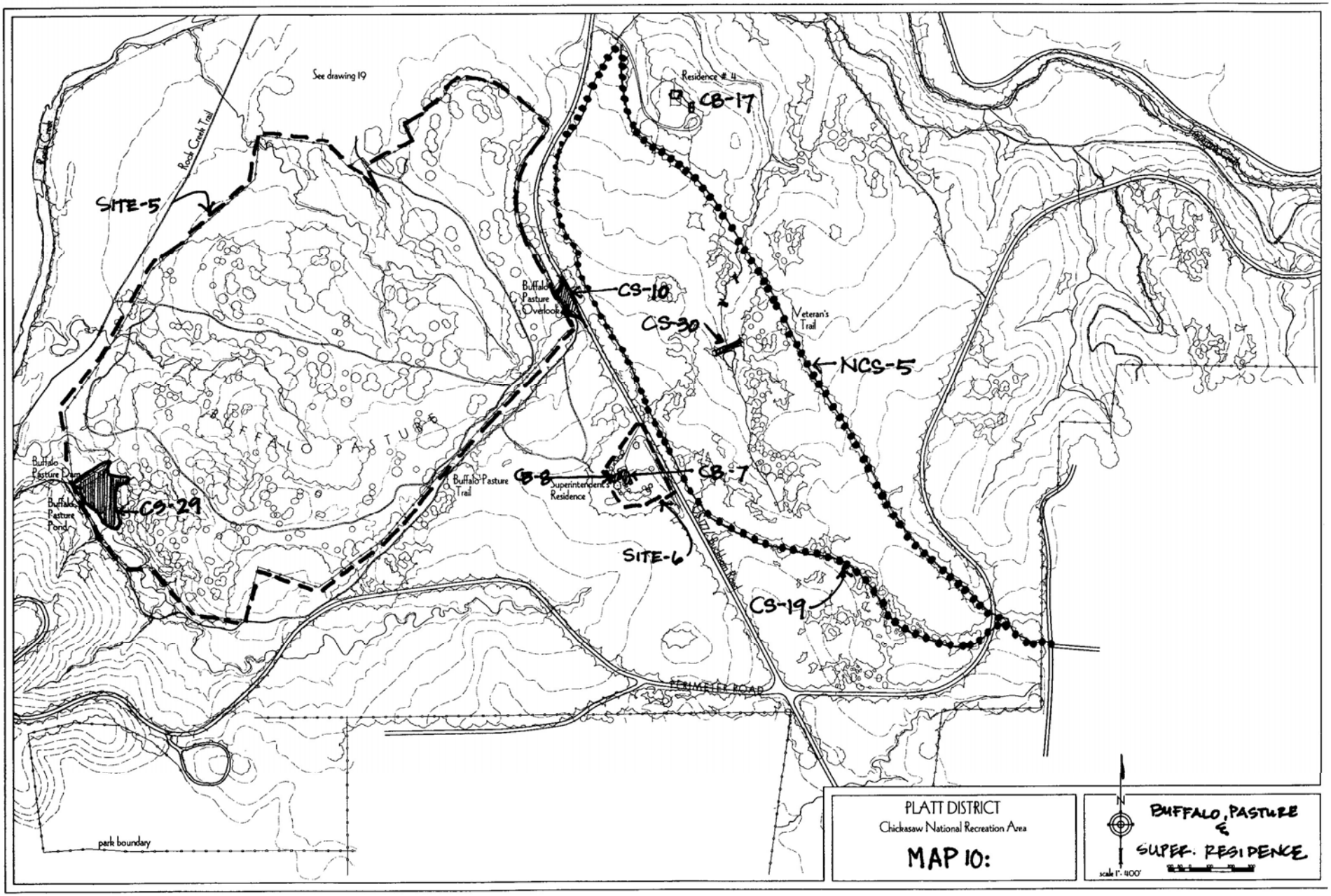
PLATT DISTRICT
Chickasaw National Recreation Area

