ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study was to examine the practice of utilizing existing historic structures for campus expansion as well as to provide samples of the various types of economic resources that exist for funding preservation endeavors of this variety.

The efforts of two specific institutions are presented as case studies in order to analyze successful examples of campus expansion through adaptive reuse. Georgia State University’s School of Music and School of Business are both discussed with regards to their preservation efforts concerning the Empire Building, the Hass-Howell Building, the Standard Building, and the Rialto Theater. Georgia College and State University’s rehabilitation of the old Milledgeville Train Depot and Governor’s Mansion are also presented as good examples of campus preservation efforts. Following these case studies is a presentation of economic funding sources for college and university preservation efforts and a number of recommendations for institutions that are interested in pursuing preservation as an alternative to new construction.

INDEX WORDS: Campus Expansion, Adaptive Reuse, College and University Preservation, Campus/Community Partnerships, Georgia State University, Georgia College and State University
CAMPUS EXPANSION THROUGH HISTORIC PRESERVATION AND ADAPTIVE REUSE

by

ERIN AUBREY SIMMONS

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by

ERIN AUBREY SIMMONS

Major Professor:  Mark Reinberger
Committee:       Wayde Brown
                 Jack Crowley
                 Smith Wilson

Electronic Version Approved:

Maureen Grasso
Dean of the Graduate School
The University of Georgia
December 2003
# TABLE OF CONTENTS

| LIST OF FIGURES | vi |

## CHAPTER

1. INTRODUCTION .................................................................1

2. CAMPUS PLANNING AND PRESERVATION .................................5
   - History of Campus Planning ..............................................5
   - Campus Planning and Preservation ....................................17
   - Community/Campus Partnerships .......................................19

3. EXAMPLES OF CAMPUS APPROACHES TO ADAPTIVE USE ........23
   - Georgia State University College of Business and School of Music ........................................26
   - Georgia College and State University Old Depot and Old Governor’s Mansion ...44

4. FUNDING CAMPUS EXPANSION THROUGH ADAPTIVE REUSE ..........60
   - Rehabilitation Tax Credits ..............................................61
   - Grants-In-Aid ....................................................................64
   - Transportation Equity Act for the Twenty-first Century .............65
   - Save America’s Treasures Grants .......................................66
   - Private Grants ..................................................................67
   - The University Financing Foundation ..................................69
   - Real Estate Foundations ....................................................70
# LIST OF ILLUSTRATIONS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Illustration</th>
<th>Title</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>National University Plan</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Union College Site Plan</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>University of Georgia</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Oglethorpe College</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Yale College Library</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Harvard Memorial Hall</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Farmers’ College</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Stanford University Master Plan</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>Florida Southern College</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>Black Mountain College</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>Citizens and Southern National Bank</td>
<td>29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>Citizens and Southern National Bank</td>
<td>29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>Citizens and Southern National Bank</td>
<td>31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>Citizens and Southern National Bank</td>
<td>31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>Haas-Howell Building</td>
<td>35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td>Haas-Howell Building</td>
<td>35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17</td>
<td>Standard Building</td>
<td>37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18</td>
<td>Standard Building</td>
<td>37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19</td>
<td>Rialto Theater and Haas-Howell Building</td>
<td>38</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
College towns have become an American tradition. The cities and communities of the United States have been actively developing colleges and universities since the beginning of colonization. Harvard was established in 1636, a scant sixteen years after the Pilgrims first landed; William and Mary and Yale soon followed and now there are hundreds of colleges and universities throughout the country. The importance Americans place in the educational system is undeniable; our institutions of higher education have become our equivalents to castles, built to house the principles of wisdom, independence, and of course, democracy. In its turn, the great American college town has become an archetype. The great ones are distinguished by their intellectual, cultural and economic opportunities. A recent survey conducted by a website devoted solely to the analysis of college towns used these three categories to compose a list of the best college towns in the country, with the addition of one more criteria: historic preservation.\(^1\)

For some, the inclusion of historic preservation amongst the other more obvious measures might seem curious. However, to those privileged enough to live in a great college town, it seems a natural choice. Historic preservation and its relation to college expansion is rapidly becoming one of the hottest topics in college communities. Whether it involves the

influx of students to historic neighborhoods adjacent to campus or the controversy of campus expansion into predominately historic areas, historic preservation is something that college planners and administrators can no longer afford to disregard. With greater attention focused on community preservation issues, colleges are beginning to realize the unique opportunity for true town and gown interaction that is available to them. Schools are beginning to deviate from their traditionally remote roles in order to forge relationships with the communities they have barely coexisted with for years. One tie that binds these formerly separate entities is historic preservation.

This thesis endeavors to examine that tie more closely. Despite the recent trend of campus involvement in community preservation efforts, there is a strange paucity of written material on this phenomenon. While private schools such as Savannah College of Art and Design and Flagler College in St. Augustine, Florida have received attention for their adaptive reuse efforts, they are in the minority. There have been great success stories involving campus use of historic structures integral to the towns that claim them, yet the only written resources to be found on these triumphs are usually generated by the local paper and are thus destined to fade into obscurity. Even large-scale efforts targeted at revitalizing an entire district or downtown are often unknown to anyone outside that specific community. If the favorable trend of interaction and cooperation is to continue, better documentation of the efforts of communities and campuses should be given a higher priority. Through rehabilitation and adaptive use, colleges and universities have the capability to cause significant (and hopefully positive) changes in cities throughout the country. The examples of campus adaptive reuse discussed in this thesis are only a small percentage of the existing cases, but the documentation of these efforts can provide a starting point for further research on the subject.
The examples of campus expansion through the use of historic structure rehabilitation presented in the following pages all utilize the practice of adaptive reuse. Adaptive reuse is a term that has achieved great prominence within the last thirty years. It is defined as the practice of adapting buildings for new uses while retaining their historic features. While adaptive reuse has most often been identified with the conversion of historic industrial or commercial structures into lofts or apartments, the potentials for adaptive reuse are far greater than residential. Many colleges and universities have begun to recognize this potential.

The need for campus expansion grows with each passing year, but the space for constructing new facilities has decreased as a result of sprawl and urban “progress”. As a result, campus planners are left with few options. New facilities can be constructed on sites that are located a relatively large distance from the main campus. Historic structures can be demolished in order to provide closer sites for new construction. Existing historic buildings can be used to house new educational purposes. Luckily, this last option has gained popularity in recent years. Even without the formal acknowledgement that a campus historic preservation plan would provide, universities rehabilitating vacant historic structures adjacent to their campus has become common practice. A number of rationales support the movement of educational institutions into existing historic areas. The economic considerations of new construction, the positive environmental and social impact of reusing downtown structures, and the desire to maintain positive campus-community relations are just a few of the motives that support this practice.

This thesis begins with an examination of American campus planning. The historic background of campus planning, the relatively recent integration of historic preservation into modern planning practices, and the equally recent movement towards campus-community partnerships are all addressed. The thesis then covers the preservation efforts of three different
universities. Information regarding various funding opportunities for campus adaptive reuse is presented after the case study section. The thesis terminates with conclusions and suggestions formulated through the research of this topic.
Chapter 2

CAMPUS PLANNING AND PRESERVATION

History of Campus Planning

Since the very beginning of American colleges, campus planning has closely followed the collegiate model established by medieval English Universities. This standard called for a closely knit community of students and scholars, living and studying together in highly regulated colleges. The idea of the school as a community or town led to the creation of dormitories, dining halls and recreational facilities in addition to the expected classrooms and laboratories. This ideal was especially evident in the colonial period of American history, but the trend has continued throughout the whole of American academic development. Commuter and community colleges aside, most schools are still created according to this original model.2

The American ideal differed drastically from the English model in several ways, however. English universities tended to be grouped relatively closely together, often in one town, whereas in the United States colleges were placed in separate locations, usually quite far from one another, rather than clustering them together to form a university. Not only were early American institutions spread out amongst the colonies, they were usually constructed in areas that were at least initially rural and isolated, thereby beginning the romantic “college in nature” idea. The schools were typically placed in relatively isolated settings, which was more or less the beginning of the American idolization of the concept of the frontier. The creation of open, sprawling campuses with separated buildings rather than tightly cloistered and clustered

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campuses was also a notable difference from European schools, which were usually housed in one or two very large and very close buildings.³

The importance of colleges and universities in America cannot be denied. Less than ten years after the settlement of the Massachusetts Bay Colony, a college was built. When the American Revolution began, there were a total of nine functioning colleges in the colonies, all of which are still in operation today.⁴ The wide dispersal of these colleges reflected the desire for available education throughout the colonies. The early architecture of these colleges can be summed up in one word: large. The principle buildings that composed the campuses of these institutions were often among the largest, most imposing buildings of the community, illustrating the high premium placed upon education. Each school created its own plan for the outlay of its buildings, and no two plans were the same. Nature was considered to be infinitely pure, while cities were viewed as gathering places for sin and discord.⁵

Despite its apparent continuity in form, over the years the architecture of the American campus has undergone a number of important changes in its planning. In the early republic planning went through its own revolution. Americans wished to have a collegiate system that was both worthy and demonstrative of the newly created republic. This desire, as well as the introduction of the professional architect, led to new directions in campus planning. The plans of institutions became more sophisticated and unified than ever before, and architectural grandeur appeared in ways other than sheer size. The first state, non-religiously affiliated universities were also begun. The University of North Carolina was the first chartered state university to hold classes, with construction beginning after the 1792 acquisition of a tract of land called

³ Turner, 4.
⁵ Turner, 17.
Chapel Hill. The plan for the campus also included plans for a village to be built adjacent to the school, a concept that had not yet been tried.

Architects of the time included Charles Bullfinch, Benjamin Latrobe, and Thomas Jefferson. Each had a different conception of what campus architecture should look like, although they all continued incorporating large green spaces and courtyards with classical and impressive structures. One of the most important and lasting contributions of these architects to the field of campus planning has been the concept of many smaller structures rather than the more European idea of one large building to house all of the academic endeavors. As Jefferson expressed it, “Large houses are always ugly, inconvenient, exposed to the accident of fire, and bad cases of infection. A plain small house for the school and lodging of the professor is best. These connected by covered ways out of which the rooms of the students should open would be best.”

