The Space Between: A Developmental History of Open Space, Lawns and Gardens of the American Campus and a History of Herty Field

by

DANIEL E. SNIFF

(Under the Direction of Eric MacDonald)

ABSTRACT

The history and evolution of American institutions of higher learning are intimately tied to the land and visions of an Elysian landscape. This is in direct contrast to the European counterpart. The Universities of Bologna, Liden, Paris and Oxford were established six hundred years before Harvard College, and the physical growth of the European campus developed with strong ties to the city. The American counterpart typically developed at a distance from urban centers. The physical development of these colleges was vastly different than those in Europe. Campus buildings were constructed as object buildings within a tree covered green field.

My thesis will present a history of how the American campus developed with open spaces, gardens and buildings built separately, which formed an open lawn or "quadrangle". This singular feature defines the American college campus. Within this open space typology campus life becomes inextricably intertwined with college education. I will utilize five case studies of campuses with open spaces that serve as examples of how colleges' physical plants evolved around the use of land and architecture. Finally, I will cite the University of Georgia's open space development as an example, presenting the history of Herty Field as a specific case of open space development.

INDEX WORDS: Lawns, Open Spaces, Gardens, University of Georgia, Higher Education, Campus Development, Campus

The Space Between: A Developmental History of Open Space, Lawns and Gardens of the American Campus and a History of Herty Field

by

DANIEL E. SNIFF

BARCH, University of Tennessee Knoxville, 1984

MBA, Brenau University, 1997

MLA, University of Georgia, 2008

A Thesis Submitted to the Graduate Faculty of The University of Georgia in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for the Degree

MASTER OF HISTORIC PRESERVATION

ATHENS, GEORGIA

2011

The Space Between: A Developmental History of Open Space, Lawns and Gardens of the American Campus and a History of Herty Field

by

DANIEL E. SNIFF

Major Professor:	Eric MacDonald
Committee:	Mark Reinberger Doug Pardue Elisabeth Hughes

Electronic Version Approved:

Maureen Grasso
Dean of the Graduate School
The University of Georgia
May 2011

DEDICATION

In my life I have discovered that all things worthwhile come from the family. I dedicate this thesis, all the effort that went into it and all my work before this to my family. I especially want to thank my dad, George, my brother, Dave, and my Uncle Ervin who share my love of history and instilled into me a life long love for history. It has become the foundation from which I see the world. I look at everything from a point in the past that explains the present. My love for history might have been a passing interest if not for the three of you.

To my beautiful, talented, smart, caring daughters, Ashley Sarah, Erin Elizabeth, Rylee Beauvais, and Sydney Mahala, life would be incomplete with you. To Joyce, whose love for me I can't explain, but I am happy you give it in such excess. I always admired your patience, fortitude, intelligence and questioned why you chose me?

To my mom and dad whose shoulders I stand on, all I am good and bad, I am because of your guidance. To my brother Don, who filled out my application for the University of Tennessee's architecture school and mailed it; I owe you big time bro. To my sister Denise, my fun loving sister, who takes life with a smile and has raised three amazing children. To my nieces and nephews, have a great life and keep smiling.

I am mindful of my grandparents whose education was so very limited because of circumstances beyond their control. They cultivated the values, which are my definition of family, hard work, perseverance, and because of them, I now can stand on the stage with scholars. This is in remembrance of them.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I must first acknowledge Dr. John (Jack) Crowley who talked me into this adventure; two down, one more to go. To Joyce,who, even at times when I tested every nerve in her body and ounce of sanity, still keep encouraging me to persevere. She edited my work and listened to my ideas and ramblings, and she is still with me! She never got tired of my long winded talks about history. To my rock, I acknowledge your strength.

To Ashley and Erin, thanks for your love and support. Thanks for babysitting and for loving your sisters. Thanks for letting your mom and me go to Kilin-Tyme Cabins! Your mom and I are proud of you both; what great women you are. To Jamie for making Ashley happy, fulfilled and walking with her through life. She is so much like her mother, so I know your life will be filled with happiness and joy. I need to also acknowledge my parents. In spending so much time with Rylee and Sydney, they are developing memories of a lifetime. Also, thanks for giving us the good night sleep we so often needed, especially Friday nights!

I must thank my colleagues in the Office of The University Architects, Ben Rossetti, Alex Devine, Karah Hagins, Clayton Wilcox and the rest who supported me when I attended class. Much thanks to Amy Andrews for all your proofing and editorial support.

To Eric MacDonald, Mark Reinberger, Doug Pardue and Elisabeth Hughes who served on my reading committee and provided so much good advice.

To Jane, you keep it real for Joyce and me! Only you know what you did!

TABLE OF CONTENTS

Page

LIST OF FIGURES

Page

CHAPTER ONE

Thesis Statement

My research question asks whether the American college campus differs from its European counterparts in that the open space is the defining feature of the American campus and whether this defining feature makes the American campus a unique archetype? American campuses have great works of architecture, but this is not unique; many places have notable architecture. The American college campus is unique because the buildings and grounds are set on a green field, arranged in such as way as to frame and support the architecture. The buildings are not the most important or significant element of the campus.

Research Methodology

My research methods included an examination of historical literature and illustrate the relationship between outdoor spaces and learning through time. I will show the architectural development between the built environment and outdoor spaces. I will examine the first two American colleges and explore how they set the foundation for all future college planning. This analysis will be illustrated with case studies of different colleges in America that show how, during the three hundred seventy five year history of higher education in America, these campuses developed with a common theme, a campus with stand alone buildings within a green field. This development is very different from the European college model. I will conclude my thesis with an in-depth case study of Herty Field at the University of Georgia. This case study will demonstrate how a college

quadrangle developed into an important part of campus, was abandoned to a utilitarian use and was restored to a lawn that is in keeping with American planning traditions. This thesis will also show how the American college campus has become the definition for what constitutes a college campus in other parts of the world.

Gardens, Open Spaces and Education

The history and evolution of American institutions of higher learning are intimately linked to the land and visions of an Elysian landscape. This contrasts with their European counterparts, which developed as integral parts of medieval towns and cities. Despite the desire to achieve a similar mission of providing advanced education for its more elite citizens, the physical growth of the European university was comprised of living and studying in a city supported by a vast array of providers. The American counterpart typically developed at a distance from urban centers creating an independent self-sustaining town in miniature. The differences between the European universities and the fledging higher education American efforts resulted in a similar pedagogy but an infinitely different architectural style and campus plan. The new colleges were rustic outposts of learning, sequestered from the corruption, vices and diseases that were commonly associated with cities. The virgin woodlands provided the materials necessary to stave off the elements, the solid ground provided the foundations, and European-educated professors provided the training for the new country's future leaders.

In Nuria Sanz's book, *The Heritage of European Universities*, Sanz lists over fifty-seven universities that were established during the late medieval period, 1000–1500 A.D. The oldest continuously operating universities are the University of Bologna (1088), the University of France (1090), Oxford University (1096), the University of Montpellier

(1289) and the University of Cambridge (1209). The University of Valencia (1499) brings conclusion to Sanz's grouping (Sanz, Hunt).

During the colonial era of the United States, Harvard was founded in 1636 in a cow-yard known at the time as "Cow-yard Row" on the "far end of outside of the town of Cambridge, Massachusetts" (Morison, p. 3). In the 1630s the town of Cambridge was on the edge of the frontier, a true farming community. In Virginia, an attempt had been made to establish the first royal chartered university (1618). The attempt failed, however because of an Indian massacre in 1622. The town and University of Henrico were subsequently abandoned. The University of Henrico would not be resurrected until 1694 complete with a different location and name—William and Mary College—the second oldest university established in America. The University of Georgia, chartered in 1785, is the oldest state-chartered university in the United States. Kelly writes that, "The founders of early colleges argued that the corrupting influences of alcohol, gambling, and other vices associated with the city could be avoided by locating universities in rural locations" (p. 1). Additionally, it was surmised that the fresh air and plentiful land found in the wilderness would insulate against disease, while providing natural resources for the maintenance of the institution (Kelly).

There were many reasons for the colonial colleges to be located outside the cities, and the rural locations helped to create the archetype of the American college campus. This archetype is defined by buildings set in a green field, forming rectangular spaces that are known as quadrangles or "quads." This archetype is a uniquely American form of architecture and landscape architecture. The area between and around the buildings provided places in which to study, reflect, write, meet friends, hold convocations,

graduations, speeches, music and theatrical productions, dances, protests, marches, rallies, tailgating, parties, and even streaking. The grounds also provide ornamental, kitchen, farm and botanical gardens for campus use.

A Brief History of Campus Development and Education

There is a historic and symbiotic relationship between formal education and the use of outdoor spaces of learning. One of the most famous examples of a garden and outdoor spaces being used for teaching is the Peripatetic Schools of ancient Greece. The Peripatetic School in Athens, Greece is also referred to as the "Lyceum," meaning "god of the grove." Greeks referred to the grove as the lyceum after the god Apollo Lyceus or wolf-son. The Peripatetic Lyceum and gymnasium were associated with the Greek institution of post secondary education. Gymnasium in ancient Greek is interpreted as meaning both an outdoor area to train the body for athletic events and for education, the exercising of the mind (Figure 1.1). The Peripatetic School produced some of the most prolific minds of ancient Greece. Aristotle, a student of Plato, taught most of his life at the Prophetic Lyceum, and his influence is still seen in modern education. His curriculum was saturated with diverse subject matter. Students would learn a broad range of topics such as, art, drawing, painting, rhetoric, philosophy, mathematics, geography, natural history, politics and logic (Coulson, Cordasco).

This variety and range of subjects could be found in most of the curriculum from the colonial period, and today is the core of a liberal arts education. Aristotle would meet his students in the Lyceum and "walk with them amongst the groves lecturing and questioning his students in the *lenchus* or 'Socratic Method' style" (Chapman, p. 9). However, the use of a defined outdoor space for teaching predates even the Greeks. There

are numerous examples of gardens being used as venues for education, in Egyptian, Chinese, Babylonian and pre-Columbian societies. (Coulson, Cordasco, Chapman)

Figure 1.1: The Gymnasium at Pompeii

The Greek Lyceum was the model for the University of Mississippi's Grove. The Grove was built in 1848 and signifies the heart of the university. The Greek system was adopted by the Romans, but formal education in ancient times was only provided to the upper echelons of society. In Francesco Cordasco's, *A Brief History of Education: A Handbook for Information on Greek, Roman, Medieval, Renaissance and Modern Educational Practices* (1976), it is estimated that in these cities, less than 20 percent of Greeks and less than 10 percent of Romans were literate. In the countryside, Cordasco estimates the rate was less than 5 percent. These statistics dropped considerably during the Middle Ages.