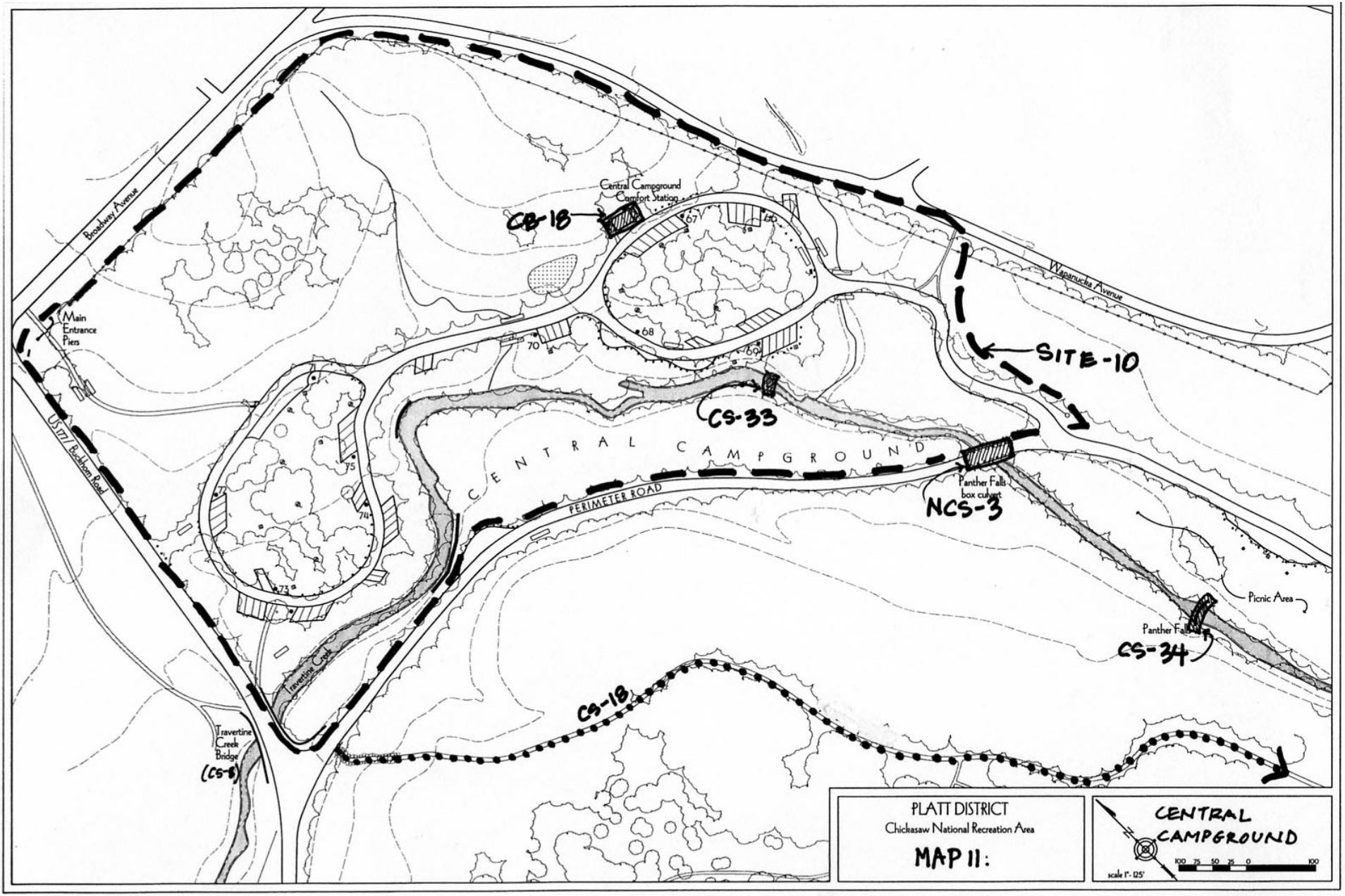
MAP 6:
BLACK SULPHUR SPRINGS

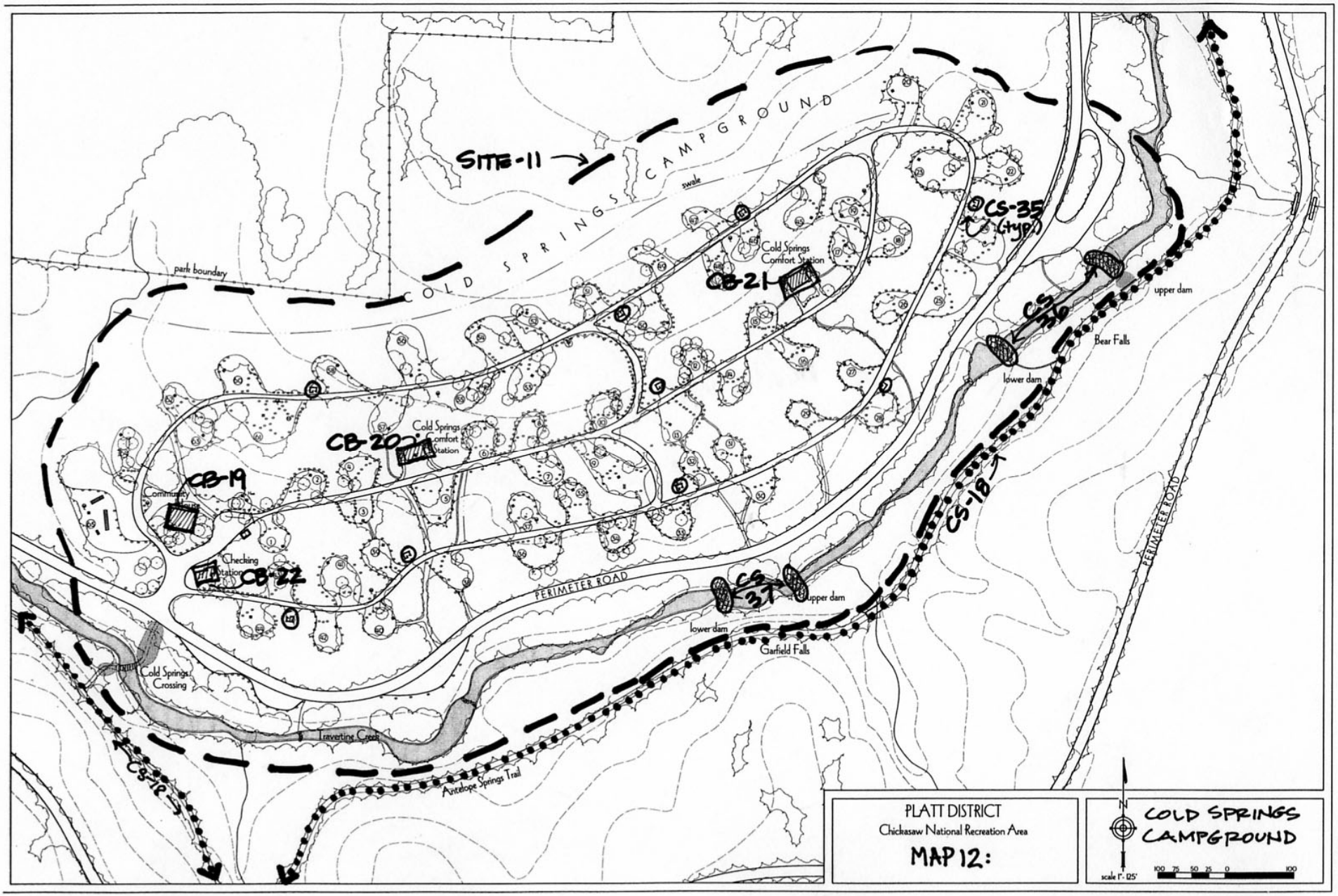

Broadway Avenue
CS-28
NCS-8
Main Entrance Piers
US 177/ Buckhorn Road
Vendome Well
New well and manhole
Vendome Parking Area
Upper Wading Pool
CS-25
CS-24
F L O W E R
P A R K
Flower Park Comfort Station
CB-6
SITE-4
Rock Creek
CS-27
Picnic Area
Pumping Station
Lower Wading Pool
CS-8
Travertine Creek
Travertine Creek Bridge
Black Sulphur Springs Comfort Station
Black Sulphur Springs Pavilion
CS-26
Lincoln Bridge
Black Sulphur Springs Causeway
Picnic Area
E/R IMETER ROAD
NCS-2
PLATT DISTRICT
Chickasaw National Recreation Area
MAP 7:
N
FLOWER PARK
scale 1"- 100'
100 75 50 25 0 100