The period 1820 to the Civil War saw changes in academic focus as well as architecture. Critics eschewed the traditional, narrow-minded religion-based curriculum taught at the early schools, and thus the first scientific, agricultural and all-women schools began to form, albeit slowly. Extracurricular organizations such as social fraternities and sports groups began to crop up, necessitating the construction of new buildings in which to house these activities. As far as style goes, the Greek Revival and Neoclassical styles dominated the first half of the nineteenth century. They embodied all of the ideals of the American educational structure: democracy, purity, independence and wisdom. They were particularly appropriate for the new buildings that

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6 Turner, 21.
7 Turner, 79

were being constructed. The buildings that housed literary or debate societies usually were given Greek-sounding names such as Demosthenian Hall or the Atheneum. Symmetry, classicism and order were the prevailing themes throughout college construction during this time. The transcendental idea of nature as sublime reinforced the idea of the college in nature, although this was becoming increasingly difficult as cities sprang up around the formerly isolated schools.9 (Ill. 3 and 4)

By the 1830’s, the Greek Revival found a rival in the Gothic Revival. Although Gothic Revival was associated primarily with religious institutions and villas before this time, it soon spread to college and university buildings. The Gothic Revival style was often used to emphasize the institution’s ties with England and at first was found almost exclusively at colleges with an Episcopalian or Anglican affiliation. Despite this apparent homage to England, the plans of the Gothicized campus remained essentially American. They were still open and spread out, with collections of smaller buildings rather than one or two very large structures.10 (Ill. 5 and 6)

Post-Civil War campus planning saw the advent of the democratic college. The concept of the elite, aloof educational institution was replaced with the desire to create institutions for all Americans, including women and blacks. The Morrill Land Grant Act of 1862 was the beginning of this shift. With the desire to create democracy in education came the desire to utilize democratic planning principles.11 The importance of utilitarian function became a new focus of university architects and planners. This idea of simplicity or purpose as a reaction to

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9 Turner, 93
10 Turner, 106
Illustration 3. University of Georgia, Athens, GA. c. 1840 (Campus: An American Planning Tradition, 95)


formality created an environment that was perfect for the ascension of Frederick Law Olmstead. Olmstead was involved in the planning of over twenty schools from the 1860’s to the 1890’s. Known especially for his design of parks and green spaces, he merged democratic idealism with a dedication to the welfare of working class Americans to the design of college campuses.\cite{12}

Olmstead’s work on the Berkley campus was remarkable; his most important contribution to the formation of the campus was his insistence that the college be an integral part of a larger community rather than a separate entity. He wished to “adopt a picturesque, rather than a formal and perfectly symmetrical arrangement……I may observe that in the large Eastern colleges the original design of arranging all of the buildings…..in a symmetrical way has in every case proved impractical and been given up, while so far as it has been carried out it is a cause of great inconvenience.”\cite{13} (Ill. 7 and 8)

With these new democratic principles came the birth of the modern American university. Although institutions had often called themselves universities, they seldom adhered to the idea of the university as traditionally accepted in England, that of a group of colleges forming a degree-granting body. In order to celebrate this new educational entity, planners embraced a new collegiate vision: that of the institution as a city. This vision was often expressed using the Beaux-Arts system of architectural planning. The Beaux-Arts style was ideal for their purposes; it embraced monumental organization and allowed for planning on a grander scale than ever before. It also allowed for incorporating disparate styles of architecture into a unified whole. Beaux-Arts planning still relied upon symmetrical plans despite Olmstead’s contributions, but at

\footnote{12 Kliment, 8.}
\footnote{13 Turner, 142}
Illustration 7: Farmers’ College, Hamilton County, Ohio. 1846 (Campus: An American Planning Tradition, 130).

Illustration 8: Stanford University Master Plan, Palo Alto, California. 1887, Frederick Law Olmstead (Campus: An American Planning Tradition, 171).
the same time it took into consideration the function of the buildings in order to create campuses that were functional as well as aesthetically impressive.\textsuperscript{14}

Philanthropic benefactors also had a great deal of influence on the basic form of the university. The World’s Columbian Exposition of 1893 had inspired many Americans to love architecture, and for those with the wherewithal to do it, university campuses became an ideal arena for displaying their new-found interest. Campuses became transformed by this new influx of money, which allowed for expansion on an unprecedented scale. Donors such as Stanford and Rockefeller went one step better; they created whole universities. While these founders employed planners and architects, the completed schools strongly reflected their benefactor’s personal vision for the institution.\textsuperscript{15}

The emergence of published college planning theory occurred in the early 1900’s. This collaboration of planners and architects led to the promotion of the idea of a good master plan for the universities. The growing complexity of the modern university required a master plan in order to facilitate order. The task of organizing so many buildings and facilities proved to be daunting without a master plan. This idea of a master plan became one of the most important principles to emerge from the Beaux Arts movement.\textsuperscript{16}

After World War II, a great deal of changes occurred in American society. More people than ever aspired to higher education, and enrollment skyrocketed. The G.I. Bill and the Baby boom both had a large impact on university and college campuses. Educational curriculum expanded dramatically. The need to accommodate more students and subjects rendered the older forms of campus planning obsolete.\textsuperscript{17} The concepts of growth and change became the preoccupation of

\begin{flushright}
\textsuperscript{14} Turner, 167. \\
\textsuperscript{15} Turner, 169. \\
\textsuperscript{16} Kliment, 15. \\
\textsuperscript{17} Dober, 11. 
\end{flushright}
the mid-twentieth century planner. Modern architectural styles fit these needs the best.

Although the International Style was originally renounced by campus planners, by the 1940’s planners were beginning to come around. The efforts of architects such as Mies van der Rohe and Frank Lloyd Wright also contributed to this changing perception. The acceptance of modern forms of architecture for campus buildings was not the only trend of this time. Modern campus planners no longer viewed an overall coherence of the campus as a primary concern. This unconcern typified a new feeling of freedom in campus planning. This freedom included the embrace of originality and the refutation of conformity as universities became more diverse both in their architecture and their enrollment.18 (Ill. 9 and 10) Unfortunately, this also had a negative affect upon the character of existing historic architecture. 1950’s Modernism and 1960’s and 70’s expansion resulted in a great deal of damage to historic areas.19

After the rampant expansion of the mid-twentieth century, planners found it necessary to embrace the ideas of change and renewal. Architects and planners began to take the existing fabric of the school into consideration as they created new buildings. Although modernism had thoroughly routed historicism, planners felt that it was important to encourage compatibility in their new designs, echoing the massing and architectural elements of historic structures in the creation of modern buildings. Planners began to once again embrace the concept of the university as an academic village.20 The importance of preservation first began to emerge during this time, although it would still be a number of years before preservation plans became integrated in a campus comprehensive plan. After the repudiation of the classical and traditional

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18 Turner, 251.
20 Turner, 283.
Illustration 9: Florida Southern College, Lakeland, Florida. 1938, Frank Lloyd Wright (*Building Type Basics*, 5).

that took place at mid-century, the new realization of the importance of historic buildings was a hard fought victory for conservationists.

_Campus Planning and Preservation_

The modernist sensibilities of the mid-twentieth century unfortunately had a detrimental affect upon earlier campus buildings. The rapid campus expansion that was so central to the planning practices of this time encroached upon many historic structures. A large part of the modernist movement involved the repudiation of traditional architecture as unoriginal, so it is not surprising that a high premium was not placed upon all historic buildings. Older buildings were considered dinosaurs, incapable of meeting the needs of the new university. Rather than attempt to rehabilitate these buildings so that they could better accommodate current needs, it was deemed easier to either demolish them and construct newer, more appropriate buildings or to construct large modern additions on older buildings. Campus expansion became so extreme that it became necessary to direct the growth into traditionally historic areas, much to the detriment of the structures already located there.21

Urban renewal efforts and the passage of the 1966 National Historic Preservation Act created a new consciousness amongst campus planners. It became an accepted idea that colleges and universities reflect collective history and traditions, and as such, historic buildings played an important role on the campus beyond just their utilitarian functions. Although provisions for campus growth and expansion remained an important consideration in the formulation of campus master plans, finding a balance between preserving historic structures and character while also allowing for such growth became a new priority for planners.22 As more and more campus buildings gained National Register eligibility, the necessity of providing for the preservation and

21 Chambers, 7.
22 Kliment, 13.
use of these buildings became clear to planners. Equally important was the preservation of the architectural character of the campus as a whole. While the idea of constructing copies of older buildings was unattractive to the planning profession, echoing important elements of older buildings and then translating them into new designs was deemed a worthy exercise of architectural creativity.23

Integrating preservation plans into comprehensive campus master plans is a movement that has still not fully taken off. Although some college and university systems have managed to revise their master plans in recent years, there are certainly more that have not. In the absence of a fully developed preservation plan, campus planners have developed their own approaches to historic preservation. While these approaches are certainly not regularized or regulated in any way, most planning publications recommend certain measure for campus historic preservation. The first and most crucial step that should be taken involves the gathering of information on every historic building on campus. A survey should be conducted in order to gather this information. The data compiled as a result should then be used to assess the historic value and integrity of each building. The results of the study should also be used to compile a list of distinctive elements and characteristics held in common by the historic buildings in order to develop a list of design guidelines for potential new construction. Through the use of these design guidelines, the relation of any new buildings to the entire campus should be clearly expressed.24 A phased plan should then be developed to target priorities and establish a sequence of events for the continued preservation and use of historic buildings as well as cost estimates to span the next decade. This plan should include a certain amount of budget flexibility in order to provide for the possibility of new construction to meet necessary facility requirements.

Identifying clear means and methods of preservation while weighing costs and the availability of materials is also suggested.\textsuperscript{25} Any buildings that are eligible should be nominated to the National Register of Historic Places. While affording little in practical protection, this will lend the buildings more legitimacy as landmarks. The most important aspect of a preservation plan involves the continued maintenance and rehabilitation of the properties. Keeping the historic properties in good shape will guarantee their future vitality.\textsuperscript{26}

The cost of rehabilitation should not be the only factor considered when deciding between new construction or the continued use of a historic building, whether that building is an original campus structure or not. Factors such as the character of the institution or community as a whole and the emotional impact of unnecessary demolition on faculty, students, alumni, donors and community members should also be taken into consideration.\textsuperscript{27} The demolition of a historic building often becomes an emotional issue for a community. The destruction of such a tangible piece of a community or school’s collective past should never be undertaken lightly. Likewise, the service a college or university might be providing a community by preserving an endangered historic building is incalculable.\textsuperscript{28}

\textit{Community/Campus Partnerships}

The past three decades have seen the rise of an alarming trend in many college or university towns. The number of successful and impressive institutions located within struggling and less fortunate communities has seen a steep increase in recent years. For example, Yale University, one of the most pre-eminent and prestigious schools in the United States, has long been known for its academic excellence and impressive architecture, as well as its economic and political

\textsuperscript{24} Chambers, 7.
\textsuperscript{25} Eckstut, 19.
\textsuperscript{26} Kliment, 13.
\textsuperscript{27} Chambers, 9.
power. However, while Yale continues to prosper and grow, the community it is located within has seen a reversal of fortune. New Haven, Connecticut has experienced a great deal of economic and social distress. This tendency is certainly not limited to New Haven, nor does it exclude universities in large towns and cities. A number of other towns that can boast impressive institutions of higher learning have suffered periods of upheaval and decline, apparently immune to what one would suppose to be the good fortunes of the institution that resides there. In the “Chronicle of Higher Education” in 1994, Ernest Boyer addressed this problem, saying that campuses can no longer afford to be “islands of affluence, self-importance, and horticultural beauty in seas of squalor, violence, and despair.”

Fortunately, this trend is beginning to see a reversal. Unlike large corporations and industries that simply relocate to a more favorable area, campuses are attempting to remedy the situation. Institutions have realized that they can only benefit by the revitalization of communities. An uninviting or dangerous community will adversely affect the ability of the school to attract students and faculty. Measures such as the rehabilitation of buildings and homes for faculty and staff in declining areas and utilizing existing historic structures for expansion instead of building new ones have helped breathe new life into struggling towns by revitalizing areas in need of aid. Other movements include housing initiatives that use service learning and public outreach to focus community and campus efforts on declining historic areas. These campus/community partnerships have been shown to improve economic, social and physical conditions of the communities as well as provide a new focus or rallying point for the school.