The Middle Ages and Education

In the western world, education during the Middle Ages was dominated by the church. A Christian education was conducted in monasteries or monastic schools (*Scholae monasticae*) (Cordasco, p. 146). Monastic architecture served as the dominant architectural influence for universities during and after the Middle Ages in Europe and

continued its dominance until American colleges departed from the monastic square. The curriculum of these places of learning included theology, medicine and law. Art was preserved through the middle ages with works commissioned primarily by or for the church (Pierre 1978). Often found on the campus of a monastery was a school for the education of young children. These children were frequently recruited to later lives as monks or nuns (Horn).

The origins of much of the medieval monastic architecture may have derived from St. Benedict of Nursia monastery at the abbey of Monte Cassino, circa 529 A.D. Monte Casssio was designed with a cloister, Latin for “enclosure or shut-in-place,” that was formed by a courtyard comprised of a church, a dormitory, a refectory and a chapter house (Figure 1.2). This layout was a popular form for many centuries. The square or rectangular shaped cloister could have originated from the Mediterranean courtyard or from Greco-Roman *domus* or atrium. The domus was used in early Christian basilicas as a forecourt or gathering space. Old St. Peter’s Basilica domus may have served as the inspiration for this style. The concept of mimicking a domus is also a plausible explanation for its widespread adoption (Horn).

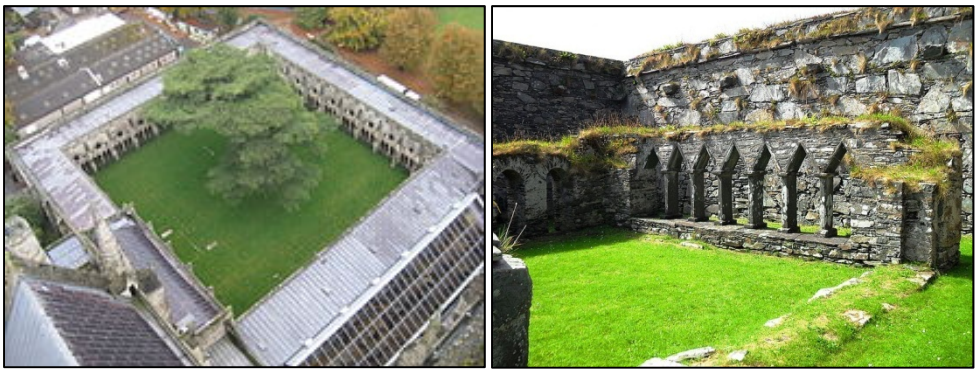


Figure 1.2: Examples of Cloisters in England

The monastic cloister is an inward-looking outdoor space that served many functions, among them, as a space to organize the different building types that defined the cloister. Additionally, the cloister was an architectural expression of the meditations of monks turning their thoughts inward and toward god. The monastic communities were composed of scholars, and the architecture of the monastery reinforced the communal aspects of the monastery. The cloister was one type of outdoor space that was possibly akin to a public square and would have served the same purposes. A central open space gave order to the buildings and provided circulation to and from the different buildings (Horn).

The University of Bologna, established within the Papal State as an independent ecclesiastical school in 1088, is widely regarded as the oldest continuously operating university. The University of Bologna is in the heart of the city just like most of the universities that were established in Europe at the time (Figure 1.3). The university also gave its name to the current process for integrating the various European higher education systems into one European-wide system.

Figure 1.3: The Old University of Bologna

A notable exception was Oxford College (Figure 1.4). The town of Oxford was a well established crossing point between the Cherwell and Thames rivers. A children's school named St. Frideswide Nunnery taught children on the site beginning in the sixth century. Oxford College was established in 1167 and utilized monastic architectural principals in its design and construction (Figure 1.5).

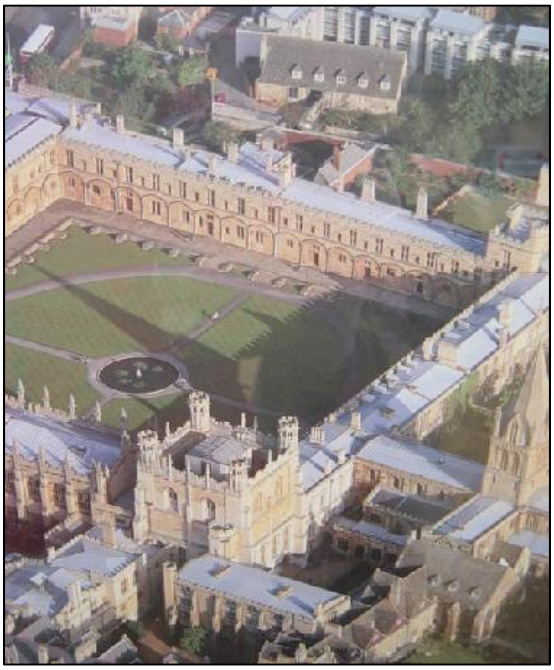


Figure 1.4: Oxford University

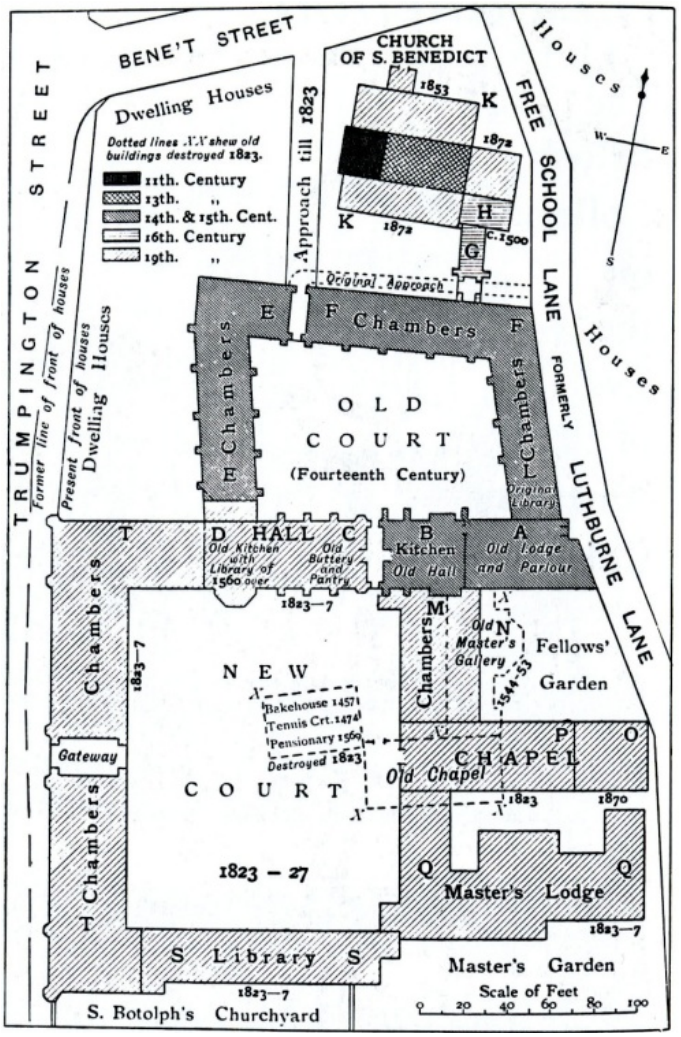


Figure 1.5: Oxford University

The architecture and campus layout of Oxford and Cambridge was well known to the scholars who began building schools in America. However, Paul Turner argues in *Campus: an American Planning Tradition*, that America's colleges embraced the pedagogy of the European university but was separate in the planning process and started a tradition that is uniquely American.

CHAPTER TWO

American College Campuses-Colonial Period through the Early Republic

Many of today's most prestigious institutions are rooted in humble beginnings. The frontier proved to be an ideal location for schools, such as Elazer Wheelock's log cabin at Hanover, New Hampshire, that later became Dartmouth College, and Father Sorin's log chapel, which evolved into the University of Notre Dame. Other similar beginnings are attributed to the University of North Carolina at Chapel Hill, the University of Virginia, and the University of Georgia. At the University of Georgia, the first building commissioned by Josiah Meigs in 1801 was "an indigenous log structure twenty feet square and one and one-half stories high" (Bowen, p.22). The modest frontier beginnings of these institutions were indicative of burgeoning America.

The University of Virginia, in Charlottesville, Virginia, is one of the most studied campuses in America. Toward the end of Thomas Jefferson's life he worked to design and construct what he referred to as an "Academical Village" (Figure 2.1). Jefferson's attention to detail included the grounds, which complimented the architecture. He intentionally used architectural metaphors, such as the Rotunda that crowns the lawn, which was modeled after Hadrian's Pantheon in Rome. The Romans constructed the Pantheon to be a temple to all of the gods; Jefferson's Rotunda was a library or a temple dedicated to knowledge. The pavilions flanking the Rotunda were demure "good soldiers" buildings that humbled themselves to the greater good. The greater good being the lawn and the Rotunda. The ten pavilions were aligned to define an edge and

emphasize the lawn. The walkway edge and the edge of the pavilions' facades are connected with a covered walkway, which is a metaphor for the "public street" (Dennis, p. 4). The walkway, or in an urban context, the sidewalk, is the edge and beginning of the lawn. The lawn is equivalent to the "public green" or "town square," the common space where a city's constituents gathered for activities, including mercantile purposes and conducting government business. The areas behind the covered walkway and pavilions were private and connected to gardens that were meant for the occupants of their respective pavilions. These walled-off gardens offer areas of relaxation and sanctuary. The lawn is the counterbalance to the gardens and intrinsically more than simply an open green space that separates buildings. It embodies the concepts of Jefferson's views for America, "a neoclassical ideal 'adapted to the circumstances of the place' like the American Constitution; it is an elegantly balanced debate between public and private interests" (Dennis, p. 4). Jefferson, always cognizant of the meaning underlying his design, used the dynamic tension between the public and private realm to define his vision of the American university.

Figure 2.1: The Rotunda, Pavilions and Lawn at the University of Virginia

Studies concerning the University of Virginia abound, but the roots of the American college campus began one hundred eighty-eight years earlier at Harvard College (1636) in the town of Newtowne, Massachusetts, later changed to Cambridge (1637). The colonists created a college in the wilderness to imbue their young men with a strong Puritan based education. The Massachusetts Bay colony required a dedicated clergy and sending their young sons to England was a dangerous venture (Thelin). Due to the absence of written records, historians can only speculate as to why the builders of Harvard departed so drastically from the traditional European collegial form (Figure 2.2). In his book, *A History of American Higher Education*, John Thelin writes that the Oxford-Cambridge model was similar in pedagogy, but exceedingly different in a variety of other ways.

