National Register of Historic Places Registration Form

This form is for use in nominating or requesting determinations for individual properties and districts. See instructions in National Register Bulletin, *How to Complete the National Register of Historic Places Registration Form.* If any item does not apply to the property being documented, enter "N/A" for "not applicable." For functions, architectural classification, materials, and areas of significance, enter only categories and subcategories from the instructions.

Signature of certifying official/Title: Vermont Division for Historic Preservation State or Federal agency/bureau or Tribal Government In my opinion, the property meets does not meet the National Register criteria. Signature of commenting official: Date
Signature of certifying official/Title: Vermont Division for Historic Preservation State or Federal agency/bureau or Tribal Government
Signature of certifying official/Title: Vermont Division for Historic Preservation
Signature of certifying official/Title: Date
<u>X</u> A <u>B</u> <u>X</u> C <u>D</u>
$\underline{X}A$ \underline{B} $\underline{X}C$ \underline{D}
Applicable National Register Criteria:
In my opinion, the property X meets does not meet the National Register Criteria. I recommend that this property be considered significant at the following level(s) of significance: nationalstatewide X local
I hereby certify that this <u>X</u> nomination <u>request</u> 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.
As the designated authority under the National Historic Preservation Act, as amended,
3. State/Federal Agency Certification
Street & number: Hayden Hill Road City or town: Hinesburg State: VT County: Chittenden Not For Publication: N/A Vicinity: N/A
 2. Location
N/A (Enter "N/A" if property is not part of a multiple property listing
Other names/site number: N/A Name of related multiple property listing:
O(1) / (1) 1 NT/A
Historic name: <u>Hinesburg Town Forest</u>

Hinesburg Town Forest Chittenden, VT Name of Property County and State 4. 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 the Keeper Date of Action 5. Classification **Ownership of Property** (Check as many boxes as apply.) Private: Public – Local Х Public – State Public – Federal **Category of Property** (Check only **one** box.) Building(s) District Site

Form 10-900

OMB No. 1024-0018

United States Department of the Interior NPS

Structure

Object

National Park Service / National Register of Historic Places Registration Form

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Name of Property

Chittenden, VT County and State

Number	of R	esources	within	Pro	perty
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(Do not include previously listed resources in the count)

Contributing <u>0</u>	Noncontributing <u>0</u>	buildings
<u>29</u>	<u>17</u>	sites
<u>0</u>	<u> </u>	structures
0	0	objects
29	<u>17</u>	Total

Number of contributing resources previously listed in the National Register <u>0</u>

6. Function or Use

Historic Functions

(Enter categories from instructions.)

LANDSCAPE: forest

Current Functions

(Enter categories from instructions.)

LANDSCAPE: forest

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7. Description

Architectural Classification
(Enter categories from instructions.)

Materials: (enter categories from instructions.)
Principal exterior materials of the property: N/A

Narrative Description

N/A

(Describe the historic and current physical appearance and condition of the property. Describe contributing and noncontributing resources if applicable. Begin with **a summary paragraph** that briefly describes the general characteristics of the property, such as its location, type, style, method of construction, setting, size, and significant features. Indicate whether the property has historic integrity.)

Summary Paragraph

The Hinesburg Town Forest encompasses 837 acres of mixed broadleaf and coniferous woodlands and is located to the east of Hinesburg village in the foothills of the Northern Green Mountains. The forest developed during several phases of land acquisition by town officials between 1936 and 1958, with formal designation as a town forest first granted by the Vermont Forest Service in 1940. Similar to many town forests in Vermont and in other parts of New England, the Hinesburg Town Forest stands on land that once sustained several modest hill farms. Agricultural decline forced the eventual abandonment of those lands, and the town began acquiring the farms during the Great Depression, either through direct purchase or forfeiture for nonpayment of taxes. Reforestation started soon after, primarily coniferous plantations such as white pine, red pine, or Norway spruce. Elsewhere, deciduous stands, whether originating as the culturally assisted evolution of sprout species on former pastures or cultivated fields, or as a more natural succession in remnant wood lots, dominate some sections of the forest, and today the woodland is home to twenty-nine individual tree stands and thirteen distinct cover types, all of which are currently under forestry management. From that first period of active and natural reforestation to the present, the Hinesburg Town Forest demonstrates integrity of location, design, setting, materials, workmanship, feeling, and association.

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Name of Property

Narrative Description

Topography and Forest Cover

The forest abuts the town of Huntington to the east and is divided into two parcels on opposite sides of Hayden Hill Road. The main parcel shares only a corner boundary to the northwest with the second parcel, known as the Hollis parcel after former resident Henry Hollis, who farmed the land before reforestation. The woodland is characterized by varied topography with elevations rising from 900 to 1600 feet above sea level. The most prominent topographical features include a concentric knoll near the center of the Hollis parcel and a sizeable U-shaped ridge that runs northeast to southwest and subsequently follows the southwestern edge of the property boundary in the main parcel. Economou Road, a Class 4 road, and several logging roads provide restricted vehicle access to the forest, and networks of hiking, mountain biking, horse, and all-terrain vehicle trails crisscross the landscape. Trailheads at three points on Hayden Hill East, Hayden Hill West, and Economou Road serve as the primary entrances to the forest, and adjacent compacted dirt lots offer visitor parking.

The Hinesburg Town Forest consists of twenty-nine identifiable stands of trees, several of which are broken into distinct subsections. These twenty-nine stands represent contributing resources and are identified on the accompanying Sketch Map, *Existing Forest Stands*. As farms, fields, orchards, and woodlots were abandoned over time, a variety of plant communities took root on the site through both managed planting and natural succession. As a result, the Hinesburg Town Forest is a patchwork of cover types of assorted ages and species composition in different stages of development.

Traces of prior agricultural uses remain, such as pre-existing boundary lines that now separate plantation compartments, or other remnant cultural features such as cellar holes, stone walls, and apple trees that are part of the understory. However, the property's period of agricultural use ended early in the 20th century and, apart from any potential archaeological value, such features lack historic integrity in the context of agricultural use. Many of these features predate the period of significance for the town forest. The forest's prior history of agricultural use is also apparent in the names assigned to the various parcels of land acquired by the town, each name that of a former farm owner. These names frequently appear in the forest's historical record and are used today to describe different sections of the forest: Hollis; Owen; Fraser; Atwood; Stevens; Place; Drinkwater; Taft; Alger, Gillett, and Mann (Mahan).

Nevertheless, the forest's primary divisions are based on the forest management plan, which separates the woodland into thirteen distinct cover types based on dominant tree species. The twenty-nine different stands are included within those thirteen cover types. Each of the following Stands contributes to the historic significance of the Hinesburg Town Forest:

- 1. Intermediate Northern Hardwood: Stands 4, 10A, 18B, 19A, 20A, 20B, 20D, 25, 27
- 2. Early Northern Hardwood: Stands 2, 13B, 16, 17, 21
- 3. Red Maple Northern Hardwood: Stands 10C, 13A

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4. Sugar Maple – Northern Hardwood: Stands 19C, 20C, 20E, 26

5. Dry Oak – Northern Hardwood: Stands 23, 24

6. Alder Swamp: Stand 12

7. Wet Northern Hardwood: Stand 10B

8. Red Maple Swamp: Stand 28

9. Red Spruce – Northern Hardwood Ridge: Stands 10D, 11, 13C, 18A, 19D

10. Mixed Northern Hardwood Ridge: Stands 10E, 14, 22, 29

11. Conifer Plantation: Stands 1, 3, 5, 6, 7A, 7B, 7D, 9, 15

12. Gap Cut: Stand 7C 13. Homestead: Stand 8¹

Conifer Plantations

Stands 1, 3, 5, 6, 7A, 7B, 7D, 9, 15

Conifer plantations are an important component of the Hinesburg Town Forest and comprise a significant portion of its vegetation. Norway spruce, white pine, and red pine, all fast-growing species that grow well on abandoned agricultural soils, serve as the primary components of these stands. In addition, several coniferous stands represent the early years of forestry management for the forest, part of a statewide soil conservation effort. As early as 1939, Stand 6 was planted with white and red pine. Stand 1, located near the southeast corner of the forest, is an even-aged white pine plantation planted in 1940. Stand 5 was established in 1941 with Norway spruce and red pine. In 1942, foresters established Stands 7-A and 7-D with white and red pine, and also planted Stand 3 with even-aged white pine with some Norway spruce. Stand 9, planted in 1943, is a Norway spruce, red pine, and white pine plantation. Evidence such as aerial photographs, smooth forest floors (indicating past plow activity), and scattered stone piles (left by farmers working their land) suggest that these plantations were installed in cultivated fields rather than rocky pastures, the former more receptive to seedlings.

Aerial photographs from 1942 show that most of the conifer plantations were still open fields at that time, although planting had begun. Herbaceous site indicators such as blue cohosh and toothwort suggest that many of the plantations' soils were enriched. Current aerial images reveal the dark, geometric shapes of these stands and immediately distinguish them from the other stands, testifying to the forest's evolution and to the importance of coniferous plantations during the forest's early stages. Because of the dense canopy and abundant shade, however, the stands display sparse understories. In addition, many of the uppermost soil horizons record acidic pH levels, perhaps contributing to the reduced understory growth. Hardwood species in the conifer plantations, when present, are in the sub-canopy.

Stand 7C, part of a 1942 plantation, is a unique component and is described as a gap cut, harvested in August 2005 in an effort to increase horizontal and vertical structure in the forest. The parcel is one of the few open areas in the forest.

