REHABILITATION OF HISTORIC STUDENT HOUSING: A CASE STUDY

by

PAULA JEAN HOLDER

(Under the Direction of MARK REINBERGER)

ABSTRACT

The purpose of this thesis is to explore ways that historic residence halls have been renovated at Massachusetts Institute of Technology, Princeton University and the University of Georgia. Using the information gained, this thesis will provide guidelines and suggestions for the historically sensitive rehabilitation of other residence halls through proposed case studies of Mary Lyndon and Rutherford Halls at the University of Georgia.

INDEX WORDS: Historic Preservation; Dormitories; Residence Hall; Historic Rehabilitation; University of Georgia

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PAULA JEAN HOLDER

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PAULA JEAN HOLDER

Approved: July 17, 2002

Major Professor: Mark Reinberger

Committee: John Waters
Scott Messer
Jim Day

Electronic Version Approved:

Gordhan L. Patel
Dean of the Graduate School
The University of Georgia
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All images are by the author unless otherwise noted in the text.

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

Student housing on campus has changed drastically in the United States since its beginning; changes in mission and programming have gone from the university standing *in loco parentis* to treating residents as adults. Changes in architecture have gone from housing students in the same building with classrooms and libraries, to housing students on another section of campus removed from academic buildings, back to the concept of residential and academic space sharing the same area and buildings.

The architectural style of most campuses has evolved over the years, often following the trends of the day. Recently the trend has been to build new campus buildings in what is considered a collegiate style, a mixture of Colonial Revival, Neoclassical, Beaux Arts, and Gothic Revival. The image that these styles exude is one of academia. While many older residence halls fit well with this image, those built in the late twentieth century do not. Many of these buildings are varying forms of modernist in style. The differences in contemporary facilities and older ones are not only style, infrastructure, or residential room organization. The façades tell completely different stories. Buildings built prior to 1955 often have a residential appearance; porches,

balconies, casement or double hung windows, and classical elements decorate the exterior and interior. The building mass of these older buildings is usually broken, creating a more human scale. In addition, these facilities housed less than 500 residents, often between 100-200. In these ways, older residence halls say, "I am meant to be a home." The more recent buildings, those built for the Baby Boomers, were designed with the focus of economy in mind. Following the architectural trends of the period, these facilities are often modernistic and monolithic in appearance, with ribbon windows and architectural paneled façades.

In most early dormitories, as they were then called, male students shared the room with many others. As changes in social atmosphere progressed, students shared rooms with only one or two others. Later, universities built small dormitories to house several male students in single rooms while sharing large communal bathrooms with the rest of the building. These buildings were relatively small compared to those built in the late twentieth century, often holding less than five hundred residents in a complex versus contemporary complexes that hold more than nine hundred students. Over the years, concepts and theories about student housing changed both form and some functions of student housing. As dormitories age and are replaced, the buildings are often converted into classrooms, academic offices, administrative offices, or simply demolished.

Time has added female students to campus and among housing residents. Housing facilities have gone from being one or two stories to being towers. No longer are male and female residents housed on opposite ends of campus, as they were at the University of Georgia in the 1950s; in some facilities, only a wall separates their living accommodations. As the arrangements of students have changed, so have the accessibility expectations of the facilities. Changes in handicapped accessibility, fire and buildings codes have altered not only the interior configurations of most buildings, but the exterior as well. Fire exits, elevators, ramps, extended rail heights and often sprinklers have been added to make facilities safer and easier to use for residents and visitors.

Much of the current building stock used to house students was built in the 1970s or earlier. Buildings touted as high-tech in the 1970s now are considered obsolete in many aspects. Contemporary students bring to college computers, televisions, VCRs, DVD players, and stereo systems. Many facilities have electrical systems that simply cannot handle the electrical load that all these gadgets need for several hundred students to use them at the same time. Older buildings are often not equipped for easy installation of Ethernet systems or other new technology that comes along, but to compete with other housing resources, new ways to add this technology need to be explored.

Gone are the majority of students that shared a room growing up. Today's students are not only used to having their own room, but their own bathroom as well. Today's students and their parents expect to have rooms that are air-conditioned, with access to a working kitchen, preferably a private kitchen. They desire privacy and will go to great lengths to attain this privacy, even forcing the roommate to move. Most available university housing stock was built in the traditional housing style of double occupancy rooms along both sides of a double-loaded hallway sharing a communal bathroom. These rooms were intended to house two beds, two desks and two closets. The bathroom facilities in this type are down the hallway and shared by three or more rooms. Single rooms in this facility were originally intended to be a status symbol, a reward of sorts, meant for seniors. Now, single rooms are assigned based on request order and who can pay for the space rather than on a reward basis. Currently the national housing trend is to supply students with more privacy in both bedroom and bathroom space. While this privacy is what students desire, they could be doing more harm than good by losing an opportunity for students to learn the advanced social skills gained from sharing a space.

The Myers Community at the University of Georgia in Athens is a collection of four facilities--Soule, Mary Lyndon, Rutherford, and Myers Halls--built between 1918 and 1953 to house the female students of the university. These buildings have a personality and a life all their own. The sense of place is so strong in this community that former residents frequently return to see the buildings and

reminisce about their college experiences. Current residents return year after year, and many live within the community their entire college career. Soule Hall underwent renovations in 1990, and Myers Hall is currently undergoing renovations; Mary Lyndon and Rutherford Halls are scheduled to be renovated within the next ten years. This thesis will hopefully provide the Housing Department at the University of Georgia a road map for the modernization of Mary Lyndon and Rutherford Halls, built in the 1930s. When these buildings are renovated in the future, the character of these buildings, both interior and exterior, can be retained while updating the buildings to be compliant with the Americans with Disabilities Act (ADA), meet modern building and fire codes, adapt to changing technology and power needs, as well as address the desire for more privacy in bedroom and bathroom space. Also explored in this thesis are case studies showing how several universities have approached these issues in their renovation and restoration of residence halls, including two University of Georgia facilities, Reed and Soule Halls.

CHAPTER 2

HISTORY OF CAMPUS HOUSING IN THE UNITED STATES

Campus housing in America has been influenced primarily by Western European countries, specifically Great Britain and Germany.[1] Residential educations can be traced back to the twelfth century when students of higher learning flocked to the major universities in Oxford, Bologna, and Paris creating a severe housing shortage.[2] In the early days of American education, the founders of America's first nine colleges used the housing model from Oxford and Cambridge.[3] This model was used primarily because the founders of Harvard College, New Jersey University, Yale University, King's College, College of Rhode Island, Queen's College and Dartmouth College were graduates of either Oxford or Cambridge and used what they knew.[4] Only the founders of the College of William and Mary, and Philadelphia Academy were not graduates of Cambridge or Oxford.[5]

The English model of education, as embodied in Cambridge and Oxford, emphasized the development of the total student. Helping students learn to be a member of the English gentry, by emphasizing intellect and character to create a

[1] Frederiksen, Charles F. "A Brief History of Housing." Student Housing and Residential Life. Winston, Rodger B., Scott Anchors and Associates. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass publishers, 1993. 167
[2] Blimling, Gregory. The Resident Assistant Fifth Edition. Iowa: Kendall/Hunt Publishing Company, 1998. Page 23
[3] Ibid Bliming 25
[4] Ibid Bliming 25
[5] Ibid Bliming 25

gentleman scholar, was the goal of the residential colleges in England.[6] To create this combination of gentleman and scholar, the students shared time in both the classroom and the lodging complexes with professors for hours of formal and informal instruction.[7] Deans, proctors, and beadles were hired to chaperone students whenever they went into town as well as see over the students' welfare in lodging and dining facilities.[8]

Because attending college in America often required traveling great distances at a time when travel was difficult and dangerous, boarding at the university became a necessity.[9] However, the new American schools did not have the luxury of hiring a separate staff to oversee the students in their hours outside of classes, so professors at these schools often did double duty and taught in the classroom, enforced the policies of the residence hall and dealt with student discipline.[10] This double duty system in America played a large part in the student's perception of their professors as enemies. The professors at Oxford and Cambridge were seen more as allies than those in American institutions, mainly because staff other than professors handled discipline problems out of the classroom.[11]

[6] Frederiksen 168
[7] Ibid Frederiksen 168
[8] Bliming 25
[9] Ibid Bliming 25
[10] Ibid Bliming 25
[11] Ibid Bliming 25

This American student perception of professors as a natural enemy would lead to rebellions, riots and several deaths in America by the mid-1850s. The atmosphere of college in the late eighteenth and early nineteenth centuries was one of education and personal growth. However, it was also one of violent deaths for both students and staff. A passage from historian Frederick Rudolph cites some of these violent deaths:

> In the commons room of the dormitory at South Carolina College in 1833, two students at the same time grabbed for a plate of trout. Only one of them survived the duel that ensued. Among the victims of the collegiate way were the boy that died in the duel at Dickinson, the students who were shot at Miami of Ohio, the professor who was killed at the University of Virginia, the president of Oakland College in Mississippi who was stabbed to death by a student, the student who was stabbed at Illinois College, the students who were stabbed and killed at the University of Missouri, the president and professor who were stoned at the University of Georgia and the University of North Carolina.
>
> For this misfortune these victims of the collegiate life could thank the dormitory, the time house of incarceration and infamy that sustained the collegiate ways.[12]

[12] Ibid Bliming 26

Because of these events and many others like them, the boards and presidents of colleges and universities in America began to phase out the idea of residential life on campus by turning housing facilities into classrooms.

Not only were campus residential facilities seen as places where violent acts occurred and as the main cause of violence between students and staff, they were also seen as wasting money that could be used for "real" educational purposes.[13] This new shift in educational theory was influenced by the German educational system that focused on instruction and research. Students educated in the German system were expected to make their own living arrangements in boarding houses and private homes in the city.[14] Another nail for the campus residential facility coffin came in the form of the Land Grant College Act of 1863, also known as the Morrill Act.[15] The purpose of this was to encourage state-funded colleges and universities by creating schools of higher education that were more secular. At the same time, established schools such as Columbia, Harvard, Princeton and Yale were dissolving their religious affiliations.[16] The disillusionment with residence halls in the mid-1800s was such that many of the new western state universities that opened under this act did not even include them in their construction plan.[17]

[13] Frederiksen 169
[14] Ibid Frederiksen 169
[15] Bliming 27
[16] Ibid Bliming 27
[17] Frederiksen 169

This dissolving of residential facilities on campuses did not spread to all colleges and universities in the United States. Several college and university presidents not only spoke in favor of keeping the English model of educating the whole student but also supported the construction of residence halls on their campuses.[18] These included Woodrow Wilson at Princeton University and William Rainey Harper at the University of Chicago, among others.

While traditional schools of higher education were benefiting from the Morrill Act of 1862, another group of individuals were also reaping the benefits. Colleges and universities for women began to appear in larger numbers. Schools such as Wesleyan, Wellesley, Vassar, and Smith opened up during this time.[19] Society placed different expectations on women, and the new women's college and universities had a residential basis, because social belief of the time did not consider it safe or proper for females to board in the community. These schools for women believed that residence halls and their experiences held educational value for their students. Among the lessons women experienced in residence halls were community responsibility, social graces, hospitality, participation in charities, and some form of self-government in setting quiet hours and planning social activities.[20]

[18] Ibid Frederiksen 170
[19] Ibid Frederiksen 170
[20] Bliming, 29

As the popularity of campus housing began to decline in the mid-1800s, so did the conditions of the existing residence hall facilities. For example, the same rooms were used at Amherst College for chapel, study halls, classrooms and bedrooms.[21] By allowing the facilities to decline rapidly, as well as systematically doing away with campus housing by converting bedrooms into classrooms, major problems were being created. As the on-campus conditions declined, students sought other living situations in the area, flooding the market with students needing housing. Many students were crowded into small private houses with few of the amenities residence halls had once provided.[22] This flooded market also meant that the prices charged for lodging rose and as the prices increased often the quality decreased. Oberlin College students were housed in the attic of the first building constructed on campus,[23] and Hiram College students were housed in the basement of the town meeting house.[24]

Since there was no regulatory organization, vast differences were evident between those students who could afford better housing and those lower income students who could not. The housing shortage and inflated costs gave rise to fraternities with residential functions as well as investment groups banding together to create private housing options often catering to wealthier students.[25] Charles Eliot, the president of Harvard University from 1869 to 1909, took exception to these housing options, writing:

[21] Ibid Bliming 30
[22] Frederiksen 170
[23] Bliming 27
[24] Ibid Bliming 27
[25] Ibid Bliming 30-31

> I like better to have the youth go into the college dormitories…. The college dormitories are not occupied by any one class of students at all. They are occupied in the most promiscuous manner as regards the classes from which their occupants have come, and they are occupied in a completely democratic manner as regards the school from which the occupants have come and the parts of the country from which they come. In these private dormitories there is a great deal of grouping by sets of fellows who have known each other before, who, for instance, have come from St. Paul's school, or from some other boarding school in some other part of the country. For my own part, I prefer the breaking up of those groups when they come to college, but it is a very natural thing that in the private dormitories they seek precisely to create or prolong the life of these groups formed elsewhere. It is merely a case of birds of a feather flocking together.[26]

These fraternities and private housing groups quickly became formidably influential organizations that worked for and occasionally against the policies of the college or university.[27] According to Blimling, Amherst's fraternities were so successful, in the late 1800s, that residence halls were no longer constructed

[26] Ibid Bliming 31
[27] Frederiksen 170

because of lack of interest in campus housing.[28] Many people saw the fraternity systems catering to the needs of a particular class or background as going against the educational mission of many college and universities by not exposing students to equal opportunities.[29] Reinstating the residence hall system in many colleges and universities was seen as a solution, not for the educational opportunities that residence halls could present, but to thwart some of the power that fraternities were gaining on campuses.[30]

In 1907, Woodrow Wilson, Princeton University President, proposed joining residence halls to create quadrangles.[31] These were intended to house students and unmarried faculty in the hopes that a more informal educational experience could be offered to the residents. An ulterior motive was also involved in this plan; Wilson hoped to disband powerful men's social clubs that had formed at Princeton by bringing all residential options back under the control of the University.[32] Although Wilson's plan was ultimately defeated by both the men's social clubs and influential alumni of theses organizations,[33] it created the beginning of dialogue among the universities and colleges concerning reinstating campus housing under the control of the institutions.

[28] Bliming 31
[29] Ibid Bliming 31
[30] Ibid Bliming 31
[31] Ibid Bliming 27
[32] Ibid Bliming 27
[33] Ibid Bliming 28

Edmond J James, President of the University of Illinois, credited five factors in the revival of residence halls. These factors were:

- •Excessive prices for an inadequate supply of rooms in the private sector;
- •A need for standardized living conditions for university students;
- •Residence halls serve as a social organization for students;
- •Residence halls present ability and opportunities for student to learn manners and "a certain ability to live easily and efficiently…with our fellow men;"
- •Residence halls provide students with the opportunity to get in touch with "the university spirit."[34]

By the turn of the twentieth century, many schools were once again building residence halls to provide housing for their students. After the First World War, many colleges and universities experienced over-crowding due to increased enrollments.[35] As new residence halls were needed, so were the funds to build them. Several universities and colleges received special funds from their State Board of Educations while other institutions issued bonds to fund the needed residence halls.[36]

[34] Ibid Bliming 28-29
[35] Ibid Bliming 31
[36] Ibid Bliming 31

Private funds also became a way to build needed residence halls. In the early part of the twentieth century, Edward S. Harkness gave Harvard University a gift of $3 million for the construction of two houses similar to those found at Cambridge.[37] The Harvard House Plan (as the idea came to be known) was intended to expose students to a variety of different subjects and interests by selecting a cross-section of upper class students. Prospective students submitted applications that were reviewed by the faculty and current residents in the houses. New residents were selected based on an application and interview process.[38] The goal for these houses was to create opportunities for interaction between students and faculty for enhanced learning opportunities and to provide a network for future educational and business dealings.

In the 1930s, colleges and universities and the courts believed that a major responsibility of higher education was to mold student's character and make them contributing citizens.[39] One way that colleges and universities accomplished this was by acting *in loco parentis* or in the place of parents. Rules for the university and especially the residence halls were designed so that "college authorities [could] stand *in loco parentis* concerning the physical, and mental training of the pupils," according to the 1913 court ruling in *Gott v. Berea*.[40]

[37] Ibid Bliming 32
[38] Ibid Bliming 32
[39] Ibid Bliming 32
[40] Ibid Bliming 32

This case gave college and university administration the ability to, as the ruling stated, "make any rule or regulation for the government or betterment of their pupils that a parent could for the same purpose".[41]

Many colleges and universities had an increased need for low-cost housing as the shortage of housing facilities continued. Simply because state and private funds for many institutions were not adequate enough, schools had to look to other funding resources for residence halls; in 1933, President Franklin Delano Roosevelt signed an act establishing the Federal Emergency Administration of Public Works. The Public Works Administration (PWA) housing division's goal was to reduce unemployment and increase adequate housing at a low cost for needy citizens. Through their programs, PWA provided colleges and universities grants and funds for the construction of residence halls. This funding opened the door for future federal intervention in the affairs of colleges and universities.[42]

World War II saw a decline in student enrollment in colleges and universities and a temporary halt in residence hall construction.[43] However, residence halls were not empty; many colleges and universities used their residence halls to meet Reserve Officers' Training Corps requirements for housing of staff and trainees.[44] As a record number of students enrolled in higher education at the end of World War II, a new need for housing surfaced. Within two years of the end of the war,

[41] Ibid Bliming 32
[42] Frederiksen 171-172
[43] Ibid Frederiksen 172
[44] Bliming 34

nearly sixty percent of eligible veterans enrolled in colleges and universities due to the GI bill.[45] This new influx of students entered institutions of higher education older, more mature, more experienced, and more serious about their studies than before the war, making many *in loco parentis* regulations and policies seem frivolous. These new students also brought with them families, creating a unique need for housing. Access to funds for temporary housing needed by veterans and their families was provided in the form of an amendment to the Lanham Act in 1945.[46] This act allowed universities and colleges to receive finical support for the housing of students. In addition to the funds available from the Lanham Act amendment, the government made available to colleges and universities former war facilities such as trailers and barracks to be used as temporary housing.[47]

Many colleges and universities did not construct permanent structures to house the influx of students received immediately after World War II, believing that the need would be temporary and that enrollment levels would eventually drop back to smaller, pre-war levels.[48] However as Francis Brown (staff associate for the American Council on Education) predicted in his address to the National Association of Deans of Men, enrollments in colleges and universities would continue to increase, citing birth rates and the increased need of elementary

[45] Ibid Bliming 34
[46] Ibid Bliming 35
[47] Frederiksen 172
[48] Bliming 35

schools as a predictor of future enrollment in institutions of higher education.[49] Brown's predictions came true: between 1946 and 1957 enrollment in colleges and universities increased by approximately one half, from 2,078,095 to 3,036,938 students.[50]

As a more permanent solution to the housing crisis, Congress passed Title IV of the Housing Act of 1950. This act, known as Housing for Educational Institutions, offered financial assistance to colleges and universities for repairs and additions to residential facilities as well as funds for the construction of new residence halls.[51] However, to make housing more self-financing and cost effective, many design decisions were based on cost-per-square foot formulas and low-cost maintenance. The result was that this period is sometimes referred to as a "traditionless period";[52] R. H. Umseem described the characteristics of housing built during this time by seven points:

- Numbers housed within units increased and were often grouped into complexes several of which are coeducational;
- The halls are run by professionals, for example, house mothers have been replaced by resident advisors;
- Student furniture in the rooms increased in quality and quantity;

[49] Ibid Bliming 35
[50] Ibid Bliming 35
[51] Frederiksen 172
[52] Bliming 36

- Policies and rules changed from protecting the welfare of the student as a main goal to protecting the facility and other investments;
- Campus services and activities have become decentralized;
- Because of a lack of tradition, freshman student behavior reverts back to adolescence and professional staff attempt to manage and regulate this behavior;
- Standardization in design.[53]

Unseem's biggest complaint was the standardization of residence halls, something she refers to as the "Residence Hall Beautiful or Howard Johnson Syndrome",[54] the cookie-cutter formula of design that made residence halls seem identical all over the country. Many of the residence halls during this period contained built-in furniture, removing the student's ability to decorate and re-arrange rooms to fit their needs and personalities,[55] making the buildings seem even more impersonal and institutional as shown in the images of three residence halls built on college campuses in the United States during the 1960s.