Figure 2.2: Harvard College Growth from 1668–1718

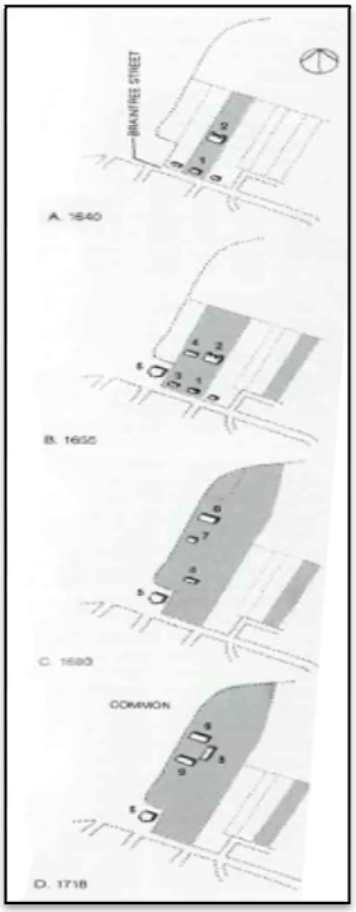


Figure 2.3: Harvard College Growth from 1668–1718

Two major differences that affected the construction of the college were the amount of money Oxford and Cambridge universities had amassed over the centuries, and in 1595, the fact that Cambridge had sixteen different colleges that comprised the university that granted the degree. Alternatively, American colleges developed as a single institution that would not be labeled as a university for an additional two hundred years. Thelin writes that "architecture also is a useful approach to reconstructing the colonial college because the surviving buildings graphically display both the strengths and the limits of the Oxford-Cambridge model in America" (Thelin, p. 9). Thelin speculates that the buildings were very expensive and that Harvard simply ran out of funding before completing a traditional monastic enclosure.

Turner explains that Harvard's original lot was narrow on the street side but very long in depth (Figure 2.3). Harvard was first named "Old College" then renamed Harvard after John Harvard, whose monetary gift "constructed one large multipurpose structure, named Peyntree Hall 1638–1641" (Turner, pp. 20–21). Peyntree Hall was a "long building parallel to the street face" (Turner, pp. 20-21). The second building constructed was Harvard College. It was constructed in the middle of the lot, forming a green space that a journal dating from 1650 noted, "the situation of this college is very pleasant, at the end of a spacious plain, more like a bowling green, than a wilderness" (Turner, p. 23). Later, as buildings were added and more of the "cow-yard" was purchased, the form of detached structures built parallel and perpendicular to the open space or "yard" became the defining feature of the American College campus. For the next three hundred and fifty years almost every college in America mimicked this layout. Turner does not specifically state, but he implies, that the formulation of the American quadrangle

developed as a result of property lot size (Figure 2.4). The shape of Harvard's original lots derived, according to Turner, from the style of the early colonial communities' housing situation. In Massachusetts, the livestock was corralled in the rear of the property, and the main house was located directly off the street.

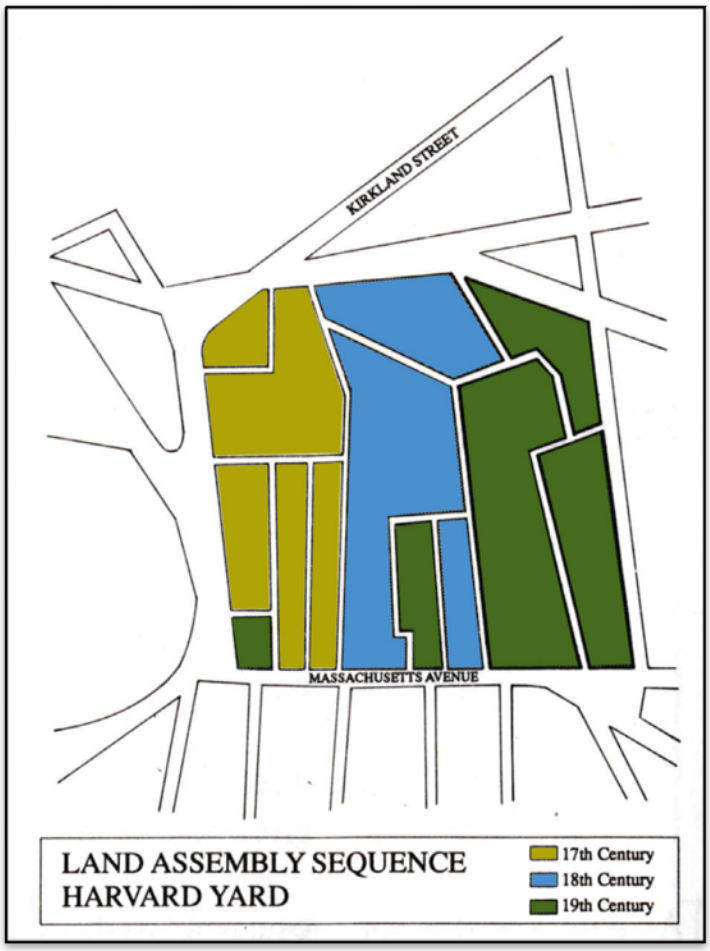


Figure 2.4: Harvard Yard Development Sequence

Another reason for the buildings being constructed separately could have been to prevent aggregated destruction due to fire. The separation of the buildings could contain a fire to that particular building and prevent the loss of additional structures. Harvard's first

building was a three-story wooden building. As was true of many early colonial buildings, wood was the material of choice. It was abundant, easy to build with and long-lasting. It was also used to heat each building, thus the possibility of fire was pervasive, and the separation of the buildings seemed like a good preventative tactic. Regardless of which theory is correct, Harvard set the stage with the space between the buildings and as such created a prominent feature in the archetype of the American college campus. Harvard's current yard presents a vision of a bucolic landscape (Figure 2.5). The following passage provides the contemporary reader a glimpse into what the space might have looked like for most of its existence:

> One may wonder whether a divine's bovine would have *wanted* to munch the Yard of yesteryear. Professor Samuel Eliot Morison wrote in *Three Centuries of Harvard* that President John Kirkland in 1810 'found the interior of the Yard an unkempt sheep-commons, almost treeless, provided with no regular paths, and cluttered up with a brewhouse, the college woodyard, and sundry privies . . . A neighboring nuisance was the college pig-pen, where the Corporation's own porkers fought with rats for the commons garbage; for years the hideous clamor of a pig-killing was wont to disturb recitations in University [Hall, p. 22].

Over the next sixty years Harvard expanded both its property and buildings. Paralleling this growth was the town of Cambridge. The town and college grew simultaneously, creating the "town and gown" that would serve as a pattern for hundreds of colleges across America.

Figure 2.5: Harvard and the town of Cambridge, 1668

The second college to develop in the colonies was William and Mary College in Middle Plantation, later named Williamsburg, in 1695. This site was completely rural; set amongst plantations with no established town. The town emerged shortly after the college was established. A brief comparison of Harvard College and William and Mary College might lead to a casual observation of similarity and influence, but this is not the case. William and Mary's original design and its first building had a fully enclosed quadrangle, similar to its English counterparts. Oxford provided the template that influenced the university's founders due to the fact that Oxford was the university from which they attained their degrees. The first building constructed in 1695 was destroyed by fire in 1705. The second building erected is known today as the "Wren Building" (Turner, p.

33). Often misrepresented as the creation of the great architect Sir Christopher Wren, the building was not designed by him. The closure of Wren's architectural practice by 1695 and the fact that he would have been over seventy years old cast doubt on the theory that he designed the building. Wren may not have designed the campus or the first building at William and Mary but, according to Turner, Wren probably influenced the founders, noting "Wren's disapproval of the medieval enclosed quadrangle in favor of the Baroque preference for openness, directed spaces, vistas with focal points, and hierarchical organization" (Turner, p. 33). Furthermore, Wren's work after the 1666 fire of London utilized these basic principles. The fire that took place on the William and Mary campus destroyed both the President's House on the north of campus and Barffeton on the south side of the lawn (Cameron). The rebuilding of the President's House in 1705 removed the wings. From 1705 until 1720, the buildings were built parallel and perpendicular to a lawn embracing the Wren philosophy of an open vista and focal point that became common in the designs of future southern colleges.

Gardens and Quadrangles at William and Mary

During the development of the campus between 1705 thru 1732, Wren's influence was felt in the space to the east and directly behind the Wren Building. What would be later referred to as the "Sunken Garden" is a long rectangular grass lawn (Figure 2.6). In the trustees' minutes from William and Mary, the lawn was a designed element that complemented the construction of the three structures. There have been numerous restoration efforts to the gardens and grounds, but the 2005 work recorded by Gabi Cameron is regarded as scholarly in its meticulousness. Archaeological and historical evidence suggests a formal garden in the front of the Wren Building with a botanical and scientific garden or sunken garden in the rear. The formal garden, which faced down the

Duke of Gloucester Street into Williamsburg, had hedge rows, topiaries, planting beds and marl paths. The botanical gardens still exist and are currently called Crim Dell. Crim Dell is a natural setting with native trees and understory that is used for teaching and recreation. The combination of the Sunken Garden and the Crim Dell prompted Thomas Jefferson to say, “The College shall forever look upon the country” (Turner, p. 33). Jefferson would later design the University of Virginia, a three-sided university that is open to the west (Cameron).

Figure 2.6: Sunken Garden at William and Mary

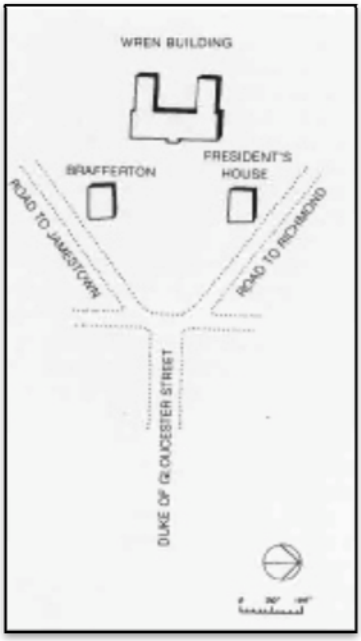


Figure 2.7: Site Plan for William and Mary College

Figure 2.8: William and Mary

Restoration of the Gardens

In 1923, when the college decided to restore the grounds, little if any plant material from the historical gardens remained. The grounds of the college were destroyed during the Battle of the Peninsula in 1863 and minimal research was done by the college architect, Charles M. Roberson. Roberson instead used Wren's design, from Chelsea Hospital, assuming Wren designed the colleges' buildings and grounds. Work did not begin on this restoration until 1935-1936 under the supervision of the landscape architect Charles Gillette. Roberson's design was based on "the spirit of eighteenth-century English landscape gardens, which abandoned the geometric parterres of Europe in favor of sweeping lawns intended to up-lift the spirit by leading the eye toward a distant, natural setting" (Cameron). The work included the planting of Boxwood (*Buxus sempervirens*) lining both sides of the Sunken Garden, American Beech (*Fagus grandifolia*) and Crepe Myrtle (*Lagerstoremia indica*). Cameron writes that the Enlightenment era attempted to balance the buildings and grounds in a composition that focused the eye towards a designated view corridor. The balance of proportion was important in Anglo-Dutch and Georgian architecture of the period (Cameron).