¹ The information in this section is drawn primarily from a 2006 LIA consultant report entitled "Hinesburg Town Forest: Inventory, Assessment, and Management Considerations".

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Stand 8 represents the Gillett Farmstead, the largest of the former homesteads that have been cleared. Aerial photographs from 1942 show that the homestead was in the center of a large agricultural field which has since returned to forest. This stand has been managed for early successional species by repeated brush hogging, and apple trees have been released to foster maximum fruit production for wildlife, contributing to the diversity of the forestry management plan. Norway spruce and sedum also have been introduced to the site.

Northern Hardwood Forest

The northern hardwood forest cover type, which dominates the forested Vermont landscape, makes up the majority of the Hinesburg Town Forest's current cover, but the forest is home to a number of diverse species in its canopy, sub-canopy, and understory.

Intermediate Northern Hardwood

Stands 4, 10A, 18B, 19A, 20A, 20B, 20D, 25, 27

The intermediate hardwood stands comprise a diversity of species composition and are dominated by shade-tolerant species, and thus contain fewer early successional species. Sugar and red maple are dominant, and some stands contain large white ash and senescing paper birch. The understory includes Christmas fern, Lycopodium species, and wintergreen. Because these stands have not been disturbed in recent years, the trees are more mature and the soils are generally well-developed.

Early Northern Hardwood

Stands 2, 13B, 16, 17, 21

These areas are similar to the intermediate northern hardwood stands, but exist at an earlier stage of succession due to more recent human or natural disturbances. Paper birch, which was an early colonizer of abandoned fields in the Hinesburg Town Forest, is a primary specie in the canopy of the early hardwood stands. Aerial photography reveals that several of these stands were open in 1942, and are therefore less than 73 years old. The senescing (aging) of the sparsely occurring paper birch and aspen, both early successional species, in the understory suggests that the early hardwood stands are in a transitional stage from an early successional forest to mid-successional species. Sugar maple and beech proliferate in the sub-canopy and understory, and red maple, black cherry, and striped maple can also be found in the sub-canopy and seedling levels of these stands.

Red Maple – Northern Hardwood

Stands 10C, 13A

Because of the canopy dominance by red maple, which composes a majority of the growing stock, these stands are classified as variants of the northern hardwood cover types. The stands also contain other species typical of the northern hardwood forest, including paper birch in the canopy and abundant striped maple and American beech in the understory. The red maple – northern hardwood areas are characterized by fairly large, vigorous trees and dense canopies, and both stands are distinguished by a northwest aspect. In 1942 aerial photographs, the stands were

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already heavily forested, suggesting abandonment long before that time. In addition, Stand 13A is marked by skid trails and stumps, indicating past logging activity.

Sugar Maple – Northern Hardwood

Stands 19C, 20C, 20E, 26

All four stands associated with this cover type are dominated by sugar maple and are characterized by large, well-developed trees. The areas tend to be situated on north-facing aspects, and have site conditions favorable to sugar maple growth. For example, several stands are located at the base of slopes or depressions where organic matter and nutrients accumulate and enrich the soil. In previous years, forest management activities have focused on releasing sugar maples, and have encouraged sugar maple reproduction. Sugar maple in these stands can be found at all stages of growth, from seedling to saw timber size.

Dry Oak - Northern Hardwood

Stands 23, 24

The dry oak – northern hardwood cover type is rare in the Hinesburg Town Forest and occurs only in the Hollis parcel. The shallow, well-drained soils and southern aspects that characterize these stands do not coexist in other areas of the forest, thus encouraging unique vegetation patterns. Red oak dominates the canopy in these stands, but its prevalence varies with microsite characteristics. Hop-hornbeam proliferates in the dry oak – northern hardwood stands, and sugar maple is abundant in stands 23 and 24. In addition, little understory is present in these areas.

Alder Swamp

Stand 12

The alder swamp stand, dominated by alder but also home to willows, constitutes a unique wetland area in the Hinesburg Town Forest. The swamp is a dynamic ecosystem, marked by widespread wind throws due to shallow-rooted trees blown down from the hummocks. Groundwater, precipitation, and surface flow all likely contribute water to this area, and groundwater input also prevents the swamp from freezing entirely during the winter months.

Wet Northern Hardwood

Stand 10B

The wet northern hardwood stand, which exists in the transitional zone between the alder swamp and the upland forest, is also unique in the Hinesburg Town Forest. This area is distinguished by shallow, wet soils resulting in abundant pit and mound topography. The agricultural field that once characterized the site was abandoned by 1930, and aerial photographs indicate that by 1942 trees had begun to colonize the open field. Wet conditions prevent deep rooting, and the stand displays many tip-ups (tipped-over trees with their root systems exposed.) While red maple is the dominant species in the stand, the overall species composition is diverse, with a number of early successional species, such as paper birch and aspen, due to the frequency of disturbances. Additional species that thrive in wet soils, including serviceberry and musclewood, occur in this stand.

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Red Maple Swamp

Stand 28

Located on the Hollis parcel in a low valley between a ridge and a knoll, Stand 28 is a woodland swamp with a red maple canopy cover. Significant amounts of water, including runoff and groundwater, tend to accumulate in this area, and the water table remains relatively high for much of the year. Red maple, some of which are mature and vigorous, dominate the stand, with the largest trees located on the drier edges and hummocks of the swamp. As in Stand 10B, water saturation does not permit trees to form deep roots, and tip-ups are common Yellow birches, which thrive in these conditions, constitute a large portion of the stand, and waterfern species, water avens, and golden ragwort comprise the herbaceous layer.

Red Spruce - Northern Hardwood Ridge

Stands 10D, 11, 13C, 18A, 19D

The red spruce – northern hardwood ridge stands are located on the major ridge that runs through the forest. Many of the red spruce, the dominant species, are large, mature trees, and the stands are distinguished by thin, well-drained soils above ledges of bedrock outcroppings. Yellow birch, paper birch, and red maple are also components of these stands, which tend to have a north-facing aspect and are exposed to high winds that cause wind throw on the shallow soils. Aerial photographs indicate that in 1942, these stands were mostly forested and thus were likely to have been among the earliest town forest lands to be abandoned as farming waned in the area. Today, little evidence of recent logging activity exists. In addition, the extended period without human disturbance has resulted in a more vertical and horizontal structure than other areas of the forest.

Mixed Northern Hardwood Ridge

Stands 10E, 14, 22, 29

The mixed northern hardwood ridge type stand is similar to the red spruce – northern hardwood ridge type in location and the associated site conditions. Each has thin, droughty soils and is exposed to frequent to high winds. However, in these stands, red spruce is not a major component. Instead, the composition is diverse, with red oak, white ash, sugar maple, paper and yellow birch, red maple, and beech all contributing to the canopy. The distribution of these species differs depending on relative microsite characteristics. In addition, red pine, mature American beech, and large black cherry are present in these mixed northern hardwood ridge stands. Hop-hornbeam, American beech, and striped maple are common in the sub-canopy, with American beech, striped maple, sugar maple, and birch seedlings, hobblebush, lycopodium species, and wood-fern species prevalent in the understory. Many of the trees are broad in diameter but quite short in stature, likely as a result of the stresses accompanying growth on a ridgetop. In 1942 aerial photographs, these ridgetops were mostly forested, and today display little evidence of logging activity.

A Natural and Cultural Landscape

As are other town forests in Vermont and New England, the Hinesburg Town Forest is both a natural and cultural landscape, with characteristic features that entwine these two landscape types inextricably. Although some cultural features are related to the land's prior agricultural use and lack integrity in that context, some of those same features nevertheless influence the

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appearance, structure, management, or evolutionary growth of the forest, thus requiring description. Those features and their influences can be very subtle, for example the culturally assisted evolution of tree species that respond to variations in soil quality, drainage, exposure to light (i.e. south facing), or other factors. The sprout growths of paper birch and aspen in the Wet Northern Hardwood sector are examples, growing quickly on land that had been open pasture and crowding out other species.

In other locations, cultural influences are more directly evident, such as the planting of evenaged coniferous types to demonstrate forest conservation practices, a form of planned landscape with the spacing of seedlings and the designation of compartment lines carefully controlled. Yet even among those stands, nature and culture intersect in complex ways, creating forest compositions and ecologies that are never static. For example, in Stands 7, 8, and 9 the plantations of red pine, a species touted by professional foresters during the early decades of the twentieth century as ideal for reforestation, are today considered ecologically disruptive.

Similarly, the forest composition of former woodlots, which were often carefully managed as valuable farm assets, has evolved with successional patterns and forest structure that differ greatly from those of abandoned pastures or fields. On the Andrew Place parcel, for example, an old boundary between woodlot and adjoining pasture separates two distinct stands, the latter dominated by paper birch, an early colonizer of abandoned fields, the former by larger, widely-dispersed hardwoods where paper birch is absent.

Elsewhere, boundaries such as stone walls or barbed wire fences, formerly dividing different agricultural land uses or ownership, continue to separate different forest ecologies, whether as compartment lines in monocultural coniferous plantations, or as lines of demarcation between former pastures or cultivated fields, which fostered different types of forest cover according to a variety of factors, especially the presence of grazing animals.

