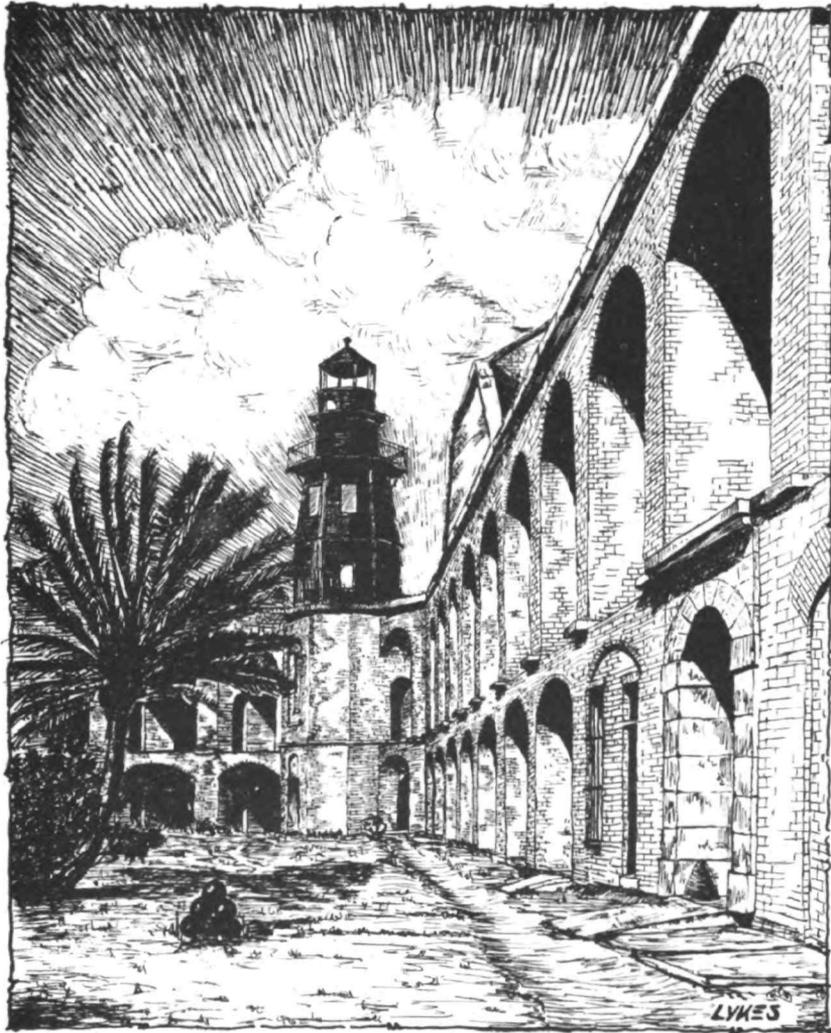


THE REGIONAL REVIEW



Fort Jefferson National Monument, Florida

NATIONAL PARK SERVICE
REGION ONE
RICHMOND VIRGINIA

JUNE 1940

VOL. IV - NO. 6

THE COVER

Assistant Inspector Ira B. Lykes' drawing shows a portion of Fort Jefferson on Garden Key of the Dry Tortugas Islands, in the Gulf of Mexico 70 miles west of Key West, Florida. Begun in 1846 as the key to America's defenses in the Gulf, the fortifications were garrisoned for the first time in January 1861. Federal troops held it during the War Between the States and used it as a hospital and military prison.

The alleged confederates of John Wilkes Booth in the assassination of President Lincoln were incarcerated in the great hexagonal fortress, and Dr. Samuel A. Mudd, the Maryland physician who set the broken leg of Booth, won widespread public sympathy for his labors there during a scourge of yellow fever in 1867. After members of the regular medical staff had succumbed to the disease, Dr. Mudd tended the sick and dying until he in turn was stricken. He was pardoned in 1869.

On January 4, 1935, Fort Jefferson became the 67th national monument.

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M. R. TILLOTSON, REGIONAL DIRECTOR

Hugh R. Awtrey, Editor

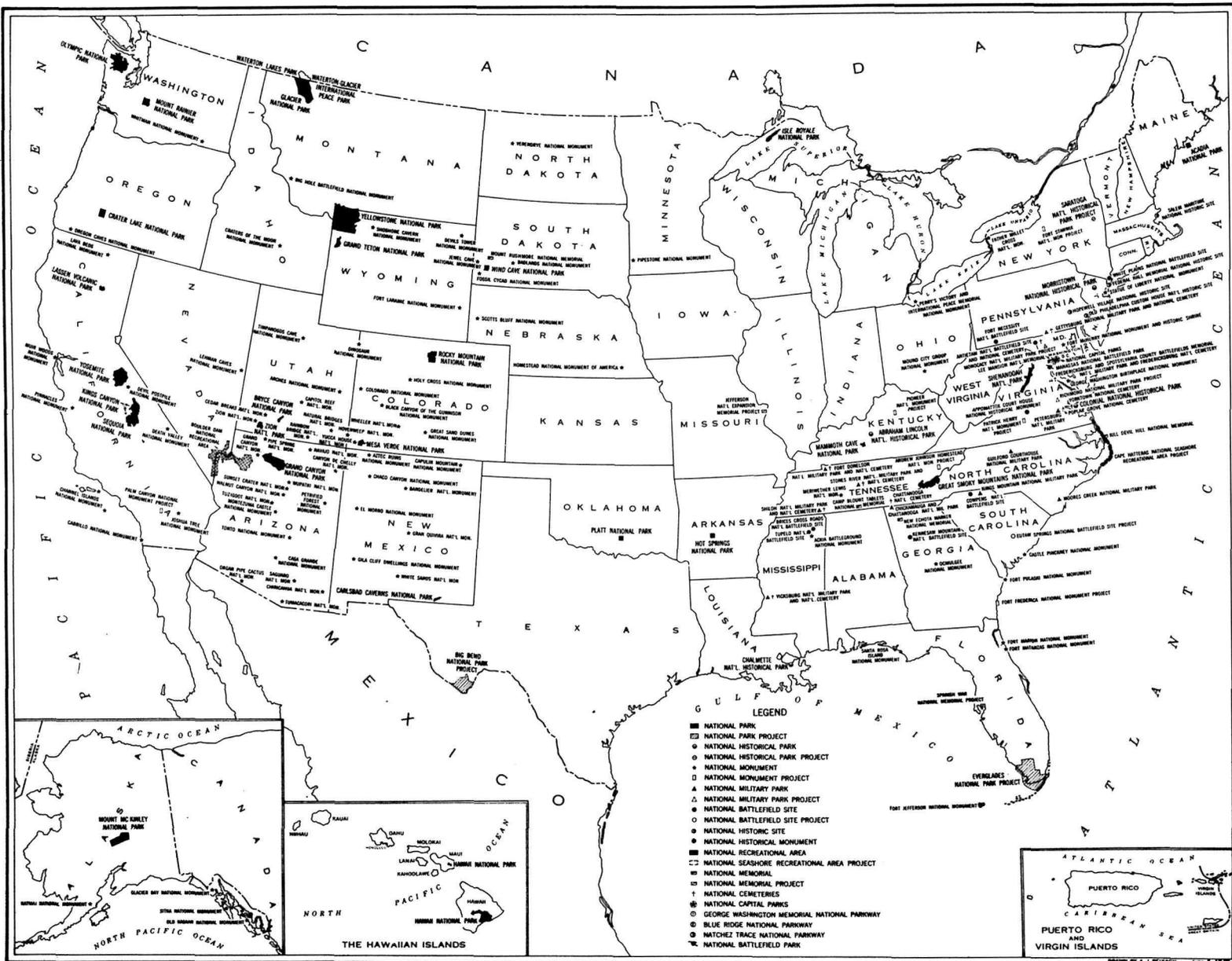
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THE UNITED STATES
DEPARTMENT OF THE INTERIOR
· NATIONAL PARK SERVICE ·
REGION ONE ~ RICHMOND, VIRGINIA



NATIONAL PARK SYSTEM AREAS AND PROJECTS

NATIONAL PARKS

AND NEW WORLD IDEALISM*

BY ARNO B. CAMMERER
Director,
National Park Service



Mr. Cammerer

The national park idea originated in the new world. Many are familiar with the story of its origin, but for the benefit of those who are not I want to give a brief review.

In 1870, an official party, known as the Washburn-Langford-Doane expedition, went into the little known headwaters of the Yellowstone River to make a reconnaissance of this reputedly wonderful region and to verify or correct the unbelievable stories that had been circulated for years about it. One evening, after several weeks of exploration during which the territory had been thoroughly covered, the party was assembled around the campfire discussing the wonders of the region. Different members were laying claims to different regions of the Yellowstone and were making their plans for the development of its resources for their own private profit. One claimed a geyser basin, another claimed the Grand Can-

yon of the Yellowstone, another one claimed the Mammoth Hot Springs, and so on. Finally, one member of the party told the others that he thought they should look beyond their plans for private exploitation of the Yellowstone; he suggested that, instead of apportioning the region piecemeal for private benefit of the party members, the group should unite in an effort to have the area set aside for the benefit and enjoyment of all the people, to be protected for all time as a national park. The idea was accepted immediately and discussed long into the night. When their trip was over they dedicated themselves to the Yellowstone National Park idea with such effectiveness that the park was established by Act of Congress in 1872.

Yellowstone was the first national park. Since then the idea has gone around the world. Soon after the establishment of the Yellowstone

* From an address given May 13, 1940, before the Eighth American Scientific Congress, Washington, D. C.

the demand for preservation and public use of other great scenic areas became widespread. By 1880, Senator Miller of California had introduced a bill to establish a national park in the southern Sierra to include Kings Canyon and the great sequoia forests. Ten years later small portions of that region were withdrawn from the possibility of private exploitation and set apart as the Sequoia and General Grant National Parks, and, in the same year, the Yosemite became a national park; but it was not for sixty years that Kings Canyon itself was given that status.

In 1906 a new step in the national park program came about through enactment of what is called the Antiquities Act. Congress then established the principle not only that all archeological material on the public lands is public property and cannot be removed without permission of the Government, but also that objects of historic, prehistoric, and scientific interest that are situated on the public lands may be set apart by proclamation of the President as national monuments to be conserved for public benefit. The first national monument established under the authority of the Antiquities Act was a famous western landmark, the Devils Tower in Wyoming, a spectacular volcanic core rising some 800 feet above the surrounding plains (See opposite page). Thus, the first national monument was an object of scientific interest.