Harvard and William and Mary launched higher education in America. The architecture and grounds design would serve as models and influence the young minds who attended these colleges. Many of their graduates would go on to establish other colleges in the colonies. The pattern was set for what would become a unique archetype in American architecture. During the colonial period nine colleges were established: Harvard (1636), the College of William and Mary (1995), Yale (1701), the University of Pennsylvania (1740), Princeton (1746), Columbia (1754), Brown University (1764),

Rutgers (1766), and Dartmouth (1769) to use their current names. All of these colleges' architecture and grounds were developed with buildings that formed open quadrangles. Other common features were botanical, ornamental, kitchen and herb gardens. Campuses often had an arboretum for natural studies, fruit orchards and larger fields for the production of food to support the college population. This ideology of a sustainable campus is the goal toward which many modern campuses strive today.

College Development from 1785 to 1860

The University of Georgia's founders, like many other fledgling university trustees, never envisioned their institution as a rustic outpost for intellectual ideals. During the early years of the university's development, Josiah Meigs, the second president and chief architect, labored to design and promote the university as the pinnacle of knowledge in the state of Georgia. Concurring intellectuals and planners across the country, in what might be seen as an attempt to posit higher status to their creations, adopted the classical design of ancient Rome and Greece as their motifs. New towns founded in America were named Rome, Syracuse, Carthage, Troy, Ithaca, and Athens. During the early 1800s, Greek revival architectural styles reinforced the connection between these distant places and their New World namesakes. These Old World seats of democracy became the new nation's model. The paralleling nationwide new experiment with a form of government that had been muted for almost a thousand years gave promise to a great new society. The classical past was transforming the landscape. Replicas of the Parthenon nestled within a pastoral landscape such as the Chapel on the University of Georgia's North Campus, Girard College in Philadelphia, Old Morrison at Transylvania College, Wigg and Clio Halls at Princeton, the main library at the University of North

Carolina (Figure 2.9). These are but a few examples of the architecture that began to symbolize and define the American university. Greek revival architecture became associated with the Antebellum South in contrast to the Neo-classical style of northern universities (Figure 2.8). The image of our forefathers cutting their way through the seemingly endless forest to build classical landscapes and buildings is unknown to most students, faculty and visitors to America's early universities. The vision these planners had to reshape the land and build "college towns and campuses throughout the country was very much intended as an instrument through which to view, comprehend and tame a small portion of the vast frontier of a new nation" (Kelly, p. 3).

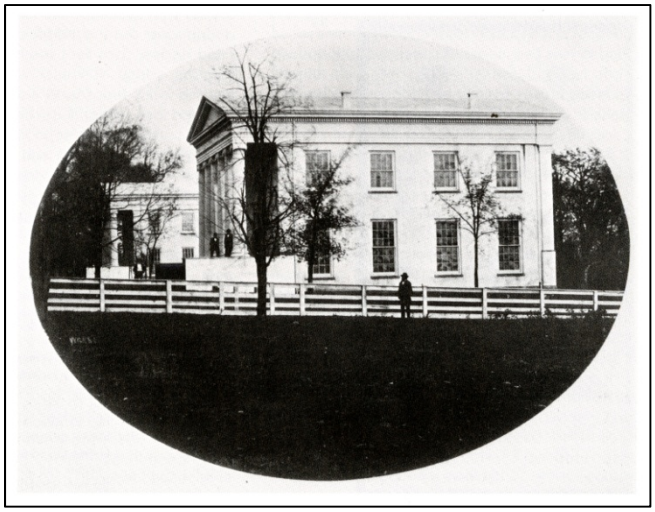


Figure 2.9: Whig and Cliosophic Hall, Princeton University, 1837

Figure 2.10: The University of Georgia from Carr's Hill 1850s by George Cooke

Higher education became a booming industry but in the beginning young colleges required fortitude and perseverance. Starting in 1820, state legislators approved colleges in Maine, Vermont, Kentucky, Tennessee, North and South Carolina, Georgia, Alabama, Louisiana, Ohio and the District of Columbia. Almost all of these colleges were located in rural areas. Founders of these wilderness colleges were men of high resolve, such as James Blount of the University of Tennessee; Manasseh Cutler from Miami University of Ohio; and Philip Lindsay from the University of Nashville. Several dissenting voices called for the colleges to cease constructing campuses in such undeveloped areas and locate them in cities. This debate did not end until after the Civil War.

Josiah Meigs had to plan a campus for the University of Georgia from scratch, build buildings in which to teach a yet-to-be-recruited student body and design a curriculum. He was well suited for his job, and a lesser person could have spelled a quick

end for the university, even before the first tree was felled. Meigs' first curriculum included studies of "Virgil, Cicero, the Greek testament, arithmetic, bookkeeping, and elocution, two or three of the first books of Homer's Iliad, algebra, geometry, ministration of superficies and solids, conic sections, plane and spherical trigonometry, with their application to Navigation and Surveying, and the ascertaining of heights and distances" (Dyer, p. 14). The first building, like most frontier colleges, was a log cabin, constructed by Daniel Easley in 1801 for the price of $187.27 (Dyer, p. 17). By 1806, a three-story brick building, modeled after Connecticut Hall at Yale (Figure 2.11), was erected on the campus and was named Franklin College after Benjamin Franklin. Today it is known as Old College.

The post-colonial era was one in which our founding fathers were distrustful of a national government too powerful. In higher education, there was a lot of conversation about a "national university." In 1817, a bill was introduced in Congress to establish such an institution. The bill was defeated, and a national university was never built. The closest the United States came to building such an institution is our two military academies. West Point was established in 1802 in New York and the Naval Academy was established in 1845 at Annapolis, Maryland. Both schools used a large open rectangular lawn where buildings form a wall that defines a room. The marching back and forth between buildings reinforced the duty, honor and country motto. Ernis Flagg designed the Naval Academy so that midshipmen walk an east-west path to and from classes and dormitories. Along the path were monuments and memorials. The use of open space, buildings and monuments created a strong symbol of order. The walk also

afforded midshipmen a view of the bay between the buildings with an open view to the east. (Kelly, Thelin)

The new universities may have departed architecturally from their European counterparts, but the curriculum and traditions were kept intact. Colleges strived to set high goals and standards for their citizenry. The use of Latin and mottos of noble purpose was requisite for new schools. Harvard's motto "Veritas" is the quest for truth. Yale's is "Lux et veritas," light and truth; Brown's "In Deo Speramus" means in God we trust, the University of North Carolina at Chapel Hill's motto is "Lux Liberty" or light and liberty. In 1800, there were only twenty-five degree granting colleges in the United States. Growth came quickly, however, and by 1820 the number was fifty-two; by 1860 the United States would have two hundred and forty one (Thelin, p. 41).

Town and College Development

The preamble of the University of Georgia's charter underscored its mission as an institution founded to build character and provide leaders. ". . . public prosperity and even [the] existence [of free government] very much depends upon suitably forming the minds and morals of their Citizens." (Schulyer, p.59). The placement of Old College five hundred feet south of Front Street was meant to be seen as a building in a landscape removed from the activities of the emerging civic life in Athens, in contrast to Yale's "Old Brick Row" which exists at the very edge of the town's major civic space (Figure 2-12). The parallel between Athens, Princeton, Williamsburg and Chapel Hill might be connected in terms of the relationship of the town's edge to the university proper. At Princeton, Nassau Street serves to divide the borough into two districts, one containing the town and the other a large tract belonging to the university (Figure 2.13), while at

Chapel Hill, Franklin Street performs much the same duty. This town and gown relationship can be witnessed in hundreds of towns as colleges served as the central location in newer small towns, while the edge of the college is often marked by a green lawn meeting downtown developments. This line of demarcation is especially pronounced in locations where the town avoided urbanization (Turner).

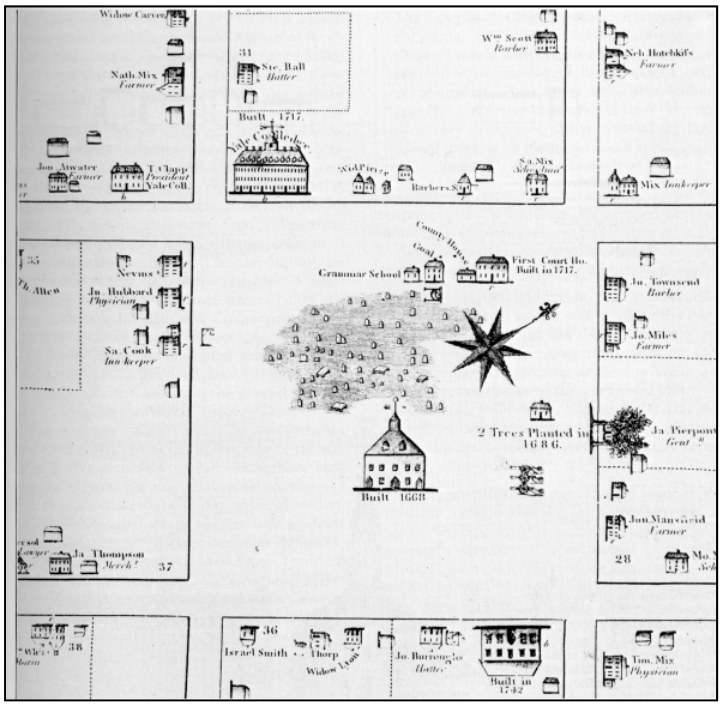


Figure 2.11: New Haven, Connecticut in 1748

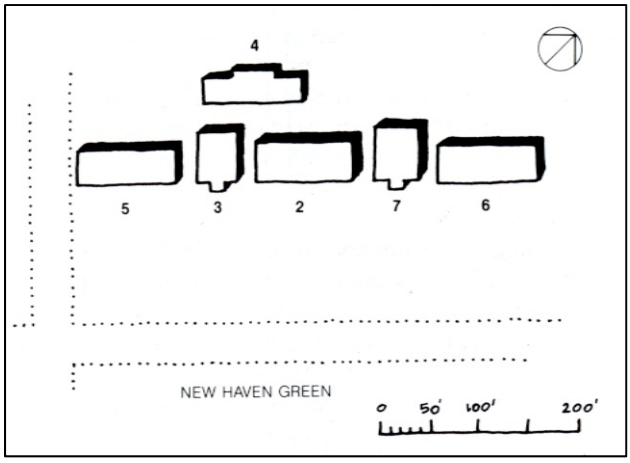


Figure 2.12: Old Brick Row 1717- 1803 (#2 is Connecticut Hall)