[53] Ibid Bliming 36
[54] Ibid Bliming 36
[55] Frederiksen 173

Figure 1
High-rise Berkeley Dorm built 1959-1963.
Image from page 16, Dorms at Berkeley: An Environmental Analysis by Sim Van der Ryn and Murray Silverstein.

Figure 2
Quincy House at Harvard built in 1960
Image from page 113, Student Housing: Architectural and Social Aspects by William Mullins and Phyllis Allen.

Figure 3
McMahon Hall at the University of Washington Seattle built in 1966
Image from page 33, Student Housing: Architectural and Social Aspects by William Mullins and Phyllis Allen.

The 1960s were a time of student rebellion against most forms of authority including residence hall polices. Many colleges and universities enforced policies pertaining to curfews, sign in/out logs, strict dress codes and visitation privileges for students.[1] Colleges and universities at this time also won the legal right to require students to live on campus based on the appeal decision in the case of *Prostrollo v University of South Dakota.*[2] The courts originally decided

[1] Bliming 39
[2] Ibid Bliming 39

that institutions could not legally require students to live on campus to ensure that money was generated to pay bond obligations. However, upon appeal, the decision was reversed when the University of South Dakota emphasized the educational benefits gained by exposure to the residence hall environment.

An increased concern for the educational experience of students in residence halls set the tone for student housing during the 1970s. During this time, many more students returned to residence halls primarily because it was more cost efficient to live on-campus than to live off-campus.[3] By 1981, a survey of upcoming college freshmen reported that over sixty percent planned to live in residence halls;[4] four years later, in 1985, the same type of survey reported identical results.[5] In the 1980s and 1990s, student requests grew to encompass private bathrooms, floor kitchens, air conditioners, cable, and room Internet connections.

As technology continues to evolve and our desires become needs, students are requesting private bedrooms and kitchens as well as more advanced technological innovations in the way of security, moving the residence hall design closer to apartments than ever. This apartment-like living creates a need for group gathering spaces so that the educational component of residence halls is not lost. Many of the current housing stock from 1955 on does not contain adequate spaces for gathering, or they must be drastically altered to

[3] Ibid Bliming 39
[4] Ibid Bliming 40
[5] Ibid Bliming 40

accommodate such spaces. Blimling states, "Many high-rise residence halls have inherent design problems that are counterproductive to the educational interest of students and will require redesign and renovations".[6] Many buildings built prior to 1955 have the common areas needed and not the desired configurations of apartment-type living. It would be advantageous for colleges and universities to look into renovating existing housing stock to fit the needs and desires of students rather than scrapping the older buildings in favor of new construction.

[6] Ibid Bliming 41

MAP OF THE UNIVERSITY OF GEORGIA HOUSING FACILITIES

*1 Old College
*2 Waddel Hall
*3 New College
*4 Bishop House
*5 Lumpkin House
*6 Lustrat House
*7 Faculty House
*8 Candler Hall
9 Soule Hall
*10 Milledge Hall
11 Payne Hall
*12 Memorial Hall
*13 Joe Brown Hall
14 Mary Lyndon Hall
*15 Clarke Howell Hall
16 Rutherford Hall
*17 Home Management Houses
18 Reed Hall
19 Myers Hall
20 Morris Hall
21 Boggs Hall
22 Church Hall
23 Hill Hall
24 Lipscomb Hall
25 Mell Hall
*26 Tucker Hall
27 Oglethorpe House
28 Creswell Hall
29 University Village
30 Brumby Hall
31 Russell Hall,
32 McWhorter Hall
33 Proposed Site for East Campus Village

*--Buildings no longer used as residence halls

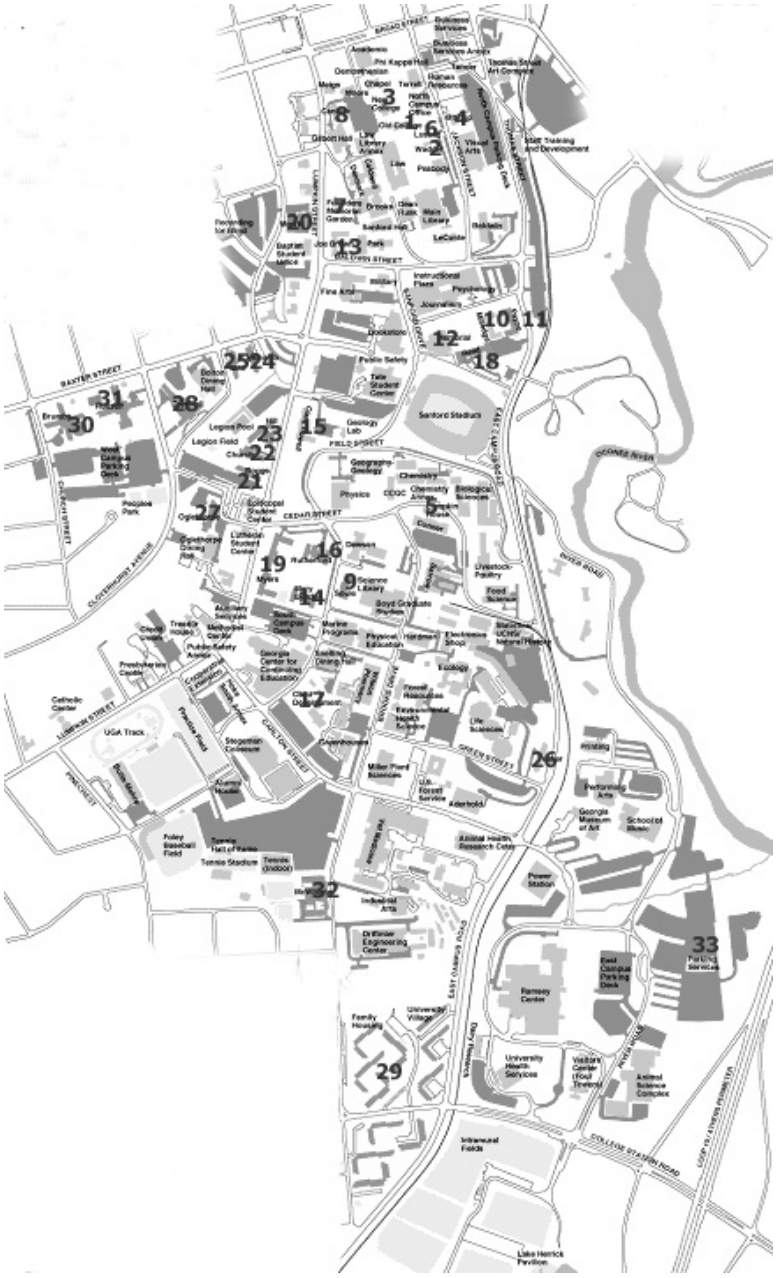

Figure 4: University of Georgia map from University Architects for Facilities Planning

CHAPTER 3

HISTORY OF UNIVERSITY OF GEORGIA RESIDENCE HALLS

There are currently seventeen buildings that serve as residence halls on the University of Georgia campus, home to almost six thousand students. However, many more buildings have served, many several different times, as homes for students. In many instances, especially early in the history of housing, buildings served both academic and residential functions. After being discontinued as residential facilities, some buildings became academic and student support buildings serving functions such as classrooms, offices, counseling centers, testing centers, faculty housing, private homes, departmental offices and even a library.

Figure 5
Old College Hall

University of Georgia, like many other colleges in America initially built facilities to house students as they were building classroom buildings and required their students to live on campus to protect them from potential evils that were believed to reside in towns. Like most of the first buildings on American campuses, Old College served double duty providing

residential and classroom spaces for students and professors. Franklin College, as it is was called originally, was completed in 1806 and is based on Yale's Connecticut Hall.[1] During the Civil War, Old College housed refugee families from Charleston, New Orleans and Savannah.[2] At the end of the nineteenth century, Old College received another name, one based on the behavior of its residents. It was called "Yahoo Hall," because one visitor describer its inhabitants as "a gang of wild yahoos".[3] Old College received money to be remodeled as a part of the New Deal in during the 1930s.[4] During World War II, Old College was again put to non-academic use as barracks for the Navy pre-flight program.[5] After the war, Old College was retired from housing service and became used as administrative offices. Currently Old College is home to the Vice President for Instruction, the Vice President of Public Service and Outreach as well as the Associate Vice President of Public Affairs.

[1] Gilstrap no page numbers
[2] Ibid Gilstrap no page numbers
[3] Reed, Thomas W. "Uncle Tom" Reed's Memoir of the University of Georgia. Athens: University of Georgia, 1974. Page 37
[4] Dyer, Thomas G. The University of Georgia A Bicentennial History 1785-1985. Athens: The University of Georgia Press, 1985 219
[5] Boney, F. N. A Walking Tour of the University of Georgia. Athens: The University of Georgia Press, 1989.p10-11

Figure 6
Waddle Hall

In 1821, Philosophical Hall (or Waddel Hall as it is know today) was added to the campus at the University of Georgia. Built to house books and equipment for natural philosophy, this building over the years housed students as a boardinghouse and was used as a classroom, gymnasium, co-op student snack bar, and the Dean Rusk Center for International and Comparative Law.[6] In the first half of the twentieth century, Waddel Hall was also used to house T.W. Reed,[7] one of the University of Georgia's most beloved registrars who had a hand in the restoration of Old College at the turn of the twentieth century.[8] Currently Waddel Hall is home to the Vice -President for Government Relations.

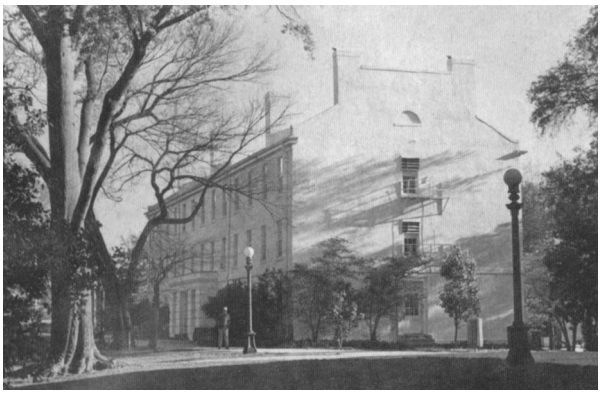

Figure 7
New College Hall
Image from page 12, A Walking Tour of the University of Georgia by F.N. Boney.

Because Old College could no longer house all of the students attending the University of Georgia, in 1823 a new four story buildings was built to

[6] Ibid Boney, Walking Tour 29
[7] Mathis, Ray. Introduction. "Uncle Tom" Reed's Memoir of the University of Georgia. by Thomas W. Reed. Athens: University of Georgia, 1974. xiv-xxix xxix
[8] Mathis xxvi

house the university library, classrooms, and students[9]. Just seven years later, in 1830, New College burned in a fire; it was rebuilt and opened in 1832 without the fourth floor. After re-opening, New College was used through out the nineteenth century primarily as a dormitory.[10] With the New Deal of the 1930s, money was used to remodel New College for its continued use as a residential facility.[11] Later New College was converted for use as a student snack bar, the bookstore, and home to the pharmacy department.[12] Currently, New College is home for the Franklin College of Arts and Sciences administrative offices.

When other universities were discontinuing the practice of housing male students on campus in the mid-1800s, the University of Georgia continued to provide housing. This was due to the strong influence of the board of trustees a group of devoutly religious community members that believed it was in the best interest of the student's moral development to live on campus or with "respectable" families where their actions could be closely monitored. Bucking the national trend of phasing out campus housing through the nineteenth century, the University of Georgia continued to use existing buildings as residences for students. In addition, two houses, the Lustrat and Faculty Houses were built on campus for professors and their families. Later the University of Georgia would acquire three other houses, the Bishop, Lumpkin and Lucas Houses, to be used along with the and Faculty House as residences for students.

[9] Gilstrap no page numbers
[10] Boney, Walking Tour 12
[11] Dyer 219
[12] Boney, Walking Tour 12

Figure 8
Bishop House

The Bishop House, built as a private residence in 1837, was purchased by the University of Georgia in 1941 and used subsequently as a professor's residence, dormitory, office building, and by the Air Science Department during the mid twentieth century.[13] Currently, the Bishop House holds the history, criticism and appreciation area of the Art department.

Figure 9
Lucas House
Image from page 24, Athens A Pictorial History by James Reap.

Sometime in the first half of the nineteenth century, the Lucas House was built "on a hill at the end of Jackson Street…{with} a wide lawn extending to Baldwin Street".[14] The house provided the Lucas family with an excellent view of the University of Georgia campus. The house was moved closer to the current location of Memorial Hall, sometime before 1912.[15]

[13] Gilstrap no page numbers
[14] Reap, James. Athens A Pictorial History. Norfolk: Donning Company, 1982. 24
[15] Ibid Reap 24

After the completion of the stadium in the late 1920s, Lucas House was used as a dormitory for male athletes.[16] In the early 1950s, Lucas Houses was demolished; the site is now home to Reed Hall.[17]

Figure 10
Lumpkin House
Image from page 57, A Walking Tour of the University of Georgia by F.N. Boney.

In 1844, Lumpkin House was built as the home of Former Governor Wilson Lumpkin.[18] At the time, Lumpkin's home sat at the top of a hill surrounded by farmland. The Lumpkin family gave the house and land for what would become South Campus for the University of Georgia in 1907.[19] The house, called the Rock House by students and faculty alike, was used to house students, as classroom space, and as a library.[20] Today the Lumpkin House is home to Cooperative Extension Services for the College of Agriculture and Environmental Services.

[16] Ibid Reap 154
[17] Ibid Reap 24
[18] Boney, Walking Tour 57
[19] Ibid Boney, Walking Tour 57
[20] Ibid Boney, Walking Tour 57

Figure 11
Faculty House

Ten years after the Lustrat House, in 1857, the University of Georgia built another house for faculty;[21] this building is now more widely known as the Founders house. Over the years, this building has been used as a residence for faculty and students[22], a dining facility, classroom and even as state headquarters for the Garden Club of America. The garden developed around the house in 1939-1946 as a memorial to the twelve ladies who founded the first garden club in America in Athens. A public outreach office from the School of Environmental Design now uses the office to provide design assistance to communities in the areas of landscape architecture and historic preservation.

Figure 12
Candler Hall

At the turn of the twentieth century, Presidents at schools such as Yale and Princeton once again began advocating the benefits of providing campus housing for students. During this time on the University of Georgia campus, Candler Hall according to its cornerstone, was

[21] Boney, Walking Tour 33
[22] Davis, Janice. Housing at the University of Georgia A Historical Perspective. Paper at the University of Georgia, 2000-2001.

erected in 1901 for use as a male dormitory on the University of Georgia campus,[23] the first facility built specifically for student housing since New college was reopened in 1832. Candler Hall was laid out in the traditional residence hall floor plan of double loaded corridors with double occupancy rooms sharing community bathrooms. During World War II, Candler Hall became one of seven university dormitories used by the Navy pre-flight training school to house their trainees.[24] After the war, Candler Hall was converted for use as a female dormitory, was used for classrooms and later it housed the offices for the Dean of Students, the public relations office, Pandora office, the Guidance Center, and the Director of Student Activities.[25] Candler Hall now is home the Office of International Public Service and Outreach, the Office of International Development and the Gerontology Center.

Figure 13
Soule Hall

Soule Hall was built to house the first undergraduate female students admitted to the main campus at the University of Georgia in 1918;[26] its cornerstone is dated September 1918. Soule Hall's original layout was traditional residential room with a shared communal bathroom. Women in the local Athens community provided the furniture in the

[23] Gilstrap no page numbers
[24] Dyer 242
[25] Ibid Gilstrap no page numbers
[26] Boney, Walking Tour 53

rooms so that the new students would live in the manner to which they were accustomed. When it opened, Soule Hall had a swimming pool on the ground floor.[27] A gymnasium, infirmary, kitchen, classrooms, bedrooms, laboratories and a lounge, which stretched the width of the building with balconies on either side on the second floor,[28] greeted its first occupants. The third floor contained the rest of the bedrooms for the buildings' residents.[29] The new residence hall was a popular place for male students of the university who affectionately nicknamed the building "the co-ed barn".[30]

Soule Hall has served many uses during its lifetime on the University of Georgia campus. In 1972, Soule Hall was converted to classroom space and offices,[31] but beginning in 1982, it once again housed female students as a residence hall.[32] In the early 1990s the building was again converted, this time from traditional rooms to suite-style housing. The conversion to suite style rooms in 1990 made Soule Hall the smallest residence hall on the University of Georgia campus; in the 2001-2002 school year, the residential capacity was only eighty-eight residents as opposed to its original one hundred and ten in 1920. During this remodeling, it was discovered that the entire structure of Soule Hall was hung,[33] meaning that it was possible to walk throughout the entire first floor and

[27] Davis 7
[28] Ibid Davis 7
[29] Ibid Davis 7
[30] Ibid Boney, Walking Tour 53
[31] Ibid Davis 8
[32] Ibid Davis 8
[33] Sniff

not encounter a load bearing wall or beam[34]. This discovery explained how a pool could be installed on the first floor with classroom and bedroom space on the upper floors. Later in this thesis, the 1990 renovation of Soule Hall will be used as a case study looking at the different approaches to historic residence hall renovation.