Several areas of archeological and biological interest soon were established as national monuments. These early monuments were important steps in developing the principle that objects and sites of prehistoric, historic and scientific interest, situated on the public lands, are important public resources worthy of preservation for public use.

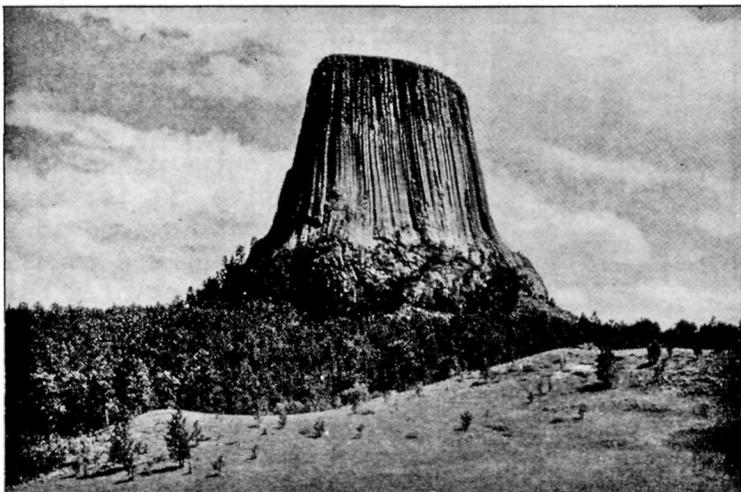
Congress established the National Park Service in 1916. Before that time there had been no bureau whose sole function it was to further the national park interests. Its purpose was defined:

The service thus established shall promote and regulate the use of the Federal areas known as national parks, monuments, and reservations hereinafter specified by such means and measures as conform to the fundamental purpose of the said parks, monuments, and reservations, which purpose is to conserve the scenery and the natural and historic objects and the wild life therein and to provide for the enjoyment of the same in such manner and by such means as will leave them unimpaired for the enjoyment of future generations.

At that time, the national park and monument system already included many different types of areas but no one agency was responsible for integration of the program. Some of the national monuments were administered by the Department of Agriculture. A large number of historic sites, parks, and memorials were administered by the War Department. In 1933, all of the national parks, monuments and related historic reservations administered by the Federal Government were made the responsibility of the National Park Service.

A further growth in the national park program found expression in 1935 in the Historic Sites Act, in which Congress declared it "a na-

tional policy to preserve for public use historic sites, buildings and objects of national significance for the inspiration and benefit of the people . . ." The act carried practical provisions empowering the Secretary of the Interior to cooperate with numerous types of agencies in protection and maintenance of outstanding historic sites, buildings, and objects.



Devils Tower, Wyoming, First National Monument

A significant step toward a more coherent and integrated national recreational program was made in 1936 with passage of the Recreational Study Act, which authorizes the Secretary of the Interior, through the National Park Service and in cooperation with other federal agencies and with the several states, to conduct a study of the park, parkway and recreational-area programs of the country, in order to develop a coordinated national recreational program. The study is being conducted and many of the states already have transmitted reports.

The national park system is composed today of 158 historic and natural areas, with a total of 21,515,000 acres. Regardless of the different types of parks and monuments in the national park system, there are certain general policies and practices that apply to all:

They are administered primarily for the benefit and enjoyment of the people. Nature is preserved and not improved.

They are game sanctuaries and not hunting reservations.

No commercial enterprise is permitted except so far as is essential for the care and comfort of park visitors, and in those few exceptions specifically directed by Congress.

The national interest is supreme and encroachment for private benefit is resisted.

They are developed in accordance with officially approved master plans. Such plans are the product of the entire Service and reflect the best judgment of the administrative officers and their technical advisors. It is the purpose of such developments to give public access to the main features of the areas but to preserve the greater portion of each area without encroachment.

To meet the needs of park visitors, the Service has followed the general policy of providing a graded scale of accommodations, ranging from free campgrounds, provided by the government, to cabins, lodges, and hotels provided by the park operators. The Service attempts to provide facilities that will meet the financial requirements of every visitor.



Having presented this brief review of the origin and growth of the national park system, I should like to discuss it as a form of land use in a general conservation program. Parks are an expression of maturity and restraint. They are an indication that people have begun to look outward and to see with perspective. With that perspective, it is seen that in our struggle for existence we can afford to preserve some of the native beauty of our land and to use it. The park concept is clearly the product of a balanced mind -- a mind that

sees in a waterfall something more than potential horsepower, that sees in a giant forest something more than lumber, or that sees in a flowering mountain meadow something more than a sheep pasture, and, having seen, does not desire to exploit it for private gain.

The national park idea is a consistent part of New World Idealism. Its development need not be limited except by our vision and our generosity. If we are far-seeing enough, park benefits can become an international heritage of the Americas. The native beauty of the land and the homespun cultural fabrics of each different country can become common heritage. The nature reservations and historic shrines of all the American countries can be united, not only by international parkways and peace parks, but likewise by the international language of the park idea, until there is a Pan-American Park System covering the continents from southern Chile and Argentina to Alaska and Canada.

Nature has given us the snowclad cordilleras reaching from Mount McKinley to Nahuel Huapi, the white line of breakers that rims the Americas, clean rivers, forests and plains teeming with wildlife, the fertile soil, and other resources in great abundance. Over it all, and made of it, is the scenic mantle, the element of natural beauty, which was not recognized as being a resource by the pioneers but which has come to be recognized as one of the indispensable resources of our civilization. This scenic and recreational mantle of the Americas is wearing thin; moths, fire and acids have eaten it full of holes and in many places it is little more than the tattered shreds of a shawl. We should be wise to protect and restore it. This resource is indispensable because it is the recreative resource, and recreation is essential to life.

The recreational resource is not something that stands apart from the other resources; it is composed of them and is usually the total of them all. When it is conserved and utilized properly, there is strong probability that all the component resources are treated properly. Likewise, when the component resources have been squandered, the recreational resource has vanished. Recreational utility is rightly becoming the criterion of good land management, and parks are strongly indicated as the apex of a national conservation program.

Parks are not a type of scenery; they are a type of public reservation. That type of reservation could be applied to an acre of grassland in the plains as well as to an acre of mountain summit in the Andes or the Rockies. Park standards refer therefore, not to the kind of natural scenery that may be selected for park status, but to the use that is made of it. Here in the United States there has been hair-splitting difference

of opinion for many years over the question of park status for this mountain peak or that one, because some other one, already established as a national park, is a little higher or may be resembled superficially by the peak that is being recommended for park status. Impractical as such dialectic is, famous scenic areas have been opposed for national park status for years on that basis. If there were two Yellowstones, should we refuse to use one of them?

Park reservation is equally applicable to the lofty mountains, the great plains, the southern coastal forests, the deserts, or the seashore. No matter what type of physiography may be chosen, or what biologic, geologic, historic, or archeologic exhibit, the purposes are the same: the areas are set apart to be preserved and enjoyed without impairment. While the 158 reservations in the national park system are grouped into 11 descriptive categories---such as parks, monuments, historical parks, historic sites, battlefield parks, memorials, etc.---they are all the same type of reservation. Generically all are parks.

When someone attempts to break through one of these reservations and exploit its resources for private gain, that is a threat to park standards and should be a matter of public concern. Such attempts usually are piecemeal, and each is made by its proponents to appear reasonably insignificant. But the parkman knows from hard experience that all such invasions are cumulative, and that the toxin, if permitted, will in time become lethal.

In the national parks we are trying to preserve the land whole, not that human use of the areas should be subordinated to nature protection, and not that in the parks we think more of wildlife or other objects than of people. Parks are for the people to use and there is no other reason for their existence. But, if a car is to transport us, we must keep its mechanism in running order. If parks are to serve us we must protect

A POLICY AND A CHALLENGE

Park Conservation is a national policy and a national challenge.

Since its beginning, the defenders of the national park and monument system have been pioneers in a new and civilized form of land use. They have distilled from the rough and ready methods of wilderness conquest new techniques and practices, so that park conservation is no longer merely a principle of good stewardship but is a definite function of government with scientific application. They have found ways of using the native beauty and the native-spun character of our country in such manner that they shall not be destroyed but shall contribute to our national fabric.

Parks are as much a form of land settlement as are farms, and park management is as much a land settlement industry as is the growing of corn, potatoes, or wheat. In the settlement of a country some lands are suited to farming, others to grazing, others to forestry and mining. But some lands are more suitable for the inspiration, or recreation, of the people---breathing spaces, they might be called. The important problems for the parkman are to determine which lands are best adapted to serve as parks and how best to use them.

From What Are National Parks?, Supplement to Planning and Civic Comment, Vol. IV, No. 1.

their natural machinery. There is a keen analysis of the point in Grinnell's and Storer's Animal Life in the Yosemite in which they describe how a segment of nature works.

"The White-headed Woodpecker," they point out, "is a species which does practically all of its foraging on trees which are living, gleaning from them a variety of bark-inhabiting insects. But the White-headed Woodpecker lacks an effective equipment for digging into hard wood. It must have dead and decaying tree trunks in which to excavate its nesting holes. If, by any means, the standing dead trees in the forests were all removed at one time, the White-headed Woodpecker could not continue to exist past the present generation, because no broods could be reared according to the inherent habits and structural limitations of the species. Within a woodpecker generation, the forests would be deprived of the beneficent presence of this bird. The same, we believe, is true of certain nuthatches and of the chickadees--industrious gleaners of insect life from living trees. They must have dead tree trunks in which to establish nesting and roosting places, safe for and accessible to birds of their limited powers of construction and defense . . . Dead trees are in many respects as useful in the plan of nature as living ones, and should be just as rigorously conserved."