Stands of sugar maples and remnant apple trees are also examples of the intertwining of cultural and natural resources in town forests. Although the sugar bush in stands 19C, 20C, 20E, and 26 is no longer actively worked as a form of agriculture, the species is native to Vermont and adds valuable diversity to the forest structure in terms of age and composition. In addition, the species is suitable for a variety of wood products, a type of use that is fundamental to the origins of town forests. Similarly, although remnants of apple orchards in Stand 8 are no longer part of agricultural activity, the trees promote diverse wildlife, one of the goals of forestry management plans that encourage multiple forest uses.

Archaeological Sites

Other physical evidence of the town forest's past incarnation as farmland is found in the ten known cellar holes that exist on the property, remnants of farmsteads built before 1869, when F. W. Beers published an atlas depicting the Hinesburg area. The cellar holes are sunken cavities between two and six feet deep and lined with stone foundations, and are often adjacent to accompanying barn footings, which typically were built into a hill or slope and entailed less excavation than cellar holes. The Thomas Drinkwater farmstead, located in the east-central

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region of the main parcel, offers an especially intact example of a cellar hole and barn footing in the town forest. The stone walls that farmers built while clearing fields are also very visible evidence of prior agricultural use. The majority of the walls in the forest run from north to south or east to west, often along original lot lines

Today, these cellar holes, barn footings, and stone walls pre-date the period of significance for the town forest and are thus non-contributing resources in the context of forest conservation, in which the origins of town forests are rooted. More recently, however, as communities have begun to focus renewed interest in town forests, forestry management plans have identified such resources as valuable cultural features that, with thoughtful interpretation, can generate public interest in the forest, which in turn leads to improved stewardship. The cellar holes and barn footings are indicated and numbered on the accompanying Sketch Map, *Known Remnant Cultural Features*, and each of the letter-number codes relates to original farmsteads. For example, A1 and A2 represent the cellar hole and barn footing found together on the Place farm.

- A1 Cellar Hole
- **A2** Barn Footing
- **B1** Cellar Hole
- **B2** Barn Footing
- C1 Cellar Hole
- **D1** Cellar Hole
- **D2** Barn Footing
- E1 Cellar Hole
- **E2** Barn Footing
- F1 Cellar Hole
- **F2** Barn Footing
- **G1** Cellar Hole
- **G2** Barn Footing
- H1 Cellar Hole
- I1 Cellar Hole
- **I2** Barn Footing
- J1 Cellar Hole

G. Less than 50 years old or achieving significance within the past 50 years

D. A cemetery

E. A reconstructed building, object, or structure

F. A commemorative property

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Architect/Builder N/A

Statement of Significance Summary Paragraph (Provide a summary paragraph that includes level of significance, applicable criteria, justification for the period of significance, and any applicable criteria considerations.)

The Hinesburg Town Forest is a well preserved, well documented, and actively managed example of a municipal forest, and the site is eligible for the National Register of Historic Places under Criterion A for its contribution to the broad patterns of history relating to community-owned forests in New England – an unbroken continuum that spans four centuries and reveals strong traditions of forest stewardship and conservation throughout that history. It is also eligible under Criterion C as a specific and clearly-defined historic vernacular landscape. Its period of significance, 1936 to 1958, represents the years during which the town began acquiring the parcels of land that today comprise the forest, initiated a reforestation program, achieved formal designation of the land as a town forest according to Vermont's enabling law, and implemented policies for managing the land with the help of Vermont's municipal and county foresters. The

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period of significance ends in 1958, with the final acquisition of land for the forest. In 2015, the forest continues to be used for its originally intended purpose and is the center of local forestry management and conservation efforts. In 2007, the town hosted the second Vermont Town Forest Summit, which highlighted model examples of municipal forestry in an attempt to revive public interest in local woodlands.

Narrative Statement of Significance (Provide at least **one** paragraph for each area of significance.)

The Historical Context for Town Forests

Town forests (also called municipal forests in some states, including Vermont) are a statutorily enabled category of local woodlands that originated as part of larger forest conservation efforts that coincided with the rise of professional forestry during the late-nineteenth and early-twentieth centuries, intended to reverse the wasteful practices that had decimated the country's forest resources. Proponents of the town forest campaign encouraged towns to create town forest committees and to acquire, plant, and manage local forests, demonstrating the economic, social, aesthetic, and recreational values of properly managed woodlands. The country's first professionally trained foresters borrowed from European practices and emphasized the growth of even-aged, mono-cultural stands – principally fast-growing coniferous types – for sustained yield rotation. At the outset of the town forest movement, cultivation of timber served as the campaign's primary objective, and that aspect serves as a principal characteristic of town forests as they are defined statutorily. Nevertheless, to encourage towns to acquire and plant lands, foresters also promoted a broad range of benefits including public education (especially school children), wildlife habitat, protection of water supplies, fuel wood for welfare, recreation, aesthetic qualities, and the ability of publicly-owned land to preserve the physical integrity of village centers. As the campaign matured, however, the record of timber harvesting on town forests remained weak, and other forest uses such as recreation became dominant in many town forests.2

Municipal forestry began to solidify as an organized movement during the last years of the nineteenth century. Public concern about forest depletion, devastating fires, and the fate of abandoned cutover lands and agricultural property intersected with the emerging science of forest management to create an environment ripe for the development of the Town Forest Movement. Bernard Fernow, the country's first professionally educated and trained forester and the head of the Department of Agriculture's forestry division, inaugurated the first serious attempt to introduce community forestry in the United States. In 1890, Fernow, trained in Prussia and skilled in German forestry management practices, proposed a campaign to create community forests in the United States based on Germanic models of communal forest management. In an editorial letter titled "Communal Forests" published in the journal *Garden and Forest*, he pointed

² Robert McCullough, *The Landscape of Community. A History of Communal Forests in New England* (Hanover, NH: University Press of New England, 1995); and Mark Baker and Jonathan Kusel, *Community Forestry in the United States* (Washington, D.C.: Island Press, 2003).

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to the Sihlwald, Zurich's ancient city forest, as a model forest that yielded both steady income and employment opportunities. In the letter, Fernow outlined the potential benefits of community forestry and wrote, "In Germany I know of communities where not only all taxes are paid by the revenue from the communal forests, but every citizen receives a dividend in addition." This passage was borrowed by numerous journals and publications during the first decades of the twentieth century and became a key argument for the establishment of town forests.³

New England states, initially Massachusetts, New Hampshire, and Vermont (in that order) energetically implemented programs, developing their campaigns with guidance from non-profit forestry associations and state forestry agencies. Legislatures in each of those states passed enabling laws specifically permitting towns to acquire land for purposes of cultivating timber between 1913 and 1915. New York legislators had passed a similar law in 1912, as had Pennsylvania's assembly in 1909. Both states developed very active programs, the former aided by Fernow, who, after leaving government service, began teaching at the New York State College of Forestry, initially located at Cornell University. Legislators in Maine (1927), Rhode Island (1929), and Connecticut (1939) also passed similar bills, although towns in each of those three states had established locally managed woodlands before those dates.⁴

Support for municipal forestry grew from national, regional, state, and local influences. Massachusetts, led by the Massachusetts Forestry Association (later the Massachusetts Forest and Park Association) and its executive secretary, Harris Reynolds, led the town forest campaign until Reynolds' death in 1953. His short monograph published in 1925, *Town Forests: Their Recreational and Economic Value and How to Establish and Maintain Them*, became a seminal work, influencing efforts in many parts of the country, but especially in New England. New Hampshire's program became similarly successful, led by state foresters Warren Hale and John Foster and by the Society for the Protection of New Hampshire Forests. In addition, ancient community-owned woodlands in Newington and Danville, New Hampshire, became model demonstration forests for the rest of the country. Although Vermont's program initially lagged slightly behind those in its three neighboring states, momentum steadily increased, peaking during the late 1940s, 1950s and early 1960s. By the mid-1960s, interest elsewhere had turned to local conservation commissions.⁵

The United States Forest Service played a role in community forestry as well. Although Gifford Pinchot, who became the first chief of the United States Forest Service in 1905, did not share Bernard Fernow's enthusiasm for community forestry, Pinchot's focus on proper timber management clearly influenced the town forest movement. Pinchot sought the implementation of scientific forest management in national forests as well as private timberlands, and he advocated

³ Bernhard Fernow, "Communal Forests," Garden and Forest 3 (July 16, 1890): 349.

⁴ Chapter 564, Laws of Massachusetts (1913), sec. 1-7; Chapter 27, Laws of New Hampshire (1913), sec. 1-4; 24 Laws of Vermont (1915), sec. 15; Chapter 33, Laws of Maine (1927); Chapter 1389, Laws of Rhode Island (1929); Section 152e, Laws of Connecticut (1939); Chapter 124, Laws of Pennsylvania (1909), sec. 1-6.; and Chapter 74, Laws of New York (1912), sec. 72a, effective March 26, 1912.

⁵ Harris Reynolds, *Town Forests: Their Recreational and Economic Value and How to Establish and Maintain Them*, with a foreword by Charles Lathrop Pack (Washington, D.C.: American Tree Association, 1925); and McCullough, *Landscape*, 60-70, and 132-165.