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28 Eckstut, 19.
Several elements help to cement these relationships. Universities are uniquely rooted to their cities; they can not simply leave the problems of their community behind them as a company or corporation can. While institutions often expand into other areas through the construction of satellite campuses, the main campus of the school rarely buds from where it has always been. To a large extent, schools are identified by their location as much as by their academics. Also, universities and colleges possess great resources, both physical and economic. Even the smallest of schools has a sizeable work force in the form of students, faculty and staff as well as access to academic and creative channels. Additionally, universities and colleges, (perhaps even more than other large entities less dependent on their reputation), benefit from being altruistic and civic-minded. Good public relations for a university transfers almost directly into financial gains for that institution, either through enhanced enrollment or greater private donation amongst alumni.

There are several reasons for the original detachment of schools from their communities. Many of the older universities and colleges were originally located far outside urban areas or city limits, in the pursuit of Jefferson’s “academical villages”. The subsequent expansion of these communities threatened to envelop or encase the schools, causing them to erect walls to prevent this encroachment. This effectively created a physical detachment in addition to the already existing academic aloofness. Although there were early attempts at partnerships between campuses and communities, such as the Morrill Land Grant Act of 1862 which endeavored to bring higher educational institutions to small rural communities, these were never particularly successful. Without a motivating force, schools did not place a premium on becoming active members of their communities and instead became islands unto themselves.  

It was not until urban decay and its resulting problems (crime, declining social conditions and decay of surrounding facilities) arose that universities tried to bridge the gap between town and gown. One of the greatest challenges in the formulation of these relationships has been the surmounting of what were frequently in the past adversarial relationships. Overcoming the idea of enforced separation and indeed competition between a campus and a community is sometimes difficult. If a university expresses concern about the condition of a historic resource while also assuring the community of its desire to preserve such a resource, chances are that the community will be appreciative of these efforts.

Campus expansion into historic, non-academic areas shatters the barriers that universities have historically erected to separate themselves from said communities. The elimination of the legal requirement that colleges be “in loco parentis” to its enrolled students also sent more students into the community since colleges were no longer required to sequester students as much as before. Campus expansion into declining areas can provide a community service simply by counteracting social ills such as poverty, joblessness, crime and neighborhood deterioration. A school that chooses to rehabilitate an empty storefront in a declining downtown can succeed in creating greater pedestrian traffic in that area, which will in turn stimulate retail and commercial activity. Once such an area begins to show signs of burgeoning prosperity, the chances of enticing other businesses into similarly empty storefronts increases. A college or university that purchases an old, obsolete courthouse slated for demolition after the completion of its new, modern counterpart manages to save a piece of the history of that community that would otherwise be destroyed while simultaneously obtaining space for expansion in a central location.32

Chapter 3

EXAMPLES OF CAMPUS APPROACHES TO ADAPTIVE USE

The following chapter presents examples of academic adaptive reuse efforts. All of the institutions discussed in these case studies are located within the state of Georgia. The choice to discuss Georgia colleges and universities exclusively was made because of several considerations. Although attempts were made to gather materials on a number of schools outside the state of Georgia, in each instance the information needed to complete these case studies often resided only at the schools themselves. Documentation of the various components and phases of the rehabilitation efforts were usually located in different offices, with the result that there was no single database or receptacle for information concerning a project. To further complicate matters, the location of any documentation concerning the project was often unknown, resulting in a trial-by-error form of research in which sheer luck alone resulted in the recovery of a significant piece of information. In many instances, no written record of the various steps and procedures undertaken in the rehabilitation exists. This lack of documentation necessitated the contacting of individuals involved in the restoration process. However, in cases where the rehabilitation occurred some time ago, employees who were actively involved in the effort had often moved on to new jobs or had forgotten the specifics of the project. Most institutions that undertake an endeavor of this kind are focused solely on the successful completion of the project, and as such they are not meticulous about documenting all of the steps that lead to that end. The
lack of any centralized depository for project information, the necessity of interviews and access to old college directories, the overall paucity of information regarding each case, and the need for frequent site visits in order to seek out what little information does exist concerning each adaptive reuse project unfortunately precluded the use of out-of-state examples as impractical and financially impossible. With these factors in mind, research was limited to institutions in Georgia.

A cursory examination of adaptive reuse efforts performed by institutions in other states shows that the chosen Georgia case studies are in keeping with campus preservation efforts nation wide. Contacting the National Trust for Historic Preservation Forum Online regarding the subject of this thesis resulted in a plethora of responses and suggested examples. Some specific instances of national rehabilitation projects include the conversion of commercial spaces, religious structures and industrial buildings. Portland’s Maine College of Art and Design rehabilitated an early twentieth century commercial building into classrooms and laboratory space. DePaul University in Chicago utilized a 1914 department store for academic purposes such as offices, retail space and classrooms. Boston’s Emerson College rehabilitated a former office building into a dormitory. Rensselaer Polytechnics Institute in Troy, New York currently uses a former church located in the center of campus to house the computer center; the heat generated by the main computer solves the problem of heating the large, uninsulated space. Chicago’s Roosevelt University rehabilitated Dankmar Adler and Louis Sullivan’s famous Auditorium Building, converting the former hotel and office space into a home for the school’s administration while turning over the management of the theater to the Auditorium Theater Council. Baruch College, located in New York City, adaptively reused a circa 1890 Lexington Avenue streetcar building as its New Library and Technology Center. While each of these
examples is unique, they are all sufficiently similar to projects that have taken place in Georgia that the restrictions dictated by expense and time do not have a limiting effect upon the contents of this thesis.

The following examples are not intended to be representative of campus preservation and adaptive use attempts as a whole, but rather they are to be looked upon as good instances of successful preservation planning and campus/community partnerships. The efforts of the following Georgia state schools should be commended; although their approaches to preservation have differed, in each example their end results have remained the same. In each case, the institution has managed to utilize and maintain historic resources that were in some way important to the community that claimed them. Georgia State University in Atlanta benefited from a generous donation as well as from funding initiatives that included grants and private fundraising efforts. Georgia College and State University in Milledgeville has benefited from a number of private and governmental grants that has allowed them to completely restore the Old Governor’s Mansion. GC&SU will also profit from the Georgia Board of Regents Planning Office’s receipt of a Getty Campus Heritage Grant that will allow for the creation of a comprehensive preservation plan to be integrated into the University System of Georgia Master Planning Template and Reference Guide. GC&SU will be the first school to use the new comprehensive plan to create a school- specific preservation plan. While the USG Master Plan includes a cursory discussion of preservation needs, the individual schools of the USG have not yet created a preservation plan that addresses their unique and specific needs. GC&SU was selected to be the first school to implement a preservation plan. Upon the successful implementation of GC&SU’s preservation plan, the other colleges and universities will develop their own plans. Each new historic preservation plan will include provisions for historic
research, context assessments, identification of resources, the nomination of resources to the National Register of Historic Places, and building condition assessments. Under the new plans, the vice-president for Business and Finance of each school will be appointed Preservation Officer. These are but a few examples of successful campus preservation planning involving adaptive reuse, but they show an interesting range of solutions to the problems of expansion and community need.

*Georgia State University College of Business and School Of Music*

In the early 1990’s, Georgia State University in Atlanta was publicly criticized for its lack of urban involvement. A 1992 newspaper article in the Atlanta Journal/Constitution stated that “For such an urban institution, Georgia State University doesn’t have much of an urban focus anymore.”\(^{33}\) GSU had taken a number of steps to isolate itself from the rest of Atlanta during its growth and development. The school constructed elevated walkways and streets in order to suspend both the campus buildings and the students and faculty above Atlanta, effectively creating barriers that divided gown from town. Beginning in 1992, campus/community segregation was abandoned in favor of a more cooperative role within Atlanta. Carl V. Patton, trained as a city planner, was named president of GSU. Patton immediately announced his intention to strengthen GSU’s College of Urban Studies while simultaneously promoting active initiatives into downtown revitalization. Georgia State University listed a number of downtown development goals: halting the concentration of university ownership in a single area; encouraging a mix of public and private ownership; promoting mixed-use facilities with academic and commercial resources in one building;

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stimulating downtown housing efforts; and creating better public/downtown access for various University resources. These new initiatives took form in a series of downtown real estate projects, beginning with the transformation of the former downtown Citizens and Southern National Bank Building into the new offices of the GSU College of Business Administration and quickly following with the transfer of the GSU School of Music facilities to three existing urban Atlanta buildings.

*Georgia State University College of Business Administration Building*

The Citizens and Southern National Bank Building was constructed between 1898 and 1901. Although the exact date of the finished building is unknown, the coping on the roof is dated 1901 as evidenced by the signatures of two of the craftsmen who worked on the building. Located within what is now the Atlanta Fairlie-Poplar Historic District in Five Points, the bank was designed by Thomas Henry Morgan of Morgan and Dillon. It was constructed originally in the Chicago commercial style, although later renovations added Italian Renaissance and Beaux-Arts elements. The building is an example of early steel-framed construction, making it one of the finest early skyscrapers in Atlanta, where steel-framed construction was introduced in the 1890’s. The innovative steel construction of the skyscraper is representative of the technological developments of the time.

The C&S Building’s facade was organized into a base, shaft and cornice configuration. The base of the building was three stories high. The street level floor featured glass-faced storefronts, while the second and third levels were graced by tripled windows. The remaining eleven floors contained narrower, paired windows. The front façade of the building also featured

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a central three-bay wide section of large single windows. The cornice of the building was relatively simple, consisting of uncomplicated terra-cotta ornamentation. (Ill. 11 and 12)

The C&S Building housed a number of different tenants upon its completion, and was originally known as the Empire Building, most likely gaining the name of “Empire” as a result of the mandate of the time which required buildings to be named for the insurance companies that carried their mortgages. The original brass door knobs bearing an inscription of “E” still exist throughout the building. In late 1919 or early 1920, the building was renamed the Atlanta Trust Company Building in honor of its newest tenants, who immediately made some structural changes to the building. These changes included the removal of an arched door on the building’s façade as well as the enclosure of a different opening at the southern corner of the building in favor of a less-ornate entrance located in the center of that façade. Around this same time, C&S Bank merged with Third National Bank and the resulting corporation, NationsBank, moved across the street from the Atlanta Trust Company Building. In 1929, the Atlanta Trust Company Building was acquired by C&S. The new owners immediately began extensive renovations, enlisting the services of Philip Shutze of Hentz, Adler and Shutze. The renovation focused largely upon the detailing of the bank’s main lobby, which was formed after gutting the original first three floors of the building. The design of the lobby was copied from the Pantheon in Rome. It features Corinthian columns, niches along the walls and brass teller stations shaped like small temples. The alterations to the exterior of the building were decidedly less drastic; an account from the 1931 Atlanta City Builder only mentions the placement of a stone eagle copied from the Vatican over the Broad Street entrance in reference to the exterior work.35 The façade

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35 SHPO Landmark nomination forms for C&S National Bank.
Illustration 11 - Citizens and Southern National Bank, view of side entrance

Illustration 12 – Citizens and Southern National Bank Building, view of front and side facades
was additionally altered by the replacement of the glass display windows at the base of the
building with heavy masonry walls featuring classical motifs carved out of Indiana limestone.
This alteration of the exterior was thought to be more in keeping with the dignity of the banking
business.\(^{36}\) (Ill. 13 and 14) Following the completion of renovations in 1932, C&S National
Bank moved into the former Empire Building, where they remained for many years. In 1975, the
bank spent approximately $750,000 in restorations and refurbishments. The firm of Saggus,
Vaught, Spiker and Smith consulted on the restoration; the firm was appropriately enough an
outgrowth of the firm that did the original 1932 renovations. The building was placed on the