The type of facts that Grinnell and Storer point out is no hindrance to park management and use. Recognizing these facts in our plans and developments, we can increase the utility of our parks, and if our feet are on the ground, we can develop almost any kind of park. To do so, however, our purposes must be clearly in mind. These statements seem obvious, but in fact they are not. There is frequent conflict between parkmen, one faction charging that the other would lock up the parks and keep

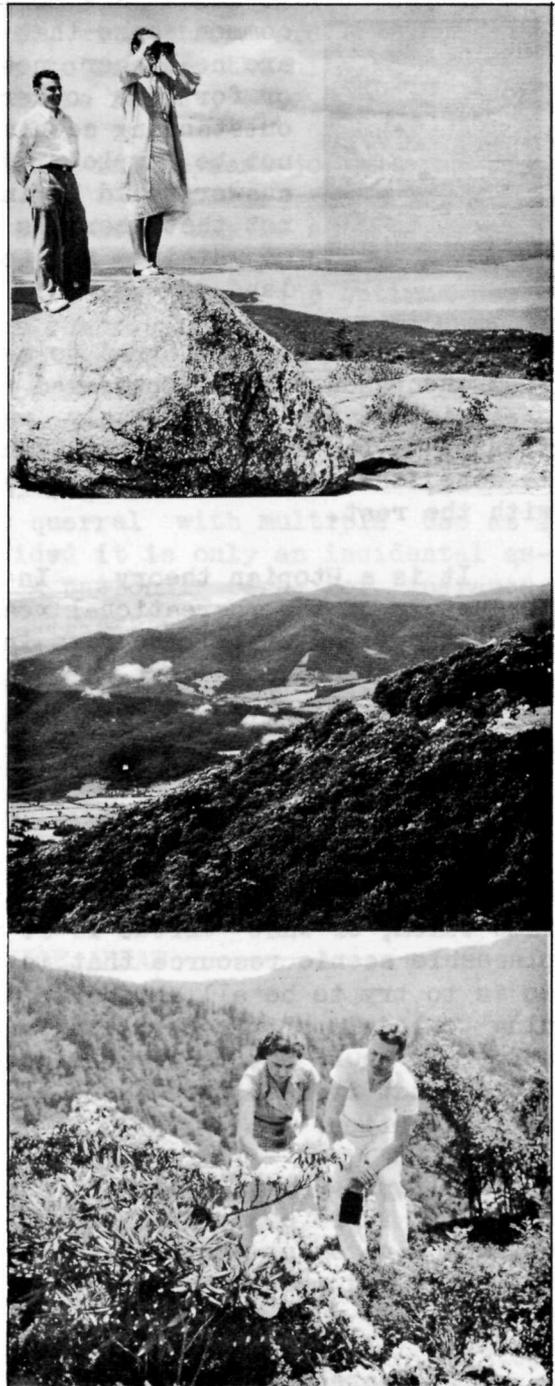
people out of them, the other asserting that the first would make city playgrounds of all parks. Would not both factions be nearer the truth if they agreed that there is no conflict---that we should, so to speak, render to Caesar the things that are Caesar's and to God the things that are God's? That we should not try to treat Jones Beach as we would the back country of Yellowstone or make Yellowstone serve as Jones Beach? Countless thousands may play on the beach and the tide comes and washes their tracks away. Countless thousands trampling the roots and packing the soil around a giant Sequoia tree will kill the tree that they come to see. Both the wilderness park and the heavily used beach have their places, and there is no legitimate conflict between them. Management of any park must partake of common sense and good taste so that development will not defeat the purpose for which it was established and that purpose will not be confused with the purpose of some other park.

Park management is more, of course, than common sense and good taste. It is a profession and a career in actuality, and the time is ripe for its techniques to be professionalized academically. The breadth of its activities, its intense absorption with people and nature, its concern with the physical evidences of history and prehistory, their preservation

and interpretation, the host of practical skills required in construction, operation and maintenance and the ever-guiding objective of preserving the best and making it available --all these make the park profession one of the most attractive and stimulating of all careers.

How many parks can we afford? How many acres are required? When will the saturation point be reached? The answer to these questions is expected to be given in quantitative terms; but recreation cannot be measured quantitatively because it is a quality of living. Who can say when our living is good enough? Yet I have seen statements that the present acreage of parks is all that the country will ever need. The only honest answer to these questions is, I believe, that the struggle to improve our living is a never-ending one, and that so long as any cultural and recreative factor in our historical and natural resources is being needlessly destroyed it is a challenge. Park status in such cases may be a more useful and productive status than any other, and present indications are that we can afford to live more generously than we have realized.

G. A. Pearson, in the Journal of Forestry,¹ says: "Foresters no longer believe that every acre of land that can be made to grow timber must be used for that purpose. One hundred million acres of productive and well located timberlands could be made to produce annual yields far exceeding present consumption in this country. Additional areas to the extent of perhaps 300 million acres might well be kept in some sort of forest in the interest of recreation and watershed protection, and to provide a reserve acreage for timber production."



At top, Frenchman Bay, Acadia National Park, Maine; middle, view north from Skyland, Shenandoah National Park, Virginia; bottom, rhododendron in Great Smoky Mountains National Park, North Carolina-Tennessee.

(1) "Forest Land Use." Vol. 38, No. 3, March 1940, pp. 261-270



If lands are no longer good for one use, it seems only common sense that we put them to another use. If lands are no longer needed for growing timber, for instance, or for some other industrial purpose, and they are of outstanding scenic and recreational character, would it not be simple wisdom to reserve them for recreation? The answer would be in the affirmative more often if it were not that there is a widespread tendency to try to do too many things for too many people on every acre of public land.

This policy is referred to as a multiple use. Under it we are told that the resources of a proposed park are so intertwined and are of such great importance that the only way the area can be properly managed is to use all the resources simultaneously and equally, and, that if this is done, the recreational resource will receive full consideration along with the rest.

It is a Utopian theory. In the first place, it does not recognize the nature of the recreational resource which, as has been said already, consists of the other resources in combination. As much as you take from each of the component resources, by so much do you take from it. As numerous writers have pointed out, this system of management, failing to recognize the dominant resource of a given area, detracts from its value by giving equal place to subordinate resources. This is apt to be little more than multiple abuse.

Of what virtue is it to advocate multiple use of a watershed that is worth a thousand dollars an acre for water catchment purposes? By the same token, of what virtue is it to advocate multiple use of an irreplaceable scenic resource that is of public inspirational value? To do so is to try to be all things to all people. It is to reduce land planning to local political pulling and hauling. It is the absence of planning. It would not be worth recognizing except that it is so widely accepted that it has become one of the greatest obstacles to sound land classification.

Multiple use is a common, and often a good, feature of land management. As it is commonly accepted, however, it means the specific brand of land management that I have described, which sets multiplicity as its objective and permits a mediocre rating of every resource in a given area.

Mr. Pearson, in the article already mentioned says:

The land management plan envisioned in this article conveys two conceptions of multiple use. In one, management is by units in each of which one use is dominant though not exclusive; in the other, all uses are accorded equal rank on the same area . . . The second plan is applicable, theoretically, where all factors are under complete control; but, because this situation can rarely be attained, the plan is adapted mainly to lands on which all uses are so low that

priorities have no practical significance. Forest lands, both public and private, are now being handled, with minor exceptions, according to the second plan. In order to realize the highest values the trend must be more and more toward the first . . .

Siegfried von Ciriacy-Wantrup, writing in the same journal, said:

"Under the concept of optimum use there may be several uses. The idea, however, is not to have several uses always but to permit them if they are socially desirable. In many cases the optimum use will be a single use rather than some combination of several uses. In other cases it will be one dominant use and as many subordinate uses as do not interfere with the dominant use. In a few cases there may be two or more codominant uses of nearly equal importance." 2



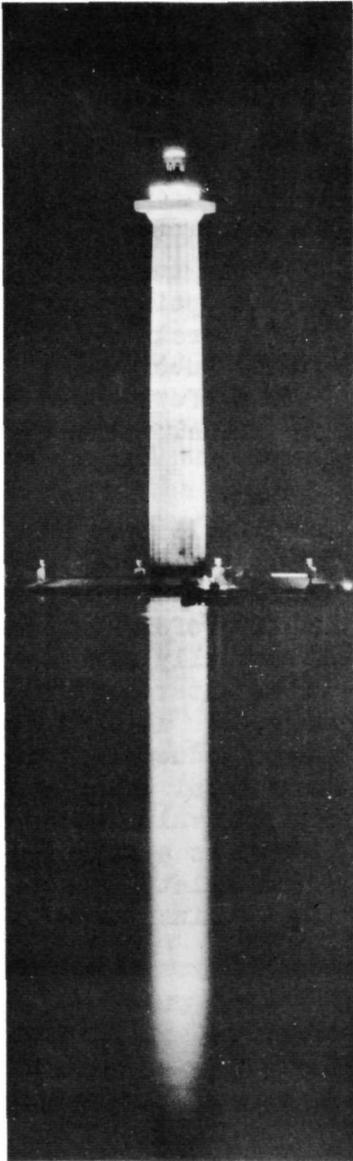
Nobody could have any quarrel with multiple use as a descriptive term, provided it is only an incidental aspect of optimum use. A national park, for instance, which the multiple use exponents usually refer to as a single use form of land management, actually may provide several uses. It may provide vital watershed protection; serve as a wildlife sanctuary, as a natural and historic museum and place of public education; it may serve as a source of employment for local labor and a market for local products; increase the value of ad-

acent and tributary property, and, at the same time, serve as a stimulus to national and international travel, which in turn stimulates a host of other industries. All these are incidental to the dominant use of

SUMMARY OF SERVICE AREAS
as of June 20, 1940

Type of Area	Number	Sq. Miles	Acres
National Parks	26	16,109.91	10,310,339.80
National Historical Parks	4	11.97	7,658.27
National Monuments	82	14,764.40	9,449,214.35
National Military Parks	11	32.70	20,921.48
National Battlefield Parks	2	4.97	3,181.00
National Battlefield Sites	6	0.23	150.16
National Historic Sites	4	0.35	223.59
National Recreational Area	1	2,655.58	1,699,573.00
National Memorials	8	.50	317.11
National Cemeteries	11	.55	353.46
National Capital Parks	1	16.88	10,803.16
National Parkways	3	51.95	33,245.15
Totals	159	33,649.99	21,535,981.46

(2) "Multiple and Optimum Use of Wild Land under Different Economic Conditions." Journal of Forestry, Vol. 36, No. 7, July, 1938, pp. 665-674.



Perry's Victory and
International Peace
Memorial National
Monument, Ohio.

the land for recreation. In such case, the optimum use of the land includes several uses, but multiplicity is not the objective: it is an incidental, and even accidental, aspect.

I sincerely believe that the exponents of multiple use really have optimum use in mind, and that they have no thought but that the natural resources should be appraised with intelligent selectivity. If that is the case, then we should recognize it by all means and admit that we do not hold multiple use either as a formula of land management or as an objective. Such action would revolutionize public land management. It would lead to the classification of lands according to their best uses. It would mean, for example, as Pearson says, that "Livestock production like timber production would profit immensely, if instead of trying to utilize all lands regardless of quality, the range industry were concentrated on lands really suited to it by climate, soil, and water facilities." It would mean that a national conservation program, insofar as the public lands are concerned, would be rational and flexible and that recreational lands would be classified as recreational lands rather than as forest or range or some other category for which they are largely useless. It would mean, in time, that lands classified according to their dominant use would be managed by agencies especially skilled in providing those uses, and that incidental uses would be permitted in accordance with their relative importance.