During the teens and twenties of the twentieth century, when the Princeton Plan and Harvard Quadrangle were the forms being emulated at colleges and universities across the country, the University of Georgia constructed Soule Hall to house its early female students as well as continuing to build residence halls for its male students during this time. With the completion of Milledge, Payne and Memorial Halls, used to house male students, the University of Georgia had an open quadrangle; once again going with national trends.

Figure 14
Milledge Hall

[34] Ibid Sniff

Figure 15
Payne Hall

In 1921, the University of Georgia built Milledge Hall to house its ever-growing population. With the help of the citizens of Clarke County,[35] the new U-shaped building could hold two hundred and three male students.[36] Two years later in 1923, an annex was built to the west of Milledge Hall called Milledge Annex. Built to accommodate male athletes, Milledge Annex was later renamed Payne Hall,[37] this U-shaped building similar in plan to Milledge Hall completed a small quadrangle between the buildings. Both buildings have a central entrance lobby with wings off each side. The layout is traditional residence hall, with a double loaded corridor of double occupancy rooms sharing communal bathrooms. During World War II, the United States Navy housed trainees of the pre-flight training school in Milledge Hall.[38] In the early 1990s, the department of housing traded Milledge Hall in return for funding for other facility improvements[39]. It is now home to the Division of Academic Enhancement, including the learning Center, Tutorial Services and Upward Bound, while Payne Hall currently is used to house one hundred and ninety-nine female undergraduate students.

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[35] Boney, F. N. A Pictorial History of The University of Georgia, Second Edition. Athens: The University of Georgia Press, 2000. Page106
[36] Ibid Davis 8
[37] Davis 9
[38] Dyer 242
[39] Ayoob, John, Associate Director for Residential Facilities. Personal Interview. Russell Hall Department of University Housing Offices. 20 June 2002.

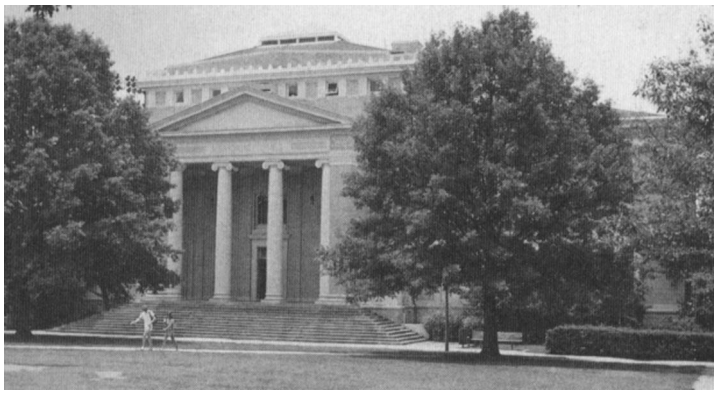

Figure 16
Memorial Hall
Image from page 41, A Walking Tour of the University of Georgia
F.N. Boney

Begun in 1910 as a YMCA[40] and completed in 1925 to honor the University of Georgia men who had died in World War I,[41] Memorial Hall was used as the student union with areas for student activities such as meetings, events and games[42] and helped to provide a wall to the new open quadrangle formed by Lucas House, Milledge and Memorial Halls. In the 1930s, Memorial Hall housed international students in "small rooms tucked under the sloping roof";[43] with an interior best suited for other uses, the practice of housing students in Memorial Hall was soon discontinued. The building now houses the faculty cafeteria as well as the Dean of Students, Minority Student Services, Greek Life Office, Judicial Services, the student radio station, as well as the International Life Office.

[40] Gilstrap no Page numbers
[41] Ibid Boney, Walking Tour 41
[42] Gilstrap no page numbers
[43] Boney, Walking Tour 41

Figure 17
Joe Brown Hall

Joe Brown Hall was built in 1932 as a Colonial Revival style dormitory for male students[44] on what was the western edge of campus. Students were housed in traditional double-occupancy rooms on hallways that shared communal showers. The U-shaped building was divided into sections each with its own entrance and stairway. During World War II, it was used to house students in the Navy's pre-flight training program.[45] Because of its small room size, Joe Brown Hall was turned into offices after the war; currently it is used by the Germanic and Slavic Languages Department, the Comparative Literature Department, and as language labs.

During the 1930s, the University of Georgia began the practice of housing freshmen and sophomore women on the Coordinate Campus. This campus came about because undergraduate female students had to live on campus as a requirement for admission; since there was not enough room on the main campus for them, the Coordinate campus became the solution to this problem. Two locations in Athens served as the University of Georgia's Coordinate Campus from the 1930 until the 1950s, the former Lucy Cobb Institute on Milledge Avenue and the State Normal School on Prince Avenue.

[44] Ibid Boney, Walking Tour 39
[45] Dyer 242

Figure 18
Lucy Cobb Institute

In 1933, the University took over the facilities of the Lucy Cobb Institute;[46] a high school for young girls on Milledge Avenue built in 1858,[47] and used the main building as a dormitory for one hundred female students as a part of the Coordinate Campus. Over time, the Italianate style building deteriorated and was finally discontinued as a residence hall in the 1950s. In 1984, a major renovation of the building took place.[48] After renovation, the Carl Vinson Institute of Government moved into the building and uses it to assist governments all over the world.

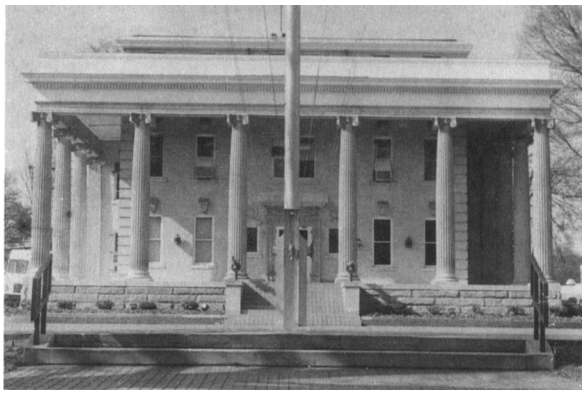

Figure 19
Winnie Davis Hall
Image from page 91, A Walking Tour of the University of Georgia F.N. Boney

The same year that the University of Georgia took over the Lucy Cobb Institute, it also took over the State Normal School on Prince Avenue. The Neoclassical main administration building, Winnie Davis Hall built in 1902, was incorporated into the Coordinate Campus and used to house fifty freshmen and

[46] Boney, Walking Tour 88
[47] Boney, Walking Tour 88
[48] Ibid Boney, Walking Tour 88

sophomore women from 1933 to the 1950s.[49] Upon the occupation of Myers Hall in 1952, the concept of the Coordinate Campus and the practice of housing freshmen and sophomore women off campus were abandoned by the University of Georgia.[50] In the mid-1950s this campus was sold to the Navy Supply Corps and is currently used as a training school.

The New Deal brought many needed improvements to the University of Georgia Campus including new housing facilities for female students on the main campus. Between 1935 and 1940, seventeen new buildings were constructed with money from the New Deal;[51] among these were Mary Lyndon Hall, Clarke Howell Hall, Rutherford Hall and the Home Management Houses.[52]

Figure 20
Mary Lyndon Hall

The second residence hall for females on the University of Georgia Campus was built in 1936; Mary Lyndon Hall was named after the first Dean of Women at the university and could hold one hundred and seven female students.[53] This Neoclassical building was laid out in a traditional residence hall design of double loaded corridors containing double occupancy rooms sharing a

[49] Boney, Walking Tour 91
[50] Dyer 295-296
[51] Reap 98
[52] Dyer 219
[53] Boney, Walking Tour 53

communal bathroom. It contained two formal parlors where the occupants received callers and socialized with each other. During World War II, it was used to house male trainees at the Navy's pre-flight training school.[54] After the war it continued to house only female residents. In 1973, Mary Lyndon underwent minor remodeling to install HVAC and upgrade the electrical and plumbing systems.[55] The fall of 2000 brought more changes, when the French and Spanish Language Communities opened on the first floor to both female and male students. Currently Mary Lyndon has the capacity to hold one hundred and twenty residents. Mary Lyndon will be explored in further detail at the end of this thesis as a case study for modernizing the living space while maintaining the character of the building.

Figure 21
Clarke Howell Hall

Clarke Howell Hall was built as a dormitory for male students in 1937 as another part of the New Deal project on the University of Georgia Campus.[56] The center section contains the main entrance (added in 1975), with several other entrances along the façade of the building connecting with the different wings. Clarke Howell Hall was laid out in a traditional residence hall style of double loaded corridors with double occupancy rooms sharing a communal

[54] Dyer 242
[55] Ayoob
[56] Boney, Walking Tour 45

bathroom. In 1975, the Colonial Revival building was converted into use as offices for various student support areas. Now it is used to house the Counseling and Testing Center, Disability Services Office, the Career Center and the Office of Student Employment.

Figure 22
Rutherford Hall during construction 1939
Image from page 181, A Pictorial History of The University of Georgia, Second Edition F.N. Boney

In 1939, Rutherford Hall opened, providing housing for one hundred twenty-eight more female students at the University of Georgia. It was named in honor of noted author and educator, Mildred Rutherford.[57] The Neoclassical building provided its residents with a formal parlor for the receiving of guests as well as a large porch on the front and rear of the building. Rutherford Hall was laid out with double occupancy rooms arranged along both sides of the corridor. These rooms shared two communal bathrooms located on each floor. During World War II, the Navy used Rutherford Hall as housing for its pre-flight training school.[58] Following the war, Rutherford Hall continued to house females at the University of Georgia. In 1996, as a part of the Olympic Games Held in Atlanta,

[57] Ibid Boney, Walking Tour 53
[58] Dyer 242

Rutherford Hall housed the United States Women's Soccer team. The fall of 2001 saw a big change for Rutherford Hall when one hundred and fifty-nine residents, male and female, moved into the Franklin Residential College, the University of Georgia's first residential college of the twenty-first century. The Franklin Residential College allows students of the Franklin College of Arts and Sciences to live together in a special community where the goal is to integrate the academic experience into the living environment by providing opportunities for cultural and academic enrichment within the students' place of residence. In the summer of 2002, an elevator was installed to the west end of Rutherford Hall making the building handicapped accessible on all floors. Later in this thesis, Rutherford Hall will be looked closer as a proposed case study of how to renovate the building and maintain the historic character.

Figure 23
Home Management Houses under construction in 1939
Image from page 181, A Pictorial History of The University of Georgia, Second Edition F.N. Boney

The Home Management Houses were also built in 1939 with PWA funds.[59] Residency in one of these houses was a requirement for graduation in the Home Ecconomics Department for female students.[60] The houses are now used for administrative offices for the College of Family and Consumer sciences.

After World War II the University, like many others around the country, was faced with a shortage of housing. This shortage was due to the large number of students that enrolled or re-enrolled in colleges all over America with the help of the GI Bill. In the late fall of 1945, the University of Georgia was able to use barracks constructed by the Navy as a part of the pre-flight training program on campus during the war, as temporary housing for single male students.[61] However, married students with families were still a housing challenge. In the spring of 1946, one hundred trailers were delivered to the University of Georgia through the cooperation between the Federal Public Housing Administration and University of Georgia's administration.[62] Ag Hill on South Campus, where the trailers were located, became known as Trailertown.[63] By March of the same year, seventy-six prefabricated bungalows were also secured through FPHA.[64] Eventually more than two hundred prefabricated bungalows were brought to the university through FPHA[65] to shelter veterans and their families as they earned their degrees.

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[59] Boney, Walking Tour 74
[60] Ibid Boney, Walking Tour 74
[61] Dyer 295
[62] Ibid Dyer 295
[63] Ibid Dyer 295
[64] Ibid Dyer 295
[65] Ibid Dyer 295

While Myers and Reed Halls were built on the University of Georgia campus to provide student housing to the growing student body, and opened simultaneously, completion dates for these buildings vary from source to source. In Boney's Walking Tour, the date for completion is given as 1954.[66] According to Dyer's Bicentennial History the buildings were almost ready for occupation by the fall of 1952.[67] Together Myers and Reed Hall had room for nine hundred and sixty-four students the year that they opened.[68] Myers Hall, an all-female dormitory was named for Jennie Belle Myers, a beloved housemother at the University of Georgia,[69] while Reed Hall was named after "Uncle Tom" Reed,[70] the beloved registrar who died a few years before the building opened its doors to male students. These two buildings were designed in the Colonial Revival style and were similar in many ways. Both Reed and Myers Halls were laid out in the traditional residence hall fashion of double loaded corridors of double occupancy rooms sharing communal bathrooms. Their central block housed the lobby space with two sets of main doors.

[66] Boney, Walking Tour 45
[67] Dyer 295-296
[68] Ibid Dyer 295
[69] Boney, Walking Tour 45
[70] Davis 13

Figure 24
Reed Hall

Reed Hall was renovated and re-opened in the fall of 1998[71] with occupancy for two hundred ninety-six residents. The building went from double loaded-corridors with communal bathrooms and showers to a building of suites where no more than three residents share the same bathroom. In addition to the new living arrangements, kitchens and study rooms are dispersed throughout the building on various floors.[72] This is discussed further in the chapter of case studies.

Figure 25
Myers Hall

Myers Hall is currently undergoing a major renovation of the same nature that Reed underwent four years earlier. A major part of the Myers Hall renovation has been the input from students and staff regarding the design. After seeing an early schematic design that created a building of suites much like in Reed Hall,

[71] Karr 35
[72] Ibid Karr 35

Myers residents were concerned that the proposed design would diminish the quality of community. The residents took their concerns and desire to have some double loaded rooms with communal baths to the designers and currently the design calls for a mix of suites and traditional room arrangements. If everything goes according to schedule, Myers Hall will open the fall of 2003 with beds for four hundred and four students.

Figure 26
Morris Hall

In the late 1950s, the University of Georgia began to provide housing for its older students for the first time. Morris Hall, the first of these facilities, was built in 1957 to house law and other graduate students[73] in traditional double loaded corridors sharing communal bathrooms. Morris Hall is the first University of Georgia residence hall built in the Minimalist style of the period rather than in a Revival style. The close proximity to the Law School, the School of Environmental Design and the buildings of North Campus made it an ideal location. Today Morris houses one hundred and forty-six transfer students in their first year at the University of Georgia and single graduate students are housed in the University Village and Rodgers Road Apartments.

[73] Davis 13

The 1960s were a period of exponential growth for the University of Georgia and universities all over the country in terms of student enrollment and housing needs as a result of the arrival of the baby boomer generation. Much of the architecture of this period on campuses all over the country was characterized by the need to get the highest occupancy for the least amount of money. During this time, many of the traditional sizes and images for residence halls were ignored because they were not seen as cost efficient; universities were more focused on providing physical housing for students than providing guidance. Over a period of six years, the University of Georgia built ten residence halls. University Village, one of the university's graduate, married and family housing complexes, was also begun during this time, and a private dormitory, Oglethorpe House, was built with a pool at the edge of campus.

Figure 27
Lipscomb Hall

The first of the baby boomer buildings on campus was actually six different buildings all built in the same year, housing nine hundred fifty students together. In 1961, Boggs, Church, Hill, Lipscomb, and Mell Halls[74] were built in a large U-shape around the corner of Baxter and Lumpkin Streets. These buildings, known

[74] Boney, Walking Tour 44-45

collectively as the Lower Five, along with Tucker Hall (also built in 1961[75] and located off of East Campus Road) were named for former presidents or chancellors of the University of Georgia.[76] These buildings have three to four floors each and are laid out in traditional residence hall style, double loaded corridor with double rooms sharing communal bathrooms on each floor. Their façade is modernist in appearance with green architectural panels and aluminum vertical bands. While the Lower Five are still being used to house approximately one hundred and sixty students each, Tucker Hall was later converted into offices and classroom space for the School of Social Work.

Figure 28
Oglethorpe House

In addition to the student housing that the University of Georgia provided, a private housing group built Oglethorpe House, also known as O-House, in 1965; the university bought O-house in 1979 for use as a residence hall. O-House, a brick block of a building, sits upon a hill over looking the Lower-Five. Together these six buildings comprise the Hill Community today. Unlike the Lower Five, O-House is nine stories and contains suites, double-occupancy rooms that share a bathroom with only one other room. This layout continues to make O-House popular with its four hundred and ninety-six residents.

[75] Ibid Boney, Walking Tour 69
[76] Ibid Boney, Walking Tour 44-45, 69

Figure 29
Creswell Hall

In 1963, the University of Georgia built its first high-rise residence hall with nine stories. Creswell Hall is named after the first woman, Mary Creswell, to receive the A.B. from University of Georgia in the early part of the twentieth century.[77] Still designed in the traditional residence hall plan of double loaded corridor with double occupancy rooms sharing a bathroom, it differs by its height and exterior modernist façade. The green architectural panels similar to those used on the Lower-Five make Creswell Hall easy to spot by its nine hundred and sixty-five residents from most of campus.

Figure 30
University Village

[77] Ibid Boney, Walking Tour 44

University Village was created in 1964[78] as the University of Georgia's response to the ever-growing population of professional and graduate students. The first phase was built in 1964 with subsequent phases following in 1966 and Rodgers Road Apartments in 1972.[79] Each of the buildings is two to three stories tall and contains one or two bedroom apartments. The complex is currently home to graduate students, and graduate and undergraduate families as well as many international students, housing close to 1300 people.

Figure 31
Brumby Hall

The University of Georgia built its second and third high-rise towers in 1966[80] and 1967[81] with Brumby and Russell Halls respectively. Brumby Hall, an all women's hall is aptly named for the second Dean of Women, Anne Brumby, who attempted to find adequate housing for female students in the 1920s.[82] Brumby Hall is nine stories tall and currently houses nine hundred and fifty-one females in double occupancy rooms, arranged off four double loaded corridors in a cross plan. Each wing of each floor has a communal bath shared by all residents.

[78] Ibid Boney, Walking Tour 82
[79] Ibid Boney, Walking Tour 82
[80] Ibid Boney, Walking Tour 44
[81] Ibid Boney, Walking Tour 44
[82] Ibid Boney, Walking Tour 44

Figure 32

Russell Hall

Russell Hall, built to house both male and female students, is named after former University of Georgia alumni, Senator Richard B. Russell.[83] Russell Hall is the tallest residence hall at ten stories; it currently houses five hundred and three males and four hundred and seventy female students. Russell Hall is a T-shaped building with double loaded corridors of double occupancy rooms sharing communal bathrooms on each wing.