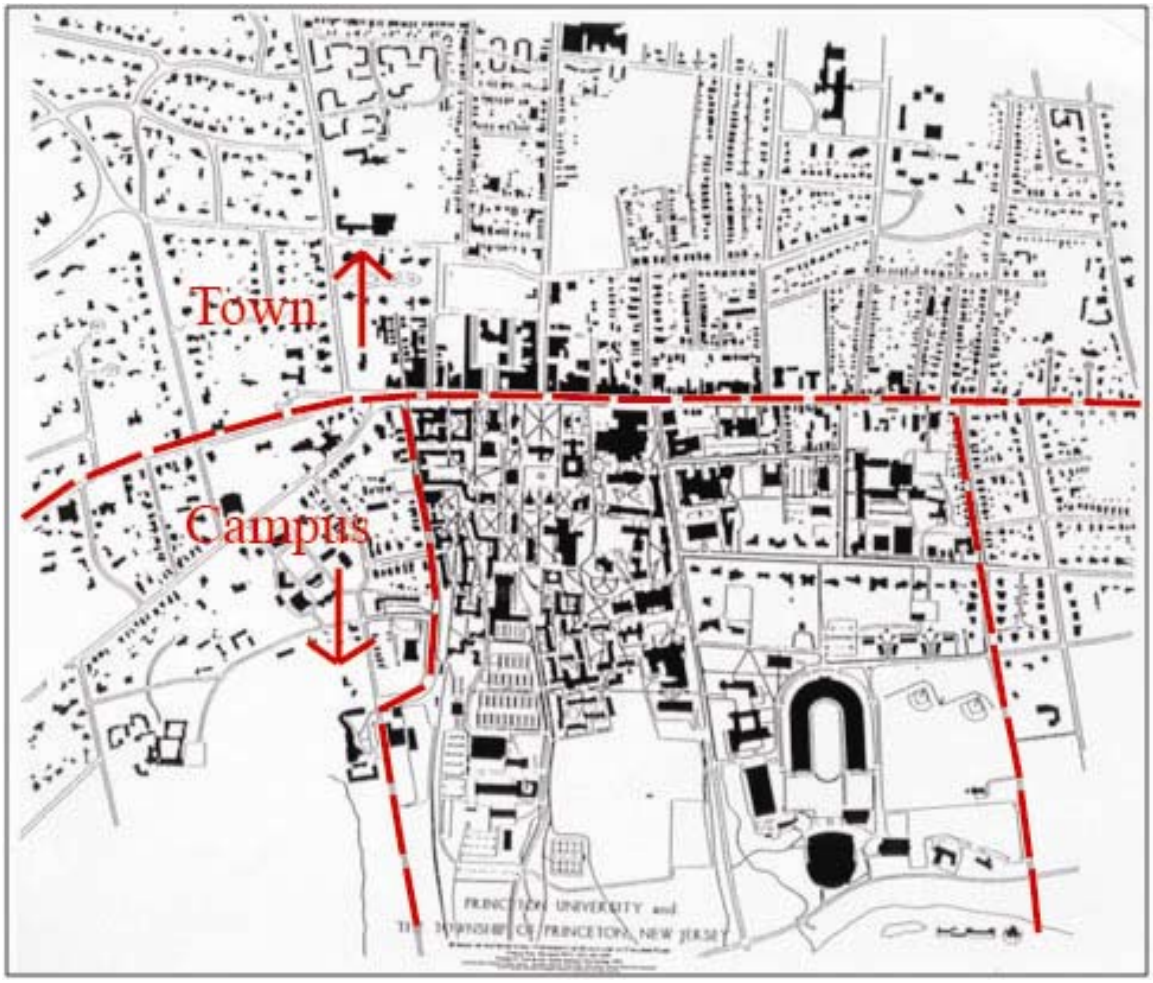


Figure 2.13: Figure-ground map of the town of Princeton and Princeton University

With the establishment of Harvard in 1634, American higher education developed with little change in the curriculum, teaching methodology and architectural direction, but that changed radically after 1865. The years of studying under a renaissance type, multi-subject master came to a close during the late nineteenth century, and American campuses saw rapid changes both in curriculum and architecture. Small scale buildings that served one function or larger buildings that combined living quarters and classrooms gave way to multi-disciplined, large-scale buildings that housed whole departments of faculty members, like science. The faculty were scholars just like their predecessors, but their expertise was narrower in focus and held much greater depth. Scholars armed with doctorates became known for their research and publishing that added to the body of knowledge in their fields of specialization. Reputations of scholars and universities would grow based on published work.

The campus planning model established by Harvard and William and Mary was perfected by Jefferson's design of the University of Virginia. "Mister Jefferson's University" is a standout in both mission and architectural planning. All future campuses would strive to embody the philosophy, architectural character and social community of scholars that Jefferson achieved at Charlottesville. Jefferson's concept of civitas, where young men would be educated and trained as future leaders of our nation, is understood in the three-dimensional aspirations of the institution. The civic nature of the architecture transcended a single university's buildings to the larger vocabulary of a national architectural expression. Today the University of Virginia is the only campus in America that is a World Heritage Site (Kelley, Thelin).

During this period, higher education institutions with a specialized focus such as women's colleges, medical schools, engineering schools and military academies began to develop. The great debate over public and private colleges continues today. Another issue at the time was the existence of "diploma mills," where diplomas were given, for a price, to people who never opened a book, attended a class, or set foot on campus. Diploma mills were so rampant and the problem so pervasive that the resultant solution was to implement rigid standards, as well as to develop today's accreditation process (Thelin).

The U.S. Civil War's Impact on American College Campuses

As an example of the impact the civil war had on enrollment, barely a hundred men were enrolled at the University of Georgia in 1860. In the fall of 1863, classes were canceled, and the University did not re-start operations until 1866. Many schools closed down as their students were in-service to their respective causes. Buildings and grounds were used as hospitals, lodging houses, and stables for both the North and South during the great conflict. As with any conflict, average people do above-average deeds. Historians record these events, and in time these actions are held in hallowed reverence. As the men returned to their homes, many returned to their studies, some to resume where they left off before the war, others to start fresh.

Some of the famous deeds associated with individuals soon were interwoven with the lore of their respective institutions. Men like Medal of Honor recipient Joshua Lawrence Chamberlain, who will always be associated with Bowdoin College, where he was a student when the war started, returned to teach and become the president and is now one of their most famous alumni. After the war Robert E. Lee took a teaching position at Washington College. Lee went on to become the president (1867-1870) of the

college and was finally entombed in the chapel built in his honor. The school was later renamed Washington and Lee University. At the Citadel in Charleston, South Carolina, citizens still hold ceremonies for the young cadets who leave school to fight and defend their homes. For most universities across the battle-torn country, restarting the education process was a slow-motion event. Another impact of the Civil War was the granting of lands to establish universities throughout the nation.

Morrill Act

Congress established the Morrill Land Grant College Act of 1862 for all states loyal to the Union cause. This Act provided that the federal government could "dispose of a substantial portion of the public domain through the granting of lands to the states for the specific purpose of establishing agricultural and mechanical colleges and stimulating higher education generally." According to the Morrill Act's provisions, "each state could receive thirty thousand acres of land for each of its United States senators and representatives. In states where insufficient public lands existed to fulfill the law's requirement, the government would issue land scrip. The states could then sell the scrip and thereby secure funds for the establishment of colleges . . ." In Georgia, this amounted to a scrip of land equaling 270,000 acres (Dyer, p. 119–120).

The largest land scrip included 100,000 acres to Tennessee and 26,080 acres each to the new states of Louisiana, Indiana, Mississippi, Missouri, Arkansas, Michigan, Iowa, California, Oregon and Kansas. Ohio, Florida, Wisconsin, and Minnesota received even larger congressional grants, ranging from 69,120 to 92,160 acres (Thelin). The Act represented a fundamental shift in both curriculum and building needs. The Morrill Art created funding for existing institutions or newly created agricultural colleges. No longer

was higher education bound to teach the traditional classical education. A more practical and applied pedagogical system was developed. Philosophically this new approach to educating young people was one the populist could embrace and see applied. The former Confederate states were offered the benefits of the Morrill Act, but many declined for years as stubborn defiance to their lost cause. States also created “A&M” colleges. The “M” component stood for mechanics, mining or military. Young men who wanted to get off the farm often needed credentials that would enable them to develop a trade in addition to farming. The Morrill Act provided many states with necessary funds, including the especially needy southern schools (Dyer, Thelin).

Reconstruction through the Progressive Era

Education reform came in waves during the latter part of the nineteenth century. At Harvard College, the radical concept of the elective system was introduced in 1869 and gained popularly among the more mature students, most of whom were Civil War veterans and who wanted the freedom to chart their own studies. With the backing of prestigious Harvard, the elective curriculum concept that had been around before the Civil War was now being adopted at other institutions.

The Hatch Act of 1887 established funding for agricultural experiment stations through universities to rural communities. These centers were placed away from main campuses in rural areas where farmers could interact with researchers and obtain knowledge quickly and directly. This dissimulation of applied research was a tangible resource that citizens could quantify and also aided in recruiting students. Farmers for the first time had access to knowledge and techniques that yielded larger crops per acre (Bowen). This also represented the first major effort to create a higher education system

"to teach such branches of learning as are related to agriculture and mechanic arts . . . in order to promote the liberal and practical education of the industrial class in the several pursuits and professions of life" (Dyer, p. 119). The doors of elite universities were opening to the common man to better himself and his country.

City Beautiful Movement

Along with the growing awareness that designed landscape spaces added aesthetic value, it was believed at the time that skilled designers could help solve urban and social problems that were festering in cities of the late nineteenth century. The redesign of Paris (1853–1870) by Napoleon III and his city planner, Baron Georges Haussmann, was touted as proof that large scale city planning could work. Paris transformed itself from an overgrown medieval city to a modern capital. Designers started contemplating broader themes in their planning approach. Whole cities could be designed or redesigned.

At the World's Columbian Exposition of 1893 in Chicago, the City Beautiful Movement sprang to life. Daniel Hudson Burnham, the director of the exposition, has been called the indisputable "Father of the City Beautiful Movement" (Reiff, p.61). Designers coupled the dramatic changes brought about by the industrial age to urban living, where people would live and work in planned cities. City Beautiful was directly linked to Progressivism. Civic leaders placed their faith in the idea that creating beautiful cities would inspire their citizens to higher moral and civic virtue. Designers' imaginations were fueled by Beaux-Arts composition with strong axial arrangements culminating in grand buildings flanked by gardens and wide vistas. These grand buildings were usually civic buildings like city halls, civic centers or museums. The supporting buildings along these avenues were lesser in scale but no less humble in style. Many of

the grand avenues of today's American cities were created during this phase of American history. The country as a whole was becoming aware of the growing heritage of its built environment. Designers like Frederick Law Olmsted, John Wellborn Root, Louis Sullivan, the architectural firm of McKim, Mead and White's designs for Columbia University, Cram Goodhue Ferguson's plan for the William Rice Institute (later Rice University), and Cass Gilbert's University of Minnesota led the City Beautiful Movement.