In such a conservation program there might be more parks or there might not be, depending upon the classification of the resources. It might be found that recreational areas, so classified for their dominant use but subject to certain subordinate uses, would be a useful complement to the park systems. Such areas would be more apt to retain their distinguishing characteristics, and to render their maximum usefulness, if they were so recognized, but parks would remain the apex of the conservation program because they are the irreducible treasures.



SKISH

A By-Product of Fishing Added to Park Program

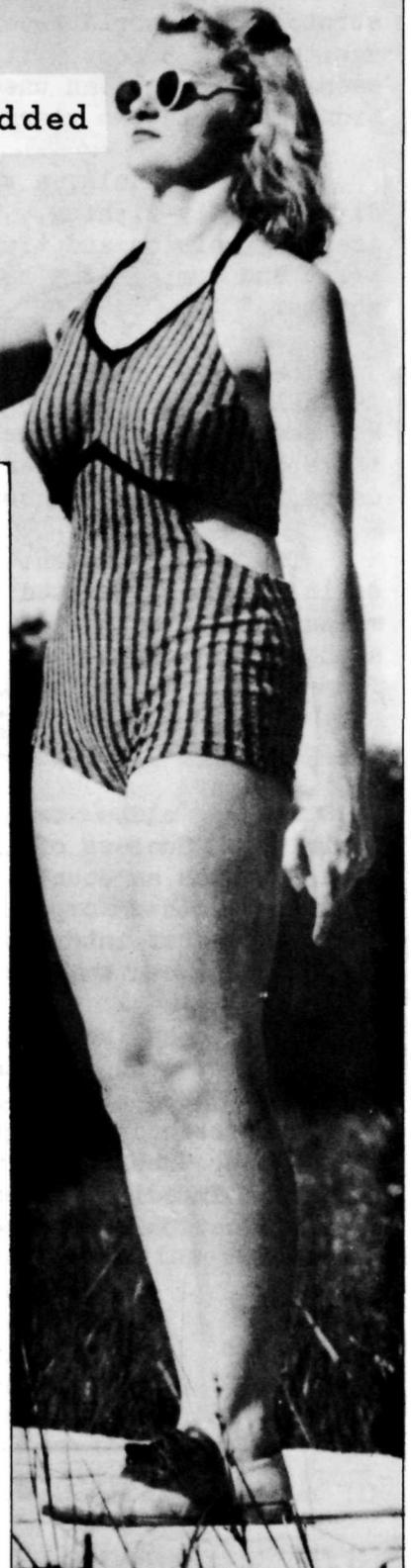
BY CHARLES M. GRAVES

State Supervisor, Recreation Study
Atlanta, Georgia

Fishing, like many other recreational activities today, dates from the earliest times of man. For many centuries fishing and hunting, and the molding of pottery, weaving, working in leather, carving, and similar crafts, all were necessary for man's physical needs.

That is not true today because of divisional labor and the industrial era in which we live. Fishing, hunting, and other such activities, have been developed to a pure art form and now satisfy man's psychological needs rather than his bodily wants. What once was vocation now is avocation. One fishes for the sport of fishing, makes pottery for its beauty, weaves baskets, rugs and blankets as a diversion. These things are done during hours of leisure, and they appeal to man's innate desire to create and to achieve skill.

The skill of a fisherman finds specialized expression in fly and bait casting. Casting is a good sport within itself, entirely aside from the fishing. To compete with other anglers develops technique and skill not gained in fishing alone on mountain streams. A typical example is afforded by the statement of R. G. Miller, who holds the world record on distance in salmon fly casting: "Tournament casting has



made a better fisherman out of me." He was a lifetime fisherman and yet he found that in competing with other anglers his casting became more scientific, that dry fly casting improved his accuracy on the stream. He stretched the world record in distance fly casting from a 141-foot average to 176 $\frac{2}{3}$ feet, with a long cast of 183 feet. In the salmon fly event he averaged an unequalled record of 187 feet. He gained international fame in two years.

Clyde Mitchell, a veteran trap-shooter, once said: "I keep in condition by fly-fishing. The fact is, fly casting with its demand of delicate precision and timing, and the light, smooth action of hand and wrist and arm, is the best rehearsal I have ever found for the trap-shooter."

Last year the National Association of Scientific Angling Clubs officially recognized the sport of "SKISH," formerly called "FISHO". It has been played with much enthusiasm in all 48 states. The advantage of the sport is that it can be played on water or land, indoors or out-of-doors, and during all seasons of the year.

The only equipment needed for the game is ten target rings 30 inches in diameter, painted a variety of colors. (A bicycle tire, which measures 28", is satisfactory.) The targets are scattered at random and anchored at unknown distances in the water, varying from 40 to 80 feet from the casting platform. When "skish" is used in a tournament, it is advisable to conform to the rules of the National Association of Scientific Angling Clubs.¹

Casting clubs organized at state parks stimulate interest in this activity. Success of the tournament depends largely upon a good local sponsor, such as county fish and game associations, civic clubs, newspapers and other organizations of this type which will promote the activity. After interest is stimulated throughout the surrounding counties, a club can be formed by making the entrants charter members.

Casting has been one of the principal activities of the programs being promoted in the state parks of South Carolina, by R. A. Walker, director. Two highly successful tournaments, the first on August 5, 1938, the second on August 6, 1939, have been held at Paris Mountain State Park, Greenville (where the accompanying photographs were made), under the immediate supervision of Covington McMillan, one of the state park recreational directors. The schedule of events was:

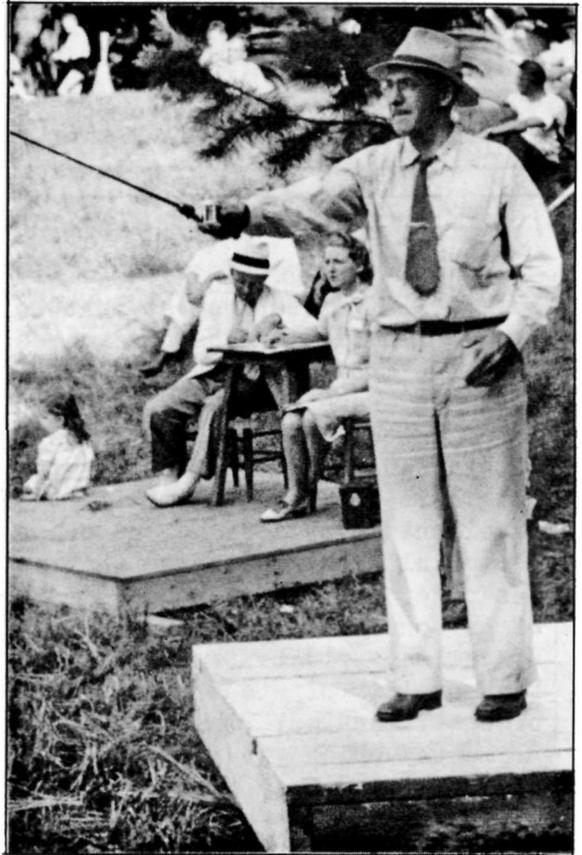
- 1 - Bait Casting for Accuracy - Men
- 2 - Bait Casting for Distance - Men
- 3 - Bait Casting for Accuracy - Women
- 4 - Wet Fly Casting - Men
- 5 - Wet Fly Casting - Women

(1) Information can be obtained from Edmond F. Sutter, 1853 West Madison St., Chicago, Illinois.

Standard equipment was used and scoring was based on the 5-3-2-1 system.

Bait casting for distance, where possible, should be over land but that was not possible at Paris Mountain because of rough terrain. The distance casting was conducted from a platform from which two 200-foot ropes radiated so that they were sixty feet apart at the far end. Suitable markers were attached to the ropes at regular intervals as an aid to the judges scoring the event.

To speed up the tournament, eliminate waiting on the part of participants, and to keep spectators interested, it was found to be important to provide a separate platform for bait casting for accuracy and still a third platform for fly casting. Mr. McMillan recommends that all platforms be 18 inches above the water, that light colored flies be used and that the platforms and targets be arranged so that the casters face north or south to avoid reflections.

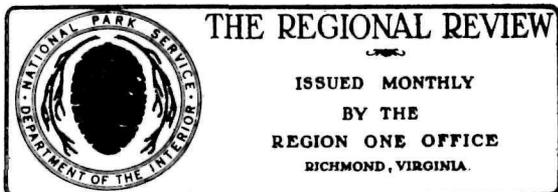


The 1939 casting tournament at Paris Mountain drew 28 entries and 54 event entries and had about 400 spectators. A local newspaper, The Greenville News, sponsored the event and donated a cup to the high point winner in 1938 and 1939.

SHENANDOAH VOTED VIRGINIA'S LEADING ATTRACTION

A general survey conducted by the Virginia Conservation Commission, which assembled the opinions of 236 travel counsellors who direct tourist and travel bureaus in 38 states and Canada, has placed Shenandoah National Park and its famous Skyline Drive at the top of the list of attractions that draw visitors to the Commonwealth.

The Shenandoah, which for several seasons has led all other parks of the national system in the annual total of visitors, was found to be most popular with travelers from the North, those from the South coming next, and those from the West third. An analysis of the results of the survey revealed that Westerners have a preference for places of historical interest.



THE REGIONAL REVIEW

ISSUED MONTHLY
BY THE
REGION ONE OFFICE
RICHMOND, VIRGINIA.

Vol. IV June 1940 No. 6

APPRECIATION

It is with deep regret that we remove from its accustomed place on page one of The Regional Review the name of Samuel O. Smart, our gifted art editor. Readers within and without the Service long have been familiar with the excellent cover designs and other pictorial contributions that he has made, most of them the fruit of personal labors carried out on so-called "private time." The high quality of his efforts has brought many well deserved compliments which it has been my pleasure to convey to him.

I can do no less now than to join with others who are associated in producing The Review in expressing anew our appreciation of his fine talents and of the gracious manner in which he has shared them with us. Mr. Smart's resignation from his duties as Assistant Landscape Architect was accepted with reluctance. I now want above all to assure him of our best wishes for his success and happiness in the private enterprise to which he has taken his versatile pen and brush.