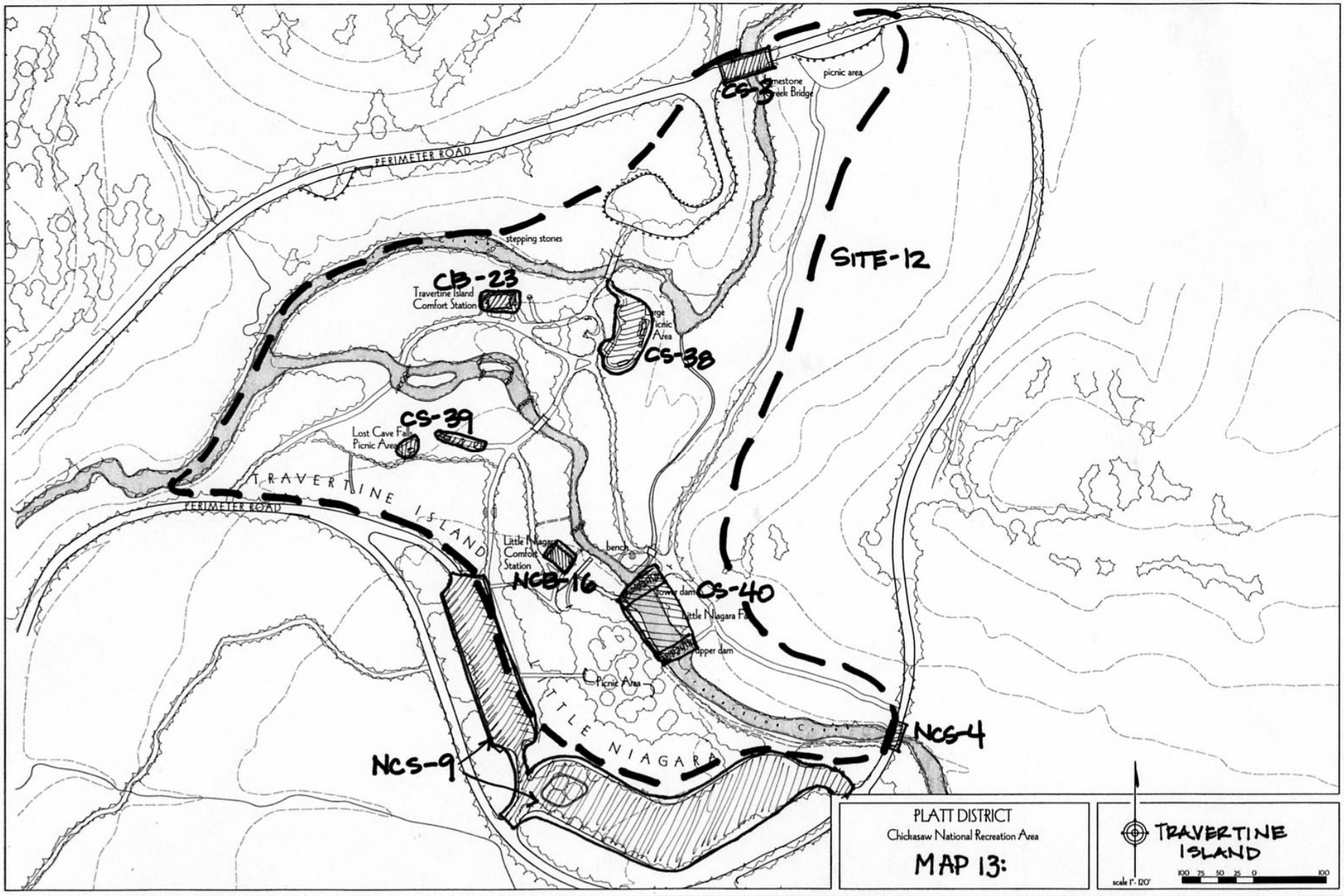

Information kiosk
Picnic Area
underpass
SITE-8
CS-17
CS-15
CS-18
Pavilion Springs Pavilion
CB-16
PAVILION SPRINGS
HILLSIDE SPRINGS
CS-31
CS-32
CB-9
Keeper House
Veteran's Trail
SITE-9
Employee Residence #4
CB-17
garage
carport
CS-16
Buffalo Pasture Trail
US 177 Buckhorn Road
PLATT DISTRICT
Chickasaw National Recreation Area
MAP 8:
N
HILLSIDE SPRINGS/HQ and PAVILION SPRINGS
scale 1"- 150'
100 75 50 25 0 100 200