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a nationwide policy of organized forestry science. Under his direction, the Forest Service developed policies guided by the principles of sustained yield management, public education, and utilitarian goals, and many of the foresters who had worked for him carried those messages to local governments during the 1920s.⁶

During the 1930s, emphasis shifted from acquisition and planting (the movement's plantation phase) to improved management techniques after it had become apparent that many towns were neglecting their young plantations. This shift began with the inauguration of annual conferences for town forest committees in Massachusetts, first held in 1928 at the behest of Harris Reynolds and the Massachusetts Forestry Association, and the economic viability of timber cropping on small parcels of woodland began to receive closer scrutiny. As a result, committees were forced to juggle the critical need for professional assistance with the fear of control over town land by state or federal experts, thus weakening local authority. In many parts of the country, that central issue continues to surface in community forestry today.⁷

During this same period, President Franklin D. Roosevelt focused a national spotlight on conservation, and New Deal leaders cultivated innovative policies and programs in response to Depression era economic, social and environmental problems. Sustained-yield forestry offered opportunities to provide employment with self-paying projects, and Roosevelt encouraged Nelson Brown, a friend and faculty member of the New York State College of Forestry (by then at Syracuse University) to advise the Forest Service in developing a formal community forest program. Brown authored a number of articles and a widely-circulated 1940 monograph, *Community Forests* (with a foreword by Roosevelt), and workers for the Civilian Conservation Corps and the Soil Conservation Service contributed to planting efforts on many municipal forests. Both Brown and Reynolds (chairman) also became members of the Society of American Foresters Committee on Community Forests, established in 1941 with the goal of promoting municipal forestry throughout the country.⁸

Sustained yield timber management became central to the forestry profession during this period. A fundamental standard of German forestry, the practice dictated that cuts shall not exceed growth and was designed to curb the "cut out and get out" practices that historically characterized the private timber industry. Concerns over financial losses, overproduction, and forest depletion in the 1920s and 1930s encouraged greater emphasis on the sustained management principle, and in 1944 Congress passed the Sustained Yield Management Act. The law authorized the creation of cooperative sustained yield units on public or private timberlands and guaranteed stable log flows for timber harvesting and processing firms. In addition, sustained yield objectives were tied to the belief that stable timber supplies would translate into community stability. As town forest stewards shifted their focus from acquisition and planting to

⁶ McCullough, Landscape, 112-114.

⁷ Harris Reynolds, *Report on the First Conference of Massachusetts Town Forest Committees* (Boston: Massachusetts Forestry Association), 1929; and McCullough, *Landscape*, 168-173.

⁸ Nelson Brown, *Community Forests*, with foreword by Franklin D. Roosevelt (Washington, D.C.: U.S. Department of Agriculture, Forest Service, 1939); McCullough, Landscape, 176-191; and Committee on Community Forests, Society of American Foresters, "Reports of Committee on Community Forests," *Journal of Forestry* 40 (February 1942): 112-117.

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management, sustained yield principles grew to define municipal forestry. Unfortunately, the inability of towns to generate consistent economic returns on small tracts of land eventually caused the Forest Service to abandon its program, and the Society of American Foresters committee later disbanded as well.⁹

Municipal Forestry in Vermont

Vermont's town forest movement formally began in 1915 when state legislators passed an enabling law permitting towns to legally acquire, manage, and improve lands for cultivating wood and timber, specifying that those lands be designated as school endowment forests. An amendment in 1917 eliminated the requirement regarding schools, but added a provision that the land be at least forty acres in extent and be examined by a forester before being designated as a municipal forest. Perhaps because of that requirement concerning acreage, Vermont's program did not develop quite as rapidly as those in New Hampshire and Massachusetts, judging from the number of forests counted in each of the three states. However, a similar forty-acre requirement would have reduced the count in those other two states substantially.¹⁰

Reforestation efforts began in earnest during the mid-1920s, with planting on a number of watershed lands protecting reservoirs for the communities of Barre, Bellows Falls, Montpelier, Essex Junction and Rutland. Forests owned by the latter two cities became especially influential as state models, supplied with seedlings from the state nursery in Essex, which established a yearly allocation to individual towns of up to 150,000 trees. In 1927, an amendment to Vermont's forest nursery law permitted the commissioner of forestry to sell seedlings to municipalities at cost, and a 1933 legislative resolution authorized the sale of surplus seedlings to towns at a reduced rate. The Vermont Forestry Association also offered to supply and plant the first 5,000 trees for any town in the state that established a municipal forest of 100 acres or more."

Beginning in 1925, Vermont's state forestry office began publishing the *Green Mountain State Forest News*, which included reports of acquisition and planting activities on municipal forests throughout the state. Articles in the journal confirmed that town forests originating during this period stemmed from land donations, conversion of poor-farm woodlots, and municipal purchases. In 1927, Kemp R. B. Flint, former president of the Vermont Forestry Association, extolled the virtues of municipal forestry in an article for *The Vermont Review*, citing both financial as well as social dividends such as recreation. In particular, Flint noted that municipal forests could "point the way to a solution of one of Vermont's outstanding economic problems – the back farm of the hill town." In 1926, Vermont's state forestry commissioner identified thirty-three town forests, and by 1930 that number had climbed to forty-two on fewer than nine thousand acres in 1930, or approximately half the number of town forests in Massachusetts and

⁹ Public Law 273, 78th Congress (1944), 58 *United States Statutes*, 132.

¹⁰ Public Laws of Vermont (1915), Chapter 24; and Public Laws of Vermont (1917), Chapter 26.

¹¹ Forest Service, United States Department of Agriculture, "Vermont Association Offers Trees for Municipal Forests." *The Forest Worker* (Jan 1926), 10; *Public Laws of Vermont* (1927), Chapter 11; *Public Laws of Vermont* (1929), Chapter 13; *Vermont Resolutions* (1933), no. 232: 292, and McCullough, *Landscape*, 157.

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in New Hampshire. That same year, Governor Franklin Billings urged voters to consider the question of establishing municipal forests at annual town meetings.¹²

Vermont's program advanced steadily during the 1930s, with continuing emphasis on acquisition and planting, but also aided by participation from both the Civilian Conservation Corps and the Soil Conservation Service. Projects funded by each agency focused on the improvement and management of forests, and between 1933 and 1942, more than eleven thousand Vermonters gained employment through the program, planting hundreds of thousands of trees – many of them on municipal forests, including that in Hinesburg.¹³

Vermont state forester Perry Merrill, who devoted his career to making the Vermont woods a well-managed, "working" forest," strongly advocated Pinchot's management principles and helped implement a scientific forestry management program in the state. In 1947, he issued a report, noting: "The major problem confronting the practice of forestry is the fact that it has never been considered from a practical business standpoint. Forests have been considered as mines of wealth to be exploited at the whims of the owner; as an appendage to the farm to be ruined or saved according to personal desire or needs; or as a product to be removed from the land to make way, in many instances, for a dubious agriculture." For Merrill and other state foresters, town forests offered ideal opportunities to advance public education about proper forestry management.¹⁴

Vermont's municipal forest movement finally began to achieve its full potential after World War II. In 1945, the state's enabling legislation was amended to require reimbursement to towns for one half the purchase price of land for town forests. Then, in 1951, state legislators passed a separate law requiring municipalities not owning a town forest to insert an article concerning municipal forests in warnings for their annual meetings. Vermont's forest service also divided the state into two districts and assigned a full-time municipal forester to each, the only state in New England to do so. In response to these initiatives, the number of town forests began to increase significantly, eventually equaling those in Massachusetts and New Hampshire. In addition, as the number of town forests in Vermont swelled, interest in the movement became strong enough to sustain the campaign long after programs in other states had withered. That latent interest may also explain the recent success of efforts to renew public enthusiasm for the state's town forests.¹⁵

¹² K. R. B. Flint "Forestry as a Municipal Undertaking," *The Vermont Review* 3:2 (Jul-Aug 1927), 41-2; Vermont Commissioner of Forestry, *Biennial Reports* (1926): 25; and (1930): 41-43; and McCullough, *Landscape*, 154-161.

¹³ Perry Henry Merrill, *Roosevelt's Forest Army: a History of the Civilian Conservation Corps, 1933-1942* (Montpelier, VT: Perry Merrill, 1981), 180-1; and *Hinesburg Annual Town Report* (1948): 2.

¹⁴ Jan Albers, Hands on the Land (Cambridge: MIT Press, 2000), 296.

¹⁵ Public Laws of Vermont (1945), No. 86; and Public Laws of Vermont (1951), No. 74; and McCullough, Landscape, 198, 228.

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The Hinesburg Town Forest

The Hinesburg Town Forest illustrates the characteristic features of town forests, as that specific type of cultural landscape is defined: the conversion of abandoned agricultural land to forest; stabilization of soil; management by a town forest committee, initially emphasizing sustained yield rotation of coniferous types; cultivation of timber for wood products; public fuelwood programs; and consistent application of stewardship that today includes management for multiple forest uses, including recreation and wildlife habitat. The historic significance of Hinesburg's forest is most easily understood in the context of the larger Town Forest Movement in both Vermont and New England, thus suggesting a contribution that extends beyond the locality of Hinesburg. However, other examples of town forests in Vermont can be distinguished has having state significance because they clearly influenced the direction of the larger campaign, whether because acquisition of land occurred much earlier, planting was more extensive, management more intensive, or the record of timber harvesting more profitable. Instead, forests such as that in Hinesburg borrowed from the patterns of forest use established elsewhere in the state, all the while advancing one of the campaign's principal goals: local education about proper forest management and conservation.

As with other types of cultural landscapes such as farming, manipulations of land are based on utility. Cultivating timber is the single, most important, character-defining aspect of the New England town forest campaign, and places such as the Hinesburg Town Forest are statutorily defined tree farms. The patterns of such use are evident on the land, and those patterns evolve intentionally based on the goals of forestry management, including the conversion of worn-out meadows and pastures on abandoned farms to useful coniferous plantations; replenishing the country's wasted timberlands; stabilizing and regenerating poor-quality soil; and producing revenue to pay for the reforestation and to reduce the burden of tax-forfeited lands.