W. D. Johnston

Regional Director.

Vol. IV.

The Review became aware with some surprise this month that it was about to complete a fourth volume. The four books cannot be expanded to the awesome dimensions of

Dr. Eliot's famous five-foot shelf, but they do contain some 800 pages of widely varying materials reproduced over a two-year period.

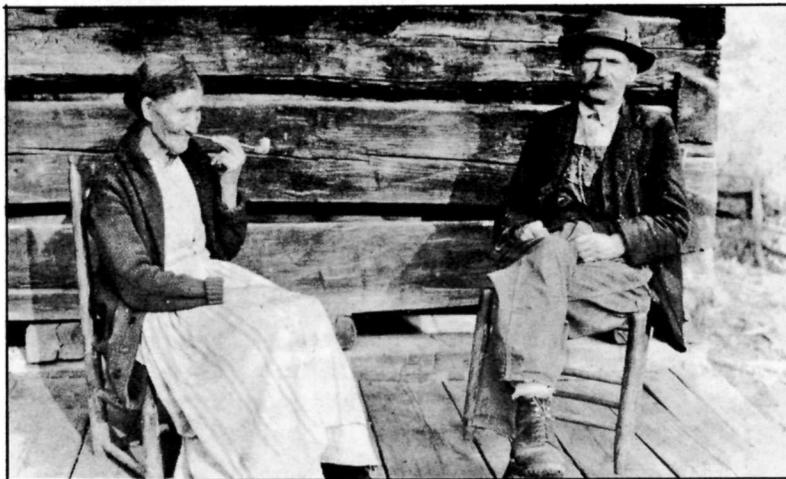
Recognizing that those pages represent a sizable total of topics and wordage, this journal hopes fervently that it may not be accused of elegant pretensions by appending a cumulative index of its entire 24 numbers. The first three volumes were indexed with apparent success. It now seems to be serviceable to libraries and to readers who have preserved complete files to provide an assembled guide which will spare the inconvenience of consulting four separate indices in search of an author or article.

THE INVASION OF AMERICA

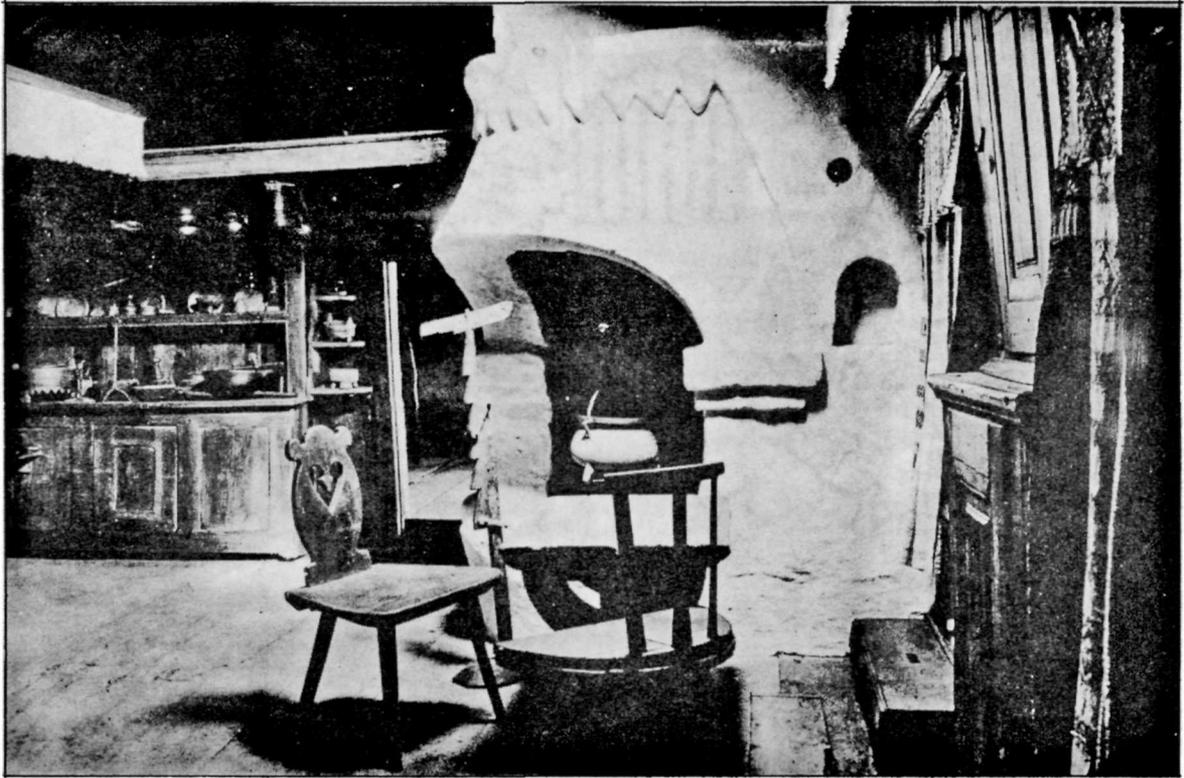
The Review has sought steadfastly to sidestep a yawning pitfall which appears somehow to act as a magnetic attraction to ensnare unwary editors. It is the temptation to indulge in trite homilies and labored statements of the obvious with respect to the conduct of life. It seems to be an unnecessary affectation now, however, to ignore an occasion to give earnest thanks for the great good fortune which makes us citizens of a land whose kindly soil is about to undergo an invasion of a special American type. The first half of 1940 provides good evidence that "Travel America year" will set unprecedented records in park visitation. Reports from the field indicate a banner season for the 159 units of the national park system.

While nearly a score of nations suffer the fearsome agonies of war, the United States is faced at home with the prospect of a gigantic pincer movement executed by our own recreational travelers. The most hardened ingrate surely must count such a blessing.

H. R. A.



Although life is changing in the southern highlands, there still are many scenes in and near Great Smoky Mountains National Park which demonstrate the persistence of mountain culture of a former day. The patriarchal resident of Cades Cove, shown in the upper photograph, is tending his beehives made from tree trunks. The lower picture shows a couple seated on the porch of their home near Gatlinburg, Tennessee.



Upper: An interior from Halland placed on permanent exhibit at the open-air museum of Lyngby, Denmark. Below, an installation at the same museum for the presentation of folk dances.

OPEN-AIR MUSEUMS

And Folk Art Centers

BY HANS HUTH,
Collaborator,
National Park Service.

Note: The following brief history of the origins and development of folk art centers and open-air museums in Europe, and of their recent spread to the United States, recalls an interesting approach to the same topic which was written by M. D. Jones, "Living Museums of Norway and Sweden," The Regional Review, Vol. III, Nos. 4 and 5, October-November 1939, pp. 23-257.

The conception of the folk art center in conjunction with the open-air museum was born in Scandinavia. Arthur Hazelius, the Swedish scholar, inaugurated the first such institutions widely to be known at Stockholm in 1873 and at Skansen in 1891, after he had been studying the problem since the 50's. His idea struck root in the deep interest which the Scandinavian countries had taken in ethnographical problems since the early years of the 19th century. As a matter of fact the first ethnographical museum built upon modern lines had been established in Copenhagen in 1841.

It was fortunate that when scholars set out to explore the ancient culture of the Scandinavian area, traditional ways of living and customs had not yet declined in more remote parts of the country. It was a decisive moment, for the machine age already had begun to threaten the continuance of obsolete trends in those parts of the country which were more open to "modern" civilization. So it happened that when Hazelius began reconnoitering he was richly rewarded in his effort to save what he could for his museum. That was not his only purpose, however, because he also tried to foster everything that was fit to survive by urging people to adapt their old customs to new ways of life in changed circumstances. The salient point was not the growth of his collections but rather the encouragement of the interest of the people in the regeneration of folk culture.

Such facts must be kept in mind in order to answer the question why this movement predominantly carried weight in Scandinavia and took considerable time to gain any footing in other parts of Europe. In fact it may be said safely that though many folk art collections and a few open air museums have been started in various countries of Europe, such centers have never served as rallying points for a real movement to which the whole country, including all classes of society, was devoted. As conditions in other countries of Europe were different they brought forth some other development. Romantic ideas born at the time of the French revolution, and national ambition thriving after the uprooting of the Napoleonic wars, worked up imagination to see the past only in the glory of the magnificent time of medieval chivalry. Neglecting peasant life, civil toil and folk ways, simple and unromantic as they seemed, the remainders of a past dreamt to be beautiful and heroic were gather-

ed. Thus "national" collections were started, differing from those which princes formerly had assembled for entertainment.

The Cluny Museum at Paris and the Germanic National Museum at Nuremberg represented such collections. "National" interest, once aroused, was active in this direction, and as the 19th century progressed, innumerable centers of historical interest, called "historical" societies, were created. In German-speaking countries this movement finally led to the more recent creation of the Heimatmuseum (city or regional museum). Though undoubtedly this Heimatmuseum has its roots in the historical museum, the Scandinavian museums have influenced this type, at least so far as to make it conscious of the more modest walks of the past, bringing study of former ways of life of the lower or rural classes. So far the Heimatmuseum is following the same line as the Scandinavian museum. Yet, one Scandinavian activity---the difficult task of carrying on old traditions and adapting them to modern use---has never been a German function. It should be mentioned, however, that such activity has been recognized and taken over in part by schools teaching applied art even though they have no connection with any kind of museum.

Regarding Scandinavia once more, it may be stated that at the very moment when interest was aroused in folk art, the country was ready to respond. Unbroken traditions furnished a wealth of cultural features. Hazelius made rapid progress in realizing his hopes and soon was followed by colleagues in his own country and in Norway and Denmark.

As a result, folk art centers were established in all three capitals, each one of which began serving as a focus of the national movement. At Stockholm the Nordic Museum, founded 1873, formed the nucleus. The open-air branch at Skansen (on the outskirts of Stockholm) followed in 1891. The Nordic Museum comprises collections relating to rural life, burghers ("upper classes"), craftsmen, folklore, and social life. Covering the whole country there are collections of photographs and archives for documentation of architecture, portraits, patterns of textiles, pottery and pewter. Such evidence, which may be compared with the Index of American Design, is frequently used in various publications appealing to all classes of the population.

At Skansen characteristic buildings (farms, barns, dairies, a church, a manor house, workshops, etc.) have been put up in an area covering some 50 acres. Originally these buildings were placed in a pleasing landscape without the idea of arranging the site to simulate any original setting, whereas in recent years there has been an effort to make their surroundings more natural.