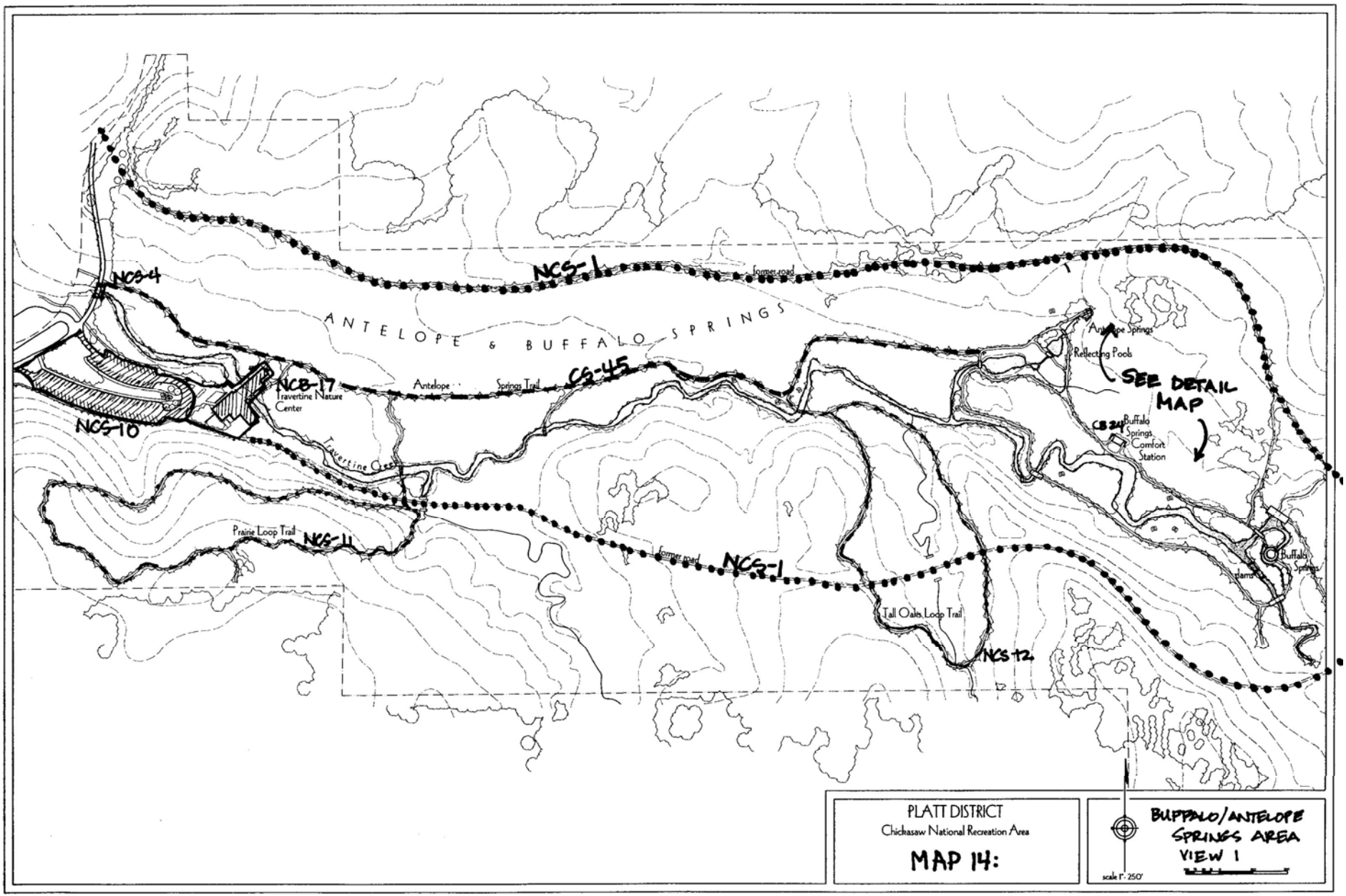

Rock Creek
Rock Creek Trail
CS-13
CB-14
Facility Management Offices
SITE-7
Carport
Garage
Archives
NCS 3
NCS 4
CB-13
NCS 5
NCS 6
NCS 7
NCS 8
CB-11
Warehouse
Core Room
NCS 15
CB-12
MAINTENANCE AREA & HEADQUARTERS
NCS 9
NCS 11
Explosives Magazine
CB-15
NCS 10
Horse paddock
Bison corral
Buffalo P.
PLATT DISTRICT
Chickasaw National Recreation Area
MAP 9:
N
MAINTENANCE AREA
scale 1"= 150'
100 75 50 25 0 100 200