In 1991, C&S National Bank began construction of a new office/banking tower to be
located in a different area of the city. The move reflected a growing change in the Five Points
area, once the main banking-legal-shopping district. Beginning in the 1970’s and continuing to
recent years, a great number of major business concerns fled the Five Points area.\(^{37}\) C&S Bank’s
imminent departure seemed to be another indication of the slow death of the Five Points
Business District. This mass migration out of Five Points caused a great deal of distress amongst
residents of Atlanta. When word that the C&S Building was for sale became public knowledge,
there was a marked lack of enthusiasm amongst developers. Many cited this lack as a further
indication of the obsolescence of the area. NationsBank’s announcement of its intention to
donate the Former Empire Building to Georgia State University for its College of Business
Administration building assuaged some of those fears, causing many to herald the move as a first

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\(^{37}\) SHPO Landmark nomination forms for C&S National Bank.
Illustration 13- Citizens and Southern National Bank main entrance

Illustration 14- Citizens and Southern National Bank Building base
step towards the revitalization of Five Points.\textsuperscript{38} The donation, valued between six and ten million dollars, was considered important for a variety of reasons. The 8,700 student college promised to bring thousands of students into the area, aiding merchants who could no longer depend upon the patronage of bank and office employees. Additionally, the relocation of the business school served to provide private developers with the motivation to continue with plans to develop student housing near the Fairlie-Poplar District. From a preservation perspective, the future of the nearly hundred year old building, once unsure, was now secure.\textsuperscript{39} City planners viewed the Georgia Board of Regents acceptance of the donation of the fourteen-story building as well as their professed interest in acquiring three additional buildings in the Fairlie-Poplar District as indicative of their commitment to further revitalizing the area.\textsuperscript{40}

Georgia State University College of Business began their occupation of the C&S Bank Building in 1993. GSU occupies roughly 150,000 square feet of the 196,417 square foot building.\textsuperscript{41} The bank branch located on the ground floor of the building as well as the C&S clock situated at the junction of Broad and Walton streets remain under the control of C&S Bank, making the building a mixed-use facility. NationsBank retained these holdings under a one dollar per year, sixty-year lease of the 20,000 square feet. The conversion of the upper floors of the building into administrative offices required minimal alteration; total redevelopment costs amounted to two million dollars, a rate of $11.00 per square foot. The redevelopment efforts were designed and led by the Georgia State University Office of Planning and Facilities.\textsuperscript{42}

\textsuperscript{40} Tom Opdyke, “GSU Move is First Step for Five Points Revival, Planners Say.” \textit{Atlanta Journal/Constitution}, 14 May 1992, C-5.
The Georgia State University School of Music

The occupation of the Citizens and Southern National Bank hastened other downtown campus expansion negotiations. In 1991, the director of the Georgia State University School of Music, Dr. Richard Koehler, was first approached by private real estate consultant David Haddow of Haddow & Co. about the possibility of relocating the school to several vacant buildings also situated within Atlanta’s downtown Fairlie-Poplar Historic District. The School of Music was rapidly outgrowing its current campus facilities. The need for increased space as well as Dr. Koehler’s desire to create a downtown performance hall (further invigorating the dwindling downtown and fostering better campus/community relations) led to the eventual acquisition of three downtown buildings: the Haas-Howell Building; the Standard Building; and the Rialto Theater.43

The Haas-Howell Building was constructed in 1920. It was designed by pre-eminent Atlanta architect Neel Reid. Like the Citizens and Southern National Bank, it is one of Atlanta’s earliest twentieth century office buildings, built when increased technological achievement and an escalating population began to transform the formerly residential Fairlie-Poplar area into one dominated by high-rise commercial structures. The construction of the building was contracted by the Haas-Howell Insurance Company. The Haas-Howell Company was founded in 1891 by Aaron Haas and remained an important part of Atlanta’s insurance business until 1960, when the business was expanded to include real estate. This new venue proved to be so successful that it became Haas-Howell’s primary concern by 1980. The Haas-Howell Insurance Company occupied the eighth floor of its building from 1920 to 1984.44

44 SHPO National Landmark nomination for Haas-Howell Building.
The building was designed in the Beaux-Arts and Chicago styles. Perpetuated by the Ecole des Beaux Arts, of which Neel Reid was a student, Beaux-Arts style was particularly popular in the United States during the period of 1880-1920. The early stages of the movement were characterized by ornate detail and elaborate design. The latter phase of the style utilized significantly simpler detailing. The Haas-Howell Building falls within the more sedate classification. The building consists of a base, shaft and capital. The two story base of the building is formed from ashlar stone and terminates in quoins. The street façade has six bays of double-hung windows. The main entrance consists of an arched doorway crowned by a carving of the building’s name and framed by decorative swags of fruit. Two bays of double-hung windows frame the outside edges of this façade, while in the middle are six pairs of windows, all with double hung sashes. The street level contains large display windows topped with segmental arches. A decorative molding serves as a belt course that separates the top floor from the seven floors below. Large decorative brackets support the overhanging eaves of the roof, forming a prominent capital for the building.45 (Ill. 15 and 16)

The McGlawn-Bowen Building, or Standard Building as it is better known, was designed by G. Lloyd Preacher and was also constructed in the early 1920’s. Preacher was a respected architect best known in Atlanta for his design of the Atlanta City Hall; he designed a great number of buildings throughout the state of Georgia, especially in Atlanta and Augusta. The 1924 Standard Building was constructed according to the classical high rise formula of the time as dictated by the architects who developed the Chicago Style of architecture. Despite Preacher’s renown, the history of the Standard Building has not been well documented. Constructed originally as a high rise office tower, over the years the ownership of the

45 SHPO National Landmark Nomination for Haas-Howell Building.
Figure 15- Haas Howell Building front and side facades

Figure 16- Haas Howell Building base
building has passed through a number of different hands. At the time of GSU’s interest in the Standard Building, it was owned by Downtown Atlanta Revitalization (DAR), a city agency that is legally separated from the Economic Development Corporation but is closely affiliated.\textsuperscript{46}

Like the Haas-Howell Building, the eleven-story Standard Building is another example of an early Atlanta skyscraper. It features a two-story rusticated stone base ornamented with simple terra-cotta detailing. The first floor of the building is dominated by large glass display windows stretching along each of the facades. The shaft of the building has symmetrically spaced, narrow paired windows stretching across each story. A terra-cotta belt course separates the top floor of the building from the lower ten stories. Large decorative brackets support the wide eaves of the roof, which is crowned by a large metal cornice.\textsuperscript{47}(Ill.17 and 18)

While not yet fifty years old and therefore ineligible for status as a historic landmark, the Rialto Theater in downtown Atlanta is still a building of considerable significance. The original Rialto Theater was constructed in 1916 within Atlanta’s Central Business District and theater district. The 925-seat theater was designed to be the largest in the southeast. The Rialto boasted a forty-six year run as a theater, continuing in its operation throughout the Depression. Its continued operation was to be interrupted by the rapidly escalating population and needs of Atlanta, and in 1962 it was torn down to make way for a new 1,200 seat Rialto movie house. The new theater remained in operation for almost thirty years before falling victim to a diminishing downtown economy. In 1989, the Rialto Movie Theater closed its doors.\textsuperscript{48} (Ill.19-22)

\textsuperscript{46} SHPO National Landmark Nomination for Standard Building.
Illustration 17- Standard Building, front façade

Illustration 18- Standard Building, front and side facades
Illustration 19- Rialto Theater and Haas-Howell

Illustration 20- Rialto Theater entrance
Illustration 21- Rialto Theater interior during renovations

Illustration 22- Rialto Theater side façade
By 1995, plans for the transfer of GSU’s School of Music to the Fairlie-Poplar District were nearly complete. GSU received four million dollars from State of Georgia bonds issued by the Downtown Development Authority and managed by The University Financing Foundation (TUFF), a combined 3.5 million dollars from corporations and individuals, three million dollars from the Woodruff Foundation, one million dollars from the Coca-Cola Foundation, and over 500,000 dollars from Georgia State University alumni, faculty and staff. Aided by these donations and grants as well as further financial orchestrations conceived of by the University Financing Foundation, GSU undertook the fourteen million dollar project. The University through TUFF purchased the collective 75,000 square feet of the Haas-Howell and Standard Buildings and approved the proposed 31-year lease of the Rialto Theater. The $250,000 annual rental of the theater is intended to be offset by subleasing commercial space along the streetscape as well by profits from theater ticket sales. The Standard Building’s intended uses include classrooms, practice studios, faculty offices and teaching studios. An instructional recording studio was also constructed. The Haas-Howell houses administrative offices, classrooms, studios, faculty offices, and a music and listening library. The Rialto is primarily a performance space, containing a main stage, backstage annexes, production offices, an orchestra pit, and a “black box” theater in the basement.

While renovations to the interiors of the buildings were extensive due to the nature of the necessary changes, alterations to the facades of the structures were limited. Their location within the Fairlie-Poplar Historic District ensured sensitive rehabilitation of the exteriors. Very little work was conducted on the Haas-Howell and C&S buildings due to relatively recent renovations.

Only slight changes were made to the Standard Building. The 1994 restoration and repair of the Standard Building included the refurbishment of the metal cornice, the replacement of damaged windows, and the removal and replacement of damaged brick. Additions to the building were limited to the placement of three banners on the façade, the removal of unoriginal awnings, and the installation of new aluminum storefront sections with clear glazing. These and any other additions were all approved by the Atlanta Urban Design Commissions based on their findings that the proposed changes would not necessitate the removal of any historic materials and could also be removed easily in the future, if necessary, without harming the building.52

The bulk of the redevelopment costs for the project went for the work done on the Rialto Theater. The total cost of renovating the theater were $8.9 million, or approximately $204 per square foot. The firms of Richard Rothman and Gardner, Spencer, Smith and Associates of Atlanta acted as architects to the project. Their vision was of a multi-use center for the performing arts that would include commercial and retail space.53 When the renovations first began, the building had suffered deterioration from its period of vacancy; the old roof was failing, causing water damage throughout the structure.54 The structure was quickly stabilized and the work for its conversion commenced. Expansion included the creation of a new entrance which was to open to the street-level lobby, which in turn was to lead to the 1,000 seat performance hall. In order to improve acoustics within the building, the roof of the structure was raised twelve feet. Large amounts of asbestos were removed throughout the process. These

52 SHPO National Landmark Nomination for Standard Building.
53 Gause, 138.
efforts resulted in the transformation of the former movie house to a state-of-the-art downtown performing arts center.55

The movement of Georgia State University into Atlanta’s downtown Fairlie-Poplar Historic District caused a number of changes in the area. (Ill. 23) The opening of the Rialto Theater created a high quality performing arts center within an area that is listed on the National Register. The acquisition of three historic early skyscrapers saved buildings that seemed doomed to obsolescence, neglect and eventual demolition. The overall impact of GSU’s occupation of these buildings was the beginning of renewal in an area that had been slowly dying for years. With GSU came an increased traffic in students and professionals, enhanced safety measures and police presence, rejuvenated commercial and retail activity, and a newly-born night life that would have seemed, if not impossible, then at least unrealistic in earlier years. A 1999 article in the Atlanta Business Chronicle credited GSU as the catalyst that spurred new development and interest in the Fairlie-Poplar district and the investment of over $225 million in the years immediately following the GSU renovations. Private improvements such as lofts and condos in historic buildings became more plentiful. The formation of the Fairlie-Poplar Task Force led to the raising of $3 million dollars for a sidewalk improvement project. A market study prepared by Hill Partners Inc. of Charleston, South Carolina confirmed what Fairlie-Poplar proponents had maintained all along. Fairlie-Poplar’s central location to areas such as the Atlanta hotel district and Centennial Olympic Park as well as its historic architecture and charm were cited as reasons for the encouragement of further development and restoration to the district. According to Howard Spiller, a steering committee member with the Fairlie-Poplar task force, “There’s a

55 Gause, 138.
next generation of things coming where it’s almost rivaling the activity of the Olympics”.

Georgia State University’s re-development of prominent buildings within the district provided the impetus for the formation of renewed faith and interest that has in turn created a movement devoted to the preservation of one of Atlanta’s most historic areas.