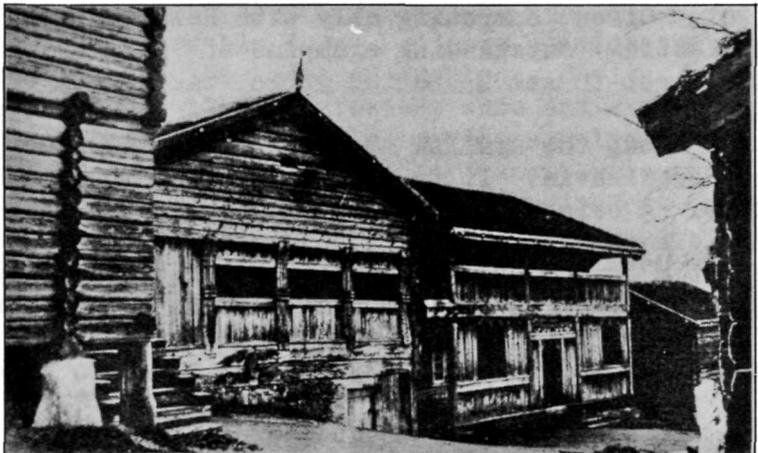
Craftsmen are busy in the workshops as glassblowers, smiths, pewterers, printers, bookbinders, tanners, combmakers and watchmakers. All of them, guards and girls attending in restaurants, wear national costumes of great variety. The church is consecrated and used, service is held, and often weddings are celebrated, everybody dressing in national costumes, which for such occasions may be more elaborate than usual. Fre-

quently folk dances are produced with musicians playing old instruments and coming from all parts of the country. Such a parade is by no means a fancy dress ball, because these costumes are worn at home also and the oldfashioned habro, where the dancer gives his lady quite a flourishing swing, is danced by society members on festive occasions celebrated at the most elaborate town hall. Statements have been made that Skansen wears some kind of "make up", but they are not justified. There is nothing of a country fair atmosphere. It may be that some of the young Stockholmers going there have never before seen a woman working at a loom, but possibly they have never seen a cornfield either. The point is that what is done at Skansen is not artificial but real. Old customs and crafts come to life again and are appreciated after they have been snubbed and outmoded.

Next to Stockholm and Skansen the museum at Lund in south Sweden, opened in 1893, is most important. This excellent collection was built up by Carlin personally during a period of more than 40 years so that it exhibits considerable differences when compared with the museums already mentioned. All these institutions are operated privately, though occasionally receiving help from the government; but they must charge fees and, at Skansen, must guard against financial loss.

Besides these large collections there are something like 300 museums varying in size but similar in general character. It should be noted that many have been founded and maintained by committees of farmers. Nothing but pure love for their country and its traditions prepared them for such a task. Some of the museums will have to be abandoned occasionally, perhaps, for lack of sufficient support; but others will thrive because they are carried on by the interest of the home folk who like to gather round these civic centers.

Here is where the second of Hazelius' great efforts should be mentioned. He realized that it would not be worthwhile just to collect museum objects and put them on display. To keep up tradition beyond the current generation, care had to be taken to provide new impetus for old folk ways. So he set forth to gather material which would be effective in promoting arts and crafts where practice had been weakened or had ceased altogether. These efforts were taken up later by the Hemslöjd, an organization fostering home



A Gudbrandsdalen farmhouse reinstalled in a natural setting at the open-air museum of Maihaugen (Lillehammer), Norway.

craft. Here again all classes of society worked together with marvelous success. Weaving schools were set up and literature was printed which not only brought knowledge of century-old patterns, but also---and this was essential---developed them logically without allowing cheap and vulgar effects to creep in. The museum always constitutes the center for such activity, although it often is little more than a fine old farm house which has been set aside by the community. Beyond the great civic value of such a rallying point, the activity achieved national importance through the high standard of its products. Swedish output in these fields has ranked high for years in international exhibitions. This is not due to a transient fashion; it is the consequence of permanent and steadfast work toward a national goal.

Oslo is the home of the Norwegian Folkemuseum, established in 1894 on the outskirts of the peninsular of Bygdö. Bygdö is a park like Skansen, one section containing the open-air museum, another a natural setting of collected houses best compared with a habitat group. In accordance with the character of Norway itself, the variety of displays is smaller than in Sweden and sparser population has indicated fewer regional museums. Rather important ones are to be found, however, in Bergen and Trondheim. The one which can be compared best with Skansen is at Maihaugen, near Lillehammer. It owes its existence to the private efforts of an industrialist who opened his collections to the public. Besides farm houses and barns, workshops are set up in which workers are active in summer. There, as in Trondheim, dairies, sheepraising, and other rural enterprises flourish. They are operated jointly by the museum and farmers who let their cows be milked by girls in national costumes, while the wool of their sheep is used for handwoven products. Similar to the Swedish Hemslöjd movement, the Husflid is operated to advance home crafts.

The Danish Folk Museum was founded in 1879 by Bernard Olsen and opened to the public in 1885; the open-air branch at Lyngby dates from 1901. Olsen, competing ably with Hazelius, was specially successful in collecting outstanding examples of farm and cottage buildings. He was the first to set up period rooms, taken from farm homes as early as 1879.

Among the smaller museums of Denmark one represents a unique type in Scandinavia. It is the "old town museum" established at Aarhus in 1909. A celebration called for an exhibition, and a group of fine old buildings was gathered in a setting representing an old town. After the event a permanent museum was made of the display. It was so successful that the example has been followed in the more recent settings at Bygdö and Skansen. Workshops and similar features are of the same type described above although they are not shown in operation.

In the main, trends and conditions in Europe have not been conducive to the development of such movements as the Swedish open-air museum or the Hemslöjd. Most countries, however, have developed a few folk art and open air museums, as at Koenigsberg, Germany, and Arnhem, Holland. Voices have been raised in Great Britain since 1903 for establishment

of institutions similar to those in Scandinavia. Beginnings have been made in Cardiff, Hull, and other localities, but nothing has been done on a large scale.

A Folk Art Center was founded in New York in 1928. It has nationwide representatives and maintains contact with similar institutions abroad. Although it possesses no considerable permanent collection, it has held exhibitions at the Fifth Avenue home where a library is at hand and information is available. Dearborn Village, the creation of Henry Ford, should be mentioned here; and related to the subject is the Williamsburg restoration which is gaining nationwide importance with every year of progress and well deserved popularity.

Smaller American enterprises for preserving and promulgating local traditions are the Pilgrim Village at Salem, Massachusetts, and Lincoln Log Cabin and New Salem State Parks, Illinois. Luther College, of Decorah, Iowa, developed a group of cabins in the style of early Norwegian settlements. Henry C. Mercer's important collections of tools and everyday cultural objects is preserved by the Bucks County Historical Society at Doylestown, Pennsylvania, as a center for research in old crafts and folk culture.

It is impossible to mention all the scattered efforts being made by various agencies to revive interest in folk arts and crafts, but some of the most effective should be pointed out. There is a growing tendency to unite craftsmen living in distant parts of the country into "guilds" which serve as liaison between the public and the workman. The greatest success so far has been made in the South, by the Southern Highlands Handicraft Guild, and in New Hampshire, by the League of New Hampshire Arts and Crafts. Such developments have been encouraged by Allan H. Eaton's fascinating studies of crafts of the Southern mountains. The National Park Service naturally is interested in these problems and has sought to be a useful promoter in the field.

Finally, one of the most remarkable Work Projects Administration undertakings should be mentioned: the Index of American Design. This countrywide endeavor, carried out with the greatest care and skill, has an older companion in the collection of textile patterns, already described, which was made in Sweden for use of home craft institutions. In her instructive book, Swedish Home Crafts (published in English at Stockholm, 1939), the Swedish author Sterner emphasized the importance this guidance one had in educating Swedish weavers. The Index appears even more apt to serve the same purpose, because it comprises such a wealth of material and covers such a large field of subjects. As a link between traditions which have passed away and developments necessitated by industrial progress, it should serve as a welcome tool.

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All reproductions are from Volumes 23-24, Nos. 3-4 (1933), of Museumion, official organ of the Office Internationale des Musées, Paris, France.

 CUMBERLAND GAP TO BE ADDED TO NATIONAL SYSTEM

Preservation of historic Cumberland Gap, the gateway to the trans-Allegheny West through which ran the Warriors' Path and the later Wilderness Road, was assured this month when President Roosevelt approved Congressional authorization for eventual establishment of the Kentucky-Tennessee-Virginia area as a national historical park.

The act provides for inclusion of such scenic and historic features as the Pinnacle, the remaining fortifications of the War Between the States, Soldiers Cave, King Solomon's Cave, Devils Garden, Sand Cave, the Doublings, White Rocks, Rocky Face, Moore Knob, and the section of the Warriors' Path and Daniel Boone's Wilderness Road extending from Cumberland Gap, Tennessee, to Cumberland Ford, near Pineville, Kentucky.