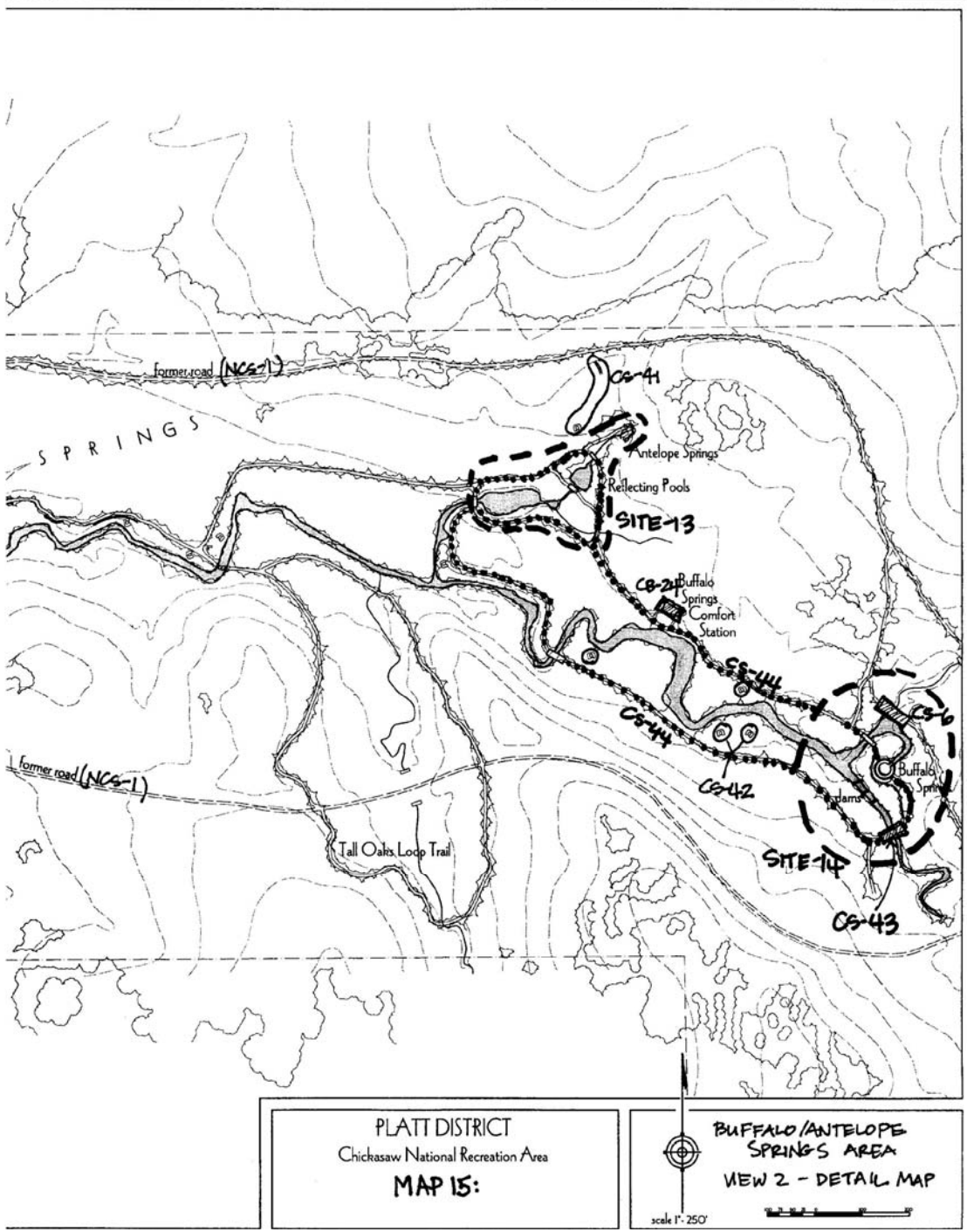

See drawing 19
Rock Creek Trail
SITE-5
Residence # 4
CB-17
Buffalo Pasture Overlook
CS-10
CS-30
Veteran's Trail
NCS-5
BUFFALO PASTURE
Buffalo Pasture Dam
Buffalo Pasture Pond
CS-29
Buffalo Pasture Trail
CB-8
Superintendent's Residence
CB-7
SITE-6
CS-19
PERIMETER ROAD
park boundary
PLATT DISTRICT
Chickasaw National Recreation Area
MAP 10:
N
BUFFALO, PASTURE & SUPER. RESIDENCE
scale 1"= 400'