The college campus also was influenced and transformed by the City Beautiful Movement. During this period in American history, new campuses were opening their doors at a fast rate to accommodate the large influx of college age students. A trend at universities was holding design competitions. The selected winners would be commissioned to oversee the design and construction of the new campus. Carnegie Mellon University and the University of California at Berkeley were two noted campuses for which trustees held open national design competitions for their new campuses. Both designs drew heavily on the Beaux-Arts style and the City Beautiful Movement for the final designs.

Philanthropy and the New Higher Standard

Vanderbilt, Duke, Cornell, Yale, Stanford and Vassar College were just a few universities where large scale philanthropy changed the paradigm. Large gifts dramatically changed the status and prestige of these intuitions. Philanthropic giving to higher education became fashionable. Abbott Lawrence gave large amounts of money to Harvard for buildings only. Gifts were given to colleges to build museums, scientific schools and buildings not directly associated with academics. Traditional black-centric

colleges like Spelman, Hampton Institute, Fisk, Howard, Talladega and many more were popular recipients of such gifts amongst the rich. Cornelius Vanderbilt's gift in 1871 of one million dollars was the largest single gift at the time. The same gift today would be equivalent to $1.86 billion. Cornelius Vanderbilt successfully enticed other wealthy Americans of the gilded age to give large sums to higher education (Dyer, Thelin).

Public schools, women's colleges and technical schools rounded out the new education in post-Civil War America. By the start of World War I, higher education in America had expanded and changed to meet the social demands of a growing and developing world. Access to higher education, once reserved for the elite, was now serving all socio-economic levels of society.

The architecture of the campus was also changing as new construction materials were introduced. Structural steel and steel-reinforced concrete were giving architects the ability to span further and build higher. The money from philanthropists like Rockefeller, Mellon, Vanderbilt, and Hearst provided funding to build new and larger buildings. However, despite the influx of funds, the old structures were not destroyed or replaced to build new styles or trends. In many respects, the opposite occurred. In 1908, at the University of Georgia, plans to tear down the oldest building were quelled by local citizens. Campus life was alive and well in the minds of the alumni. Architects were designing new buildings with state-of-the-art engineering, but the edifices were gothic. Gothic-revival was both nostalgic and functional. The style became known as "collegial gothic." Traditional materials like stone and brick were used for the exterior, but steel frames supported the roofs. This style was taken to an extreme when the "Cathedral of

Learning" was built at University of Pittsburgh in 1928, a thirty-one story gothic high rise (Figure 2.14).

Figure 2.14: Cathedral of Learning, University of Pittsburgh

From 1890 until World War II, intercollegiate sports became inseparable from college life. The demand for playing fields, buildings and practice areas resulted in expansion and purchases of large sections of land. Athletics provided a revenue stream and an outlet for students. Athletics brought about the branding of collegiate sports, and universities became as well known for their sports teams as for their academics. Today, athletics are intertwined with higher education, and many of the issues institutions confronted in 1900 are still plaguing modern universities.

World War II Ends – The Veterans Come Home

College campus development during the post-World War II era until the close of the twentieth century was marked by wild spurts of growth starting with the 1944 Servicemen's Readjustment Act, more commonly known as the GI Bill (U.S. Department of Veterans Affairs). Some historians have said the GI Bill was an attempt by the government to avoid another depression or make up for the inadequate train ticket home and the $60 paid to World War I veterans. Thus, the hallowed halls of higher education were opened to millions of veterans to pursue college degrees. This influx of students forever changed the face of higher education. By 1947, veterans represented 49 percent of college admissions, and by 1956, 5.7 million of the 16 million World War II veterans had participated in an education program (U.S. Department of Veterans Affairs).

Modernism

The post-World War II Era heralded the beginnings of the modernism movement in America. Architecture and master plans were inspired by European modernism and architects like Charles-Edouard Jeanneret or Le Corbusier, Mies van der Rohe and Walter Gropius. Buildings designed during the modern era generally boasted massive footprints. Campuses saw new buildings of all types and uses: modern science center complexes, new high rise dormitories and new administrative buildings to meet the needs of the new generation of administrators required to run these mega universities. The young men and women who returned to campus on the GI Bill were soon replaced by their children, and "baby-boomers" filled the classrooms of higher education for three decades. The study of engineering in the 1960s was fueled by the Cold War, the Space Race and the fast-paced industrialization of America. These newly-conceived mega-structures were on a

scale that dwarfed the original campus buildings. Unlike the earlier arrangement of buildings of the campuses, new planning ignored the traditional quadrangles and open spaces that formed and shaped the exterior landscape spaces. Rather, the spatial continuum of the campus landscape would be interrupted by a picturesque composition of volumes and abstract planar surfaces, the result of the internal disposition of functional proximities (Thelin, Kelly).

Social Pressures on College Campuses

Colleges struggled under the pressure to continue building to keep pace with the growing numbers of college students. The benefits of a college education went from one of pre-World War II privileged status to an expected part of the educational matriculation process for most Americans. Campuses also became a focal point of American's social conscience during the civil rights movement, integration, the Vietnam conflict, and the era of free love, drugs and non-conformity. Campuses were thrust onto center stage as never before in the history of higher education. During the 1960s and 1970s, higher education came to represent to many Americans a liberal fortress of wayward, unruly teenagers. Some observers of history might view this era as one of social liberation or a time when ideas and thoughts were stretched beyond the cultural norms. If this general perception of attitudes is true, then a similar observation can be attributed to campus planners of the time. Unlike the building boom that embraced the old structures and collegial gothic, many older buildings were razed and much of the historic fabric of the campus was destroyed. Many institutions invested in master plans, but the rapid pace of building often resulted in the abandonment of orderly design. In the vacuum of a master plan, buildings were often built without consideration as to how adjacency could support

a strategic and academic direction of the institution. The lack of a cohesive aesthetic direction, building placement, working in harmony with a landscape plan and an almost total lack of respect for the environment all promoted a haphazard planning mentality that was the rule on most college campuses of the post-World War II Era.

Modern Campus Planning

The international style grew into the Modern Movement that all but rejected traditional planning principals. Modern architects ignored the lessons laid down by their grandfather architects—Thomas Jefferson and Benjamin Latrobe, University of Virginia; Roberts Mills, University of South Carolina; the Olmsteds, University of California Berkley, and hundreds more. Emboldened by modern architecture's mass appeal, architects designed campus buildings that voided thousands of years of basic architectural rules. First and foremost was the space between the buildings that framed the space. In Thomas Gaines book "Campus as a Work of Art," Gaines writes: "A good campus consists of a group of harmonious buildings related by various means that create well-proportioned diverse urban spaces containing appropriate furnishings—benches, pools, fountains, gazebos and walkways" (Gaines, pp. 1–2). The Modern Movement's philosophy of individual, stand-alone buildings, designed as an object of art, went against years of campus planning principles. Modern materials and features such as glass curtain walls, minimal detailing, stark smooth finished concrete painted white, aluminum storefronts, doors and flat roofs typified Modern buildings that were juxtaposed with their nineteenth-century counterparts. Buildings intentionally were sited in formal green spaces that blocked views, obstructed Beaux-Arts axial lines of sight, blocked pedestrian paths or made students walk under a spanned path, and generally tried to break the established

paradigm. Because the Modern Movement coincided with the largest building boom in college history, there are numerous of examples of poor Modernism, but not all modern buildings were bad. Some of the finest works of Modern architecture are present on college campuses. The best examples on college campuses were designed by architects who understood both the Modern philosophy of design and the sensitivity of the campus landscape.

Buildings of this era reflected the increase in student population in scale as well. Fifty years earlier, a very large building on a college campus would have been fifty-thousand square feet. The six buildings built for the sciences at the University of Georgia in the early 1960s totaled over one million square feet (Institute of Research and Planning).

The old main buildings of the pre-Civil War era were meant to belong to a landscape removed from activities of civic life. The new modern university campus with buildings fifty times larger than the original buildings stretched the concept of a traditional college campus. The 1970s saw college dorms being abandoned by students who, unlike their parents, wanted to live off campus. Colleges experimented with delivering their academic material via television and predicted the end of the lecture. Higher education was starting to adopt a corporate management style. The professional higher education business employee took over the function of running the university's day to day activities in much the same way that a CEO runs a company.

The 1980s introduced the entrepreneurial university. Universities began to see the value of the intellectual property they owned. Research parks started becoming part of the landscape on college campuses. Intellectual property blended into many different areas of

the campus. The quest for higher prestige came via federal research grants. These grants generated the need for more and larger laboratories. These laboratories often had little to do with the main academic core mission of training the state's undergraduate population. The face of higher education was changing and the buildings and grounds were changing to meet the needs. (Kelly)

1990 to Present

From 1945 until the mid-1990s, higher education was on the fast track of change. The higher education industry was hardly recognizable from the end of one decade to the beginning of the next. The architectural profession was also changing as architects tried to understand the direction toward which modernism was driving. The college campus was an architectural experimental canvas. Many architects espoused the philosophy that campuses should be outdoor museums for architecture and the grounds were the knitting that held all of it together. This philosophy became almost dogma within the architectural community. Campuses like Yale, the University of Cincinnati, MIT, Princeton, and the University of Chicago all sought famous architects to design buildings on their campuses. Many of these buildings work within the concept of campus and buildings as one theme or designer, such as Mies van der Rohe. Other universities developed strict campus design standards. The University of Colorado at Boulder is one of the best examples of maintaining this type of standard design. Slowly campus administrators changed their ideology from allowing architects free reign over their campuses to hiring professional staff to manage the development of the campus. The Association of University Architects was founded in 1955; from fewer than 60 members in 1990, the organization now has 125 members.

The history of higher education is dynamic, and the architecture has reflected the changes over the centuries. The buildings and the grounds are the defining elements of the American campus. The model of buildings in a green space could easily have changed at any point during the course of our history, but it did not. As America expanded westward and into Alaska and Hawaii, college campuses were constructed along the model of colonial campuses. The architecture was so recognizable it has become symbolic in our society.

CHAPTER THREE

Five Case Studies

The development of open spaces varied according to the needs of the individual campuses. The following five case studies offer a variety of campus development stories. The University of North Carolina at Chapel Hill and the University of South Carolina in Columbia illustrate the early traditional quadrangle form. These two campuses developed shortly after the American Revolution and serve as examples of a new country's higher educational aspirations. Both South Carolina's and North Carolina's new universities would influence future campus planners. In the case of the University of South Carolina, a trained architect won a design competition and designed the first single vision for buildings and grounds in America. These case studies will illustrate campus development over a two hundred year period which utilizes the open space concept that is iniquity common to the American college campus.

The University of Mississippi in Oxford provides an interesting architectural and grounds solution. The design reflects a campus inspired by the history of many great institutions. History and tradition are core components of much of higher education. The traditions of European universities are something that American higher education institutions cannot resist. These traditions include modeling the curriculum after English universities, the wearing of regalia, dining clubs, Latin mottos, college songs, the use of a coat-of-arms, collegiate colors, fraternities, faculty governance and tenure structure.