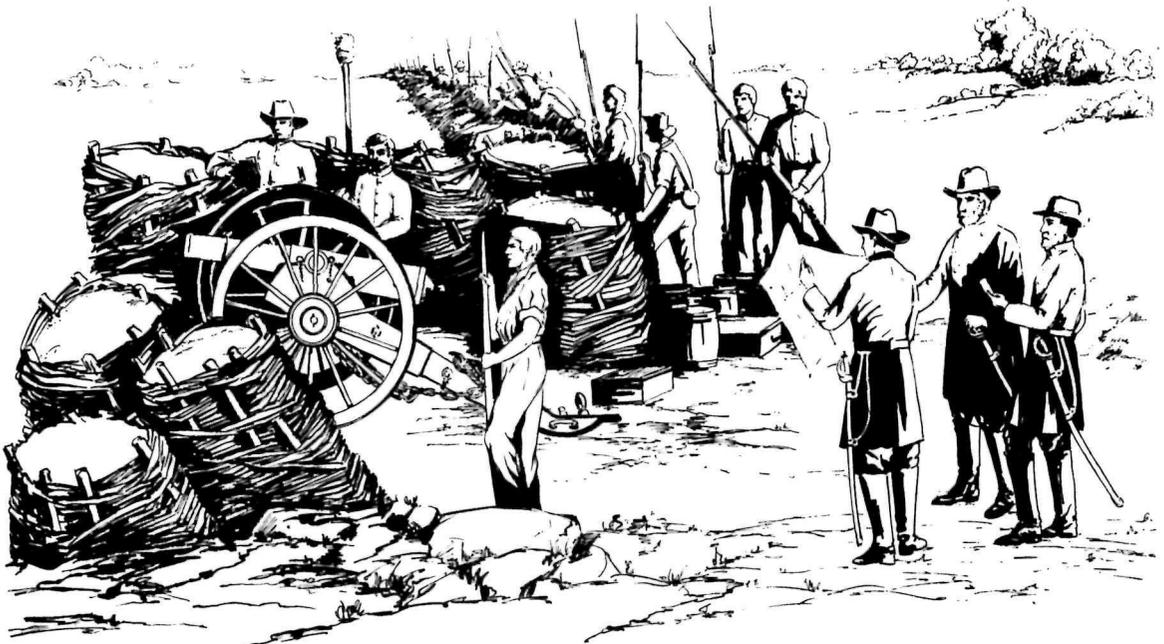
THE ROLE OF ARTILLERY

In The Atlanta Campaign

By B. C. Yates,
Superintendent,
Kennesaw Mountain National Battlefield Park

"The nature of military operations in a country like ours is peculiar, and often without precedent elsewhere," wrote General Barry, Sherman's chief of artillery.¹ "It is generally unfavorable to the full development and legitimate use of artillery. This is eminently the case in the West, where large tracts of uncleared land and dense forest materially circumscribe its field of usefulness and often force it into positions of hazard and risk. The services of the artillery throughout the whole campaign have been conspicuous. The western life of officers and men, favorable to self-reliance, coolness, endurance, and markmanship, seems to adapt them peculiarly for this special arm. Their three years' experience in the field adds important elements to their efficiency and has combined to render the artillery of your command unusually reliable and effective. At Rocky Face Ridge, Resaca, Kenesaw, and amid the varied and bloody operations before Atlanta, it sustained its appropriate share of the work most creditably. Its practice at Rocky Face Ridge and Kenesaw Mountain, where at unusual elevation it was called upon to silence or dislodge the enemy, was extraordinary. Abundant

(1) The War of the Rebellion: A Compilation of the Official Records of the Union and Confederate Armies, Series I, Vol. 38, Part 1, pp. 119-123.



proof of this was obtained from personal inspection of the enemy's works after we gained possession of them, which proof is fully confirmed by the concurrent acknowledgement of the enemy."

General Barry thus describes the general operations of his arm during the Atlanta Campaign. In the same report he discloses that the artillery force which took the field with Sherman May 5, 1864, contained 50 batteries and 254 guns, a considerable reserve being stationed at Nashville and Chattanooga.

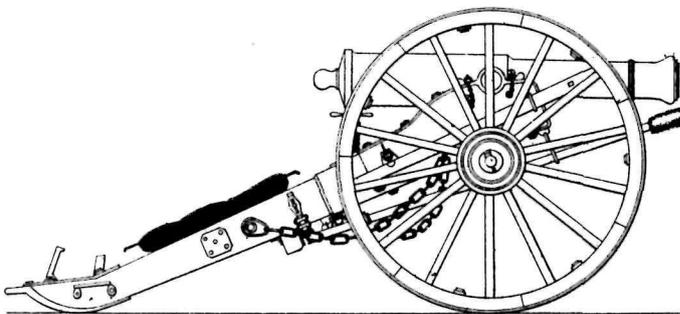
The Federal army was reduced to guns of four calibers consisting of light 12-pounder howitzers, Napoleons, 10- and 20-pounder Parrotts, and 3-inch regulation rifles. As for the efficiency of these guns, General Barry observes: "The 10- and 20-pounder Parrotts and the 3-inch wrought-iron guns have fully maintained their reputations for endurance and for the superior accuracy and range expected from rifled guns. The light 12-pounder has more than ever proved itself to be the gun for the line of battle, where facility of service and effectiveness of solid shot, spherical case, and canister is most required - - - The amount of ammunition furnished both field and siege guns was always abundant, and it was generally supplied in serviceable condition and of the best description - - - The batteries were efficiently horsed and well supplied with caissons, battery wagons, and traveling forges, and rarely had at any time on hand a less amount of ammunition than 400 rounds per gun."

General Johnston's Confederate army had 187 pieces of artillery at the beginning of the Atlanta Campaign. While some rifled guns were included the majority of the Confederate guns were smooth bore, chiefly napoleons, which had a shorter range and less accuracy of fire; nor were the Confederates blessed with the abundance of ammunition available to the Federals.

Light 12-pounder howitzers were employed by both armies. These guns with a high looping trajectory were particularly valuable in firing upon elevated positions. The napoleons were sturdy guns particularly valuable since they could be used for firing shot, case, and cannister, and thus could be employed against both fortifications and troops. The rifled guns, including the regulation 3-inch rifles and 10- and 20-pounders, exhibited excellent accuracy and long range. Projectiles employed included solid shot, used against strong fortifications; shell, which is a hollow exploding projectile; case, which is an exploding projectile containing smaller pellets which scatter in all directions; and canister and grape, which well could be described as huge shotgun charges.

Sherman brought to the field approximately 100,000 troops. Opposing him, the Confederates had 50,000 men, and, thus outnumbered, were on the defensive. Sherman desired to keep the Confederate army so busily engaged that no troops could be detached to aid Lee or other southern armies, and he wished also to destroy all military resources, supplies, factories, and communications, which were providing needed equipment.

A natural physical objective was Atlanta, Georgia, since it was a focal point for railroad communication and possessed a number of mills and factories. Further, the fact that the Western and Atlantic Railroad from Atlanta to Chattanooga could be used as a line of supplies made a movement in this direction particularly desirable for Sherman. Johnston received his supplies and food from Atlanta and therefore sought to remain in the vicinity of this railroad. It can be seen readily that the location of the railroad controlled troop movements during the campaign.



Field Carriage as shown in United States Ordnance Manual, 1861, from plate 173, Atlas to Accompany the Official Records of the War of the Rebellion.

Sherman, upon his advance from Chattanooga, found the Confederates strongly entrenched on Rocky Face Ridge just north of Dalton, Georgia. Here he utilized artillery and skirmish lines to divert the attention of the Confederates while a rapid flank movement was made through Snake Creek Gap toward Resaca. The success of the movement forced the Confederates back to Resaca where they entrenched on a semicircle of hills protecting the town. The Confederate position was fairly strong. The Federals advanced, however, and secured a position for their artillery on the right flank. The guns could command the bridges across the Oostanaula River at Johnston's rear. This fact, coupled with a Federal flanking movement, forced the Confederates to retire south of the river.

After minor actions at Adairsville and Cassville, Sherman determined upon a flank movement with his army toward Atlanta. Divining his strategy, the Confederates intercepted the movement at New Hope Church, arriving there a short time before Sherman's columns. Sherman, realizing the importance of this road center, threw wave after wave of troops upon the Confederate position. Stewart's Division of Hood's Corps handily repulsed these ferocious assaults, and Hood, in writing of this engagement asserted: "Too much praise cannot be awarded to the artillery under the immediate direction of Col. Beckham, which did great execution in the enemy's rank and added much to their discomfort here."²

After these unsuccessful assaults, Sherman moved to the railroad to shorten and improve his line of communications, the Confederates following and entrenching in the vicinity of Kennesaw Mountain. Sherman developed these positions, using his artillery to brush aside the Confederate skirmish lines, a procedure typical of the Atlanta campaign. As soon as the main Confederate positions were determined and studied, Federal batteries were put in place in the vicinity of all salients or ang-

(2) Op. cit., series I, Vol. 38, part 3, p. 761.

les in order to fire along the trenches and render them untenable. Skillful use of artillery contributed materially in forcing the Confederates to evacuate salients at Pine Mountain, Gilgal Church, and the Latimore Farm, and forcing them to entrench on Kennesaw Mountain and the ridges running north and south of it. Developing this position, Sherman determined to make a major assault on the Confederate center in the hope that he could crush Johnston's Army and bring the campaign to a speedy conclusion.

The attacking columns were aimed toward two points, one at Little Kennesaw Mountain, the other at a salient in the Confederate line defended by General Cheatham. Before the assault the Federals used an artillery barrage; and when the assaulting columns moved forward, the Confederates employed canister and case in their batteries to repulse them with heavy losses. Sherman then resumed his flanking movements and forced the Confederates to retire within the fortifications at Atlanta, Georgia.

As Sherman advanced toward Atlanta, Hood, superseding Johnston, assaulted the Federals just south of Peachtree Creek. Thomas' army had been crossing Peachtree Creek at many points but, due to lack of bridges the Federal artillery had been concentrated along Peachtree Road. It was thus able to participate in this action, and was no small factor in the Confederate repulse.

Sherman next moved to the east of Atlanta to cut the Georgia Railroad. Here the Confederates suddenly attacked an exposed flank, both front and rear. Difficulties of communication prevented the complete synchronization of these assaults. Stubborn fighting by the Federal and efficient use of artillery contributed materially to the Confederate failure in this engagement. Sherman, on the field of battle, personally directed the placing and firing of some guns which did particularly effective work.

The Federals next shifted west of Atlanta to cut the Atlanta and West Point Railroad. Again the Confederates sought to assail an exposed flank, but found it too well protected for their comfort. Federal infantry threw back the assault, and it can be said that this is the only major engagement of the Atlanta campaign in which artillery did not play a conspicuous part.

Sherman invested the city and on August 31 put in motion almost his entire army toward Jonesboro, a point on the Macon and Western Railroad, Hood's only line of supplies and communications. Here on September 1 Davis' Division of the 14th Army Corps attacked the Confederate position. Federal artillery supported the action and after the successful conclusion of the assault it was found that the artillery had damaged Confederate guns in place along this portion of the line.