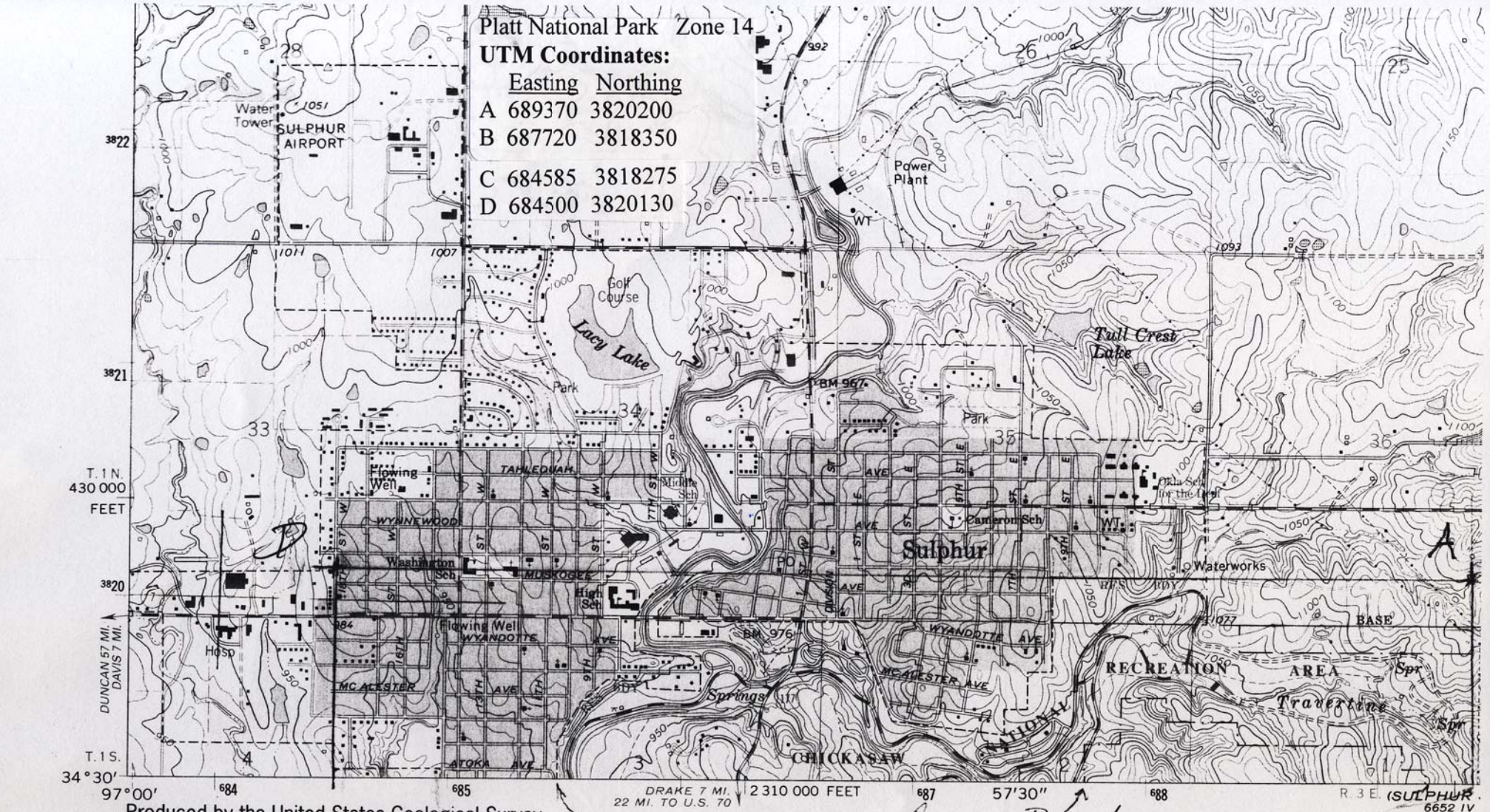

Broadway Avenue
Main Entrance Piers
US 177 Bushbom Road
Central Campground Comfort Station
CB-18
Wapanucka Avenue
SITE-10
CS-33
CENTRAL CAMPGROUND
PERIMETER ROAD
Panther Falls box culvert
NCS-3
Picnic Area
Panther Falls
CS-34
CS-18
Travertine Creek
Travertine Creek Bridge
(CS-8)
67
68
69
70
71
73
74
75
PLATT DISTRICT
Chickasaw National Recreation Area
MAP 11:
CENTRAL CAMPGROUND
100 75 50 25 0 100
scale 1" = 125'


COLD SPRINGS CAMPGROUND
SITE-11
swale
park boundary
CS-35 (typ.)
Cold Springs Comfort Station
CB-21
upper dam
CS-36
Bear Falls
lower dam
CS-18
PERIMETER ROAD
CB-20
Cold Springs Comfort Station
CB-19
Community
Checking Station
CB-22
CS-37
upper dam
lower dam
Garfield Falls
Cold Springs Crossing
Travertine Creek
Antelope Springs Trail
CS-19
PLATT DISTRICT
Chickasaw National Recreation Area
MAP 12:
N
COLD SPRINGS CAMPGROUND
scale 1"= 125'
100 75 50 25 0 100


PERIMETER ROAD
picnic area
CS-3
SITE-12
stepping stones
CB-23
Travertine Island
Comfort Station
Large
Picnic
Area
CS-38
CS-39
Lost Cave Falls
Picnic Area
TRAVERTINE ISLAND
PERIMETER ROAD
Little Niagara
Comfort
Station
NCB-16
bench
CS-40
Little Niagara Falls
upper dam
Picnic Area
LITTLE NIAGARA
NCS-4
NCS-9
PLATT DISTRICT
Chickasaw National Recreation Area
MAP 13:
TRAVERTINE
ISLAND
scale 1"= 120'
100 75 50 25 0 100


ANTELOPE & BUFFALO SPRINGS
NCS-4
NCS-1
former road
NCB-17
Travertine Nature Center
Antelope Springs Trail
CS-45
NCS-10
Travertine Creek
Prairie Loop Trail
NCS-11
former road
NCS-1
Tall Oaks Loop Trail
NCS-12
Antelope Springs
Reflecting Pools
SEE DETAIL MAP
CB 24
Buffalo Springs Comfort Station
Buffalo Springs
PLATT DISTRICT
Chickasaw National Recreation Area
MAP 14:
BUFFALO/ANTELOPE SPRINGS AREA
VIEW 1
scale 1"- 250'


former road (NCS-1)
SPRINGS
CS-41
Antelope Springs
Reflecting Pools
SITE-13
CS-24
Buffalo Springs Comfort Station
CS-44
CS-42
former road (NCS-1)
Tall Oaks Loop Trail
Buffalo Spring
SITE-14
CS-43
PLATT DISTRICT
Chickasaw National Recreation Area
MAP 15:
BUFFALO/ANTELOPE SPRINGS AREA
VIEW 2 - DETAIL MAP
scale 1" = 250'



Produced by the United States Geological Survey

Control by USGS and NOS/NOAA

Topography by photogrammetric methods from aerial photographs taken 1965. Field checked 1967

Projection and 10,000-foot grid ticks: Oklahoma coordinate system, south zone (Lambert conformal conic)
1000-meter Universal Transverse Mercator grid ticks, zone 14, shown in blue
1927 North American Datum (NAD 27)

North American Datum of 1983 (NAD 83) is shown by dashed corner ticks
The values of the shift between NAD 27 and NAD 83 for 7.5-minute intersections are given in USGS Bulletin 1875

There may be private inholdings within the boundaries of the National or State reservations shown on this map

Red tint indicates areas in which only landmark buildings are shown

Fine red dashed lines indicate selected fence and field lines where generally visible on aerial photographs. This information is unchecked