*Georgia College and State University Old Depot and Old Governor’s Mansion*

Georgia College and State University began as the Georgia Normal and Industrial College on November 8, 1889. Founded as a higher educational institution for women and located in Milledgeville, Georgia, the school addressed the growing need of education for women during a time when such opportunities were rare. The original focus of the school was largely vocational, with the intention of preparing women for careers in teaching or industry. By 1917, the school received the authorization to grant degrees, thereby creating an environment in which liberal arts and cultural courses were able to flourish in addition to the vocational curriculum. The institution was renamed the Georgia State College for Women in 1922, and ten years later it joined the University System of Georgia as a state-supported school. The Georgia State College for Women offered its first graduate studies program in 1958 with the development of a Masters of Education program. The school was integrated by 1964, and in 1967 it became a coeducational institution. With the admission of men, the school’s name was changed to Georgia College at Milledgeville. In 1996, the Georgia Board of Regents changed the name once more to its present Georgia College and State University.

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58 Ibid, 5.
From the very beginning, GC&SU was remarkable for the number of existing historic buildings it utilized. The school was given land that originally held the Georgia State Penitentiary, which was largely destroyed during the Civil War. Although most of the structures associated with the prison no longer stood, the gift of this land gave GC&SU a central location within the heart of the town. Milledgeville was the antebellum capital of Georgia. When the state capital was moved to Atlanta in 1868, the school was immediately given the former Governor’s Mansion to be used as a dorm and presidential house. The school has continued to use historic buildings in their expansion. As just a few examples among many, Georgia College and State University uses an old courthouse, a church, a former hotel, and a Dixie Coca Cola bottling building. Their most recent preservation endeavors include the 1.3 million dollar rehabilitation of a former train depot and the completion of the first phase of a ten million dollar renovation of the Old Governor’s Mansion. The funding for these projects has come from a myriad of different sources. The bulk of the train depot renovations were financed through a Transportation Enhancement Program grant from the Department of Transportation. The Old Governor’s Mansion restoration project has received money through Georgia General Assembly awards and private grants. (Ill. 24)

Georgia College and State University Old Train Depot

The creation of a branch line railroad from Milledgeville, Georgia to the Central rail line in Gordon Georgia was first conceived of in 1838. Milledgeville was the county seat of Baldwin County as well as the Georgia State Capital, and it was considered a necessity to make

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59 Hair, 5.
60 “GC&SU Receives Grant to Rehabilitate Historic Train Depot”; Available from www.GC&SU.edu/univ_relations/this_week/6.28.99.com; Accessed 7/10/03.
61 Jim Turner, Interview by Author, 5 October 2003, via e-mail.
Illustration 24: View of Georgia College and State University campus map, showing location of the Old Governor’s Mansion and Old Depot. Available from http://GC&SU.edu.html
provisions for easy transportation to and from the city if Milledgeville was to continue in its state prominence. In 1840, the Milledgeville Turnpike and Railroad Company was established, but the next seven years saw little progress in the construction of a line. In 1847, the Milledgeville Turnpike and Railroad Company was incorporated into the Milledgeville and Gordon Railroad, and five years later the construction of a Gordon/Milledgeville line began. Construction of the line and of a Milledgeville Depot was completed by 1853. A spur track off of the main line was also created. The spur track crossed into Penitentiary Square, the site of the First Georgia State Prison. The prison eventually was relocated and the Georgia Normal Industrial College occupied this area from 1889 on. Construction of the main rail line was at times difficult to finance; the Milledgeville and Gordon Rail Road Company were forced to sell stock in their company to the Central Railroad and Banking Company in exchange for plate rails. Despite Milledgeville’s continued growth, the M&G Railroad did not thrive, and in 1854 the Central RR & Banking Company purchased control of the M&G RR and absorbed it into the Central RR system.62

The railroad continued to thrive until the civil war. On November 20, 1864 the Milledgeville depot was burned by General Sherman during his march towards Savannah. The Union army also dismantled several miles of track. Apparently undaunted, Milledgeville citizens and the Central Railroad and Banking Company began building and track repairs the next day. The depot and the railroad were both restored by April 10, 1865. The Central Railroad and Banking Company continued operation of the Milledgeville line until 1896, when the railroad was acquired by the Georgia Railroad. Milledgeville’s importance in the politics had already faltered by this time, creating little interest in the street railway through the heart of Milledgeville, but the five miles of rail that led from the depot to the Georgia State Mental

Hospital were considered to be quite desirable. This small patch of rail was so frequently traveled that the Milledgeville Railway purchased a motor car in 1917 for passenger service between the hospital and depot for improved efficiency.\textsuperscript{63}

The establishment of the Georgia Normal Industrial College for Women also created a high demand for the street railway system. The original railway line led directly to the Georgia State Prison; this line was continued with the formation of the school and by 1925 the line leading to the former Penitentiary Square was named the “Beauty Special” in honor of the young women traveling to their college. Later named the “Peach Special”, students arrived at the Milledgeville depot and were then unloaded on a special spur track located next to the school.\textsuperscript{64}

By the 1960’s, the necessity and use of the railroad were fading. The last real use of the track was by the Georgia Railway, who utilized the 8.05 miles between Milledgeville and the new Georgia Power Company generating plant on Lake Sinclair. With the closure of the passenger lines, the Milledgeville depot began a twenty year period of different uses by various leases. Powell Building Supply used the building from 1963 to 1967. Cook Building Supply occupied the depot from 1967 until 1979. Newton Building Supply moved into the building in 1979 and remained until 1980. The depot was then left unoccupied for the next nine years. In 1989, Georgia College and State University purchased the building from its current owners, the Norfolk Southern Railroad.\textsuperscript{65} GC&SU used the depot building as a scene shop and general storage facility for the next ten years.

In 1999, Georgia College and State University decided that the depot was underutilized as a storage facility. Despite the years of neglect and alternative usage, the depot’s exterior

\textsuperscript{63} Robert Hanson, \textit{History of the Georgia Railroad} (Johnson City, TN: Overmountain Press, 1996) 25.

\textsuperscript{64} “State College Beauty Special,” \textit{The Right Way Magazine}, June 1926, page 25.

\textsuperscript{65} Tony Kenney, Interview by Author, 1 October 2003, via e-mail.
architectural integrity remained largely intact. The use of the building as a storage facility resulted in the removal of a great deal of the building’s interior characteristics while allowing the exterior elements of the building to remain. Constructed in a style typical for nineteenth century depots, the large brick building is an excellent example of train depot architecture. It was designed as a long, rectangular building, built parallel to the tracks to facilitate easier boarding and unloading. Like most train depots, it has exaggerated oversized eaves, providing cover to the open passageways along the building below. The Milledgeville Depot also features large, paired, elaborately carved brackets to support these eaves. The building was constructed with many large double-hung sash windows which were crowned with plain stone flat arches. Many of the doors located on all four of the buildings exterior surfaces have rounded tops. The original building consisted of a ticket purchasing station, a freight room, and passenger waiting rooms. Docks were constructed on the east and west facades of the buildings to facilitate the delivery and unloading of merchandise to the depot. A 2,200 square foot addition was constructed at the south end of the building at an unknown date. The fineness of the exterior details as well as the overall structural intactness of the building inspired GC&SU to reconsider their plans for the former depot. (Ill. 25, 26, 27, 28)

Georgia College and State University had recognized the need for a community and student wellness/fitness center in Milledgeville for a number of years. The identification of the train depot as an ideal location for institutional expansion as well as its centralized campus location and the necessity of a wellness center all led to the beginning of the restoration and rehabilitation of the depot in the year 2000. Although the renovation required a relatively small sum, there was originally some concern as to how such a project could be financed. The
Illustration 25: View of Old Depot.

Illustration 26: View of Old Depot
Illustration 27: Old Depot
awarding of a Transportation Enhancement Program grant from the Department of Transportation coupled with over $200,000 from school and private funds answered that question. Known as ISTEA Grants, Intermodel Surface Transportation Efficiency Act grants are funded by monies set aside by the Department of Transportation for a variety of different activities. Acquisition of scenic easements or historic sites, historic highway programs, landscaping and beautification projects, the rehabilitation of historic abandoned railway corridors and the historic preservation of structures with any connection to transportation are all eligible for grants through this program. There are federal and state levels of TEA grants; the requirements for the eligibility in each of these program vary somewhat.\footnote{Surface Transportation Policy Program, \textit{TEA-21 Users Guide: Making the Most of the New Transportation Bill} (Washington DC: Surface Transportation Policy Program, 1998).} Georgia College and State University received $800,000 dollars through the Departments of Transportation ISTEA Grant, enabling them to begin the rehabilitation of the historic depot.

Georgia College and State University engaged the Atlanta architectural firm of Bradfield, Richards, Rhodes and Associates for the development of plans for the depot and Garbutt Construction of Dublin, Georgia for the renovation work. Bradfield, Richards, Rhodes and Associates created options for the interior layout of the building as their first step. They developed three potential schemes; GC&SU elected to use the layout that provided for the functions deemed necessary for the wellness center. The final scheme created an aerobics room with restroom facilities in the former freight room and a weight room in the large addition. The passenger waiting area and depot offices were slated for a classroom, office and common area. A juice bar was located near the entry. The Georgia State Historic Preservation Office was contacted with regard to the adherence of the final plans for the building to the Secretary of the Interior’s Standards. The SHPO determined that the renovations would have no adverse effect to
either the building of its surroundings. With this determination, renovations were begun on the depot.

The exterior renovations to the depot remained minimal in order to preserve the depot in as original a fashion as possible. GC&SU announced its commitment to a careful and thoughtful rehabilitation early on in the project. The Milledgeville Railway’s “Beauty Special” gave the depot a special significance for the school and encouraged in a renovation that aimed to rehabilitate the building so that it looked exactly as it did during its period of greatest usage. The exterior of the building had been painted white for its appearance in a movie some years before. The paint job was hastily and poorly executed, and as a result the architectural firm and GC&SU elected to remove the paint in order to restore the building to its original appearance. Paint was removed from the majority of the building’s brick facades. All of the building’s exterior painted surfaces were contaminated with lead based paint. The windows and exterior doors had suffered extensive damage over the years and were subsequently replaced.