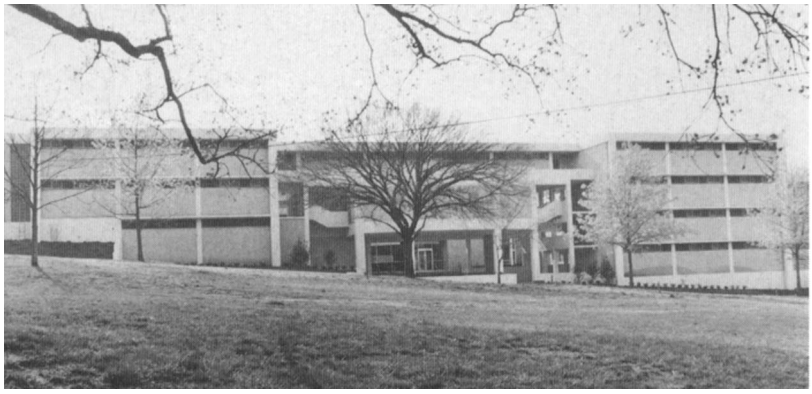

Figure 33
McWhorter Hall
Image from page 72, A Walking Tour of the University of Georgia F.N. Boney

The University of Georgia's newest residence hall, McWhorter Hall was built in two phases, 1967 and in 1987.[84] Known as "The Mac" by many of its two hundred and eighteen residents, it is surrounded by athletic facilities making it convenient for its athletic residents. Resident rooms are primarily double

[83] Ibid Boney, Walking Tour 44
[84] Ibid Boney, Walking Tour 72

occupancy, with room access from exterior hallways. The bathrooms are sandwiched in an area between rooms. McWhorter Hall has special amenities that other student housing facilities on campus do not have such as a cafeteria, and tutorial rooms.

A new housing complex has been designed and is planned to open for the fall of 2004. East Campus Village, as the complex is currently being called, will house twelve hundred students in an apartment-like arrangement. Two and four bedrooms will share one or two bathrooms as well as a dining area, living room and an economy kitchen. Students will have their own room, and each of the four buildings will provide several meeting rooms along with study rooms and computer facilities.

With the aging housing stock on the University of Georgia campus there is great potential for rehabilitation, renovation and restoration. Major trends in the field of housing are heading away from high-rises to buildings with populations of less than five hundred. Using this as a determining mark, only Brumby, Creswell and Russell Halls currently hold more than five hundred students, meaning that the University of Georgia's current housing stock is once again following current trends in student housing. The future looks bright for the University of Georgia's older and smaller buildings.

CHAPTER 4

CASE STUDIES OF HISTORIC RESIDENCE HALL REMODELINGS

Finding case studies for this thesis was difficult. Very little has been written about conserving, restoring, or remodeling residence halls in the United States. The Avery Index of Architectural Periodicals, a service that searches and indexes architectural articles, was consulted as well as library catalogs for books related to residence halls. Few books have been written about student housing since the late 1970s; most if not all of these books were written about new construction. Journals of higher education, student affairs and campus planning were all consulted to little avail. Two of the four case studies were a product of these searches; Baker House at Massachusetts Institute of Technology and Blair/Buyer Hall at Princeton. The remaining buildings, Reed and Soule Hall, are on the University of Georgia campus and research into the history of housing at the university as well as conversations with housing staff revealed the information that is presented here.

Little has been written about the renovation of residence halls, quite possibly because they are in a constant state of change. Often the purpose of renovations is to bring buildings up to the current fire code or to make the building more accessible for handicapped residents or visitors. Many residence

halls are in use most of the year; open for students from August to May and for conferences or camps in June and July. Phasing of projects is common for residence halls because unless they are closed for an academic year, summer is the only time to work on the buildings. Even closing buildings for summer is difficult because conferences and camps are ways that housing departments make quite a bit of the money they use on renovations. It is not uncommon for phasing to be done on a scale as small as floors. When projects are carried out this way, the renovations often take years. Writing a journal article about this may seem unnecessary to most student affairs professionals since most schools alter their buildings this way.

The many articles in higher education and student affairs related to residence halls discuss everything from staffing the building to the durability of the furniture. Currently there are many articles related to the type of technology available to universities and campuses for security and Internet access. While articles discuss the different types, and compare the benefits and drawbacks of the varying systems, nothing involving the installation of these systems or the way installation affects the building's appearance usually finds its way into the article. There are a multitude of articles available concerning how to get residence hall students involved in activities, prevent underage drinking, how to work with student leadership groups within residences halls and the benefits of living on campus to the students' grade point average.

Little has been written about how the building itself helps or hinders the development of students academically and socially.

Student housing is an area in architectural literature that has been neglected in the past few decades, in part because the private market is competing with universities and schools for students. Many of today's students are choosing to move off campus after their first year (some are choosing never to live on campus) into apartments where they have more privacy and the perception of more freedom. Apartment and condominium complexes in and around colleges and universities have grown exponentially in the past two decades. While architects are not writing about these in journals either, it is quite possible that those who would submit articles to the journals are simply not working on the renovation projects or believe that there is not a need for the information to be published.

As the majority of the housing stock of American colleges and universities reaches the fifty-year mark that makes them eligible for historic status, the need for articles about the sensitive renovation of these buildings grows. There is a need for professionals from several fields to study current and past residence halls and to write journal articles and books about how their field can better the lives of students in residence halls through design; this is needed not only from the fields of architecture and student affairs, but from the fields of planning, sociology and education as well as those in the discipline of historic preservation.

The case studies in this section look at the renovation of residence halls originally built between 1896 and 1953; they vary in styles from Gothic Revival, and Modernist to Colonial Revival all executed in either brick or stone. Each case study will look at five issues:

- Image/tradition of image
- Occupancy, Privacy and Room Size
- Code Changes including those related ADA, Fire and Building Codes
- System Changes
- The degree to which the changes are/are not congruous with the Secretary of the Interior's Standards for Preservation, Rehabilitation and Restoration.

Most, if not all, of these issues are currently important to the housing departments, students, and parents in varying degrees and should be considered when undertaking the renovation of any residence hall whether it is currently considered historic or not.

Baker House—Massachusetts Institute of Technology

A restoration and rehabilitation

Image from http://www.perrydean.com/files/bakerhouse.htm Accessed June 24, 2002 at 9:00am

Figure 34
Baker House River Elevation

Alvar Aalto's Baker House at the Massachusetts Institute of Technology was opened in 1946[1] and has survived Aalto's own true test of a building and passed it by twenty years when it was restored. Aalto once said, "It is not what a building looks like on opening day—but what it is like thirty years later."[2] What Aalto's building looked like before and after its 2000 restoration is very similar to what it looked like upon opening in 1946. Very few things changed cosmetically. The intent of the renovation was to undo any insensitive additions since the 1940s, give additional consideration to adding elements cut from the project during construction, bring railings and other safety features up to code, upgrade the building's systems, and design sensitive lighting for Baker House inhabitants.

From the outset, the importance of this project was apparent to all those involved, from the architectural team of Perry Dean Rodgers and Partners to the university representatives. Not only has Baker House been home to MIT

[1] Fixler, David N. "The Renovation of Baker House at MIT: Modernism, Materiality, and the Factor of Intent in Preservation". APT Bulletin. V 32, #2-3, 2001. Page 3

[2] Ibid Fixler 10

students for over fifty years, meaning that there are many alumni and current student alike for whom Baker House has special significance; it is also Aalto's second building in America, after the interior of the Finnish Pavilion at the 1939 New York World's Fair.[3] This is a building studied by nearly every architecture student in America as an example of Aalto's few American works, different in some ways but surprisingly similar in others to his Finnish works.

It was agreed by all parties from the beginning that changes to the building were going to have to be made to adequately update the building's systems. However, those changes, along with Aalto's original intent for the building and the building itself were extensively studied to minimize the impact to the overall design of Baker House.[4] Research was done on Baker House and included looking at Aalto's design drawings, the working drawings, models built, and collaborating with Olav Hammarstrom and Veli Paatela, Finnish architects that managed the original project on site for Aalto.[5] It was through these means that all proposed changes were researched and ultimate decisions were determined.

Additional consideration was given to implementing several aspects of Aalto's design that were cut during the original construction process, either because of funding issues or lack of the technology needed to implement them. According to research, Aalto had originally intended for a trellis to cover the brick façade on the river side of the building and link up with a network of trellis that would cover

[3] Ibid Fixler 3
[4] Ibid Fixler 4
[5] Ibid Fixler 4

part of the dining area and culminate on the roof.[6] This design element was cut in the original construction because of cost.

Various studies for a roof terrace have been found in Aalto's files, although a roof terrace never made it to the 1947 model.[7] As a part of the 2000 project, the trellis was still found to be cost prohibitive. However, a pergola linking the elevator lobby to the penthouses for the main stair was built, thus allowing physical occupation of the roof.[8] This addition made the project a rehabilitation rather than a restoration. Aalto precedents inspired the design of the roof pergola, although it can be clearly identified as a contemporary addition/intervention to the building. This addition of the roof space goes against the Secretary of the Interior's standards for restoration. The standards state that any unexecuted designs should not be constructed as a part of the restoration. The addition of the roof area changed this project from a restoration to a renovation according to the Secretary of the Interior's standards.

[6] Fixler 5
[7] Ibid Fixler 5
[8] Ibid Fixler 6

Image from http://www.perrydean.com/files/bakerhouse.htm Accessed June 24, 2002 at9:00am

Figure 35
New roof terrace on Baker House

Another Aalto feature considered was the introduction of unglazed terracotta cladding on the north stair wall of Baker House. The construction documents called for such a cladding, however on-site decisions were made to change this to a three-coat stucco system instead. The 1940s decision to use stucco was based on the fact that the contractor could not guarantee the completion date of Baker Houses if the tile cladding was included.[9] In addition, there were concerns about the technical design of the system to the point that the contractors would not guarantee the integrity of the system.[10] Much discussion and consideration was given to replacing the current stucco with the intended tile cladding. A strict restoration ideology would insist on the stucco, however it was always Aalto's intent that the tile be used, thus presenting a challenge to those on the project. Ultimately the stucco and the preservation policy won out in this issue, for several reasons including cost and its value to the collective memory of those associated with the building.[11]

[9] Ibid Fixler 6
[10] Ibid Fixler 6
[11] Ibid Fixler 7

Image from http://www.perrydean.com/files/bakerhouse-p.htm accessed June 24, 2002, 9:30am

Figure 36
Restored student lounges at Baker House

As part of the restoration, bedroom additions made in 1962 in the central lounges were removed, and the lounge spaces were restored on the upper levels of the building.[12] In addition, wooden windows matching the original profiles at Baker House were installed in place of 1976 aluminum replacement windows.[13] In this way, the exterior and interior spatial configurations were taken back to its opening day appearance. Both of these removals of later periods follow the Secretary of the Interior's standards for restoration, by returning theses elements back to their appearance in 1946. Interestingly enough, most of the original room configurations remained intact. Room sizes and occupancy remained the same. The idea of housing students three or four to a room is important to broad socialization, a part of the building's original concept.[14] These triples and quads were kept along with the double and single rooms, even though it is considered outdated in the student affairs profession to house students in such close quarters.

[12] Ibid Fixler 5
[13] Ibid Fixler 5
[14] Speck, Lawrence W. "Back to School". Architecture. Jan. 2000. Page 40

A major issue became apparent with the light well balustrade; the height was not up to code and had to be extended.[15] Various designs were considered by the project team to correct this problem by looking at the design drawings for Baker House as well as other Aalto-designed balustrades. Ultimately the balustrade was brought up to code by reassembling the existing rail-and wood cap system onto a taller wall with shorter struts.[16] This was considered the best alternative because it was decided that Aalto's final design intent was to have a solid wall and higher balustrade.[17] Code changes in access also created a need to insert an entrance ramp. Luckily, a pre-cast planter added in the 1980s offered an accessible location and the modification is as un-intrusive as possible.[18] According to the Secretary of the Interior's standards for restoration, altering elements to comply with current safety codes is acceptable as long as care is taken not to destroy, damage or obscure the original, historic material.

When Baker House was opened in 1949, it was without air conditioning or sprinklers and had minimum wiring for telephones, as did most other buildings of the period. All of this had to be changed when the building was updated in the rehabilitation. There were several problems with the installation and upgrading of these systems, the biggest challenges coming from the building structure itself. Baker House's structure is reinforced concrete with a masonry interior and a

[15] Ibid Fixler 8
[16] Ibid Fixler 8
[17] Ibid Fixler 8
[18] Speck 42

floor-to floor height of only nine feet,[19] not an easy structure in which to install systems that usually require intrusive wiring, ducts and piping. Design solutions came from various forms of inspiration. In lounge spaces, systems were integrated into the ceiling and covered with open wood-slat acoustical tile, which research had found were a part of the original drawings.[20] On the residential floors, a decision was made that the corridors should remain as close to their original appearance and spatial configuration as possible. Achieving this mandated that all the piping and wiring be run through the resident rooms parallel to the corridors at or near doors.[21] Aesthetically, this was camouflaged by placing the new systems adjacent to existing beams and boxing out the structural and technological systems with natural-finish millwork.[22]

It was evident from early on in the renovation project that the lighting of Baker House was something that needed correction, with major efforts directed towards adding more light and replacing current inappropriate fixtures.[23] Aalto's first wife was also his professional collaborator on lighting within buildings. However, Aino Aalto was ill for most of the final design process of Baker House and her illness and subsequent death took Alvar Aalto away for the majority of the last year of construction.[24] According to Fixler, "there is…considerable evidence that …[with one exception]… the Aaltos had little if any part in the design of the building

[19] Fixler 9
[20] Ibid Fixler 9
[21] Ibid Fixler 9
[22] Ibid Fixler 9
[23] Ibid Fixler 10
[24] Ibid Fixler 9

lighting".[25] To correct the problem with the lighting and to integrate it a much as possible with the rest of Baker House, designers worked with custom-design departments of three different companies to come up with various fixtures based upon the Aaltos' lighting fixture designs of the period between 1930 and early 1950s.[26]

Although the articles do not clearly state that the Secretary of the Interior's Standards were used on this project, the attention paid to the project and the inclusion of architectural consultants, Building Conservation Associates, along with a project historic preservationist from the architectural firm indicate that adherence to standard historic preservation policies were a priority. The Baker House project at MIT is atypical for many residence hall alterations, instead of changing the building further as in rehabilitation; this project was primarily a restoration. The Secretary of the Interior defines restoration as retuning a resource to its appearance at a particular point in time based on research and documented evidence. The replacement of the metal windows with wooden windows and exterior stucco finish, as well as the removal of 1962 bedroom additions are excellent examples of the restoration aspects of the project. However, the addition of the useable roof pergola while allowable in a rehabilitation would not be allowed under a strict restoration.

[25] Ibid Fixler 9
[26] Ibid Fixler 10

The research into the design intent Aalto envisioned for Baker House with regards to the roof terrace addition and light fixtures, as well as the alterations made because of system installation and code changes were done with great sensitivity in accordance whit the Secretary of the Interior's standards for new construction within a historic resource. The standards call for new construction to be compatible with the resource while also being easily to distinguish from the original without being distracting. While the attention to detail that was paid to Baker House during its restoration/renovation is extreme for most residence halls on American campuses, it clearly demonstrates that with ingenuity and an open mind student housing can be updated without destroying the unique character of the building itself.

Blair Hall—Princeton University

A rehabilitation

Figure 37
Blair Hall
Image from http://www.architectureweek.com/2001/1128/building_1-1.html. Accessed June 21, 2001 10:15pm

Designed by Cope and Stewardson for Princeton University, Blair Hall was built in 1896 with a gift provided by John Insley Blair, one of the university's trustees from 1866 until 1899 and an organizer/owner of the Union Pacific Railroad. Considered to be one of the first architects to use the Gothic Revival style for collegiate buildings, Cope and Stewardson did their best work in Blair Hall. The dormitory when first built marked the western boundary of the Princeton campus.

Built from stone in the Gothic style, a large gateway tower is the focal point of Blair Hall. When built, this tower served as the entrance to campus for visitors arriving by train as the tracks of the Pennsylvania Railroad lead to the foot of the steps for the tower, creating an impression on visitors and issues for students with regards to the noise and soot.

In the early part of the twentieth century, the station and railroad tracks were moved, making way for other dormitories in the area.[1]

In the fall of 2000, Blair Hall was reopened as a residence hall after a thorough renovation. Both the school and the project architects, Einhorn Yaffee Prescott, set their goal for the project early, knowing that they wanted to reconfigure the interior spaces of the building without compromising the architectural integrity of the exterior or the interior by enlarging rooms and reclaiming unused space. This principal guided every decision made during the design process.

The traditional image of Blair Hall and Princeton is the rusticated masonry walls, and chimneys, as well as the wooden doors and copper fixtures. An inventory of the condition of the building and its materials was one of the most important of the studies that had to be done before the project could get under way. After careful inspection, it was discovered that the chimneys, masonry walls, and roof needed to be repaired or reconstructed because of the possibility of future problems with mortar deterioration, leaking roofs, and crumbling chimneys.[2] The oak doors to the building were also found to be in need of some attention. Many of them could be refinished; while a few others were so badly damaged by weather and wear that they needed to be replicated. On the exterior, the copper

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[1] Leitch, Alexander. "Blair Hall." A Princeton Companion. Princeton: Princeton University Press. 1978. Accessed from http://mondrian.princeton.edu/CampusWWW/Companion/blair_hall.html 21 June 2002, 9pm.

[2] Thaler, Mark. "Renewing American Gothic." http://www.architectureweek.com/2001/1128/building_1-. Accessed June 21, 2001, 10:15pm.

lanterns were cleaned and restored to their original appearance. All of these are in accordance with the Secretary of the Interior's standards for rehabilitation that requires the repair and stabilization of character defining elements to prevent future deterioration as well as the replacement in kind of elements damaged beyond repair.