NHL boundary same as Reserve Boundary
Chickasaw National Recreation Area

SCALE 1:2

1 ½ 0
1000 0 1000 2000 3000
1 .5 0

CONTOUR INTER
NATIONAL GEODETIC VERTI

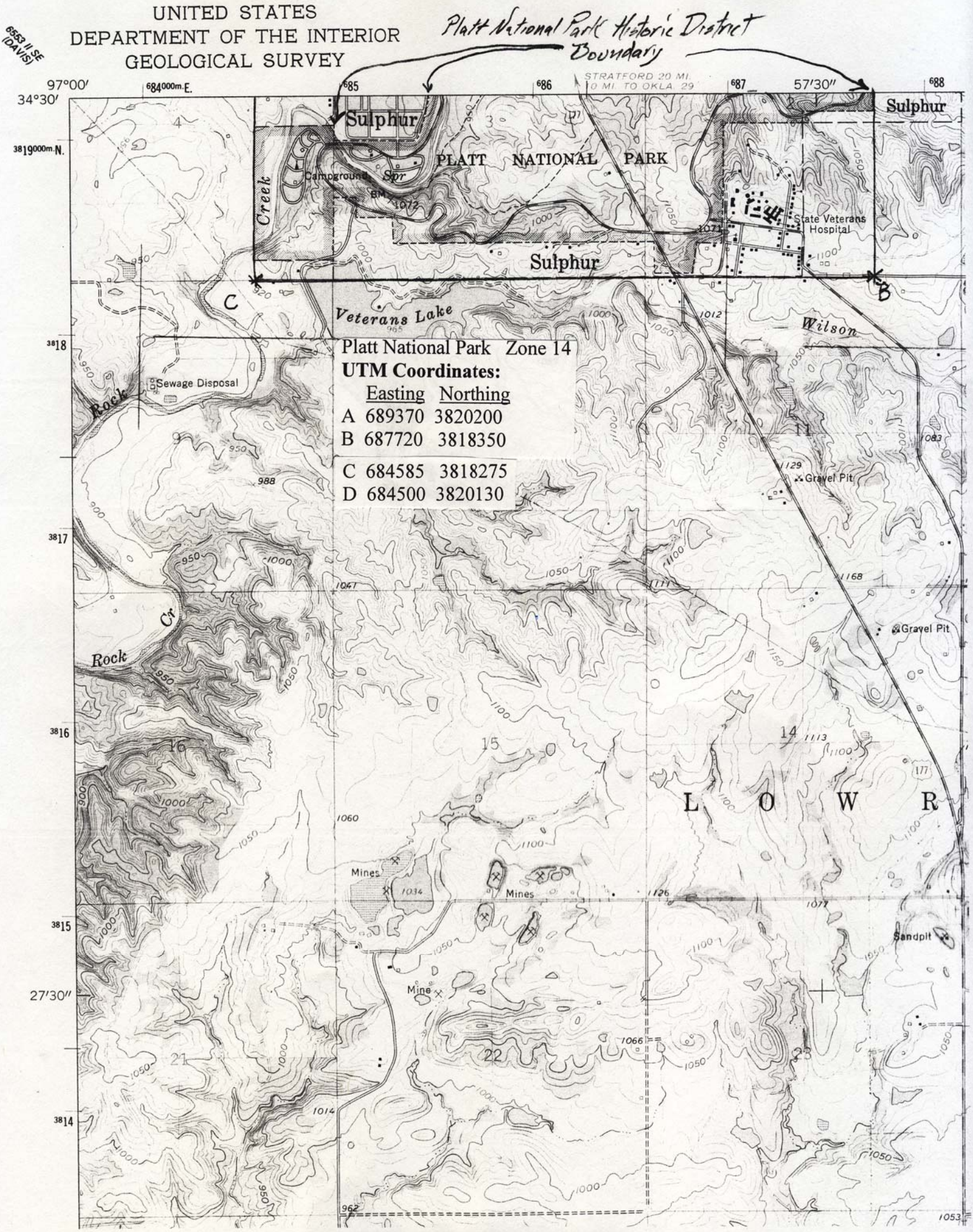
GN MN
1°10' 21 MILS
6° 107 MILS

UTM GRID AND 1993 MAGNETIC NORTH DECLINATION AT CENTER OF SHEET

Revisions shown in purple and woodland compiled in cooperation with State of Oklahoma agencies from aerial photographs taken 1991 and other sources
Contours not revised. This information not field checked
Map edited 1993

Purple tint indicates extension of urban area

THIS MAP COMPLIES WITH NATIONA
FOR SALE BY U. S. GEOLOGICAL SURVEY, DENVER,
AND OKLAHOMA GEOLOGICAL SURV
A FOLDER DESCRIBING TOPOGRAPHIC MAPS A


UNITED STATES
DEPARTMENT OF THE INTERIOR
GEOLOGICAL SURVEY
6553 II SE (DAVIS)
Platt National Park Historic District Boundary
97°00′
34°30′
684000m.E.
685
686
687
57′30″
688
3819000m.N.
3818
3817
3816
3815
27′30″
3814
Sulphur
PLATT NATIONAL PARK
Campground
Spr
BM 1072
Creek
State Veterans Hospital
Sulphur
Veterans Lake
Wilson
Platt National Park Zone 14
UTM Coordinates:
Easting Northing
A 689370 3820200
B 687720 3818350
C 684585 3818275
D 684500 3820130
Sewage Disposal
Rock
Cr
Gravel Pit
Gravel Pit
L O W R
Mines
Mines
Mine
Sandpit