Sewanee University in Tennessee serves as a case study of a very large land holding that uses the vast majority of its land, or domain, for teaching and as an area of contemplation and reflection. The Cumberland Plateau provides the domain a type of monastic life of isolation within, and from, a community of scholars. The modern architecture has been implemented with respect to the fundamentals of the original plan.

Rice University in Houston provides a case study from the City Beautiful era. Designed by the preeminent campus architects of the time, the Beaux-Arts campus represented the next evolution in campus designing philosophy. The design has themed quads that open on a main axial open space that provides order and simplicity to the campus arrangement.

These case studies demonstrate the use of open space as a design tool to form and support the buildings and pedagogy. Starting just after the Revolutionary War and extending into the nineteenth century, these campuses illustrate the progression of campus buildings and grounds that used at their core the quadrangle, lawn, and open space to create a American campus archetype.

The University of North Carolina at Chapel Hill

" . . . Amidst the colorful fall foliage of dogwood, oak and tulip trees the cornerstone of the first building was laid . . ." This quote from *The History of the University of North Carolina at Chapel Hill* by Dr. William Powell, emeritus professor of history, tells of the Masonic ritual that laid the cornerstone of the first building, later called Old East. The date was October 12, 1793; the location was the geographic center of the state; and the site was on a hill across from New Hope Chapel Hill Anglican Church.

The University of North Carolina at Chapel Hill, approved by a legislative act and located away from the state capital in a rural, heavily forested, sparsely populated setting, became the site of the first state approved and funded institution of higher learning. Planners laid out not only the college grounds, but also the inevitable town that would grow from their decision. The design shows three buildings forming a wide three-sided "U" shaped space on the hill looking north to the town (Figure 3.1).

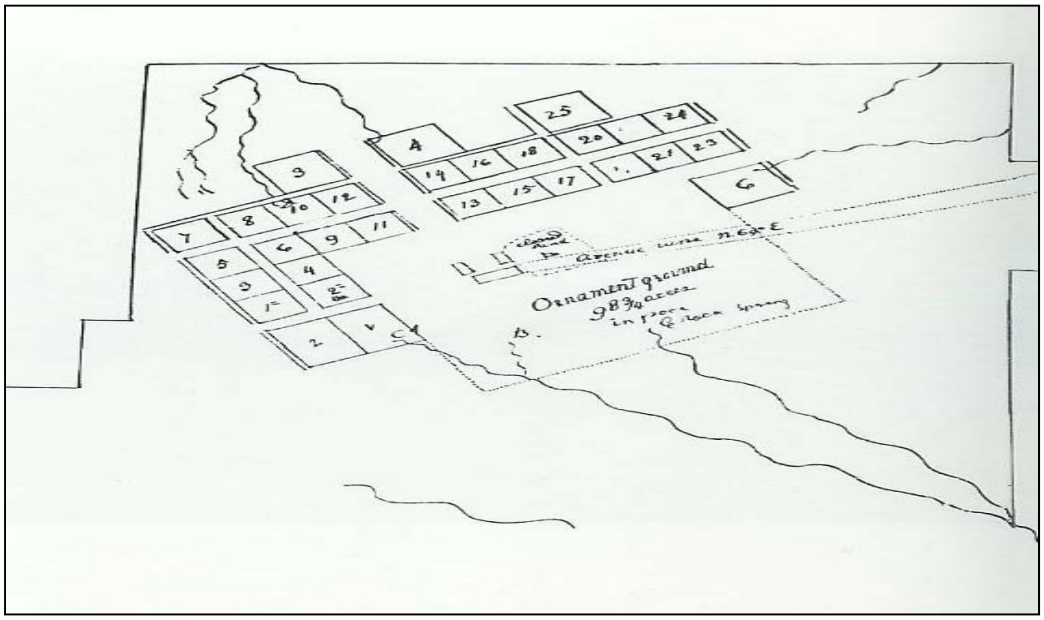


Figure 3.1: Campus Plan, 1793

Figure 3.2: Figure Ground Drawing and Rendering of Proposed Buildings, 1795

The design illustrated in Figure 3.2 was not constructed as originally conceived, but it set the stage for future institutions like the University of South Carolina and the University of Virginia. Old East, the first building constructed, was followed by Person Hall in 1796 and Main or South Building in 1798. Instead of the three-sided building arrangement, most likely influenced by William and Mary, the placement of these buildings did not follow the 1793 layout for unknown reasons. In his book, *Campus: an American Planning Tradition,* Paul Turner speculates that the earliest faculty was comprised of Princeton graduates and was influenced by that campus design (Turner, p. 56).

The Chapel Hill campus has strong ties with the land. Thomas Wolfe said of his alma mater, there was a "century-long struggle in the forest, of its remoteness and isolated charm, and the romantic quality of the atmosphere" (Schumann, p. 2). Wolfe was referring to the removal of forest that was replaced with gardens, grasses, ornamental plants and trees of the university's choosing, staring with the Davis Poplar, a Tulip Poplar (*Liriodendron Tuclipifera*), which was planted to commemorate the founding of the college (Schumann, p. 2). Three men are credited with the special attention allocated to the grounds: David Lowry Swain, Elisha Mitchell, and Kemp Plummer Battle. David Lowry Swain (1835-68) established a botanical garden and employed the first English trained gardener. Swain provided $1,000 per year for planting of ornamental plants and shrubs. Swain also documented the work, which has proved a treasure for historical landscape architects. The documents are housed at the Metropolitan Museum of Art in New York (Schumann, p. 2). Elisha Mitchell, professor (1818–1857) as well as head of buildings and grounds, is responsible for the stone fences that were constructed by slaves

to keep wondering livestock from the local townspeople. The wall Mitchell built was similar to walls constructed by farmers of his native state of Connecticut. Kemp Plummer Battle (1876 –1891) restored the campus landscape to its pre-Civil War splendor (Schumann, p. 2). Additionally, he constructed bridges and pathways, mostly using local red brick. The use of such a permanent paving material helped distinguish Chapel Hill from other colleges while adding to its richness and diversity in the use of materials.

The signature element and most enduring symbol on the grounds is the well house or Old Well. The small rotunda is based on the Temple of Love in the Garden of Versailles (Figure 3.3). Built in 1897, the well house is the symbol of the University. President Edwin A. Alderman recommended the construction and later said,

> I had always admired the little round temples which one sees reproduced so often in English gardens . . . derived largely from the Temple of Love in the Garden at Versailles. This Temple of Love was lineally descended 1) from a Greek shrine, 2) from the Tholos of Epidaurus, 3) from the temple of Vesta at Tivoli, and 4) from the church of San Pietro in Montorio by Bramanti. Our little well is, therefore, a sort of third cousin of the Temple of Versailles (Schumann, p. 35).

Figure 3.3: The Old Well

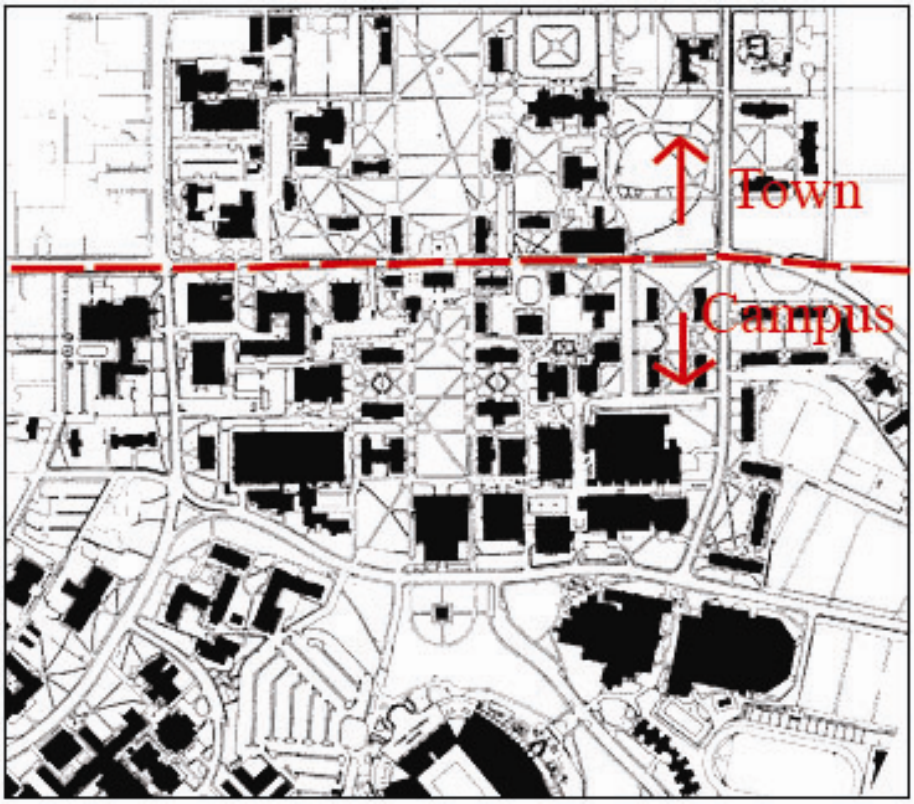


Figure 3.4: Figure Ground Map of UNC Campus, 2011.

Figure 3.5: Walks and Tree Cover at the Historical Core: “North Cut” and “South Cut”

The long professional attention to the grounds at Chapel Hill set it apart from other universities of its time. The combination of stone walls, brick walks, ornamental

plants and more than 160 varieties of trees creates a well-orchestrated symphony which embodies and defines campuses as gardens (Figures 3.4 and 3.5).

The University of South Carolina

The original college, named South Carolina College, is a collection of eleven buildings composed around a horseshoe-shaped, tree-filled campus with brick-lined walkways. The "Horseshoe" is the heart of today's South Carolina flagship campus, a canopied bastion in the heart of a bustling capital city. The unique shape of this campus, coupled with eleven federal style structures, reflects an intentional design and purpose that set the University of South Carolina apart from other universities of the time (Figure 3.6). Founded in 1801 by an act of the South Carolina legislature, the trustees intended to create a fully functional college. In 1802 the trustees held a design competition for "the best original plan of a College," perhaps the first design competition held for a campus design in the country (Turner, p. 38).