Image from http://www.architectureweek.com/2001/1128/building_1-1.html
Accessed June 21, 2001 10:15pm

Figure 38
Blair Hall room created from reclaimed space

Blair Hall has historically provided several options to students with regard to room layout, including an eight-person room, known as T7 Blair.[3] Following the renovation, students continued to have options in terms of room layout. Doubles, quads, and single rooms became the standards with some townhouse and apartment style room configurations also available. Many of these townhouse and apartment-style layouts were created from reclaimed space in both the attic and the basement previously used for storage or not at all. In addition to the varying room options, the ratio of student to bathroom space was lowered with the installation of bathrooms interspersed along the floors for greater convenience to residents.[4]

[3] Clabby, John E. and Shaun Dillon. "Size Matters." The Princeton Spectator. http://www.Princeton.edu/~spectatr/vol5/02-08-00/p2.html. accessed June 21, 2001, 9:45pm.
[4] "Facility Focus: Residence Halls." College Planning and Management. Oct. 2001, 36.

Image from http://www.architectureweek.com/2001/1128/building_1-1.html

Accessed June 21, 2001 10:15pm

Figure 39
Renovated Blair Hall student lounge

Along with bedroom and bathroom space, Blair Hall gained new social spaces as well. Lounges, seminar rooms and study rooms were placed around the building. One of the guiding ideas in education at Princeton is the belief that social interaction, in addition to academic interaction, is a major component in the development of the total student. Princeton believes that students are not well rounded unless there is a balance between their academic pursuits and their social endeavors; this is important to the total educational philosophy of Princeton and is evident in the importance placed on residence hall programs. These social spaces were crucial to the new plan of Blair Hall along with the room layout because of the previous building configurations. The Secretary of the Interior's standards allows for the alteration and creation of interior spaces to accommodate new and contemporary uses as long as the spatial configurations changed are not character defining.

Figure 40
Blair Hall basement before renovation

Images from: http://www.architectureweek.com/2001/1128/building_1-1.html

Figure 41
Blair Hall basement after renovation
The floor was lowered through excavation to make more useable space.

In addition to the goal of updating this one hundred and four year old building, there was need to make it compliant with ADA and current fire codes. Two elevators were added to the interior, creating a need to restructure the space immediately adjacent to the elevators. With these two elevators, the building is now sixty percent accessible.[5] A network cable tray was used to run data and electrical line throughout the building, where available lines were run inside existing partitions and walls when possible. An updated fire alarm and new sprinkler system were installed to bring the building up to fire codes.[6] All of the additions and alterations with regards to systems are considered acceptable with the Secretary of the Interior's standards since they do not negatively impact the character defining features of Blair Hall.

[5] "Facility Focus…"
[6] Thaler

Blair Hall is an example of how a residence hall can be altered to fit the current needs of its residents without having to completely gut the building or alter the façade. Although none of the articles found mentions the Secretary of Interior's Standards, the attention to detail was such that the renovation project meets the standards within the renovation standards. Princeton University was so concerned with maintaining as much of the building's history and materials as possible that two full size mock-ups were built to aid University officials and architects in their selection of materials. One of the mock-ups had restored flooring, restored plaster and lath walls, as well as restored windows. The other mock-up had new flooring, replacement windows, and a new veneered plaster wall. Decisions to restore and repair were based on these mock-ups. In the few cases where replicated historic features were selected, the deciding factor was the need to incorporate modern systems and amenities, the replicated material allowed this to happen much easier than the restored material.[7]

[7] Thaler

Soule Hall—The University of Georgia

A renovation

Figure 42
Soule Hall porch Sanford Drive side

Soule Hall was built in the second decade of the twentieth century as the first housing facility for females on the University of Georgia campus. It was designed to contain classrooms, recreation, and residential rooms in one building. The basement contained a swimming pool, the first and second floors held a gymnasium, infirmary, classroom, and laboratory spaces. The third floor housed the bedrooms of the University of Georgia's first undergraduate female students.

Over the years, Soule Hall has seen many changes. For example, the front of the building originally faced a large amphitheater, that is now the site of the science library, and students used this as a back entrance to Soule Hall. In 1972, Soule Hall was converted for use as office and classroom space. Ten years later, Soule Hall was converted again to house undergraduate female students at the University of Georgia. The housing department undertook a third major renovation of Soule Hall in 1990. [1]

[1] Davis 7

The traditional image of Soule Hall comes from the yellow brick façade as well as the large two-story porches on the front and back of the building. The façade of Soule Hall was not substantially altered during the renovation of Soule Hall: a new roof was installed; Heating/Ventilation/Air Conditioning (HVAC) vents were cut into the brick façade under windows; and the windows were replaced with double-hung six over six lights. The exterior alterations however were not all compliant with the Secretary of the Interior's standards for renovation.

The roof is a green architectural metal that appears similar to a copper standing seam roof and is compatible with the original appearance. HVAC vents were cut into the brick façade under most of the windows. This action would not be acceptable under the Secretary of the Interior's standards for preservation, rehabilitation, or renovation. The replacement of the windows would also be considered incongruent with the standards. Both the brick façade and the original windows are considered to be historic and distinctive materials that contribute to the definition of the building as a historic property and should not be altered or removed.

Interior spaces that characterize the property and create character defining spatial relationships should also not be removed or substantially altered during a renovation of a historic building. In Soule Hall, these character defining spaces were the second floor balcony space that corresponded with the second floor

stair landing, as well as the grand staircase itself, both of which were removed during the 1990 renovation.[2]

From the beginning of this renovation, the housing department allowed the renovation architects to make the major decisions relating to the Soule Hall. Renovation architects were charged with creating more privacy in both bedroom and bathroom spaces and were asked to make the building very quiet. The original layout of traditional double occupancy rooms along double loaded corridors sharing a communal bathroom was altered to create suite and super-suite style rooms for residents. Soule Hall super-suites contain three bedrooms, a bathroom, and a half bathroom, as well as a common living area. Suites in Soule Hall are two double occupancy rooms that share a bathroom located between the rooms. The provisions for added privacy reduced the occupancy of the building; the occupancy for the 2001-20002 academic year was only eighty-eight. To make the buildings quiet, homosote boards were installed as the finished sub-floor material, virtually soundproofing the building. These changes to the configuration of the interior space as well as the installation of the homosote boards are acceptable under the Secretary of the Interior's standards for rehabilitation, which allows for sensitive alteration of historic buildings for the accommodation of new uses and contemporary needs.

[2] Ayoob

Little thought was given to making Soule Hall more handicapped accessible. Although ADA had not yet been passed, the issue of making buildings more accessible for those with disabilities was widely acknowledged along with the fact that soon a law would mandate that public buildings be accessible. A handicapped lift was installed on each side of the lobby with the 1990 renovation; this lift was comprised of a flat surface attached to rails; a flashing light and audible alarm and were activated while the lift was in use. According to Dr. Day, this lift was constantly in need of repair, often needing attention several times a week. Eventually, ramps were built on either side of the lobby to replace the lift devices.[3] The installation of ADA compliant materials should be done sensitively during a renovation according to the Secretary of the Interior's standards. The installation of Soule Hall's lift was possibly the best way for the facility to become ADA compliant. However, the subsequent installation of the ramps is much more acceptable since they are designed to be as intrusive as possible. The Secretary of the Interior's standards allow for the installation of accessibility equipment when care is taken not to destroy or radically change character-defining elements.

Life safety within Soule Hall was addressed with the installation of a fire alarm and sprinkler system. The sprinkler heads hang from the ceiling without case enclosures. This initially caused some problems when residents hung clothing from the sprinkler head; when the hanger was removed, the sprinkler head was activated flooding the room and resident. This issue has been addressed with

[3] Day

stickers next to every sprinkler head. The addition of the fire alarm and sprinkler systems did not severely impact the historic fabric of Soule Hall. These systems are designed to promote life safety as well as prevent the destruction of the building in the case of a fire and therefore are encouraged within the Secretary of the Interior's standards. If there had been historic plasterwork, murals, or other types of character defining materials that would be harmed by the sprinkler system, other precautions such as alternatives to water sprinklers should have been considered to prevent the destruction of these materials in case of an accidental alarm. However, since Soule Hall had none of these, alternatives to water sprinklers need not have been considered.

Individual room HVAC systems were cut into the exterior walls to provide air conditioning and heating for each room. As mentioned earlier, this intrusive alteration of a historic material is not considered the best course of action when undertaking a sensitive renovation of a historic building. In the case of Soule Hall, other types of HVAC systems could have been considered that would not require the destruction of the historic brick façade while providing the level of environmental comfort and control for the residents as well as meeting the Secretary of Interior's standards.

According to John Ayoob, the housing department agreed with most decisions that the architect made with regards to the new design. Because preservation was not yet an important issue on the University of Georgia campus, many

details were taken out or altered beyond retrieval.[4] The $3 million renovation did accomplish its goals of providing residents with privacy and creating a quiet building, however it created as many problems as it solved. The biggest problems for Soule Hall were the incorrectly installed roof that causes water to run down the face of the building creating serious soffit and fascia rot[5] as well as the destruction of irreplaceable, character defining elements.

Soule Hall is an excellent example of what can happen if housing officials are not intimately involved with the renovation of a residence hall. Many of the alterations and additions to Soule Hall go against the Secretary of the Interior's standards and might not have happened if the building and its program had been studied intensively. The small occupancy of the buildings begs the question of whether or not the Soule Hall renovation was economical and practical; the building might have been better suited for office or classroom spaces rather than a small residence hall.

[4] Ayoob
[5] Ayoob

Reed Hall— University of Georgia

A Renovation

Figure 43
Reed Hall in 1967
Image from http://www.uga.edu/news/UGAToday/1999/990426/frontpage.html
Accessed June 23, 2002 11:30pm

A large stucco and brick Colonial Revival building, built in the early 1950s, Reed Hall was named for beloved registrar Tom Reed. Built simultaneously with Myers Hall on the other side of campus, both buildings contained marble wainscoting, marble partitions, a large lobby with several sets of french doors, plaster walls, metal double hung windows and terrazzo flooring in the public areas. Designed to house the University of Georgia's ever growing male population, it was later modified to house both male and female undergraduate students. Over the years, Reed Hall took much abuse from residents and visitors, and because of its north-facing front, it often felt dark and damp.[1] By the time that Reed Hall was renovated, the student rooms were in dismal condition. Long dark hallways led to small rooms with no air conditioning and gang bathrooms with open showers and small toilet stalls.

[1] Day, Jim, Director of University Housing. Personal Interview. Russell Hall Department of University Housing Offices. 19 June 2002.

Not only were residents housed on the first through fourth floors, student rooms could also be found in the basement, with a handful of students even placed in rooms in the sub-basement.[2]

Image from http://www.uga.edu/news/reedhall/renovations.html Accessed June 23, 2002, 11:55pm

Figure 44
Reed Hall room before renovation

Before the Reed Hall renovation project was started, Director Jim Day did thorough research in the Midwest, visiting schools with renovated buildings similar in age, size and style. Through his professional associations with the housing officers of the region, Dr. Day was able to examine the good and bad aspects of their renovations. After the project architects Surber, Barber, Choate, and Hertlein were selected, the project team of housing officials and the architects took another trip to visit schools around the southeast with buildings similar to Reed Hall. During this trip, the project team discussed the quality of work and materials that were expected at Reed Hall as well as various design solutions.

[2] Smith, Ralphel, Area Coordinator for the Myers Community. Personal Interview. Soule Hall Lobby. 3 June 2002.

Image from http://www.uga.edu/gm/1298/Feat2-Dea.html accessed June 23, 11:55pm

Figure 45
Reed Hall room after renovation

The main goals of the 1998 project were to lighten up the interior of Reed Hall including the lobby, hallways, and bedrooms, enlarge and improve both privacy in bedrooms and bathrooms for students, add a program area, and update the building's systems to current codes and standards.[3] The option of demolition was never a real consideration for several reasons: demolition would have cost about $3000 per bed more in buildings costs plus the cost of demolition;[4] a proposed demolition might force the housing department to give up control of the un-renovated Reed Hall for a new site; according to Dr. Day, it was important to keep the Reed Hall site as student housing.[5]

Image from http://www.uga.edu/news/reedhall/renovations.html Accessed June 23, 2002, 11:55pm

Figure 46
Dr. Day, Director of University Housing inside Reed Hall during renovations

After deciding to use the original shell of Reed Hall, the project team wanted to, according to John Ayoob, "preserve the look without preserving

[3] Day
[4] Ibid Thomas
[5] Day

{all of} the materials." This decision to attempt to maintain the image of Reed Hall made many designs decisions a bit easier. Instead of changing the windows to side-sliding, they were replaced with double hung windows [6] with twelve over eight snap-in muntin configuration, the inverse of the original true divide light metal windows. While these new windows made cleaning easier, it goes against the Secretary of the Interior's standards for rehabilitation. The standards would have the original windows cleaned, repaired, and reinstalled or replaced in kind with comparable metal windows because windows are considered a major character-defining feature.

The roof was altered slightly as a part of the renovations. Clerestory windows were added to bring more light into the fourth floor rooms and the hip dormers were changed to rounded dormers.[7] This addition of the clerestory windows, according to the Secretary of the Interior's standards could be considered acceptable because it is clearly discernable as a later addition for the accommodation for more natural light in the upper floors. The change from hip dormers to rounded dormers would not be in accordance with the Secretary of the Interior's standards because the dormers are a character-defining feature of Reed Hall.

[6] Ayoob
[7] Smith

Image from http://www.uga.edu/news/reedhall/ accessed June 23, 2002, 11:45pm

Figure 47
Reed Hall after renovation 1998

Before being closed for renovations in 1997,[8] Reed Hall held more than four hundred thirty students in traditional rooms located off double loaded corridors.[9] After the renovations, Reed Hall's occupancy diminished by more than one hundred students. It currently holds almost three hundred students[10] in suite and super-suite rooms giving students more privacy in their bedroom and bathroom arrangements. Suites in Reed Hall consist of double occupancy bedrooms with bathrooms. Super-suites are three bedrooms sharing two bathrooms and a common living room. In addition to larger bedrooms, residents also have access to larger common study lounges, kitchens on every wing, a large multi-purpose room, as well as lobby space designed to hold several small groups or a large one.[11]

Image from http://www.uga.edu/news/UGAToday/1999/990426/frontpage.html Accessed June 23, 2002 t 11:30pm

Figure 48
Reed Hall lobby space after renovation

Not only was more personal space added to Reed Hall, the building was made to comply with ADA as well as

[8] Henderson
[9] Smith
[10] Thomas
[11] Henderson

life-safety codes. Reed Hall became ADA compliant with the addition of elevators and ADA compliant rooms with roll-in showers.[12] A handicapped accessible entry door and ramp were added to the main entrance of Reed Hall as well. The fire alarm system was upgraded and a sprinkler system installed. In addition to the life-safety issues addressed, student rooms received Internet connections, new light fixtures to provide more light for residents, and an HVAC system was installed. Prior to the renovation, moving in and out of Reed Hall was difficult. With no air conditioning or elevators, parents and students alike were often disgruntled with the accommodations, as Reed Hall was one of a handful of residence hall buildings on the University of Georgia campus without air conditioning making a modern HVAC system necessary if the building was to compete with the others on campus. These changes and alterations to the interior are considered to be compliant with the Secretary of the Interior's standards because no character-defining features were destroyed or altered to make the changes and they were necessary to make Reed Hall viable as a contemporary residence hall

A great deal of time was spent in the Reed Hall renovation. The project team looked around for precedents and learned from the successes and mistakes of other schools as well as from the University of Georgia's own renovation of Soule Hall in 1990. Complete involvement by the University of Georgia Housing officials in the decisions of the project also aided in its success. Rather than simply accepting the decisions of the architects, housing officials asked for

[12] Ibid Thomas

comparison samples and mock-ups to be able to make an informed decision. Including students and staff in the conversations about finishes by building full-scale mock-ups in the sub-basement prior to renovation. These mock-ups contained various finishes and furniture selections; students and staff were invited to visit them and voice opinions. This has given them ownership of the project resulting in a lower incidence of destruction and vandalism in the completed Reed Hall.

The University of Georgia Housing Department learned a lot from the Soule Hall renovation of 1990 and was able to apply this knowledge to the renovation of Reed Hall. Housing officials in this renovation made more of the decisions. As a result a better renovation was achieved, however the renovation still falls short in terms of preservation issues. Important features were altered or removed. While care was taken to replace the windows with similar looking windows, the new windows are neither metal or true divide lights. The University of Georgia still is learning how to achieve the desired results while doing sensitive renovations.

CHAPTER 5

PROPOSED BUILDING CASE STUDIES

Two other historic University of Georgia residence halls are in need of rehabilitation. Mary Lyndon and Rutherford Halls are currently used to house both male and female students. Collectively they can currently accommodate two hundred and seventy-nine students. Both buildings were built as a part of the New Deal projects on the University of Georgia campus during the 1930s. They meet the criteria for designation as historic buildings; both Mary Lyndon and Rutherford Halls are remarkably intact architecturally. Rehabilitations to each will need to focus on different areas; handicapped accessibility for Mary Lyndon Hall and the installation of HVAC systems into Rutherford. Both buildings have interior areas and finishes worth preserving.

The following cases studies contain four major issues related to the rehabilitation of residence halls, each of these are considered within the context of altering a historic building. These issues are:

- Image/tradition of image
- Occupancy, Privacy and Room Size
- Code Changes including those related to the ADA, Fire and Building Codes

- System Changes

Recommendations are given for each issue as well as a short historic overview and introduction to previous alterations to the buildings. The recommendations are consistent with the Secretary of the Interior's standards for rehabilitation, a guideline for work on historic buildings, and take into account current trends in student housing. A copy of the Secretary of the Interior's Standards for preservation, rehabilitation, and restoration are included in appendices A, B, and C respectively at the end of this thesis.

Preservation is defined by the Secretary of the Interior as the process of sustaining the existing form, integrity and materials of a property. Rehabilitation is defined by the Secretary of the Interior as making a compatible use of the property possible through repair, alterations and additions while preserving the features and details that covey its character and as much of the original material as possible. The Secretary of the Interior defines restoration as returning a property to its appearance at a specific time. While preservation and restoration are not the best solutions for the continued use of Mary Lyndon and Rutherford Halls as homes for students, they are options. The best solution for Mary Lyndon and Rutherford Halls is rehabilitation because it allows for the modernization of resident rooms while maintaining the character of the buildings.

Mary Lyndon Hall—The University of Georgia

Mary Lyndon Hall is a stripped Neoclassical style building, constructed in 1936 as a part of the New Deal work done on the University of Georgia Campus. Mary Lyndon Hall was built in 1936 to house female undergraduate students; the fall of 2001 brought many changes to Mary Lyndon including the addition of men as residents with the opening of the French and Spanish Language Community on the first floor of Mary Lyndon.

Several small renovations have been done to Mary Lyndon over the years. In 1973, a HVAC system was installed and the plumbing system was upgraded. In the summer of 2000, a new floor was installed in the parlors and foyer and a kitchen was also installed in the basement conference room. For the most part, Mary Lyndon's interiors are surprisingly intact, and the exteriors have had only routine maintenance changes to them.