Selection of areas for replanting were based on environmental considerations, including soil quality; drainage; exposure to light (south facing as opposed to north facing); the type of coniferous tree species best suited for rapid growth; retention of hardwood species in some areas to avoid extensive dominance by monocultures and also to provide essential cover for certain wildlife; organized by compartment to differentiate age and growth potential for future harvesting; and divided by roads that facilitated access but also served as fire breaks.

Such patterns of use become clearly evident on the land, just as meadow, pasture, arable and woodlot are distinctive landscape types on farms. Plantations of red, scotch, or white pine are utterly distinct from other types of forest landscapes. Old woodlots that have been left to sprout hardwoods bear distinctive clues: basal scarring; canopy height; stumpage; seed trees (also distinctive in the outward reach of their limbs). Compartment lines are unmistakable, and in forests also managed for the protection of watersheds, the patterns become even more explicit.

These patterns also evolve intentionally based on the needs of the tree farmers, the topography, the soils and other conditions. Although the task of growing trees is a long-term proposition, and the evolution of forestry practices occurs over many decades rather than seasonally, the evolution is no less emphatic or visible to the inquiring observer. Today, for example, the red pine

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plantations are regarded as ecologically disruptive, and are being culled; forest litter from minor harvesting is now left on the forest floor, slowing runoff, providing cover for wildlife, and regenerating soil; forest cover on steep terrain now provides opportunity for ecological study rather than timber cultivation, and the older ages of the trees invite use of the forest by more diverse constituencies – human as well as non-human. The techniques used for timber harvesting are also vastly different today – and leave traces no less distinctive but far less disruptive ecologically.

Nor, as with other types of managed cultural landscapes, are aesthetic concerns ignored. During the town forest campaign, foresters implored better management of timber lands and resorted to a variety of arguments to encourage participation by towns, including observations that forested hillsides cloaked in green improved the appearance of clear-cut wasteland. Yet Harris Reynolds, a graduate of Harvard's landscape architecture program, took that a step farther by recommending both a working forest plan and a landscape design for municipal forests, thereby giving the public the greatest return in recreational facilities and financial profit. Stressing that point in a 1914 article published in *Landscape Architecture*, Reynolds argued that forester and landscape architect should work in unison to enhance the aesthetic quality of forested landscapes. Two years later, he published an article in *American Forestry*, urging the planting of town forests along the Lincoln Highway, a means to decorate that important corridor.¹⁶

Early History. Hinesburg's Town Forest was founded during the decade of the 1930s on land that had been privately held for much of the town's history. Originally part of the New Hampshire grants issued by that state's governor, Benning Wentworth, Hinesburg (originally spelled Hinesburgh) received a town charter in 1762, and the original lot lines of the Wentworth grants are shown on the 1869 Beers atlas. By the mid-eighteenth century, private farms had been established on all of the lots that today constitute the town forest, including all of lots 119, 120, 138, 139, and 140, as well as portions of lots 101, 102, 121, and 141. By the end of the nineteenth century, dairy farming had become the dominant form of agriculture on these lands, establishing patterns of field use – pasture, hay mow, and arable – that would eventually influence the type of forest growth that would occur once agriculture began its decline. By the 1930s, depleted soils, rocky and steep terrain, increased mechanization, and changing farm economies had forced many farmers to abandon their dairy operations, and between 1936 and 1958 many of these farms passed into public ownership – a means to reduce the town's obligations to maintain roads to these hill farms, and thus reduce public tax burdens in the process. Municipal forestry became a means to convert these otherwise barren lands to economic productivity, and forest conservation became a civic priority – albeit one rooted in economic practicality.17

Harris Reynolds, "An Opportunity for the Young Landscape Architect," Landscape Architecture 4 (October 1913-July 1914): 47-51; and "Town Forests and the Lincoln Highway," *American Forestry* 22 (March 1916): 174-75.
 David Donath, *Pond Brook and the Development of Mechanicsville* (Hinesburg, VT: published by the author, 1975), 7, 17; Lilian Baker Carlisle, ed., Look Around Hinesburg and Charlotte, Vermont (Burlington, VT: Chittenden County Historical Society, 1973); Abby Maria Hemenway, ed., *Vermont Historical Gazetteer*, vol. 1 (Burlington, VT: published by the author, 1867); Albers, *Hands on the Land*, 211. See also Chittenden County Forester *Records, Hinesburg Town Forest* (Essex Junction, VT: Vermont Forest Service - CCFR); and *Hinesburg Annual Town Report* (Year Ending December 31, 1942), 11.

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Following acquisition of the 100 acre Felix Martin farm in 1936, the town steadily added to its contiguous holdings, and State Forester Perry H. Merrill first designated a twelve-acre portion of those lands as a municipal forest in 1940. The town's various acquisitions included the 100 acre Robert King farm in 1937 for \$450.00; the 120 acre Blodgett farm (formerly the Horace Tomlinson farm) in 1941; the 50 acre Merian Verboom farm during the early 1950s; the 94 acre George Smith farm in 1954; the 91 acre Edward Hollis farm in 1958; a 125 acre woodlot owned by the Plant and Griffith Lumber Company, also in 1958; and the 25 acre A.C. May farm acquired for non-payment of taxes at about the same time. In 1956 and 1957, the town also purchased (or acquired for back taxes) four woodlots totaling 180 acres, thus placing about 885 total acres in town ownership. In May 1958, state forester Albert W. Gottlieb officially classified the town's lands as a municipal forest, but selectmen subsequently sold a portion of their woodlots, leaving the town with a forest of 837 acres. 18

Generally, growing trees for timber is a long-term proposition that demands consistent management over several generations, particularly the weeding, pruning, and releasing required to produce merchantable timber. Notwithstanding energetic planting campaigns by many towns, and a sense of optimism about the prospects for local forestry, the annual appropriations needed for forestry management often succumbed to a variety of factors throughout the state, including fluctuating economies, lack of interest among individual selectboard members, shifting public outlook, and competing demands for limited public resources. Consequently, many town forests in Vermont and other New England states never developed a profitable record of timber production.

In that context, Hinesburg's town forest is significant because its well-documented *Cooperator's Woodland Record* (currently held by the Chittenden County forester in Essex, Vermont) illustrate most of the challenges facing the Town Forest Movement, in all its many facets, and because those documents also reveal the tenacious efforts by Hinesburg's citizens who remained true to the movement's principle contribution: the stewardship of local woodlands for public benefit. At a very basic level, those archives offer a clear picture of the planting, management, and harvesting that occurred (and continues to occur) in the forest, aspects that historically are central to municipal forestry. In addition, those records reveal the roles played by members of the town forest committee and by Vermont's municipal and county foresters, and also the financial support from federal programs in community forestry and soil conservation. That collaborative framework remained fundamental to the administrative structure of the Town Forest Movement, and to the goal of educating the public about proper forestry management. Records also reveal that the managing foresters were not indifferent to the aesthetic quality of tree stands and sought to enhance that quality through proper management techniques.

¹⁸ Letter from A. F. Heitmann to Town of Hinesburg Selectmen, May 13, 1958, records of the Vermont Department of Forests, Parks and Recreation, Essex, Vermont. Chittenden County Forester *Records, Hinesburg Town Forest* (Essex Junction, VT: Vermont Forest Service); and *Hinesburg Annual Town Report* (Year Ending December 31, 1942), 11.

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On a very different level, the records illustrate the obstacles that the town forest committee and municipal or county foresters faced when town officials occasionally sought to sell the forest, or disregarded recommendations from professional foresters and instead turned to independent loggers to conduct harvesting under a "logger's choice" arrangement, with an eye toward immediate yield. In such settings, the evidence of strong voter support for the forest among residents of Hinesburg – countering efforts by the selectboard – becomes reassuring. The documents also chronicle an array of less daunting obstacles: porcupine control; the need to build logging roads; or the importance of clearly marked boundaries to discourage timber theft.

Equally important, woodland records trace the evolving forestry practices employed in Hinesburg's forest, leading to its first Forestry Management Plan in 1986 and to an increasing emphasis on multiple uses centered as much on recreational activities as on commercial timber production, although the latter remains a mandate. Secondarily, records also illuminate the contributions of county foresters George Turner, William Hall, David Brynn, and Michael Snyder; municipal foresters E. Warner Shedd and Robert Hoffman; and members of Hinesburg's town forest committee including Francis Lavigne, Howard Russell, and his son Steven Russell.