The interior of the depot received more extensive renovations. The interior was gutted in order to remove debris accumulated in the depot after years of its use as a storage facility. The various tenants of the building had performed a number of insensitive alterations to its interior finishes. Spaces had been changed by the removal or addition of walls, and the walls of the office were coated with plaster that contained asbestos. Rather than remove the plaster, the architects and contractors encapsulated the walls and then covered them with gypsum board. A dropped ceiling was then added to this area in order to hide the new mechanical and electrical systems added to the building. During the renovations to the former freight room, the original freight weight scale was uncovered from beneath the freight room floor and will now be on display in the building. The addition of bathroom facilities to the building required an interior
Illustration 28: Site plan of Old Depot provided by Bradfield, Richard, Rhodes and Associates.
alteration that removed floor space from the freight room. In order to create a sensitive renovation, the wall that separates the bathroom from the freight room was finished in a brick similar to the freight room walls. The interior of the bathrooms was inspired by the original use of the buildings and features concrete counters, galvanized metal wall panels, and ceramic quarry tile for the finishes. The aerobics and weight room were designed to retain the buildings industrial character. These rooms feature exposed roof structure and mechanical equipment. 

To be used by the Health, Physical Education, and Recreation Department, the building will house a learning laboratory for students studying Health Education. It will feature a multipurpose room for aerobics and large areas intended for machines and weights as well as locker rooms and administrative space. A testing facility and office provide faculty with the space required for monitoring athletic activity. The juice bar will serve faculty, students and visitors. Despite the radical departure from the building’s original use, changes to the structure have not been extreme. The interior has been redeveloped, but most of the drastic changes to the interior spaces occurred long before the school obtained ownership of the depot. Renovations to the exterior were confined mostly to the repair and cleaning of the brick and the restoration of the millwork found throughout the facades. The efforts of Georgia College and State University have proven an important point in adaptive reuse theory. Despite initial doubt that a railroad depot could become a wellness center without destroying the historic fabric of the structure, GC&SU has done just that. The Old Depot restoration project proves that the realm of possibility for the adaptive reuse of historic structures is indeed large.

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67 Tony Kenney Interview, 1 October 2003.
Georgia College and State University Old Governor’s Mansion

Of all of GC&SU’s historic preservation endeavors, the restoration of the Old Governor’s Mansion has been the most publicized. Unlike other examples of adaptive reuse discussed within this thesis, GC&SU is removing the mansion from its service as classrooms and administrative facilities in order to put it into service as a living museum. Although the idea of using historic buildings as museums is not the guiding principle behind this thesis, the mansion deserves a brief mention because of its one hundred years of past usage by the school as well as the school-wide and potentially state-wide impact its restoration will bring.

Built in 1838, the Executive Governor’s Mansion was the fifth and last residence constructed for Georgia governors during the time Milledgeville was the capital of Georgia. Designed by Charles B. Cluskey and built by Timothy Porter, the Classical Revival Mansion is often considered to be one of the finest examples of early nineteenth century high style architecture in Georgia.\(^69\) The Old Governor’s Mansion was home to eight Georgia governors between the years of 1839 and 1868. In 1864, the mansion was used for the headquarters of General William T. Sherman during his brief stop in Milledgeville. When the capital of Georgia was moved to Atlanta in 1868, the Mansion was briefly converted into barracks for Georgia Military College Cadets.\(^70\) In 1889, it was given to the Georgia Normal Industrial College for Women for use as a presidential residence as well as students housing. For the past one hundred years, the mansion has continued to be used in this fashion as well as in many other ways. At various times, the building has been used for classrooms, administrative offices, retail area and museum space.\(^71\)

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\(^69\) Hair, 13.
\(^70\) Leola Beeson, History Stories of Milledgeville and Baldwin County (Macon, GA: J.W. Burke, 1943) 88.
\(^71\) Jim Turner, Interview by Author, 5 October 2003, via e-mail.
In the 1960s, the mansion underwent partial renovation, intended to stabilize certain deteriorating elements of the house. During these renovations, the university administration decided to house three university functions under one roof: a house museum, a banquet facility and guest house, and a home for the president of the university. This plan remained in place for the next twenty-five years. In 1987, the last president moved out of the Old Governor’s Mansion, and the mansion served primarily as a house museum. Despite the renovations done in the sixties, the house began showing signs of deterioration by 1990. The mansion’s importance to both the school and to the community prompted quick intervention. The Georgia College and State University Foundation had formed a Mansion Committee for this reason. The Mansion Committee joined forces with the director of the Old Governor’s Mansion and the university administration and began lobbying for money from the state assembly and from private donors and foundations for funds to conduct a complete and historically accurate restoration of the mansion.

The ten million dollar restoration cost was covered using a variety of different resources. The $4 million dollars given by the Georgia General Assembly, as well as $5 million approved by the legislature in 2001 and $1.5 million awarded to the project by the Robert W. Woodruff Foundation allowed the restoration to begin. The plans for the restoration for the structure were meticulous; years of research and learning have been conducted with the aim of restoring the Mansion as historically accurate as possible. The hope for the building is that it will become a learning tool for students of all ages. The Mansion’s educational staff has created a variety of activities geared toward elementary school aged children with the aim of teaching them about preservation, restoration, and Georgia history. Upon completion of the restoration, further educational programs will be developed so that the museum can be utilized as a learning center.
While it is obvious that rehabilitation efforts of this scale and variety are not a viable option for all schools, the efforts of GC&SU in the preservation and further use of the Old Governor’s Mansion are interesting in their uniqueness and far-reaching implications. The conversion of the former residence into a museum that is intended to benefit not just its primary institution and owners is an excellent example of the type of community/college effort that is becoming so vital in preservation endeavors. (Illustrations 27 and 28)

72 Jim Turner, Interview
Figure 29- Historic photograph of Old Governor’s Mansion. (www.GC&SU.edu)

Figure 30- Current restoration efforts on the Old Governor’s Mansion.
Chapter 4

FUNDING CAMPUS EXPANSION THROUGH ADAPTIVE RE-USE

The economics of historic preservation efforts, especially given the unpredictable nature of renovating historic structures, can be the most difficult element of the preservation process for anyone who is not an expert in finance. One of the biggest myths of historic preservation (and rehabilitation in particular) involves the alleged difficulty in funding renovation work. There are a myriad of different resources that can be utilized for funding historic preservation efforts. These resources are available to private and commercial owners as well as to non-profit, tax-exempt entities such as colleges and universities. The purpose of this chapter is not to create a definitive work on the economic incentives available to colleges and universities; creating a comprehensive list of every funding opportunity or financial incentive that potentially could be used by a college or university for an adaptive re-use project is beyond the capabilities of this thesis. Every individual project undertaken by a school is going to vary, and because of that there is no one funding formula that can be applied to undertakings of this nature. The previous chapters highlighted a number of funding opportunities for adaptive reuse projects. This chapter endeavors to present federal, state and private methods for funding projects of this kind in a bit more detail. The following examples of economic incentives and funding sources are by no means the full extent of the opportunities available to interested rehabilitators; rather, they are a general overview of the types of preservation aids that can be found. Hopefully, the measures
discussed in this chapter will illustrate the many opportunities for financial assistance that exist while also serving as a platform for researching funding opportunities for a specific project. Any institution that wishes to conduct an adaptive rehabilitation of a historic building would be well served by contacting their local State Historic Preservation Office as well as the National Park Service for further information on these funding opportunities.

Rehabilitation Investment Tax Credits

There are a number of governmental funding opportunities to be found for historic preservation. A complete list of federal aid programs can be obtained from the Office of the Secretary of the Interior or from the appropriate State Historic Preservation Office. One example of federal aid is the rehabilitative investment tax credit.

As preservation has become more widely practiced in recent years, so has the concept of the economic incentives of preservation. For many, the term rehabilitation is now inextricably entwined with the words investment tax credit. The National Park Service’s Rehabilitative Tax Credit Program benefits income-producing properties by allowing owners and sometimes lessees of historic buildings to claim tax credits on construction expenditures incurred during the rehabilitation of the building. The tax credits are available on two levels, as either twenty or ten percent credits.

The twenty percent tax credit applies to buildings that have been listed on the National Register of Historic Places, are eligible for such a listing, or that contribute to a National Register District. The cost of the rehabilitation must be greater than the adjusted basis of the building (the purchase price of the building minus the cost of the land plus the value of any improvements already made to the structure minus any depreciation already taken) or above a minimum amount of $5,000. The rehabilitation must be conducted according to the Secretary of the Interior’s
Standards for Rehabilitation, and the work is subject to review by both the National Parks Service and the State Historic Preservation Office. If the rehabilitation meets the Standards’ specifications, the work is considered certifiable and the tax credit will be granted. After the rehabilitation, the building must continue to be income-producing for a minimum of five years.

The ten percent tax credit applies to buildings that were constructed before 1936 but that are not listed on the National Register or within a National Register District. The ten percent tax credit is available provided rehabilitation work meets the following criteria. A minimum of fifty percent of the building’s walls that existed prior to the beginning of renovation work must remain in place as external walls at the conclusion of work. At least seventy-five percent of the building’s existing external walls must remain in place as either external or internal walls. Finally, seventy-five percent or more of the building’s internal structural framework must remain in place at the end of rehabilitation. Like the twenty percent credit criteria, the cost of the rehab must be above the adjusted basis of the building or above $5,000, whichever is greater. The building must also remain income producing, but with an additional condition: the building can be used for industrial or commercial space, but not for rental housing. Applications for the ten percent tax credit are not subject to National Park Service review, but the appropriate SHPO should be kept appraised of the rehabilitation project.73

Applying the rehabilitative tax credit to college or university projects requires more creativity than would be necessary for a commercial venture. Colleges and Universities are tax-exempt entities. Therefore, they cannot directly benefit from the tax credits themselves. They can, however, ally themselves with organizations that can use the tax credits. These partnerships

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can then be used to help preserve a historic building. There are many cases of tax exempt entities forming limited partnerships with other groups while maintaining a minority ownership interest as a general partner in the rehabilitation endeavor. This would allow the limited partner to still take advantage of the tax credit.\textsuperscript{74}

The main difficulty of tax-exempt organizations benefiting from rehabilitation tax credits lies within renovations to buildings that the college or university already owns. If the school sells the building in question to a taxable entity in order for that entity to renovate the building and benefit from the credits, re-leasing that building back to the college or university will negate the tax credits for the taxable entity. Part four of the Internal Revenue Code states that if a lease occurs after a sale and the lessee used the property before the sale or lease, a disqualified lease occurs and the tax credits are no longer available. If a university or college already owns a building, the disqualified lease rule would be a problem if they wanted to renovate that building and take advantage of the tax credits. However, if a building is desired by a college or university but purchased by an independent, taxable entity with whom the university has formed a partnership, that entity can claim the tax credit upon renovation and can then lease the building back to the school provided that the lease term is less than twenty years. If there is a purchase option at the termination of the lease, the purchase price must be at fair market value. The other way of bypassing the disqualified lease clause is if the building is a mixed-use facility. If less than 35% of the net rentable floor of the property is owned by the tax-exempt entity and the remaining portion of the building is owned by a taxable organization, the property is not treated as a tax-exempt property. If more than 35% of the building is owned by the tax-exempt organization, with the remaining portion owned by a taxable entity, the taxpayer would be allowed to claim a rehabilitation tax credit on the portion of the building not rented or owned by

\textsuperscript{74} Michael Auer, National Park Service employee, Interview with Author, 26 June 2003, via e-mail.
the tax-exempt entity. In this case, although the entire rehabilitation cost is not eligible for a tax
credit, at least a portion of it would be.\textsuperscript{75}

Although financing an adaptive reuse project through the investment tax credit requires
more effort than other sources of funding, it should be considered an attractive alternative to
more traditional methods. The use of the tax credit by a college or university is rare, but not
unprecedented. Michael Auer, of the National Park Service Preservation Division, can recall
several examples of a college or university forming a limited partnership with another entity in
order to take advantage of the rehabilitation tax credit for an academic building. A college in
Alaska has recently put forth a proposal for just such a project, and is currently developing the
application.\textsuperscript{76} Although the instances of colleges and universities claiming the ten or twenty
percent rehabilitation tax credit are rare, it should not be dismissed out of hand. Any institution
facing an adaptive reuse project of this variety should contact the National Park Service
regarding the application of tax credits to their undertaking.