Figure 49
The foyer flooring and doors leading into the Mary Lyndon Hall parlor

The image of Mary Lyndon Hall is its simple two-story porch façade. The exterior of Mary Lyndon has changed little in its sixty-six year history: the wooden windows have been replaced and in the fall of 2001 a small knee wall was installed around the foundation of Mary Lyndon Hall along with a new

exterior drainage system to help prevent the flooding of the basement level during hard rains. The Secretary of the Interior's standard on rehabilitation allows the drainage wall because its installation helps prevent water damage to the foundation and interior walls. The replaced windows, if done as a part of a new project, would not be deemed appropriate because the windows are a character-defining feature. The current windows are not true six over six lights; the muntins are between the panes of glass. This type of window is not appropriate for appearance of Mary Lyndon Hall and in a rehabilitation should be replaced with windows appropriate to the time period; wooden, true divided light six over six windows.

On the interior, are the jewels of Mary Lyndon Hall, two formal Colonial Revival parlors separated by a formal Colonial revival foyer. These three spaces have been meticulously maintained by the University of Georgia's Housing Department and are used for a variety of purposes such as meetings, class discussions, presentations, and as study spaces by residents and departmental staff. During the summer of 2000, new floors were installed. The new foyer floor is faux marble and in the parlors, a scratch resistant wood hybrid that replaced carpet.

The walls of the parlors are Colonial Revival style wood paneling and molding, currently painted white. These walls with the fireplace, mantel, wood doors, and light fixtures in the parlors along are original to Mary Lyndon Hall and have been well maintained. These areas should remain in their current state; any additions

or alterations to the parlors or foyer should be seriously studied and a preservation architect. The Secretary of the Interior's standards would consider these spaces to be character defining for both their materials and spatial relationships and thus require that they be retained and preserved.

Figure 50
Mary Lyndon Hall parlors

Figure 51
Mary Lyndon Hall entry foyer

Figure 52
Parlor fireplace in Mary Lyndon Hall

Figure 53
Replaced windows from the interior

Currently, Mary Lyndon houses one hundred and twenty students, mostly in traditional double rooms sharing community bathrooms. However, there are a small number of double occupancy rooms that share a bathroom with only one other room. The trend in housing at the University of Georgia and nationally is to provide more privacy in both bedroom and bathroom areas to students. Mary Lyndon is an excellent candidate for this. The large size of resident rooms would make the conversion from two large rooms into two average rooms sharing a bathroom a fairly easy one. The community bathroom areas could be then converted into floor kitchens, study rooms, or meeting rooms. Drawings are provided that show the current floor plans for Mary Lyndon Hall and proposed floor plans with suite configurations as well as the proposed elevator area. The altered floor plan will accommodate approximately one hundred and six residents.

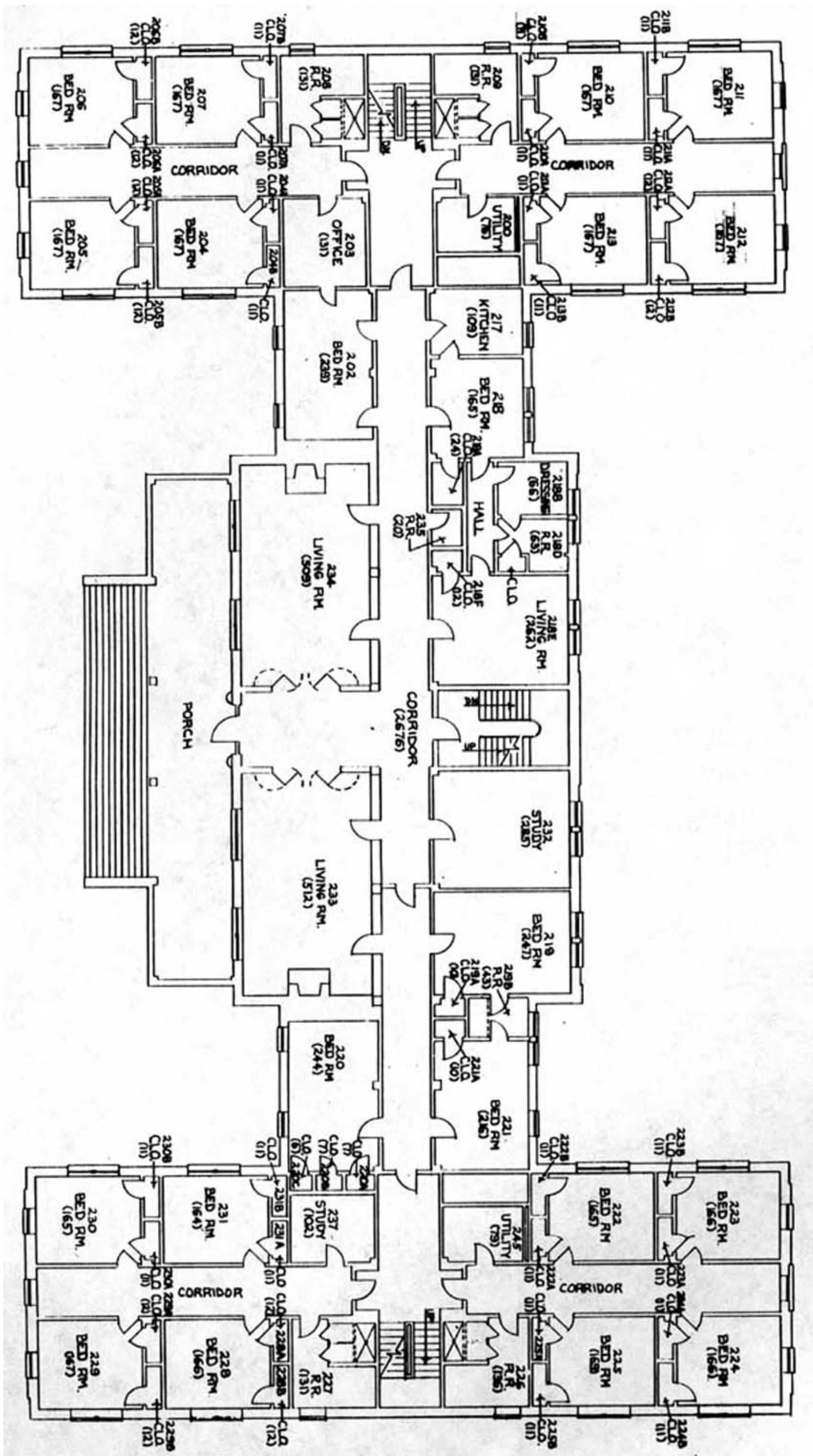

Figure 54
Floor Plan of Mary Lyndon Hall from the University of Georgia Physical Plant

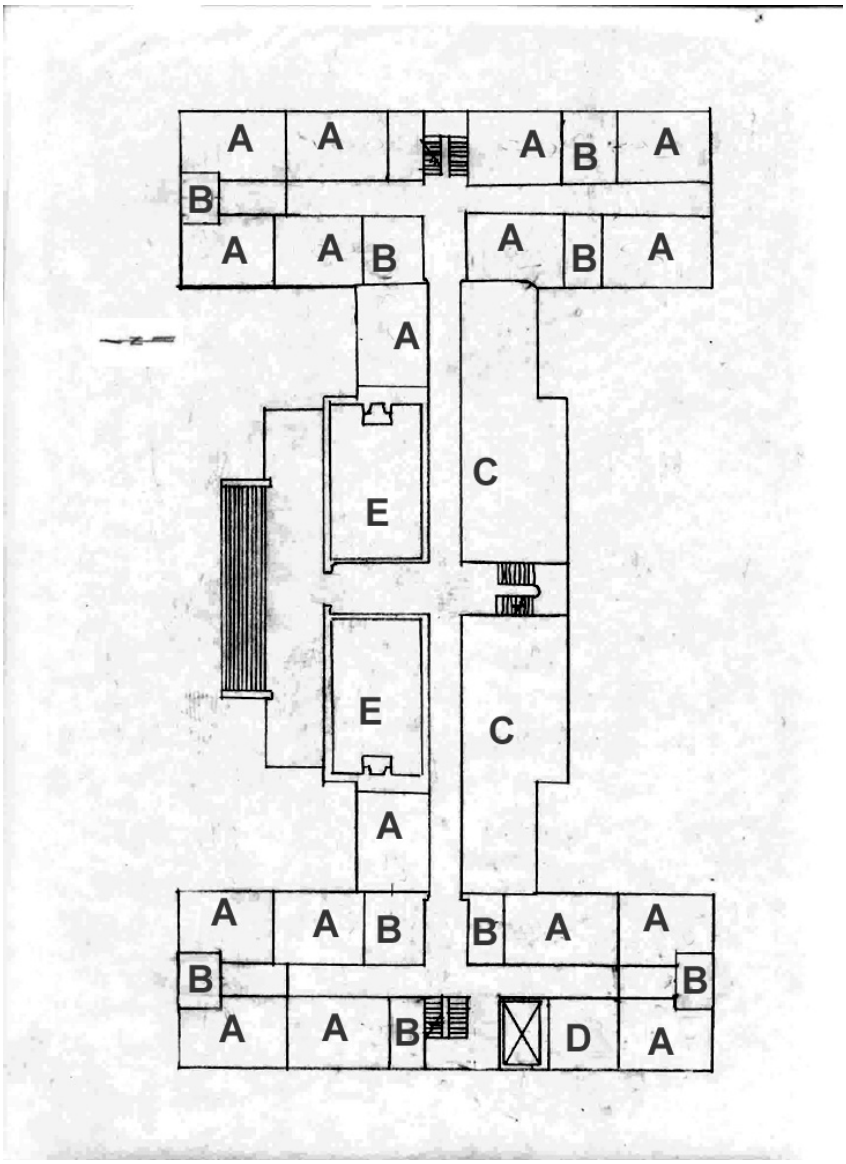

Figure 55
Schematic of Proposed Mary Lyndon Hall Floor Plan

Floor Plan Key

A--Double occupancy rooms

B--Bathrooms

C--Language Community Graduate Apartments

D--Study Space

E--Parlor

A rehabilitation project at Mary Lyndon Hall would need to include many changes for life-safety. Any remaining asbestos in the attic, walls, floor, ceiling or other surfaces would need to be removed and disposed of properly. The fire alarm system is current and sufficient, however a sprinkler system as well as self-closing hardware on all doors would need to be installed to comply with current codes.

Mary Lyndon Hall's greatest challenge for rehabilitation is making it handicapped accessible and ADA compliant since Mary Lyndon Hall is not compatible with the ADA in any way. Every entrance requires the maneuvering of several steps to access habitable areas. The addition of a ramp to the front of Mary Lyndon Hall would be an extremely obtrusive way to access the raised porch and would not be the best solution. The side entrances to Mary Lyndon Hall open on to a half floor landing of the stairway and would provide a sensitive solution to the addition of an ADA compliant entrance.

Figure 56
Mary Lyndon Hall porch
A ramp would have to be more than sixty feet long
for a wheelchair to access the front porch of Mary Lyndon Hall.

Figure 57
Mary Lyndon Hall west side entrance
The best entry for handicapped access would be this western facing door. It would have to be widened and an elevator would have to be installed just inside.

To provide a handicapped accessible entrance to Mary Lyndon Hall, a great deal of interior work would need to be done wherever the entrance is located. One of the side entrances, most likely the west entrance, would be the best candidate for the installation of an elevator because of the availability of alterable space. A room on each floor adjacent to this space would be sacrificed to accommodate an elevator shaft. The entrance will be enlarged to accommodate a wheelchair, with the landing at the ground level being enlarged and would serve as the “elevator lobby”.

Mary Lyndon Hall has a HVAC system that was installed in 1973; this would be updated during the rehabilitation project. The electrical system would also be enlarged to accommodate the current and future needs of residents. This would include installing more electric outlets in residents' rooms, and increasing the amount of power the building's wiring could safely transmit. The plumbing system was altered in the 1973 renovation also; this would be enlarged to accommodate any changes to code as well as to allow for the installation of a sprinkler system. While the sprinkler system and the plumbing system operate independently, the main water hook-up would be altered to allow for the appropriate pressure for both systems to work efficiently.

In today's age, our technology advances and changes greatly from year to year. The installation of fiber-optic lines and a wireless network system, as well as an exploration and study into the newest technological advances, would go a long way to preventing the need to install new access for internet in the near future.

Mary Lyndon Hall is a prime candidate for a historically sensitive rehabilitation. The University of Georgia's Housing Department has learned quite a bit about the steps needed to take when renovating a residence hall. With an architect that is sensitive to historic facilities, the Department of Housing could successfully complete a rehabilitation of Mary Lyndon Hall according to the Secretary of the Interior's standards that is respectful of the character-defining elements while updating the building for contemporary needs.

Rutherford Hall—The University of Georgia

Rutherford Hall was built in 1939. In appearance, it is a Neoclassical style building more formal in detail than Mary Lyndon Hall, which it directly faces. Rutherford Hall has housed thousands of women in its rooms over its sixty-three years; in the fall of 2001, Rutherford Hall opened its doors to its first permanent male residents as the Franklin Residential College moved into the building.

During the 1996 Olympic Games hosted by Atlanta, members of the women's soccer teams were housed in Rutherford Hall. For this event, the building received a minor renovation, including the installation of window-unit air conditioners and the replacement of the two center column capitols on the front porch.

Figure 58
Rutherford Hall front porch capitols

Figure 59
Rutherford Hall front porch

Figure 60
Rutherford Hall back porch

Rutherford Hall's image is the front and back façades, mainly the porches. These façades have been used on numerous publications for the housing department as well as for the University of Georgia. The distinctive four Ionic columns topped with a wide cornice are what distinguish Rutherford Hall from other buildings on campus. The wall structure of Rutherford Hall is hollow terra cotta clay tile with a self-supporting brick veneer; this structure will present challenges as a major interior rehabilitation is undertaken.

Rutherford Hall's two two-story porches are integral to the image of the building and should be maintained at the level required to prevent deterioration of the wood and plaster details. The roof above the porches should be inspected yearly to insure that water does not infiltrate the wood soffits and fascias and cause rot. The two center column capitols on the front façade of Rutherford Hall should be replaced with larger capitols to match the others on the building. Pieces of the two missing capitols are currently stored in a mechanical room of Rutherford Hall's basement. This capitol replacement is congruous with the Secretary of the

Interior's standards for rehabilitation that states that replacement of historic features is preferred if documentation can be found so that an accurate replacement can be produced. The pieces of the capitols along with historic photographs are enough documentation to substantiate their replacement.

The greatest previous alterations to the façade of Rutherford Hall are metal fire escapes placed on the exterior of the wings. These fire escapes were added to comply with life safety codes. The best solution would be to moving the fire escapes inside the building and repairing any damage to the façade that the exterior fire escapes might have caused as a part of a rehabilitation to Rutherford Hall. However, if this would cause too many rooms to be lost, the addition of enclosed fire stairs would be acceptable. These enclosed stairs should, according to the Secretary of the Interior's standards, be undertaken so that they can be removed in the future if needed without damaging the original building's integrity or character. The enclosures of fire stairs would need to be compatible to the original building in style, size, proportion, features, and material to comply with the Secretary of the Interior's standards. Moving the fire escapes to the interior will eliminate approximately forty-eight beds in twenty-four rooms, changing the capacity from one hundred and fifty-six to one hundred and nine students.

Figure 61
Metal fire escape on Rutherford Hall

Rutherford Hall has maintained its original double-hung windows. These wooden six over six true divided-light windows were installed with a window weight pulley system that can be seen from the interior of the building. Many of these windows are currently supporting window unit air conditioners. During a restoration, these units should be removed and the windows repaired or replaced in kind as needed in accordance with the Secretary of the Interior's Standards.

The entry foyer, parlor, and lobby area is Rutherford Hall's most character defining interior feature, as such, they should be preserved in accordance with the Secretary of the Interior's standards. The Colonial Revival style wood paneling in the entry foyer should continue to be painted along with the moldings in this area. During rehabilitation, the parlor vents cut below the windows into the wood panels should be removed and the panels repaired or replaced if necessary as directed by the Secretary of the Interior's Standards using unaltered panels and photographic documents as guides. The plaster walls and ceiling in the parlor should be disturbed as little as possible during the installation of a new HVAC system. Careful documentation should be done before work is begun so that if it is needed the elements can be recreated.

The wood paneling of the lobby walls should not be painted over as they define the spatial configurations of the lobby, parlor, hallway, and foyer. Although the finish of the walls and floor make the room dark, these are elements original to the building and appropriate for the style. Additional light should be added by removing the blinds from the windows and through the careful placement of lamps. The fireplace in the lobby and parlor should be thoroughly cleaned using the gentlest means possible in accordance with the Secretary of the Interior's standards.

Figure 62
Rutherford Hall lobby and hallway area

Figure 63
Rutherford Hall parlor fireplace

Figure 64
Rutherford Hall entry foyer

The rest of Rutherford Hall's interior is also well preserved. Moldings and doors on the hallways, including residents' doors, are original and have been altered only by paint; even the telephone closest and bedroom transoms remain intact. These features should be preserved whenever possible through re-use of the doors and moldings within a rehabilitation project. These are distinctive character defining elements of the interior space and should be preserved according to the Secretary of the Interior's standards.

Figure 65
Laundry room door, typical of interior doors, in Rutherford Hall

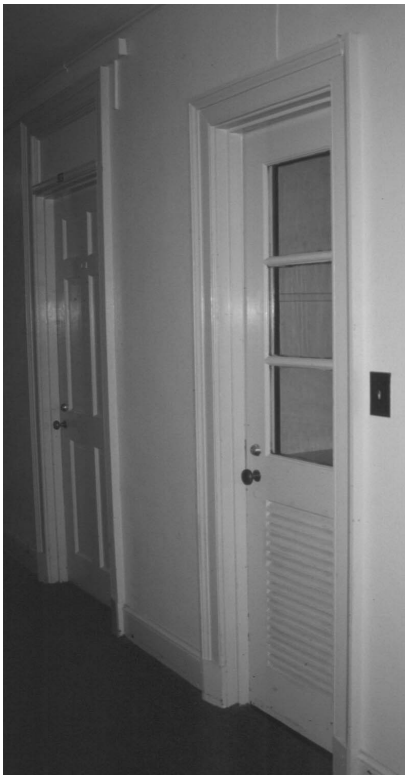

Figure 66
Door to the former telephone booth and resident's door in background

Rutherford Hall houses its students primarily in double occupancy rooms with a very limited number of single rooms available. The rooms are arranged in a traditional residence hall layout of a double loaded corridor sharing a communal

bathroom on each hall. Because of the room size, conversion of Rutherford Hall's bedrooms into suites would diminish the occupancy to the point that it would no longer be economical for use as a residence hall. However, greater personal space could be achieved by enlarging the rooms. The bathrooms could be enlarged slightly to accommodate handicapped residents and visitors but not enough to do away with the shared bathroom space. Drawings are provided that show the current floor plans for Rutherford Hall and proposed floor plans with enlarged rooms and the elevator installation. The altered floor plan will accommodate approximately one hundred and fourteen residents.