1940 to 1958. Forest planting on ten acres of open agricultural land began in 1940 and included eastern white pine, Norway spruce, and red pine. These fast-growing coniferous types could be expected to produce marketable timber in three or four generations, and were favored by professional foresters during that era. Progress continued steadily, and the town planted substantial acreage during the years 1940, 1941, 1942 and 1943. The annual town report for 1940, for example, shows payment to five men for their reforestation work, totaling more than 225 hours of effort. In 1941, the state nursery supplied 32,000 trees at a cost of \$98.35, and the cost of labor for planting those trees totaled about \$95.00 over thirty-one days, counted among eleven different workers. In 1942, the town planted 31,000 trees, and in 1943 planted an additional thirty acres. Five years later, the town paid the United States government \$300 for labor related to their reforestation program, and the following year county forester George Turner conducted a survey of the forest and prepared a plantation map. In a 1950 Publication titled "A Forestry Plan for Vermont," the Vermont Forest Service cited Hinesburg as "a good example of what a town has done in purchasing lands for town forests and reforestation in a section of low economic value for agricultural purposes." 19

Land acquisition and planting increased after 1951, the year Hinesburg's citizens instructed their selectmen to purchase more land for a municipal forest (by a vote of 145 to 37). During this period, residents Henry LaBelle, Harry Page, Earl Griffing, and Charles Webster actively promoted the forestry project, successfully seeking assistance from the Otter Creek Soil Conservation District, which agreed to furnish 3,000 seedlings for planting in the Hollis Hill area. By 1953, the town could count more than 400 acres of woodland under active management, and both acreage and planting continued to increase. In 1958, the town obtained formal

¹⁹ Chittenden County Forester, *Records*; *Hinesburg Annual Town Reports* (Year Ending January 1, 1941), 4-5; (Year Ending January 1, 1942), 2-5; (Year Ending December 31, 1942), 6-7, 10-11; (Year Ending December 31, 1943), 6; and (Year Ending December 31, 1948), 2-3

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classification of these additional lands as a municipal forest totaling more than 800 acres, and in his letter of approval to the town selectmen, forester A. F. Heitmann observed:

With cities sprawling into the suburbs and rural areas becoming a broad suburbia, the Municipal Forest plays a vital role in providing open for local industry, green strips in urban development and laboratories in which future generations of children may have an opportunity to understand the land and its resources.

Planting resumed that same year, with 5,000 red pine seedlings on twenty-five acres, aided by a federal cost share of \$500. The Cooperator's Woodland Record for 1958 tallied a total of 81,700 trees planted to that date.²⁰

1958 to 1970. The year 1958 marked the beginning of closer attention to management of the forest, as well. Reconnaissance surveys that year revealed the need to weed and release the acreage planted between 1940 and 1948, and the town invested in extensive thinning between 1959 and 1965. As well, during the town's Forest Festival field trip in the fall of 1959, George Turner discovered that porcupines had killed or partly killed dozens of red pine, white pine, and birch in one section of the forest.²¹

Harvesting also began in earnest during this period, producing saw logs and pulp stock, as well as cord wood – some of it a by-product of thinning. For example, a cut on twenty acres in 1958 vielded 51,000 board feet of lumber and seventeen cords of wood for a stumpage value of \$1561.15; the following year, a cut yielded 106,000 board feet of lumber, 259 cords of wood, and revenue of \$1,906.54; thinning during 1960 and 1961 produced 230 cords of wood.²²

Unfortunately, harvests were not always conducted under the guidance of professional foresters, nor with contracts, to the detriment of several decent stands of sugar maple, and also resulting in erosion caused by logging roads built without water bars. Although the county forester temporarily managed to convince selectmen in 1959 not to cut unmarked timber (other than white birch), unsupervised hacking continued. Matters finally came to a head in March 1962, when selectmen put an article in the warning for the annual town meeting asking for approval to sell the forest. However, local supporters of the woodland invited the county forester to speak at that meeting, (despite objections by the selectboard), and the town voted 93-16 to keep the forest, assigning management to a Town Forest Committee of three, eventually staffed by Francis Lavigne, Howard Russell, and Robert Bellard.²³

During the decade of the 1960s, management of Hinesburg's town forest advanced along several fronts: sustained planting of red pine, white pine, and spruce, with seedlings obtained from the state's nursery at Essex; reconnaissance surveys and marking of trees to be cut; continued

²⁰ Letter of February 1, 1951 from Allen Mayville, Work Unit Conservationist, U.S. Department of Agriculture, to George Turner; Cooperator's Woodland Record (March 2, 1954); Letter of May 13, 1958, from A. F. Heitmann to Selectmen, Town of Hinesburg; Cooperator's Woodland Record (March 2, 1954); (April, 1958); and (July 1, 1958). ²¹ Cooperator's Woodland Record (1959 to 1965).

²² Cooperator's Woodland Record (1959 to 1962).

²³ Cooperator's Woodland Record (January, 1959; June, 1962; and July 25, 1966).

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weeding of waste hardwood, thinning of plantations, and releasing stands of apple trees to improve wildlife habitat; the construction of water-barred logging roads; the demarcation of boundary and compartment lines, the latter to facilitate timber sales and also to provide fire breaks; substantial harvests governed by carefully-prepared timber-sale contracts supported by surety bonds; federal financial assistance; proposals to accommodate recreation in the form of hiking, camping, hunting, and picnic grounds; and fledgling efforts to develop a management plan. In addition, town voters once again rebuffed efforts by the selectboard to sell the forest.

Several letters from E. Warner Shedd, one of two full-time municipal foresters in Vermont, encouraged town selectmen to begin thinking about long-term forestry management. His first letter, January 29, 1960, observed that the forest had produced considerable revenue for the town during the past several years, and he recommended that the town set aside a portion of the stumpage returns to pay for careful determination of boundary lines, which would protect against rogue cutting. A second letter, January 5, 1962, recommended a meeting to discuss a long-range plan for managing the town forest. Shedd noted that most of the past cutting had been in bits and pieces scattered throughout the forest, and the goal should be to run larger timber sales bringing a higher stumpage price. In addition, the town would have better knowledge of the timber it owned, and thus be better able to distinguish stands to be cut from those left to grow.²⁴

Planting practices continued to emphasize coniferous types, including red pine as late as 1966, a species that would eventually be regarded as ecologically harmful. Crews planted 15,000 seedlings in 1960 and 5,000 in 1961, many of them obtained from the state nursery and subsidized by federal funds of \$62.50 in 1961. Boy Scouts planted some of the seedlings in 1966, also obtained from the state nursery, but the results were disappointing. Federal funds totaling at least \$1,000 in 1960 and 1964 also paid for a portion of a logging road and for the costs of weeding and releasing.²⁵

Harvesting steadily increased, and in July 1962, the town entered into a major timber sale contract with logger Windsor Weston, who agreed to pay \$1.50 per cord for waste hardwood, and \$2.00 per cord for pulpwood. Terms of the contract confined Weston to certain diameter trees, specified maximum stump height, and required all slash within fifty feet of any right of way to be removed. A second contract with logger Arthur Garvey also offered hardwood for pulp at the price of \$2.00 per cord. Warner Shedd recommended the contracts because old pastures had grown to soft maple and white birch, most of which was crooked, heavily limbed, and generally of low value. In other sectors, however, good stands of sugar maple and birch were growing to marketable value, and Shedd recommended an inspection. By 1966, the town had completed a reconnaissance of more than 200 acres, and a third logger, Bert White (assisted by Carl DeGraff), entered into a two-year contract beginning in July of that year (with an option to

²⁴ Letter from E. Warner Shedd to Robert Ballard, January 29, 1960; Letter from E. Warner Shedd to Robert Ballard, January 5, 1962; both in CCFR.

²⁵ Letter from George Turner, County Forester to Warner Shedd, Municipal Forester, 1961, providing information for Shedd's annual report. CCFR. *Cooperator's Woodland Record*, 1960; 1961; 1962; 1964; and June 1, 1966.

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renew and a surety bond of \$1,000) for harvesting sugar maple and birch, subject to the requirement that he turn in scale slips to the town clerk each Saturday.²⁶

The 1966 contract may have been prompted by another effort to sell the forest by the town's selectboard. The year before, Francis Lavigne had convinced the board not to proceed with the sale, but they warned that the sale would soon take place unless revenue increased. Thus, harvest of the hardwood lot may have been a response to that ultimatum. With the forest only temporarily secure, Lavigne's 1966 proposal to develop picnic and camping areas may have been a strategic one, as well, and the following year the *Burlington Free Press* publicized Hinesburg's fall public tour of its town forest on October 8th, underscoring recreational activities such as hiking, picnicking and hunting. By 1969, Robert Hoffman had replaced Warner Shedd as the municipal forester in the state's northern district, and the decade ended with county forester William Hall briefing Hoffman in November about the continuing efforts to prune Hinesburg's red pine plantations.²⁷

1970 to 1990. The next two decades represented a transitional phase for Hinesburg's town forest, culminating with the town's first formal management plan for its forest. The period began on a familiar note, with the town selectboard selling small pockets of merchantable timber in the usual manner, "logger's choice." State forester Charles Vile and municipal forester Bob Hoffman recommended that the town proceed under a bonded timber sale contract for marked trees that included small pole-sized stands – "a complete job" – and specified the construction of logging roads with water bars. Whether the town followed that advice is unclear, but by the end of July 1972, logger Alfred Thompson had cut more than 70,000 board feet (some of it marked sugar maple and elm), netting \$2,403.64 in revenue for the town. In November of that year, Vile and Hoffman inspected the forest and reiterated the need for water-bar logging roads; marked sales; blazing and painting of boundary lines; releasing apple trees in old fields; thinning plantations; and preparing a forest type map and management plan. More ominously, they noted that the town could expect a long wait of twenty years for another sawlog sale.²⁸

Along another front, by 1970 the phenomenal popularity of local conservation commissions in other parts of New England had replaced local interest in cultivating timber with concern for preserving open spaces as ecological preserves. Although the two goals are not necessarily inconsistent, public use of such reserves tended toward passive recreational activities, primarily hiking and observing wildlife. That campaign eventually reached Vermont in 1977, when the state passed enabling legislation, and the state's town forest program temporarily dissolved soon after. Possibly mindful of those trends, state and county foresters conducted a reconnaissance in 1973 to plan for the construction of trails and recreational facilities, with the help of Boy Scouts.²⁹

²⁶ Cooperator's Woodland Record (June 1962); (January 1963); (May 17, 1965); (July 4, 1966); (July 25, 1966); Letter from Warner Shedd to Francis Lavigne, May 4, 1962, CCFR.