\textit{Grants-In-Aid}

The Historic Preservation Grants-In-Aid program is funded by the National Park
Service’s Historic Preservation Fund. Since 1968, over one billion dollars in grant funds have
been awarded to states, territories, Indian tribes, local governments, and the National Trust for
Historic Preservation. States are allocated a certain amount of money, averaging about
$573,000, to be administered by the State Historic Preservation Officer. The National Park
Service has no say in the distribution of these awards. The objective of the program is to provide
matching grants to states or territories for the identification, evaluation and protection of historic
resources. These grants can be applied directly to the State Historic Preservation Office or can

\textsuperscript{75} Colleen Galagher, Interview by Author, 5 August 2003, via e-mail.
\textsuperscript{76} Interview with Michael Auer, via e-mail. June 26, 2003.
be transferred to eligible third parties for the purpose of survey work, National register
nominations, historic structure reports and other preservation activities as well as for the
acquisition or repair of these properties. While the individual grants administered by the SHPO
are generally not large, they are still certainly helpful and should be considered a viable
possibility for funding campus adaptive re-use projects. A wide range of preservation activities
have been financed through the use of the Historic Preservation Grants-In-Aid program; state
designated recipients include state and local governments, public and private nonprofit
organizations, and individuals. Since states have the right to select the eligible projects
according to their own priorities and plans, a college or university has just a good a chance to
benefit from this program as any other organization. More information on the Historic
Preservation Grants-In-Aid Program can be obtained through each state’s SHPO.77

The Transportation Equity Act for the 21st Century (TEA-21)

The Transportation Equity Act for the 21st Century was established in 1998, followed in
1991 by the Intermodal Surface Transportation Efficiency Act (ISTEA). These two acts were
passed in order to create legislature that aims specifically to improve the safety and efficiency of
roadways and transportation systems as well as protecting and enhancing communities and the
natural environment. TEA-21 and ISTEA were intended to give states and communities more
ability to address environmental and quality of life issues. ISTEA grants are funded using
federal highway funds which are redistributed to various states in order to promote the initiatives
of TEA-21 and ISTEA. Ten percent of Federal Surface Transportation funds are set aside to
fund transportation enhancement projects. Administered by the Federal Highway Administration
(FHA), ISTEA funds have created a large source for preservation funding. Between 1992 and

77 “Catalogue of Federal Domestic Assistance,” Database online, Office of the Assistant Secretary for Planning and
2001, more than three billion dollars were distributed by the FHA towards transportation enhancements. Grants were awarded to 2,300 preservation projects. The ISTEA grant program was designed with very specific parameters in mind. Only ten activities can qualify for ISTEA grant funds: facilities for pedestrians or bicycles; the acquisition of scenic easements or historic sites; scenic or historic highway programs; landscaping and other scenic beautification; historic preservation; rehabilitation of historic buildings, structures or facilities; preservation of abandoned railway corridors; control and removal of outdoor advertising; archeological planning and research; and mitigation of water pollution due to highway runoff. Colleges and universities with an interest in adaptively reusing a structure with an historic transportation connection (such as Georgia College and State University’s Old Depot in Milledgeville which received over $800,000 dollars in ISTEA grants) should certainly consider applying for an ISTEA grant. Further information regarding ISTEA grants can be obtained from the U.S. Department of Transportation Federal Highway Administration.78

*Save America’s Treasures Grants*

The Save America’s Treasures program was established in 1999 in recognition of the increasing need for proactive preservation initiatives in America. Administered by the National Park Service and the National Endowment for the Arts, grant recipients can include state and local governments, American Indian tribes, and non-profit organizations. Grants are funded by the Federal Historic Preservation Fund and require a dollar-for-dollar non-Federal match by the grantee. The maximum grant is $1 million dollars and the minimum is $250,000 dollars for historic property projects. Eligible properties must be nationally significant as well as threatened, endangered or otherwise urgently in need of preservation intervention. Past projects

selected by the Save America’s Treasures grant program include preservation efforts for Florida Southern College in Lakeland Florida, which was designed by Frank Lloyd Wright, and the rehabilitation of Hood College’s historic library in Fredrick, Maryland. For more information and application materials on the Save America’s Treasures Grants, visit www.cr.nps.gov/treasure.htm.

Private Grants

In addition to government funding incentives, there are a great number of private grant opportunities to be found. Private grants vary extensively depending upon the view of the foundation that offers them. Most foundations are very specific in targeting both the grantee organization and the scope of the project that is to be benefited. There are thousands of private grants available, but it is necessary to find one that fits each project’s needs and specifications. The three grants briefly discussed in this work are representative of the types of private grants to be found, but they should be taken as examples from which further research can stem.

The Getty Campus Heritage Grant assists colleges and universities in the management and preservation of the historic integrity of their significant structures. The grant focuses primarily on planning activities. Grants are available for the following purposes:

1) To provide the means to conduct surveys of historic resources on campuses for the purpose of creating inventories of such properties as well as providing the basis for the historic designation for structures and districts as appropriate;

2) To provide the means for developing a preservation master plan or to revise an existing campus master plan to include a preservation master plan; and

3) To provide the means for the preparation of detailed preservation analyses and practical specifications;
These preparations include extensive documentation of historic structures as well as the compilation of historic structure reports. While projects that focus on solitary buildings or structures, basic maintenance or upkeep of a property, or the replacement of resources that no longer exist are not eligible for grant assistance, individual buildings of great significance or merit can apply for Architectural Grants from the Getty Foundation.79

The Robert W. Woodruff Foundation, Inc. is an independent private foundation. It has a broad charter to provide for charitable, scientific and educational efforts. The grants are usually confined to tax-exempt public charities or organizations. Preference is usually given to one-time capital projects, and rarely are awards given to individuals or basic operating needs. Although preference is given to organizations that are located or operate in Georgia, organizations located outside of the state can benefit as well. In 2002, the Robert W. Woodruff Foundation awarded $122,831,490 through 70 grants. Of this, $2,565,000 was awarded to organizations that focused on cultural activities, with two grants equaling $90,000 directly benefiting historic preservation efforts. In 2001, the foundation awarded 1.5 million dollars to Georgia State College and University for the renovation of the historic Governor’s Mansion.80

The Lettie Pate Evans Foundation, Inc. was chartered in 1945 for the promotion of charity and charitable activities. Grants from this foundation are limited to Georgia and Virginia and are intended for use in higher education, arts and culture, or museums and historic preservation. Preference is usually given to one-time capital projects and never to individuals. In 2002, $5,830,000 was given through the award of ten grants. Of this, $50,000 was awarded to historical societies and preservation efforts. Grant recipients in 2002 included Reinhardt College

in Waleska, Georgia, which received $400,000 dollars to renovate a library and Wesleyan College in Macon, Georgia, which received $500,000 dollars for capital improvements and renovations to its campus.  


The University Financing Foundation

The University Financing Foundation (TUFF) is a non-profit, tax-exempt foundation that was formed in 1982. Originally developed as a resource intended to benefit institutions in Georgia alone, in 1995 the foundation became national and now has the capability to aid institutions in all fifty states. TUFF incurs tax-exempt debt issued by existing municipal governmental authorities in order to facilitate the construction of academic facilities. TUFF also makes use of tax-exempt debt to construct or rehabilitate facilities that are then leased to the institution for which they were built. The title to the facility passes to the institution upon the retirement of the debt. TUFF has also raised enough funds of its own to apply credit and money to projects of a moderate scale to leasing or lending endeavors without incurring debt or involving third parties. These projects are usually limited to those with needs between $100,000 dollars to $600,000 dollars.

Projects funded through TUFF management include the Kennesaw State University Continuing Education Center and the Georgia State University School of Music. The Kennesaw State project began in 1998 with the issuance of $15,990,000 dollars in bonds by the Cobb County Development Authority to TUFF for the development of a new continuing education center. TUFF purchased and rehabilitated a 164,000 square foot shopping center adjacent to campus to house the center. In 1994, TUFF assisted GSU with the renovation of the former office buildings and movie theater that now comprise the GSU School of Music. TUFF now
owns the facility and leases it to the Georgia State University Foundation, which will in turn own the buildings in 2014 once the debt is retired.

Institutions interested in information regarding the availability of TUFF funds should visit their website, www.TUFF.org.82

Real Estate Foundations

The formation of university real estate foundations is a relatively recent trend in funding university expansion. While most universities have had some form of an independent fundraising and donation-managing foundation for a number of years, the addition of foundations that deal specifically with university real estate agencies first gained prominence in the mid-1980’s, mainly as a result of the success of the University of Virginia Real Estate Foundation (UREF). UREF was created in 1988 to assume the responsibility of acquiring, developing, and managing real property or interests in real property on behalf of the university. The foundation undertakes the acquisition of land for future academic, institutional and residential university requirements in order to promote the continued and harmonious growth of the University’s physical campus. Other schools soon followed UVA’s lead, and now many state universities have some form of independent organization that deals solely with the funding of university expansion and building efforts. While some schools have real estate foundations that are separate from any other foundation, other schools form a distinct branch of the already-existing university foundation to manage real estate acquisitions and growth. Although every real estate foundation will differ slightly in its bylaws and practices, they are all fundamentally the same. Real estate foundations are organized in order to facilitate capitaly funded projects primarily for facilities that generate income such as parking decks, dining halls, and grant-funded research centers. An example of private-public cooperation, foundations are able to issue bonds
to fund new real estate endeavors that are to be retired over a certain amount of time using increased student fees, rental payments and private funds. Foundations use private dollars and reasonable debt in order to fund these projects.83

Although real estate foundations tend to focus mainly on the construction of new facilities, they also often have an opportunity to become involved in adaptive reuse projects. The University of Virginia recently acquired a former hospital building located adjacent to the main campus. Plans are currently in development for the rehabilitation and adaptive reuse of this facility into an academic building. The University of Georgia Real Estate Foundation has participated in an adaptive re-use project through the creation of the Broad Street Studios for the Lamar Dodd School of Art and UGA College of Environment and Design. Located on a prominent street in downtown Athens, Georgia, this series of buildings once housed a Napa auto parts business and Studebaker showroom. The University of Georgia Foundation acquired these buildings in 2000. In 2001, the Real Estate Foundation financed the three million dollar renovation of these buildings, thereby creating new space for UGA academic facilities that was contiguous to campus while simultaneously preserving a building whose future was becoming increasingly uncertain.