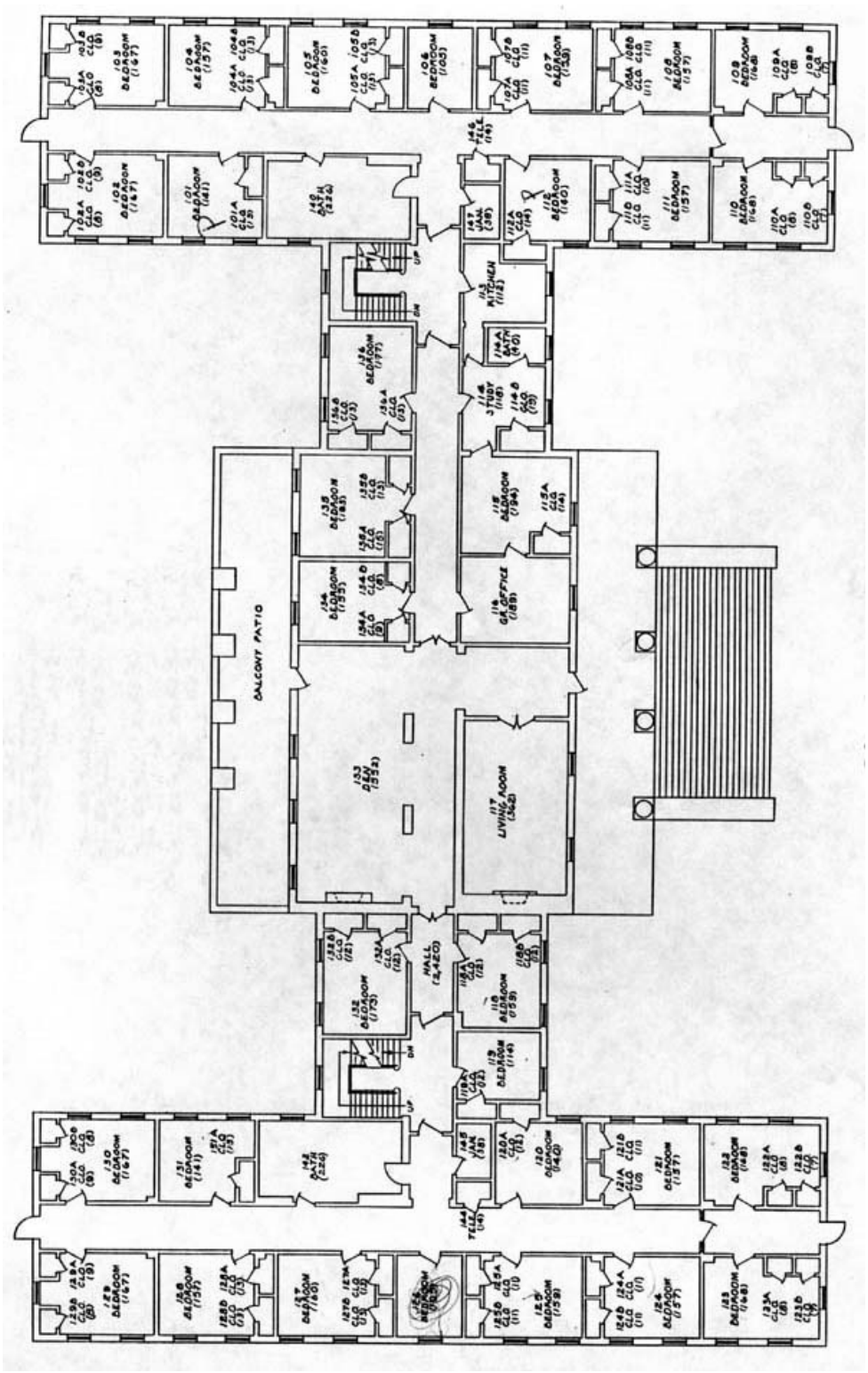

Figure 67
Floor Plan of Rutherford Hall from the University of Georgia Physical Plant

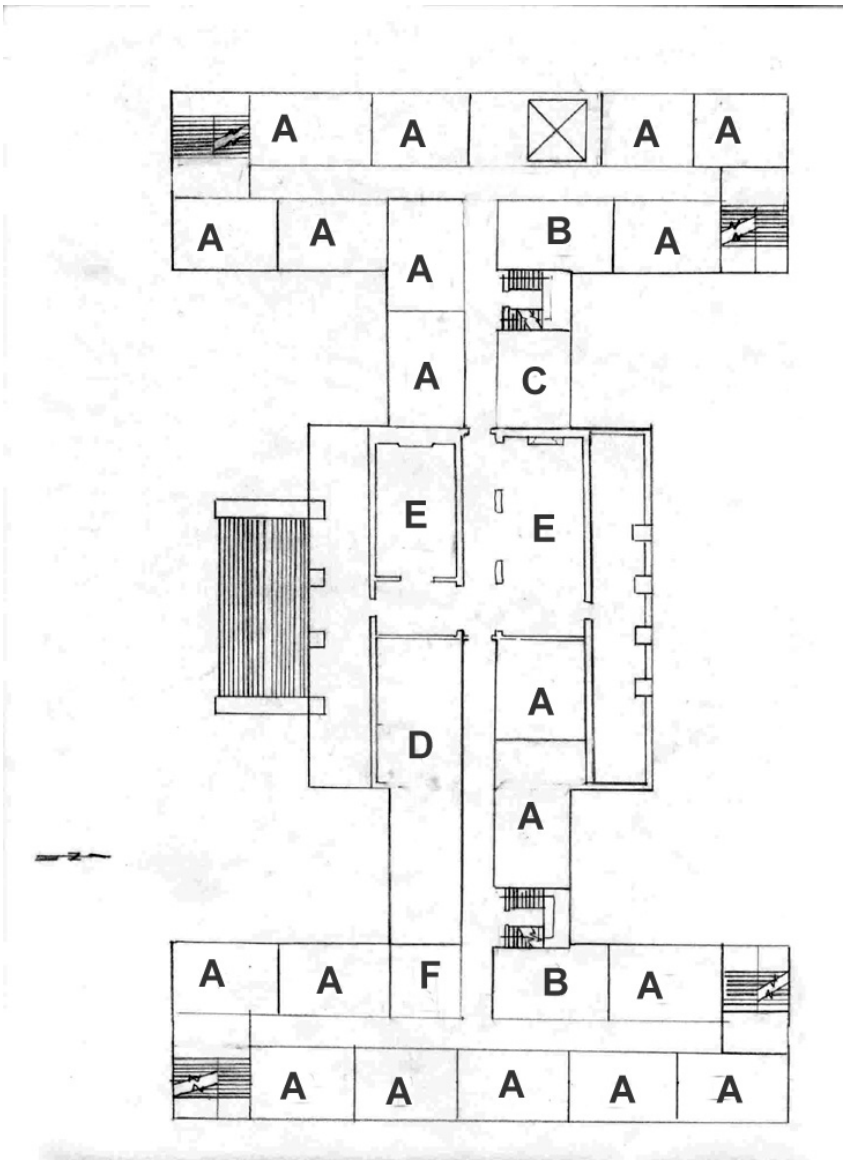

Figure 68
Schematic of Proposed Rutherford Hall Floor Plan

Floor Plan Key

A--Double occupancy rooms

B--Bathrooms

C--Single occupancy rooms

D--Residential Dean's Apartment

E--Library/Lobby Space

F--Storage

Rutherford Hall is currently handicapped accessible on the basement floor. This floor contains residence rooms, a kitchen, laundry room, computer lab and classroom space. During the summer of 2002, an elevator is being installed by converting two single rooms and hallway space; this installation will make all floors of Rutherford Hall handicapped accessible and increase compliance with ADA. Currently there is a handicapped accessible guest bathroom on the basement floor; during rehabilitations, a handicap accessible shower and toilet will need to be added to the bathrooms on each floor.

Life-safety systems will need to be upgraded with a rehabilitation of Rutherford Hall, including the installation of sprinkler systems, self-closing hardware on all doors, and the re-installation of the fire alarm system. The rails on the staircases will be raised to forty inches above the floor. This should be done by reusing the original balustrade and rail and designing an extending piece that is compatible with the original rail's spatial features, materials, scale and proportions in accordance with the Secretary of the Interior's standards. All asbestos located in the attic, floor, walls, ceiling, or other surfaces will need to be removed and disposed of properly as required by federal law.

Rutherford Hall currently uses window unit air conditioners for cooling purposes and steam heat radiators for heating purposes; with a rehabilitation a new HVAC system should be installed to replace these and provide residents with more control of their room temperature. Complete rewiring of the building's electrical system will enable it to support this HVAC system as well as the electrical

equipment that residents keep in their rooms. This rewiring should include the addition of electrical outlets in residents' rooms as well as additional outlets in common areas. The plumbing system of Rutherford Hall would also have to be improved to comply with the additional needs of a sprinkler system and to aid in the installation of handicapped accessible shower and toilets in bathrooms.

Figure 69
Window air conditioning unit at Rutherford Hall

It would behoove the University of Georgia to install both wired and wireless network systems as well as consulting University Computing and Networking Services about the newest trends in technology. This could save quite a bit of money in the long run by limiting the need to update the building's technology systems as they change.

Rutherford Hall is a candidate for rehabilitation. Further study would have to be explored as to whether or not the number of residents it would hold after rehabilitation would be adequate enough to reach a critical mass. This building is well suited for special populations such as the Franklin Residential College it currently holds. The sensitive rehabilitation of Rutherford Hall would send a message that the stewardship of the its historic resources is important to the University of Georgia's Housing department.

CHAPTER 6

CONCLUSION

The shift from *in loco parentis* to focusing only on academics with no regard to extracurricular activities changed not only the mission but the educational facilities and their function as well. Campus housing has alternated between these two theories, finally settling on a combination more related to a facilitator's role, providing the opportunities for guidance while allowing students to make their own decisions.

Residence halls have been influenced by theories in both architecture and student affairs. Sometimes these theories meshed well together, sometimes they simply worked together, and at other times, they were on opposite ends of the spectrum. While student affairs theories could be changed and altered with new information and research into various areas, the built environment in which these theories were carried out was much more static; once a facility is built, it takes a great deal of time and resources to alter it. Currently there is a discrepancy between residence hall facility stock and the current theories in student affairs. This is where the sensitive rehabilitation of existing facilities can be beneficial by not only providing for the housing needs, but in retaining the history of the institution through the use of historic preservation principles.

Currently, housing professionals are focusing on the four issues evaluated with in the previous case studies:

- Image/tradition of image
- Occupancy, Privacy and Room Size
- Code Changes including those related to the ADA, Fire and Building Codes
- System Changes

Some schools are building facilities to accommodate these new theories; however, many of the older buildings as seen in the case studies can be adapted to fit most if not all of these theories. Adaptation of existing buildings not only will save money in the long run, it also promotes the existing history as well as the image and tradition of the campus.

This thesis has explored four very different buildings and how their renovations were addressed. Each case study has its own successes and failures during the projects. Much can be learned from these case studies by looking at what was done correctly, what was done incorrectly and at what could have been done better.

Baker House presents an interesting case study because the building is studied worldwide by architecture students; therefore, the attention to detail and compatibility that was paid to the rehabilitation is extreme for most residence halls. However, much can be learned by the process undertaken for this

restoration, such as careful study of both the needs of the students and housing department as well as the intent of the building. Some of the major successes at Baker House from a preservation point of view would be the removal of 1962 bedroom additions as well as the removal and replacement of the 1976 aluminum windows. While from a strict preservation standpoint, the addition of a roof pergola could be considered incongruent with the other goals of the project, returning the building back to its original appearance. Some residence halls may not be best suited for rehabilitation at their current use and would be best served if another use is found for them.

In the case of Blair Hall at Princeton, a decision was made to invest $15 million and four years into getting the rehabilitation correct. As a part of this investment a study was done to help identify issues that needed to be resolved. This project was a success, quite possibly because of this study. The Secretary of the Interior's standards for rehabilitation were followed with the stabilization, cleaning and repair of exterior elements. These elements, as an part of the early entrance to Princeton, are recognized as a symbol for Princeton University. The attention the project team paid not only to the desires and needs of the university, to its socialization philosophies, as well as the decision to restore and repair much of the original materials made this project one of the most desired residences on the campus and a great success with regards to compliance with the Secretary of the Interior's standards.

Reed and Soule Halls, while not architecturally significant in the development of building types in American architecture, are significant in the history of the University of Georgia. The approaches taken by the housing department on each of these is very different, creating widely different results. In the Soule Hall renovation, the housing department was hands –off having little input in to the project. Housing officials and architects did little research to study the successes and failures of similar renovations on other campuses. Soule Hall's renovation would not be considered a success if compared to the Secretary of the Interior's standards for rehabilitation as a result of the lack of input. A great deal of interior historic fabric was destroyed such as central staircase the original windows, and the masonry walls into which HVAC vents were cut. All of these go against the standards. In addition, the building was altered to a form to which it may no longer be suited; however, the historic use as a residence hall remained. At what point does one decide that keeping the building's original use is superseded by the need to maintain the building's integrity?

Reed Hall's renovation, while more successful than that of Soule Hall, would still not be considered a complete preservation success if compared to the Secretary of the Interior's standards. While housing officials learned from Soule Hall and received input from students and staff as well as having housing officials involved from the beginning, significant features of the building were still lost. The windows and dormers being an example of lost features.

The Reed Hall renovation is a step in the right direction with regards to the stewardship of the historic resources owned by the University of Georgia, however, there is still more to learn.

Many college and university campuses have aging residence hall facilities. Often these have been renovated and altered over the years. However, little has been written about these alterations in architectural journals or student affairs/ higher education journals. As the housing stock of the last great building boom reaches the fifty-year mark (making them eligible for historic designation) the demand for information about rehabilitations, both good and bad, to historic buildings is needed so these buildings can maintain their place in the physical history of each campus' evolution.

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APPENDIX A:

SECRETARY FOR THE INTERIOR STANDARDS FOR PRESERVATION

Preservation is defined as the act or process of applying measures necessary to sustain the existing form, integrity, and materials of an historic property. Work, including preliminary measures to protect and stabilize the property, generally focuses upon the ongoing maintenance and repair of historic materials and features rather than extensive replacement and new construction. New exterior additions are not within the scope of this treatment; however, the limited and sensitive upgrading of mechanical, electrical, and plumbing systems and other code-required work to make properties functional is appropriate within a preservation project.

http://www2.cr.nps.gov/tps/standguide/preserve/preserve_index.htm

Accessed 19 June 2002 8:55pm

Standards for Preservation

1. A property will be used as it was historically, or be given a new use that maximizes the retention of distinctive materials, features, spaces, and spatial relationships. Where a treatment and use have not been identified, a property will be protected and, if necessary, stabilized until additional work may be undertaken.

2. The historic character of a property will be retained and preserved. The replacement of intact or repairable historic materials or alteration of features, spaces, and spatial relationships that characterize a property will be avoided.

3. Each property will be recognized as a physical record of its time, place, and use. Work needed to stabilize, consolidate, and conserve existing historic materials and features will be physically and visually compatible, identifiable upon close inspection, and properly documented for future research.

4. Changes to a property that have acquired historic significance in their own right will be retained and preserved.

5. Distinctive materials, features, finishes, and construction techniques or examples of artisanship that characterize a property will be preserved.

6. The existing condition of historic features will be evaluated to determine the appropriate level of intervention needed. Where the severity of deterioration requires repair or limited replacement of a distinctive feature, the new material will match the old in composition, design, color, and texture.

7. Chemical or physical treatments, if appropriate, will be undertaken using the gentlest means possible. Treatments that cause damage to historic materials will not be used.

8. Archeological resources will be protected and preserved in place. If such resources must be disturbed, mitigation measures will be undertaken.

http://www2.cr.nps.gov/tps/standguide/preserve/preserve_standards.htm
Accessed 19 June 2002 9pm

Preservation the Approach

When the property's distinctive materials, features, and spaces are essentially intact and thus convey the historic significance without extensive repair or replacement; when depiction at a particular period of time is not appropriate; and when a continuing or new use does not require additions or extensive alterations, Preservation may be considered as a treatment. Prior to undertaking work, a documentation plan for Preservation should be developed.

Choosing Preservation as a Treatment

In Preservation, the options for replacement are less extensive than in the treatment, Rehabilitation. This is because it is assumed at the outset that building materials and character-defining features are essentially intact, i.e., that more historic fabric has survived, unchanged over time. The expressed goal of the **Standards for Preservation and Guidelines for Preserving Historic Buildings** is retention of the building's existing form, features and detailing. This may be as simple as basic maintenance of existing materials and features or may involve preparing a historic structure report, undertaking laboratory testing such as paint and mortar analysis, and hiring conservators to perform sensitive work such as reconstituting interior finishes. Protection, maintenance, and repair are emphasized while replacement is minimized.

Identify, Retain, and Preserve Historic Materials and Features

The guidance for the treatment **Preservation** begins with recommendations to identify the form and detailing of those architectural materials and features that are important in defining the building's historic character and which must be retained in order to preserve that character. Therefore, guidance on ***identifying, retaining, and preserving*** character-defining features is always given first. The character of a historic building may be defined by the form and detailing of exterior materials, such as masonry, wood, and metal; exterior features, such as

roofs, porches, and windows; interior materials, such as plaster and paint; and interior features, such as moldings and stairways, room configuration and spatial relationships, as well as structural and mechanical systems; and the building's site and setting.

Stabilize Deteriorated Historic Materials and Features as a Preliminary Measure

Deteriorated portions of a historic building may need to be protected thorough preliminary stabilization measures until additional work can be undertaken. ***Stabilizing*** may include structural reinforcement, weatherization, or correcting unsafe conditions. Temporary stabilization should always be carried out in such a manner that it detracts as little as possible from the historic building's appearance. Although it may not be necessary in every preservation project, stabilization is nonetheless an integral part of the treatment Preservation; it is equally applicable, if circumstances warrant, for the other treatments.