²⁷ Memorandum from George Turner, (February 2, 1965), CCFR; *Cooperator's Woodland Record* (July 25, 1966); *Burlington Free Press* (October 6, 1967), 17; and letter from William Hall to Robert Hoffman, November 6, 1969. ²⁸ *Cooperator's Woodland Record* (May 12, 1972); (June 15, 1972); and (July 31, 1972); Memorandum from Charles Vile dated November 10, 1972, CCFR.

²⁹ Laws of Vermont (1977 Adj. session), No. 250; Cooperator's Woodland Record (June 7, 1973)

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Whether from lack of opportunity to generate revenue from timber sales, the uncertain economies of timber cultivation, dissolution of the state's municipal forestry program, or growing emphasis on passive recreational forest use, the years between 1973 and 1986 were comparatively quiet ones in Hinesburg's forest. However, that void was filled with an important new development, a public fuelwood-cutting program that simultaneously improved wildlife habitat, aesthetics, and timber productivity. In 1980, Charles Vile and Bill Hall outlined the program, which specified the cutting of only marked trees; roads to provide access to two-wheeled-drive vehicles in all weather; individual lots for each permittee; and liability disclaimers in each permit. By 1988, the town had designated sixteen, three-cord lots on the southeast side of the forest at the end of Economou Road, each lot of wood costing \$30.00. Permits required cutting between June and September, a cash bond, stumps cut flush with the ground; and brush lopped and scattered.³⁰

More importantly, the community's enduring interest in its forest – the principle force that had sustained public ownership of the land during the preceding half-century – once again proved formidable, and the town approved county forester David Brynn's Land Management Plan, dated October 1986. The plan outlined a broad management strategy intended to enhance the timber, wildlife, aesthetic, and recreational values of the forest, all the while minimizing environmental degradation. Acknowledging that the plan represented an initial step in an ongoing process. Brynn called for a sustained flow of forest products and revenues over time. classifying the majority of the forest as hardwood pole-timber and young saw-timber, with mixed softwood plantations. He also pointed to white-tailed deer and ruffed grouse as the land's principal wildlife, and noted the growing value of recreation in rapidly developing suburban towns such as Hinesburg. In addition, the plan outlined the need for future projects: thin softwood plantations; repair town forest roads; install gates to prevent unauthorized entry; conduct timber sales; paint forest perimeters; add signage; release apple trees; and promote roadside firewood cutting. In a memorandum to the town four years later, Brynn observed that considerable progress had been achieved on those projects, but he also expressed concern about plans to sell the forest.31

1990 to the Present. The 1986 management plan guided the Hinesburg forest in new directions, as did increased participation among local citizens. Led by a revived town forest committee guided by Steven Russell and Pat Mainer, with continued support from county foresters and from a new state program established in 1991, Urban and Community Forestry, the town launched several important initiatives. In 1995, for example, the town began discussions with Vermont's mountain bike advocates, the Fellowship of the Wheel, leading to an application for funding from Vermont's Recreation Trails Grant Program to help pay for the construction of seven new multi-use trails that year. Those discussions eventually led to an agreement for trial use by mountain bikers about a decade later.³²

³⁰ Memorandum from Chuck Vile, state lands forester, to Bill Hall, Chittenden County Forester, dated September 11, 1980, CCFR; Press Release by David Brynn, 1988, CCFR.

³¹ David Brynn, *Land Management Plan*, (October 1986), CCFR; Memorandum from David Brynn to Hinesburg selectboard, dated November 8, 1990, CCFR.

³² Application to Vermont's Recreation Trails Grant Program (1995), CCFR.

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In 2005, Chittenden County forester Michael Snyder compiled a new, ten-year management plan, calling for a healthy and productive forest through sound, active management. The plan served as a mandate for actively managing the forest for timber production, enhancement of wildlife habitat, and pedestrian recreation, and Snyder called for high-quality silvicultural treatments; improved natural forest community types; aesthetic treatments when harvesting along or near trails; timber harvesting supervised by qualified foresters, requiring marked trees, landings, roads, and skid trails laid out in advance of harvesting. The following year, 2006, University of Vermont professor Walter Poleman advanced many of those objectives by establishing a partnership with the town to conduct a natural resource inventory and ecological assessment of the forest – incident to the university's Field Naturalist Graduate Program. And in 2010, Michael Snyder prepared an application for funding from the Winooski Natural Resources Conservation District for an erosion control project in Hinesburg's forest.³³

All the while, the town forest committee continued to enter into carefully prepared and supervised timber sale contracts with logger William Torrey of Jericho, whose business is named Canopy Timber Alternatives. As if to underscore the long-standing tradition of timber production in the town forest, and perhaps as a permanent reminder to future selectboards about the value of the community's woodland, ash trees from the forest were sustainably harvested to replace the 106-year-old floor in the town hall, the site of many past debates about the future of the town forest.³⁴

Four Centuries of Community-Owned Forests in New England

The Town Forest Movement and its significant examples, such as that in Hinesburg, also contribute to the broad patterns of New England's long-standing history of community-owned forests – wooded landscapes that have been a part of the region's forest and town history for a period that spans four centuries. Those community-owned forests can be assigned to six discrete categories: common lands; public lands; town forests; watershed plantations; forest parks or reserves; and lands owned or managed by local conservation commissions. Although most of New England's extensive common lands had passed to private ownership by the beginning of the eighteenth century, examples of public lands dating from the seventeenth, eighteenth and nineteenth centuries survive, some of them as town forests. Indeed, the campaign to create town forests during the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries represents New England's first comprehensive effort to reclaim extensive community-owned woodlands long-since given up to private ownership.

Similar to the assessment of significance under Criteria C, placing both the Town Forest Movement and examples of individual town forests into the larger context of community-owned forests in New England over a period of four centuries suggests a significance for the Hinesburg

³³ Michael Snyder, *Forest Management Plan. 2005-2015*, CCFR; Memorandum of Understanding, Field Naturalist Graduate Program, University of Vermont, CCFR; and Michael Snyder, Application for Hinesburg Town Forest Erosion Control Project (2010), CCFR.

³⁴ Jad Daley, ed., *The Vermont Town Forest Stewardship Guide: A Community User's Manual for Town Forests* (Burlington, VT: Queen City Printers, Inc., n.d.), 29.

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Town Forest that extends beyond local history. However, the principal value in tracing the region's long tradition of community-owned forests is to reveal the strong ethic of forest stewardship that has existed in New England towns throughout that history. In that narrower context, the Hinesburg forest becomes one among many examples that illustrate local traditions of forest conservation, and the ways in which those traditions have shaped our communities. Today, the very active interest in Hinesburg's forest among residents of that community, and in stewardship of woodland resources, is a perfect illustration of the local significance of town forests in the context of forest conservation history.

Common woodlands associated with New England's seventeenth century nucleated villages mark the origins of this tradition and were based on English models. These common woodlands or uplands were managed by town proprietors and sustained a variety of communal needs, including fuel wood, timber, fencing, and open understory for the grazing of swine and other livestock. Specific tracts of land assigned to communal use, for example common cedar swamps, sometimes were located not far from village centers. As community populations increased, however, resources on these lands eventually became exhausted and ownership shifted to the private sector.³⁵

Town proprietors of New England's seventeenth century nucleated villages also set aside specific tracts of land to sustain community institutions such as schools and churches. These public lots, a term that reflects an emerging public voice distinguishable from that of town proprietors, were sometimes rented and the income (often in forms other than currency) was used to pay for schoolbooks or ministers' salaries. In some communities, these public lots also provided resources such as wood fuel for churches, schoolmasters, and ministers. As populations increased and town settlements expanded, town charters specifically required the setting aside of public lots, and unlike common lands, these church lots, school lots, glebe lots and minister's lots have survived over the centuries as community resources. A large number were converted to town forests when that movement gathered momentum after 1915, and a number of important examples survive today, including forests in Newington, Danville, Northwood, and Keene, New Hampshire. In Vermont, these public lots became known as lease lands, and Vermont's Supreme Court ruled that they should be held in trust for community welfare rather than sold to the private sector. The Vermont towns of Arlington, Bloomfield, Essex, Huntington, Lemington, Morrisville, Pomfret, Reading and West Windsor have either designated lease lands as town forests or have engaged in forestry management on those lands.³⁶

By the middle of the nineteenth century, a different form of public land had surfaced in the form of town poor farms, where indigent populations lived and, if able, worked. Products from these farms provided food for farm residents, but also income to pay for the cost of care, and many of these farms included woodlots that produced revenue from the sale of wood for fuel or timber for

³⁵ C.S. and C.S. Owin, *The Open Fields* (Oxford: Clarendon Press, 154), 1-62; Roy H. Akagi, *The Town Proprietors of New England Colonies. A Study of Their Development, Organization, Activities, and Controversies. 1620-1770* (Philadelphia: University of Pennsylvania Press, 1924), 6-38, 105-106; David Allen, *In English Ways* (New York: W.W. Norton, 1982), 30-36; and McCullough, *Landscape*, 6-46.

³⁶ Walter T. Bogart, *Vermont Lease Lands* (Montpelier: Vermont Historical Society), 55, 295-303, 317; and McCullough, *Landscape*, 47-84.