Real estate foundations can do a great deal towards financing an adaptive reuse project. Unlike colleges and universities, real estate foundations can go into debt, enabling them to purchase buildings immediately rather than wait for all of the funding. As non-profits, they can take on the responsibility for applying for rehabilitation tax credits. As the number of university

83 Krista Coleman-Silvers, Project Coordinator at the UGA Real Estate Foundation. Interview by Author; 19 August 2003.
real estate foundations continue to grow, so do the opportunities for funding campus expansion through adaptive reuse.
Chapter 5

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The idea of using existing historic resources for campus expansion is hardly a new or unique one. Examples of campus adaptive reuse can be traced back nearly as far as the practice of constructing new buildings for institutions in need of room to grow. This thesis does not purport to introduce an original theory of institutional adaptive reuse. Campus adaptive reuse has existed for countless years and the practice will continue regardless of the existence of this thesis. However, although recent trends in campus planning and the formation of campus/community partnerships seem to indicate the dawning of a new era in dealing with school growth issues, there are still very few written resources dealing exclusively with university and college efforts to utilize historic preservation practices. The lack of readily accessible or well-established materials concerning this subject contributes to the difficulty in making these practices more widely accepted. Despite the many examples of successful campus expansion using existing historic structures, adaptive reuse is not always amongst the most popular options for facilitating institutional growth. The case studies and economic options that were presented in the previous pages are intended to be viewed as tools and examples of what can be accomplished by schools for the greater good of both the institution and its community in the hope that the collecting of these instances will perhaps inspire more imagination in the solution of expansion efforts. New construction and the demolition of existing structures are still
by far the most common solutions to campus growth needs. While there are undoubtedly dozens of reasons behind this “new is better” mindset, a lack of knowledge concerning the benefit and potential of using a historic building located in the community adjacent to the institution is assuredly near the top of this list.

The benefits of utilizing an existing historic building for campus expansion are many. The movement of a school into dying areas suffering from urban decay and neglect can often have a revitalizing effect upon those areas. The presence of students, faculty and staff brings life, money, activity and an increased police presence to these areas. From a preservation viewpoint, colleges and universities bring versatility to the renovation of buildings often considered to be problematic in terms of adapting them to a new function. As a result of this flexibility, institutions are able to preserve significant buildings that would otherwise be doomed to perceived obsolescence and eventual demolition. Areas that were formerly considered to be blights within a community can be transformed through the efforts of schools and can become vital contributors to the economy and social infrastructure of that town or city. The collaboration of university officials and local governments can go a long way toward enacting positive change for the community and institution together.

While the many pros of campus expansion through historic preservation should be considered by any university or college facing the need for further growth, there are negative aspects to development of this variety that need to be considered. One of the most limiting and damaging dangers to successful adaptive reuse efforts is the danger of too much campus expansion into historically commercial or residential areas. Unfortunately, there is a thin line between good campus intervention and intrusive expansion. Savannah College of Art and Design, one of the most criticized and praised practitioners of widespread campus adaptive reuse
efforts, is a good example of the necessity in finding a happy medium between praiseworthy preservation and unwanted intrusion. In spite of many years of commendation and the receipt of a number of preservation citations concerning their efforts, a growing number of property owners in Savannah are becoming resentful of the continually growing presence of SCAD throughout the historic districts of Savannah. As time goes on and SCAD continues to utilize historic preservation to facilitate institutional growth, many feel that this resentment will continue to grow as well, resulting in an increasingly acrimonious relationship between town and gown that will undermine the good work accomplished by SCAD’s preservation efforts. According to recent editorials and public sentiment, Georgia State University is beginning to face community resentment as it continues to develop structures within the Fairlie-Poplar district. Without care and proper planning on the part of the institution, members of a community can come to regard a school’s presence in a historic area as interloping and unwanted despite the best intentions of the school. The price of preservation efforts then becomes the development of deep resentment, rendering the exercise pointless in many ways despite the preservation of a historic structure. Extensive growth into traditionally commercial or residential historic districts can also rob the structures located within these areas of their original context and historic feel. Without this context, the preservation of the individual structures effectively wins the immediate battle while ultimately losing the preservation war. While the preservation of irreplaceable resources should be considered amongst the first priorities of campus adaptive reuse efforts, the forging of campus/community relationships should be of highest importance as well, and one should not come at the expense of the other.

Finding a balance between smart growth and excessive involvement is a necessity for any school wishing to create a presence in a neighboring area. It is unfortunate that there is no one
formula to compute the exact figures of ideal expansion. Ultimately, the responsibility to create a positive environment for citizens and students alike rests within the hands of the college administration and the community leaders. Despite the political and occasionally emotional delicacies of creating a successful presence within a community using existing historic structures, colleges and universities are well served by advocating and initiating growth of this variety. As the intangible barriers between town and gown mentalities begin to soften, so too should the physical boundaries. Historic preservation is an ideal means for softening the edges of this transition.

Although there are certain common elements to most campus adaptive reuse efforts, the examples provided within this thesis suggest that each case will vary greatly. The type of building, the extent of necessary renovation, and the funding mechanisms utilized will be different in each case. As a result of these variables, providing a general adaptive reuse plan to be used by schools in each expansion endeavors would prove difficult. Schools would be much better served by keeping an open mind and relying upon intense examinations of previous rehabilitation efforts by institutions. However, there are certain recommendations that can be made that would apply to most projects.

1) The integration of a historic preservation plan into the campus master or comprehensive plan is highly advised. While some schools have incorporated official preservation measures into the campus master plan, the majority of schools have not taken the formal step of placing preservation goals and considerations into writing. A campus preservation plan would provide a legitimate mechanism for preservation regardless of the level of preservation expertise or practice present in the campus planning office. The historic preservation plan should address the protection of campus historic buildings as well as the potential for campus expansion into
community historic areas. The development of the preservation plan should be based upon the Secretary of the Interior’s Standards of Preservation Planning (Appendix A) as well as the Standards for Rehabilitation, both of which were created for a broad interpretation of preservation, to be used at any level of planning or rehabilitation.

2) There should be a concerted effort on the part of campuses and campus planners for the wide publication of the adaptive reuse/expansion efforts of their institution. While local publication is certainly helpful, the widespread dissemination of information to a variety of forums would be extremely helpful to institutions considering expansion efforts of this ilk. Planning conferences and organizations such as the Society of College and University Planners journal and website should be utilized as excellent opportunities for the discussion of these efforts. The National Trust and Preservation Online Journal have already published a number of articles about campus adaptive reuse efforts and should be considered partners by campus planners concerned with university historic preservation.

3) Community/campus partnerships should be encouraged. Although these relationships need not, and indeed should not, focus only on historic preservation, preservation should be viewed as a potential tool for cementing these relationships. Adaptive reuse expansion assists both the school and the community, thereby forging a link between the two. Resources such as the Housing and Urban Development’s Office of University Partnership’s should be utilized by campus planners as a forum for discussions of town and gown issues. Institutions should not stop simply at the establishment of relationships with local governments. Local businesses that rely upon the business of tourists and visitors have a vested interest in creating an inviting and aesthetically pleasing environment that encourages greater tourism and as such would possibly be receptive to the idea of forging allegiances with colleges and universities.
4) Campus planners would be well advised to keep an open and imaginative mind when it comes to campus expansion efforts. Any type of historic structure is potentially useful to a college or university. Commercial, retail, governmental, industrial and residential buildings can all be rehabilitated to meet a wide variety of uses. There are examples of campus use of courthouses, churches, mansions, street car warehouses and Coca-Cola bottling plants to be found in the state of Georgia. A historic building should be viewed as a blank canvas; there are no limits as to what these structures can be used for. If a former railroad depot can be converted into a campus wellness building without any exterior alterations, anything is possible.

5) The factors that apply to any type of adaptive reuse project should always be kept in mind by schools when considering a project of this variety. There should always be adequate demand for the project in the local market. There should be manageable public approvals of the project. The physical character and location of the existing building should be taken into consideration in determining the suitability of its new use. Finally, the availability of financing for the project should always be closely evaluated.

The ideas presented within this thesis merely constitute a starting point for campus adaptive reuse efforts. It is probable that colleges and universities will continue to grow rapidly and growth will create a need for more campus facilities. While new construction and development will always be an important component of this expansion, the successes of many schools in their usage of historic buildings proves that adaptive reuse should be considered a feasible alternative to invasive development. Most historic buildings are valued by their community for more than just their market price or centralized location. The institution that does not recognize and accommodate this value does both itself and its community a great disservice. Colleges and universities are in a unique position that is ideal to the preservation of seemingly
obsolete historic buildings. It is now time for preservation to be used as a tool to solidify town and gown relationships.
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APPENDIX

The Secretary of the Interior’s Standards for
Preservation Planning

STANDARDS

Preservation planning is a process that organizes preservation activities (identification, evaluation, registration and treatment of historic properties) in a logical sequence. The Standards for Planning discuss the relationship among these activities while the remaining activity standards consider how each activity should be carried out. The Professional Qualifications Standards discuss the education and experience required to carry out various activities. The Standards for Planning outline a process that determines when an area should be examined for historic properties, whether an identified property is significant, and how a significant property should be treated.

Preservation planning includes public participation. The planning process should provide a forum for open discussion of preservation issues. Public involvement is most meaningful when it is used to assist in defining values of properties and preservation planning issues, rather than when it is limited to review of decisions already made. Early and continuing public participation is essential to the broad acceptance of preservation planning decisions.

Preservation planning can occur at several levels or scales: in a project area; in a community; in a State as a whole; or in scattered or contiguous landholdings of a Federal agency. Depending
upon the scale, the planning process will involve different segments of the public and professional communities and the resulting plan will vary in detail. For example, a State preservation plan will likely have more general recommendations than a plan for a project area or a community.

The planning process described in these Standards is flexible enough to be used at all levels while providing a common structure which promotes coordination and minimizes duplication of effort. The Guidelines for Preservation Planning contain additional information about how to integrate various levels of planning.

**STANDARD I. Preservation Planning Establishes Historic Contexts**

Decisions about the identification, evaluation, registration and treatment of historic properties are most reliably made when the relationship of individual properties to other similar properties is understood. Information about historic properties representing aspects of history, architecture, archeology, engineering and culture must be collected and organized to define these relationships.

This organizational framework is called a “historic context.” The historic context organizes information based on a cultural theme and its geographical and chronological limits. Contexts describe the significant broad patterns of development in an area that may be represented by historic properties. The development of historic contexts is the foundation for decisions about identification, evaluation, registration and treatment of historic properties.

**STANDARD II. Preservation Planning Uses Historic Contexts to Develop Goals and Priorities for the Identification, Evaluation, Registration and Treatment of Historic Properties.**
A series of preservation goals is systematically developed for each historic context to ensure that the range of properties representing the important aspects of each historic context is identified, evaluated and treated. Then priorities are set for all goals identified for each historic context. The goals with assigned priorities established for each historic context are integrated to produce a comprehensive and consistent set of goals and priorities for all historic contexts in the geographical area of a planning effort.

The goals for each historic context may change as new information becomes available. The overall set of goals and priorities are then altered in response to the changes in the goals and priorities for the individual historic contexts.

Activities undertaken to meet the goals must be designed to deliver a usable product within a reasonable period of time. The scope of activity must be defined so the work can be completed with available budgeted program resources.

**STANDARD III. The Results of Preservation Planning Are Made Available for Integration Into Broader Planning Processes.**

Preservation of historic properties is one element of larger planning processes. Planning results, including goals and priorities, information about historic properties, and any planning documents, must be transmitted in a usable form to those responsible for other planning activities. Federally mandated historic preservation planning is most successfully integrated into project management planning at an early stage. Elsewhere, this integration is achieved by making the results of preservation planning available to other governmental planning bodies and to private interests whose activities affect historic properties.