Protect and Maintain Historic Materials and Features

After identifying those materials and features that are important and must be retained in the process of **Preservation** work, then ***protecting and maintaining*** them are addressed. Protection generally involves the least degree of intervention and is preparatory to other work. For example, protection includes

the maintenance of historic materials through treatments such as rust removal, caulking, limited paint removal, and re-application of protective coatings; the cyclical cleaning of roof gutter systems; or installation of fencing, alarm systems and other temporary protective measures. Although a historic building will usually require more extensive work, an overall evaluation of its physical condition should always begin at this level.

Repair (Stabilize, Consolidate, and Conserve) Historic Materials and Features

Next, when the physical condition of character-defining materials and features requires additional work, ***repairing*** by ***stabilizing, consolidating, and conserving*** is recommended. **Preservation** strives to retain existing materials and features while employing as little new material as possible. Consequently, guidance for repairing a historic material, such as masonry, again begins with the least degree of intervention possible such as strengthening fragile materials through consolidation, when appropriate, and repointing with mortar of an appropriate strength. Repairing masonry as well as wood and architectural metal features may also include patching, splicing, or otherwise reinforcing them using recognized preservation methods. Similarly, within the treatment **Preservation**, portions of a historic structural system could be reinforced using contemporary materials such as steel rods.

All work should be physically and visually compatible, identifiable upon close inspection and documented for future research.

Limited Replacement In Kind of Extensively Deteriorated Portions of Historic Features

If repair by stabilization, consolidation, and conservation proves inadequate, the next level of intervention involves the ***limited replacement in kind*** of extensively deteriorated or missing parts of features when there are surviving prototypes (for example, brackets, dentils, steps, plaster, or portions of slate or tile roofing). The replacement material needs to match the old both physically and visually, i.e., wood with wood, etc. Thus, with the exception of hidden structural reinforcement and new mechanical system components, substitute materials are not appropriate in the treatment **Preservation**. Again, it is important that all new material be identified and properly documented for future research. If prominent features are missing, such as an interior staircase, exterior cornice, or a roof dormer, then a Rehabilitation or Restoration treatment may be more appropriate.

Energy Efficiency/Accessibility Considerations/Health and Safety Code Considerations

These sections of the **Preservation** guidance address work done to meet accessibility requirements and health and safety code requirements; or limited retrofitting measures to improve energy efficiency. Although this work is quite often an important aspect of preservation projects, it is usually not part of the overall process of protecting, stabilizing, conserving, or repairing character-defining features; rather, such work is assessed for its potential negative impact on the building's historic character. For this reason, particular care must be taken not to obscure, damage, or destroy character-defining materials or features in the process of undertaking work to meet code and energy requirements.

http://www2.cr.nps.gov/tps/standguide/preserve/preserve_approach.htm

Accessed 19 June 2002 9:05pm

APPENDIX B

SECRETARY FOR THE INTERIOR STANDARDS FOR REHABILITATION

Rehabilitation is defined as the act or process of making possible a compatible use for a property through repair, alterations, and additions while preserving those portions or features which convey its historical, cultural, or architectural values.

http://www2.cr.nps.gov/tps/standguide/rehab/rehab_index.htm

Accessed 19 June 2002 9:10pm

Standards for Rehabilitation

1. A property will be used as it was historically or be given a new use that requires minimal change to its distinctive materials, features, spaces, and spatial relationships.

2. The historic character of a property will be retained and preserved. The removal of distinctive materials or alteration of features, spaces, and spatial relationships that characterize a property will be avoided.

3. Each property will be recognized as a physical record of its time, place, and use. Changes that create a false sense of historical development, such as adding conjectural features or elements from other historic properties, will not be undertaken.

4. Changes to a property that have acquired historic significance in their own right will be retained and preserved.

5. Distinctive materials, features, finishes, and construction techniques or examples of craftsmanship that characterize a property will be preserved.

6. Deteriorated historic features will be repaired rather than replaced. Where the severity of deterioration requires replacement of a distinctive feature, the new feature will match the old in design, color, texture, and, where possible, materials. Replacement of missing features will be substantiated by documentary and physical evidence.

7. Chemical or physical treatments, if appropriate, will be undertaken using the gentlest means possible. Treatments that cause damage to historic materials will not be used.

8. Archeological resources will be protected and preserved in place. If such resources must be disturbed, mitigation measures will be undertaken.

9. New additions, exterior alterations, or related new construction will not destroy historic materials, features, and spatial relationships that characterize the property. The new work shall be differentiated from the old and will be compatible with the historic materials, features, size, scale and proportion, and massing to protect the integrity of the property and its environment.

10. New additions and adjacent or related new construction will be undertaken in a such a manner that, if removed in the future, the essential form and integrity of the historic property and its environment would be unimpaired.

http://www2.cr.nps.gov/tps/standguide/rehab/rehab_standards.htm
Accessed 19 June 2002 9:15 pm

Rehabilitation the Approach

When repair and replacement of deteriorated features are necessary; when alterations or additions to the property are planned for a new or continued use; and when its depiction at a particular period of time is not appropriate, Rehabilitation may be considered as a treatment. Prior to undertaking work, a documentation plan for Rehabilitation should be developed.

Choosing Rehabilitation as a Treatment

In **Rehabilitation**, historic building materials and character-defining features are protected and maintained as they are in the treatment Preservation; however, an

assumption is made prior to work that existing historic fabric has become damaged or deteriorated over time and, as a result, more repair and replacement will be required. Thus, latitude is given in the **Standards for Rehabilitation and Guidelines for Rehabilitation** to replace extensively deteriorated, damaged, or missing features using either traditional or substitute materials. Of the four treatments, only Rehabilitation includes an opportunity to make possible an efficient contemporary use through alterations and additions.

Identify, Retain, and Preserve Historic Materials and Features

Like Preservation, guidance for the treatment **Rehabilitation** begins with recommendations to identify the form and detailing of those architectural materials and features that are important in defining the building's historic character and which must be retained in order to preserve that character. Therefore, guidance on ***identifying, retaining, and preserving*** character-defining features is always given first. The character of a historic building may be defined by the form and detailing of exterior materials, such as masonry, wood, and metal; exterior features, such as roofs, porches, and windows; interior materials, such as plaster and paint; and interior features, such as moldings and stairways, room configuration and spatial relationships, as well as structural and mechanical systems.

Protect and Maintain Historic Materials and Features

After identifying those materials and features that are important and must be retained in the process of **Rehabilitation** work, then ***protecting and maintaining*** them are addressed. Protection generally involves the least degree of intervention and is preparatory to other work. For example, protection includes the maintenance of historic material through treatments such as rust removal, caulking, limited paint removal, and re-application of protective coatings; the cyclical cleaning of roof gutter systems; or installation of fencing, alarm systems and other temporary protective measures. Although a historic building will usually require more extensive work, an overall evaluation of its physical condition should always begin at this level.

Repair Historic Materials and Features

Next, when the physical condition of character-defining materials and features warrants additional work ***repairing*** is recommended. **Rehabilitation** guidance for the repair of historic materials such as masonry, wood, and architectural metals again begins with the least degree of intervention possible such as patching, piecing-in, splicing, consolidating, or otherwise reinforcing or upgrading them according to recognized preservation methods. Repairing also includes the limited replacement in kind--or with compatible substitute material--of extensively deteriorated or missing parts of features when there are surviving prototypes (for

example, brackets, dentils, steps, plaster, or portions of slate or tile roofing). Although using the same kind of material is always the preferred option, substitute material is acceptable if the form and design as well as the substitute material itself convey the visual appearance of the remaining parts of the feature and finish.

Replace Deteriorated Historic Materials and Features

Following repair in the hierarchy, **Rehabilitation** guidance is provided for ***replacing*** an entire character-defining feature with new material because the level of deterioration or damage of materials precludes repair (for example, an exterior cornice; an interior staircase; or a complete porch or storefront). If the essential form and detailing are still evident so that the physical evidence can be used to re-establish the feature as an integral part of the rehabilitation, then its replacement is appropriate. Like the guidance for repair, the preferred option is always replacement of the entire feature in kind, that is, with the same material. Because this approach may not always be technically or economically feasible, provisions are made to consider the use of a compatible substitute material. It should be noted that, while the National Park Service guidelines recommend the replacement of an entire character-defining feature that is extensively deteriorated, they never recommend removal and replacement with new material of a feature that--although damaged or deteriorated--could reasonably be repaired and thus preserved.

Design for the Replacement of Missing Historic Features

When an entire interior or exterior feature is missing (for example, an entrance, or cast iron facade; or a principal staircase), it no longer plays a role in physically defining the historic character of the building unless it can be accurately recovered in form and detailing through the process of carefully documenting the historical appearance. Although accepting the loss is one possibility, where an important architectural feature is missing, its replacement is always recommended in the **Rehabilitation** guidelines as the first or preferred, course of action. Thus, if adequate historical, pictorial, and physical documentation exists so that the feature may be accurately reproduced, and if it is desirable to re-establish the feature as part of the building's historical appearance, then designing and constructing a new feature based on such information is appropriate. However, a second acceptable option for the replacement feature is a new design that is compatible with the remaining character-defining features of the historic building. The new design should always take into account the size, scale, and material of the historic building itself and, most importantly, should be clearly differentiated so that a false historical appearance is not created.

Alterations/Additions for the New Use

Some exterior and interior alterations to a historic building are generally needed to assure its continued use, but it is most important that such alterations do not radically change, obscure, or destroy character-defining spaces, materials, features, or finishes. Alterations may include providing additional parking space on an existing historic building site; cutting new entrances or windows on secondary elevations; inserting an additional floor; installing an entirely new mechanical system; or creating an atrium or light well. Alteration may also include the selective removal of buildings or other features of the environment or building site that are intrusive and therefore detract from the overall historic character. The construction of an exterior addition to a historic building may seem to be essential for the new use, but it is emphasized in the **Rehabilitation** guidelines that such new additions should be avoided, if possible, and considered only after it is determined that those needs cannot be met by altering secondary, i.e., non character-defining interior spaces. If, after a thorough evaluation of interior solutions, an exterior addition is still judged to be the only viable alterative, it should be designed and constructed to be clearly differentiated from the historic building and so that the character-defining features are not radically changed, obscured, damaged, or destroyed. Additions and alterations to historic buildings are referenced within specific sections of the Rehabilitation guidelines such as Site, Roofs, Structural Systems, etc., but are addressed in detail in New Additions to Historic Buildings.

Energy Efficiency/Accessibility Considerations/Health and Safety Code Considerations

These sections of the guidance address work done to meet accessibility requirements and health and safety code requirements; or retrofitting measures to improve energy efficiency. Although this work is quite often an important aspect of **Rehabilitation** projects, it is usually not a part of the overall process of protecting or repairing character-defining features; rather, such work is assessed for its potential negative impact on the building's historic character. For this reason, particular care must be taken not to radically change, obscure, damage, or destroy character-defining materials or features in the process of meeting code and energy requirements.

http://www2.cr.nps.gov/tps/standguide/rehab/rehab_approach.htm

Accessed 19 June 2002 9:20pm

APPENDIX C

SECRETARY FOR THE INTERIOR STANDARDS FOR RESTORATION

Restoration is defined as the act or process of accurately depicting the form, features, and character of a property as it appeared at a particular period of time by means of the removal of features from other periods in its history and reconstruction of missing features from the restoration period. The limited and sensitive upgrading of mechanical, electrical, and plumbing systems and other code-required work to make properties functional is appropriate within a restoration project.

http://www2.cr.nps.gov/tps/standguide/restore/restore_index.htm
Accessed 19 June 2002 9:25pm

Standards for Restoration

1. A property will be used as it was historically or be given a new use which reflects the property's restoration period.

2. Materials and features from the restoration period will be retained and preserved. The removal of materials or alteration of features, spaces, and spatial relationships that characterize the period will not be undertaken.

3. Each property will be recognized as a physical record of its time, place, and use. Work needed to stabilize, consolidate and conserve materials and features from the restoration period will be physically and visually compatible, identifiable upon close inspection, and properly documented for future research.

4. Materials, features, spaces, and finishes that characterize other historical periods will be documented prior to their alteration or removal.

5. Distinctive materials, features, finishes, and construction techniques or examples of craftsmanship that characterize the restoration period will be preserved.

6. Deteriorated features from the restoration period will be repaired rather than replaced. Where the severity of deterioration requires replacement of a distinctive feature, the new feature will match the old in design, color, texture, and, where possible, materials.

7. Replacement of missing features from the restoration period will be substantiated by documentary and physical evidence. A false sense of history will not be created by adding conjectural features, features from other properties, or by combining features that never existed together historically.

8. Chemical or physical treatments, if appropriate, will be undertaken using the gentlest means possible. Treatments that cause damage to historic materials will not be used.

9. Archeological resources affected by a project will be protected and preserved in place. If such resources must be disturbed, mitigation measures will be undertaken.

10. Designs that were never executed historically will not be constructed.

http://www2.cr.nps.gov/tps/standguide/restore/restore_standards.htm
Accessed 19 June 2002 9:30pm

Restoration the Approach

When the property's design, architectural, or historical significance during a particular period of time outweighs the potential loss of extant materials, features, spaces, and finishes that characterize other historical periods; when there is substantial physical and documentary evidence for the work; and when contemporary alterations and additions are not planned, Restoration may be considered as a treatment. Prior to undertaking work, a particular period of time, i.e., the restoration period, should be selected and justified, and a documentation plan for Restoration developed.

Choosing Restoration as a Treatment

Rather than maintaining and preserving a building as it has evolved over time, the expressed goal of the **Standards for Restoration and Guidelines for Restoring Historic Buildings** is to make the building appear as it did at a

particular--and most significant--time in its history. First, those materials and features from the "restoration period" are identified, based on thorough historical research. Next, features from the restoration period are maintained, protected, repaired (i.e., stabilized, consolidated, and conserved), and replaced, if necessary. As opposed to other treatments, the scope of work in **Restoration** can include removal of features from other periods; missing features from the restoration period may be replaced, based on documentary and physical evidence, using traditional materials or compatible substitute materials. The final guidance emphasizes that only those designs that can be documented as having been built should be re-created in a restoration project.

Identify, Retain, and Preserve Materials and Features from the Restoration Period

The guidance for the treatment Restoration begins with recommendations to identify the form and detailing of those existing architectural materials and features that are significant to the restoration period as established by historical research and documentation. Thus, guidance on ***identifying, retaining, and preserving features from the restoration period*** is always given first.

The historic building's appearance may be defined by the form and detailing of its exterior materials, such as masonry, wood, and metal; exterior features, such as roofs, porches, and windows; interior materials, such as plaster and paint; and interior features, such as moldings and stairways, room configuration and spatial relationships, as well as structural and mechanical systems; and the building's site and setting.

Protect and Maintain Materials and Features from the Restoration Period

After identifying those existing materials and features from the restoration period that must be retained in the process of **Restoration** work, then ***protecting and maintaining*** them is addressed. Protection generally involves the least degree of intervention and is preparatory to other work. For example, protection includes the maintenance of historic material through treatments such as rust removal, caulking, limited paint removal, and re-application of protective coatings; the cyclical cleaning of roof gutter systems; or installation of fencing, alarm systems and other temporary protective measures. Although a historic building will usually require more extensive work, an overall evaluation of its physical condition should always begin at this level.

Repair (Stabilize, Consolidate, and Conserve) Materials and Features from the Restoration Period

Next, when the physical condition of restoration period features requires additional work, ***repairing*** by ***stabilizing, consolidating, and conserving*** is recommended. **Restoration** guidance focuses upon the preservation of those materials and features that are significant to the period. Consequently, guidance for repairing a historic material, such as masonry, again begins with the least degree of intervention possible, such as strengthening fragile materials through consolidation, when appropriate, and repointing with mortar of an appropriate strength. Repairing masonry as well as wood and architectural metals includes patching, splicing, or otherwise reinforcing them using recognized preservation methods. Similarly, portions of a historic structural system could be reinforced using contemporary material such as steel rods. In **Restoration**, repair may also include the limited replacement in kind--or with compatible substitute material--of extensively deteriorated or missing parts of existing features when there are surviving prototypes to use as a model. Examples could include terra-cotta brackets, wood balusters, or cast iron fencing.

Replace Extensively Deteriorated Features from the Restoration Period

In **Restoration**, ***replacing*** an entire feature from the restoration period (i.e., a cornice, balustrade, column, or stairway) that is too deteriorated to repair may be appropriate. Together with documentary evidence, the form and detailing of the historic feature should be used as a model for the replacement. Using the same kind of material is preferred; however, compatible substitute material may be considered. All new work should be unobtrusively dated to guide future research and treatment. If documentary and physical evidence are not available to provide an accurate re-creation of missing features, the treatment Rehabilitation might be a better overall approach to project work.

Remove Existing Features from Other Historic Periods

Most buildings represent continuing occupancies and change over time, but in **Restoration**, the goal is to depict the building as it appeared at the most significant time in its history. Thus, work is included to remove or alter existing historic features that do not represent the restoration period. This could include features such as windows, entrances and doors, roof dormers, or landscape features. Prior to altering or removing materials, features, spaces, and finishes that characterize other historical periods, they should be documented to guide future research and treatment.

Re-Create Missing Features from the Restoration Period

Most **Restoration** projects involve re-creating features that were significant to the building at a particular time, but are now missing. Examples could include a stone balustrade, a porch, or cast iron storefront. Each missing feature should be substantiated by documentary and physical evidence. Without sufficient documentation for these "re-creations," an accurate depiction cannot be achieved. Combining features that never existed together historically can also create a false sense of history. Using traditional materials to depict lost features is always the preferred approach; however, using compatible substitute material is an acceptable alternative in **Restoration** because, as emphasized, the goal of this treatment is to replicate the "appearance" of the historic building at a particular time, not to retain and preserve all historic materials as they have evolved over time. If documentary and physical evidence are not available to provide an accurate re-creation of missing features, the treatment Rehabilitation might be a better overall approach to project work.

Energy Efficiency/Accessibility Considerations/Health and Safety Code Considerations

These sections of the **Restoration** guidance address work done to meet accessibility requirements and health and safety code requirements; or limited retrofitting measures to improve energy efficiency. Although this work is quite

often an important aspect of restoration projects, it is usually not part of the overall process of protecting, stabilizing, conserving, or repairing features from the restoration period; rather, such work is assessed for its potential negative impact on the building's historic appearance. For this reason, particular care must be taken not to obscure, damage, or destroy historic materials or features from the restoration period in the process of undertaking work to meet code and energy requirements.

http://www2.cr.nps.gov/tps/standguide/restore/restore_approach.htm

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