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wood products. As did other public lands, many of these poor farm woodlots became town forests during the early years of the twentieth century, including examples in the Vermont towns of Calais, Danville, St. Johnsbury and Rockingham. One of the first town forests in New England, located in Fitchburg, Massachusetts, was originally a poor farm woodlot, and it remains an actively managed forest today.³⁷

Local water utilities began practicing forestry during the last two decades of the nineteenth century as towns began building reservoirs and acquiring watershed lands to protect the quality of water obtained through surface collection. An alliance soon developed between owners of these public and quasi-public water utility companies and champions of town forests, profitable to each. Water companies offered ideal opportunities to demonstrate the feasibility of local forestry: land areas were often large, improving economies of scale; forestry practices could be implemented consistently by company managers over a long period of time, free from the political uncertainties of local government; and companies already owned the land, with every incentive to convert it to productive use. In turn, well-managed and profitable watershed forests became ideal demonstration areas for other communities, helping to expand the reach of municipal forestry. In addition, some utility companies introduced very sophisticated management practices, including computer modeling for surface runoff and evaporation. Several of Vermont's most important town forests originated as watershed plantations, including forests owned by the communities of Rutland, Essex Junction, Montpelier, Morrisville, and Bellows Falls.³⁸

Also during the late nineteenth century, and continuing up to the years just before World War II, many New England towns began acquiring reservations of woodland principally for use as parks, with little or no emphasis on the cultivation of marketable timber. In developing plans for these parks, town officials discovered that allowing forest cover to dominate offered an inexpensive alternative to the elaborate designed landscapes that characterized the picturesque pleasure grounds of the Romantic era of park planning, or the more formal parks of the City Beautiful movement. Instead, these parks were characterized by simple footpaths, occasional overlooks, and sheltered picnic areas. Yet in a few examples, forestry professionals worked closely with landscape architects in developing plans for these forest parks and recommended suitable types of trees and appropriate management practices. Moody Park in Claremont, New Hampshire, designed by landscape architect Arthur Shurtleff in 1917 in collaboration with New Hampshire State Forester Alfred B. Hastings is one of the best examples. Some forest parks, too, have been

³⁷ Page Bunker, "A Town Forest in America," *Journal of Forestry* 13 (March 1915), 4-7; and McCullough, *Landscape*, 84-93.

³⁸ F.W. Rane, "The Reforestation of Watersheds for Domestic Supplies," *Journal of the New England Water Works Association* 25 (June 1911), 234-242; R.C. Hawley, "Forest Planting for Water Companies," *Proceedings of the Connecticut Forestry Association*. 1909-1911, Publication No. 7; J.W. Toumey, "Forestry in Relation to Public Water Supplies," *Journal of the New England Water Works Association* 31 (June 1917), 247-255; United States Forest Service, "Essex Junction, Vt.," in *Field Handbook of Community Forests* (Washington, D.C.: U.S. Dept. of Agriculture, 1939), L-12; Warren Archey and David Miller, "Water Conservation Begins in the Forest," *Journal of the New England Water Works Association* 105 (March 1991), 34-41; and McCullough, *Landscape*, 201-230.

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designated as town forests, including Paradise Park in Windsor, Vermont, not far from Claremont.39

Interest in local conservation commissions also began to develop during the early 1960s in New England after the town of Ipswich, Massachusetts, sponsored state enabling legislation authorizing towns to establish such commissions in 1957. Ironically, that law that was modeled almost word for word after similar enabling legislation allowing towns to create economic development commissions. By 1964, more than two hundred communities in that state had formed commissions, and the movement soon spread to other states, not just in New England but in other parts of the country as well. Rather than placing emphasis on forestry management, commissions sought to preserve open spaces as ecological preserves, a means to counter the ever-present specter of development. The Conservation Commission Movement reached Vermont in the early 1970s, overshadowing lingering interest in town forests. Yet many conservation commissions in Vermont and elsewhere continued to manage existing town forests for multiple uses, and in some instances assigned different objectives to different forests. In Calais, Vermont, for example, the town owns three town forests, each managed by the local conservation commission. The forest that was formerly the poor farm woodlot is treated as an ecological preserve, with minimal human interference to its mature stands of white cedar. By contrast, the forest at Gospel Hollow and another parcel are harvested periodically, with proceeds going to the commission for its continued work in the community. In other communities, Hinesburg for example, town forest committees survive and incorporate similar strategies into a comprehensive management plan for a single forest. 40

³⁹ Sylvester Baxter, "The Lynn Public Forest," Garden and Forest 11 (October 30, 1889), 526-527; Filibert Roth, "Woods as Parks," Parks and Recreation 5 (September-October, 1921), 16-19; and McCullough, Landscape, 231-

⁴⁰ Andrew J.W. Scheffey, Conservation Commissions in Massachusetts (Washington, D.C.: Conservation Foundation, 1969), 30-34; Charles H.W. Foster, "A Massachusetts Self-Help Conservation Program," Forest and Park News 24 (October 1960): 3-4; and McCullough, Landscape, 276-300.

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Previous documentation on file (NPS):		
nreliminary determination of individual listing (36 CFR 67)	has been requested	

preliminary determination of individual listing (36 CFR 67) has been requested 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 #_____ recorded by Historic American Landscape Survey #_____

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Hinesburg Town Forest Name of Property County and State Primary location of additional data: ____ State Historic Preservation Office ____ Other State agency ____ Federal agency ____ Local government ____ University ___ Other Name of repository: Historic Resources Survey Number (if assigned): _____ 10. Geographical Data Acreage of Property 837

Use either the UTM system or latitude/longitude coordinates

Latitude/Longitude Coordinates (decimal degrees)

Datum if other than WGS84: (enter coordinates to 6 decimal places)

MAIN PARCEL

1. Latitude: 44.32829	Longitude: -73.04729
2. Latitude: 44.33370	Longitude: -73.03948
3. Latitude: 44.33581	Longitude: -73.03323
4. Latitude: 44.33397	Longitude: -73.03272
5. Latitude: 44.33446	Longitude: -73.02712
6. Latitude: 44.31548	Longitude: -73.02296
7. Latitude: 44.31445	Longitude: -73.02638

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8. Latitude: 44.31615 Longitude: -73.03540

9. Latitude: 44.31939 Longitude: -73.03607

10. Latitude: 44.31859 Longitude: -73.04519

HOLLIS PARCEL

1. Latitude: 44.33220 Longitude: -73.05451

2. Latitude: 44.33247 Longitude: -73.05278

3. Latitude: 44.33308 Longitude: -73.05286

4. Latitude: 44.33348 Longitude: -73.04892

5. Latitude: 44.32846 Longitude: -73.04738

6. Latitude: 44.32743 Longitude: -73.05362

Verbal Boundary Description (Describe the boundaries of the property.) The boundary of the Hinesburg Town Forest is shown as the dashed line on the accompanying maps entitled *Hinesburg Town Forest: Main Parcel* and *Hinesburg Town Forest: Hollis Parcel*. These areas are identified in the Hinesburg Town Records as SPAN #294-093-11677.

Boundary Justification (Explain why the boundaries were selected.)

The boundaries of the Hinesburg Town Forest are drawn to include the entire 837-acre town forest parcel. The current boundaries of the forest were established in 1958 with the acquisition of the last parcel of land from a private Hinesburg landowner.

	County and State
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state: VT	zip code: 05405
	servation Prostate: VT

Additional Documentation

Submit the following items with the completed form:

- Maps: A USGS map or equivalent (7.5 or 15 minute series) indicating the property's location.
- **Sketch map** for historic districts and properties having large acreage or numerous resources. Key all photographs to this map.
- Additional items: (Check with the SHPO, TPO, or FPO for any additional items.)

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Photographs

Submit clear and descriptive photographs. The size of each image must be 1600x1200 pixels (minimum), 3000x2000 preferred, at 300 ppi (pixels per inch) or larger. Key all photographs to the sketch map. Each photograph must be numbered and that number must correspond to the photograph number on the photo log. For simplicity, the name of the photographer, photo date, etc. may be listed once on the photograph log and doesn't need to be labeled on every photograph.

Photo Log

Name of Property: Hinesburg Town Forest

City or Vicinity: Town of Hinesburg

County: Chittenden County State: VT

Photographer: Sarah LeVaun Graulty

Date Photographed: October 19, 2007

Description of Photograph(s) and number, include description of view indicating direction of camera:

- 1 of 5. View looking southeast from the Hayden Hill Road East parking area.
- 2 of 5. View looking east. Stand #5 is to the left in image (to the north); Stand 13B is in the center at Economou Road/open path (East); and Stand 13A is to the right in image (to the South).
- 3 of 5. View looking south. Stand #9, a conifer plantation, is to the right in image, and a stone wall to the left delineates the exterior boundary of the forest. The wall is a remnant feature from the period of farming that characterized the land before the Hinesburg Town Forest was established.
- 4 of 5. View looking roughly north. This image depicts the carefully planted rows of trees planted in Stand #9, a conifer plantation.
- 5 of 5. View looking west-southwest. A remnant stone wall marks the division between Stand #13B in the foreground and Stand #15 beyond.

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Estimated Burden Statement: Public reporting burden for this form is estimated to average 100 hours per response including time for reviewing instructions, gathering and maintaining data, and completing and reviewing the form. Direct comments regarding this burden estimate or any aspect of this form to the Office of Planning and Performance Management. U.S. Dept. of the Interior, 1849 C. Street, NW, Washington, DC.