Throughout the Atlanta Campaign the Confederates, considerably outnumbered, were on the defensive, and offered to fight only when the ter-

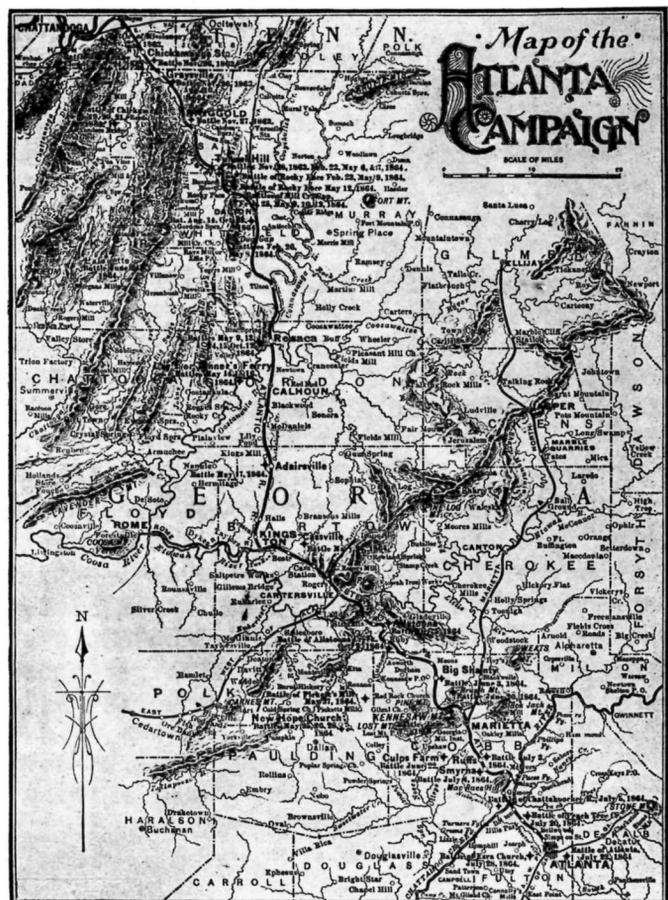
rain gave them a definite advantage. Occupying ridges as they did, excellent positions for artillery were usually available, which provided visibility necessary for accuracy, and also made possible a plunging fire upon the Federals. The Confederates often placed their artillery on the main line of fortifications because their guns had a more limited range of fire and because they were forced, due to lack of rifled guns and ammunition, to employ their artillery, not against the enemy artillery, but against the enemy troops themselves.

The Federal army, on the offensive, had to advance and envelop the entrenched Confederate positions, placing their artillery on less favorable ground. The superiority of their guns, both numerically and as to range, counterbalanced the Confederate advantage of position. Furthermore, the abundance of ammunition enabled them to employ this arm more freely. Federal artillery was used to push back the Confederate skirmish lines and to keep the Confederates closely within their fortifications. Enfilade fire was used successfully on salients in the Confederate lines and artillery barrages were employed to aid assaulting columns. During flanking operations Federal artillery was employed to hamper Confederate troop movements to meet the threat of the moving Federals.

After the battle of Ezra Church $4\frac{1}{2}$ -inch rifled guns were used for the bombardment of Atlanta. So accurate was the fire of these guns and so long their range that the inhabitants of the city were forced to flee their homes and live in cellars and in holes cut in railroad embankments.

The artillery was particularly subject to the attention of sharpshooters. Barry reports that during the campaign three division chiefs were killed and the chief of artillery of the Army of Tennessee was wounded seriously while they were selecting suitable positions for their batteries.

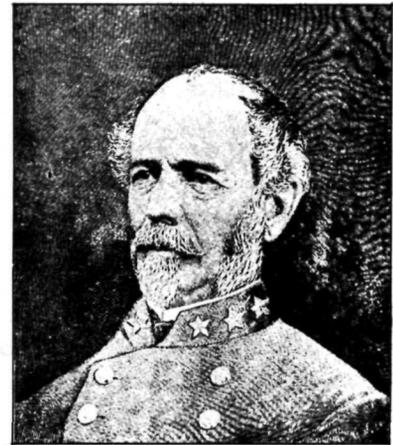
Artillerymen of both armies, despite the rigors of campaigning, developed intense loyalty to their branch of the service. One instance which came to Sherman's per-





Sherman

sonal observation is described in his Me-
moirs. He relates that during the battle of Atlanta DeGress' bat-
tery of 20-pounder Parrotts was captured and "Poor Captain De-
Gress came to me in tears, lamenting the loss of his favorite
guns; when they were regained he had only a few men left, and not
a single horse. He asked an order for a re-equipment, but I



Johnston

told him he must beg and borrow of others till he could restore his bat-
tery, now reduced to three guns. How he did so I do not know, but in a
short time he did get horses, men, and finally another gun of the same
special pattern, and served them with splendid effect till the very
close of the war. This battery had also been with me from Shiloh till
that time."³

This article deals primarily with the use of artillery during the
Atlanta Campaign, but it must be remembered that no battle or campaign
can be won except by the combined efforts of all arms and services. Gen-
eral Cox, commanding a division in Schofield's 23rd Army Corps, summar-
izes the campaign in the following manner:

"Brothers of a common stock, of equal courage and tenacity, animat-
ed by convictions which they passionately held, they did on both sides
all that it was possible for soldiers to do, fighting their way to a
mutual respect which is the solid foundation for a renewal of more than
the old regard and affection.

"This union of courage, intelligence, and zeal was also the source
of new expedients in warfare. The methods used at the close of the cam-
paign were such as had been developed by the wonderful experiences of
that summer's work. From general-in-chief to the men in the ranks, all
were conscious of having learned much of the art and practice of warfare,
and he would be a rash critic who would confidently affirm that he could
find better means to attain desired ends than those which were employed
in attack or defence over a hundred miles of mountains and forests in
Northern Georgia."⁴

(3) Vol. II, 81

(4) Jacob Dolson Cox, Atlanta (Scribners', New York, 1882), 217.

Publications and Reports

STATEMENT OF SERVICE HISTORY AND POLICIES ISSUED

Answering the need for a quick-reference statement of origins, development, and present scope of responsibilities and operations, A Brief History of the National Park Service was issued this month as a 56-page letter-size booklet. The material was compiled and edited by James F. Kieley, associate recreational planner, Washington.

After relating how the national park idea grew out of a discussion held in the glow of a campfire on the night of September 19, 1870, the booklet traces the growth of public sentiment for preservation of natural and historical treasures, describes the establishment of the Service August 25, 1916, and explains its advancement to a position of recognized leadership, both as a national custodian and as a developmental and recreational planner. There are sections devoted to the activities of the various Service branches, and to the Recreation Study, the Recreational Demonstration Areas, and the program of state, county and metropolitan cooperation. A useful bibliography contains 110 items.

A look ahead is provided by "The Future of Parks and Recreation," which is concluded:

". . . The National Park Service sees its future participation in the nationwide park and recreational movement in the light of the necessity for cooperative planning and direction for the advancement of such a program. As the Federal Government has assisted other important nationwide movements through financial aid and technical advice to the states and local governments, so it can assist this movement by providing the impetus which would be lacking were the states to embark on separate, individual programs without relation to one another. Federal and state park and recreational work has become a firmly established practice since 1933. It is authorized by law under Act of Congress. Therefore, the ground work has been laid and the way is open for such cooperation to achieve the objectives of a national recreation program as a contribution to the conservation of the human wealth of the nation. . .

"When it was established, the National Park Service shouldered great responsibilities in administering and protecting the country's national parks and monuments. Those responsibilities have been enlarged until today the Service, through its cooperation with the states in their park development work, is recognized as the highest authority in the rapidly growing field of public recreation. To this broad work it contributes not only its resources of technical knowledge and experience, but the high ideals of public service with which it was stamped in the beginning by those who fostered its establishment out of love of the nation's richest treasures---the National Parks."

NEW CONSERVATION MONTHLY TO APPEAR SOON

The Land, a monthly journal devoted to problems in the field of international conservation, will appear for the first time with a September issue, according to a prospectus distributed this month by Friends of the Land, "a nonpartisan, nonprofit society for conservation of soil, rain and man," which has its headquarters in Washington.

"The magazine," says the society, "will deal humanly with the problems and victories in all fields of conservation, in this and other countries. Other literature will from time to time be made available, dealing with the importance, significance, and technique of land and water conservation, and the relationship of people to the land." A list of 14 objectives in the organization's program includes the maintenance of a clearing house of information on conservation in foreign countries and the publication of surveys of international activities. It is planned to encourage investigation and research, reward outstanding accomplishments of individuals, and convene periodical conferences in various parts of the country.

OHIO SOCIETY RECORDS PROGRESS

The Ohio State Archaeological and Historical Society has issued a 32-page booklet, Ohio Cherishes Her Rich Historic Tradition, which brings up to date the record of accomplishments of that organization in research, educational and custodial work. After a brief history of the 55-year-old society, there are sections relating to its departments of archeology, history, and natural history, its library, and its division of state memorials.

"The organization is widely recognized," it is explained in the latter section, "as the original conservator of the 'human history' memorials within the state. . . the number of such properties in custody of the Society has reached a total of 40. While originally known as 'State Parks,' the term 'State Memorials' has been adopted for the purpose of distinguishing between sites accredited to human agencies on the one hand, and scenic, recreational and other natural areas on the other." There is a descriptive directory of the memorials.

WIRE CLEARANCE FROM TREES

Tree Clearance for Overhead Lines, by George D. Blair (Electrical Publication, Inc., Chicago, 1940; 238 pp., \$3.75), is intended, explains the author, "to assemble in a clear and comprehensive form for the first time accurate information in dealing with all aspects and problems of wire clearance from trees." The text is based on observations of 16 years in line clearance work for a power company in Michigan. It covers a field that long has been neglected and about which there has been a scarcity of authoritative material. The volume is expected to prove helpful to all who deal with shade tree care, especially governmental agencies and public utilities faced with the problems of overhead lines.

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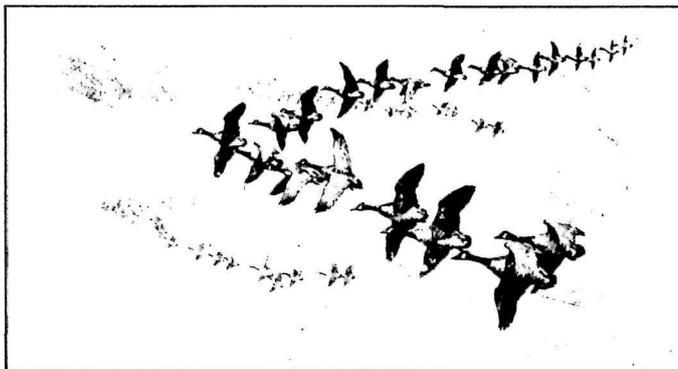
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CHARLES M. GRAVES entered the Service in 1936 after 10 years of experience in the park, camping, and general recreational field. He was city recreational engineer for Birmingham, Alabama; park planner for Oneonta, New York, and director of recreation for Danville, Virginia. He now is in immediate charge of the Recreation Study in five southeastern states. He was born in Topeka, Kansas, and is an alumnus ('32) of Birmingham-Southern College.

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