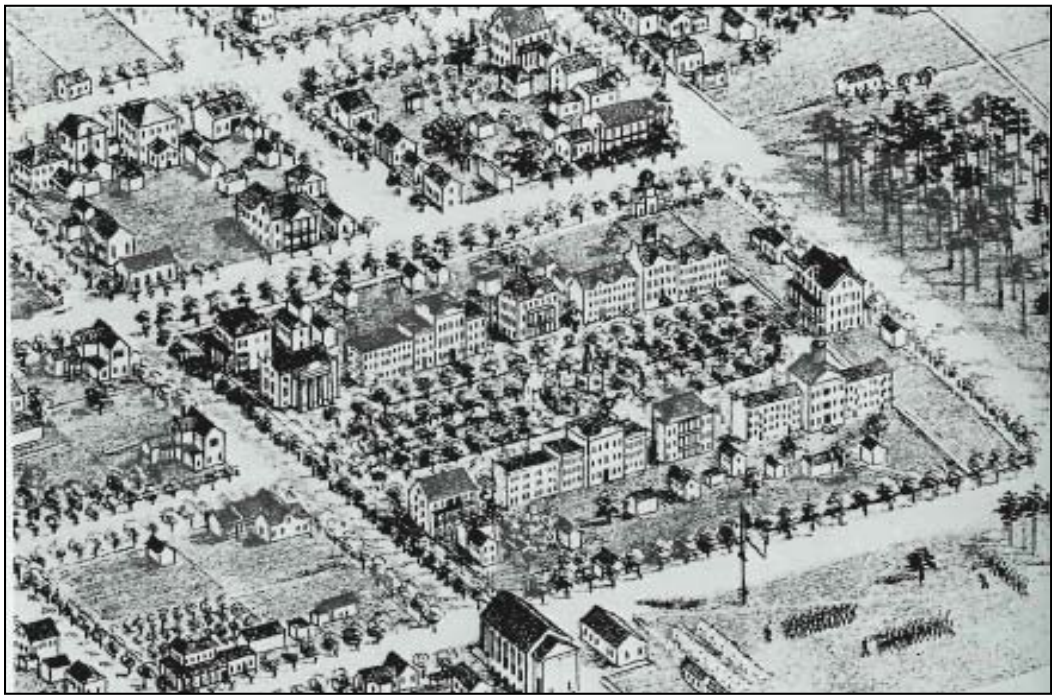


Figure 3.6: South Carolina College 1803, Conceptual Drawing

A young twenty-year-old architect named Robert Mills won the competition with a design that followed the criteria to the letter, but the trustees changed the direction before Mills' plan was fully awarded. Mills' design was a single large building that had two wings. The center section had a large cupola and open arcade that led the students to the classrooms. Conceptually, the lone building went along with the idea that a fully functional college needed to fit under one roof.

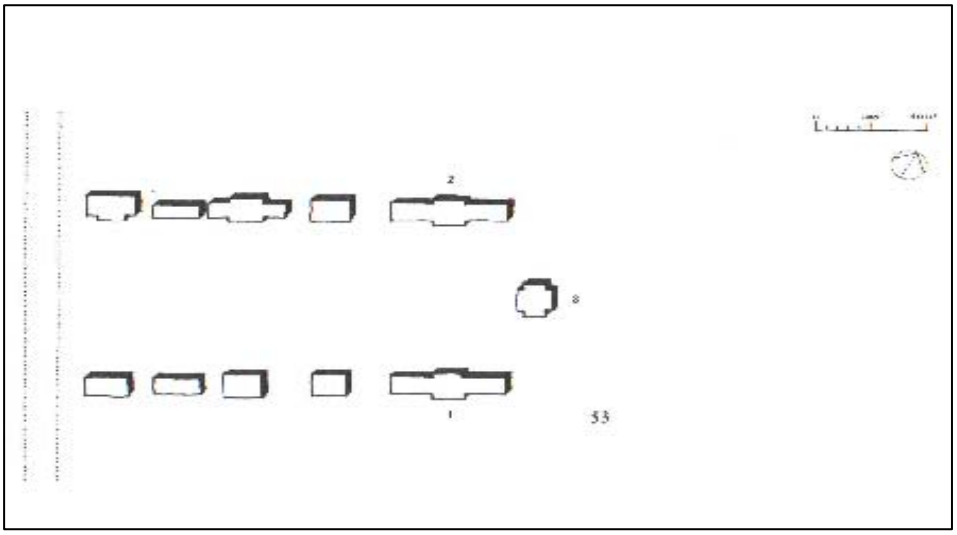


Figure 3.7: Drawing of the Grounds of South Carolina College, 1803

Mills' new plan encompassed multiple buildings arranged in a line parallel to an open space, with the president's house at the head facing the public street; this would be called the horseshoe (Figure 3.7). It took forty-three years for the composition to be completed, but the vision was so clear that little was altered from the 1802 plan. The design predated the University of Virginia's plan by twenty-four years. The arrangement of a collection of buildings parallel to the open space with a monumental building at a prominent location perpendicular to the space became the quintessential campus layout (Figure 3.8).

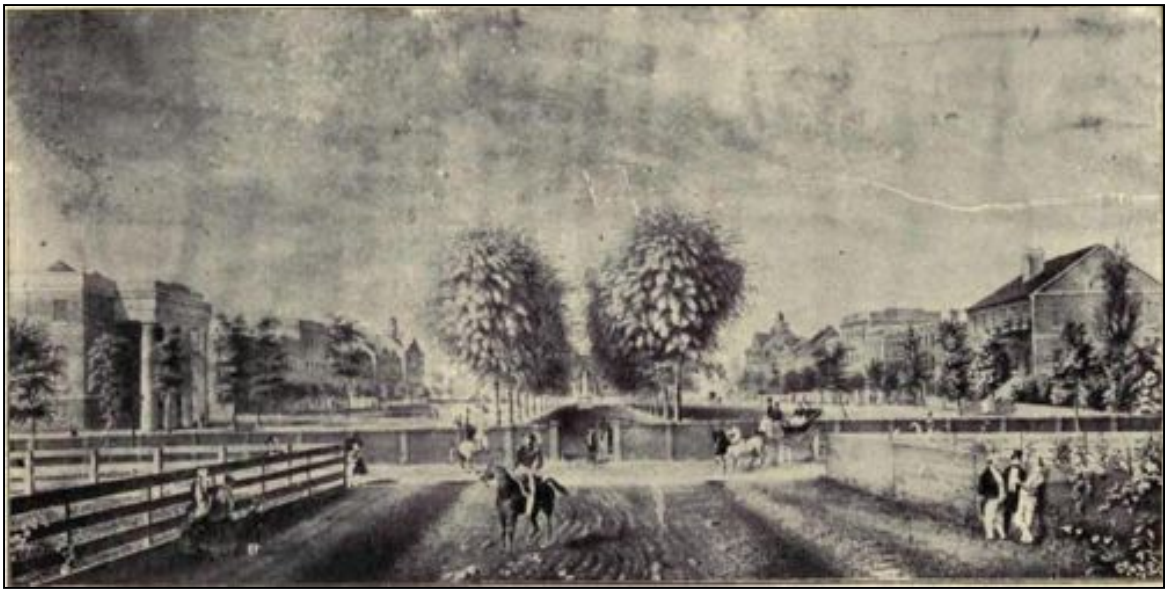


Figure 3.8: The Horseshoe, 1859

Today, the homogeneous architecture acts like the frame of a picture with a water oak planted bosque at its center. The massive stately oaks tower above the grounds and buildings. The bosque arrangement, along with the tree canopy, creates a cathedral effect. The cathedral of knowledge metaphor would honor the original designer and trustees.

The architecture is a balance of restraint; all the buildings are three-story brick and stucco structures that form a cohesive front that designates the public space or quadrangle. Brick and wrought-iron fences between the buildings enclose the once private gardens. The house gardens worked to provide landscape features, produce food and house ornamental plants that were pleasing to the eye and fragrant enough to mask the odors of the urban capital city. Brick walkways lead today's visitor to university maintained gardens where one can get a sense of the space. Brick walls line the rear of the property and shadow lines can be seen in the walls where gates opened to city streets. The gardens at the University of South Carolina today are gone. Asphalt parking lots

have replaced the gardens. Like so many campuses across the country, parking is valued above gardens.

The University of Mississippi: "The Grove"

The University of Mississippi's motto is *Pro scientia et sapientia* or "on behalf of knowledge and wisdom." The campus is located in the town of Oxford, Mississippi, with the school's colors being Harvard crimson and Yale blue. The use of so many established academic titles and references was not lost on the campus plan. The Grove, ten acres of oak, elm, and magnolias, is at the heart of the campus and is the forecourt to Lyceum Hall (Figure 3.9), the first building built on the campus in 1849.

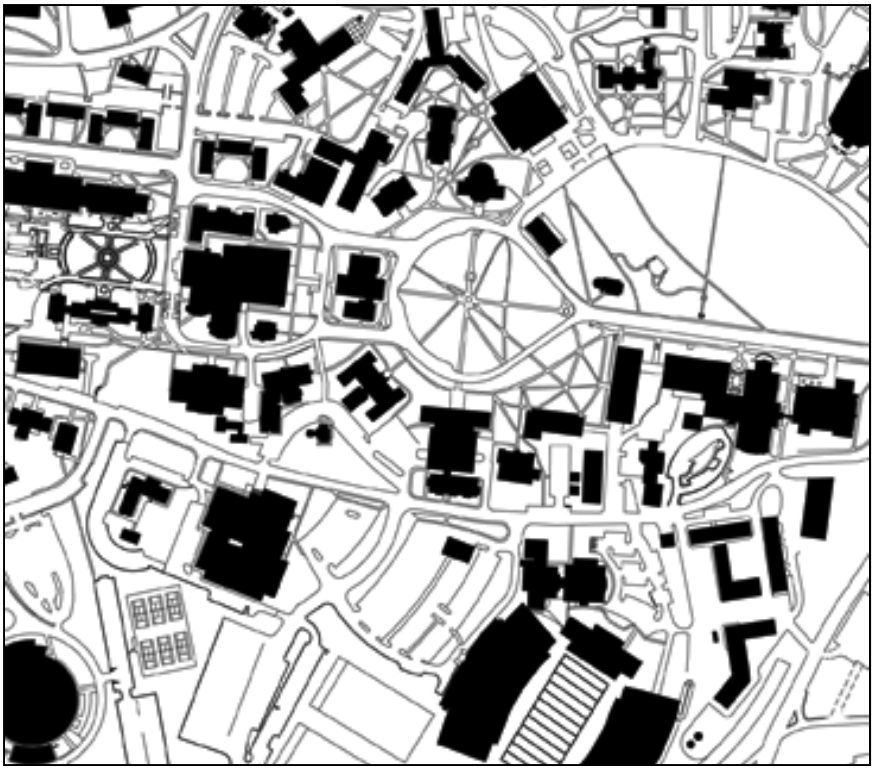


Figure 3.9: The University of Mississippi's Campus Figure Ground Map

The Grove was designed to mimic Aristotle's walk with his students through the Lyceum of ancient Greece. Aristotle would "walk with his students where a dialog 'for truth, through constant dialectic and inquiry, could flourish,'" (Rebel, The). The dialogue between students was not the only conversation; the grove became the epicenter of the campus (Figure 3.10). A study of the figure-ground plan of the campus plan reflects the radial pattern of building placement beginning at the center of the grove and moving outward (Figure 3.9). The importance of this open space is evident in the campus activities planned in the space. Graduations, convocations, concerts, plays, tailgating for sporting events, speakers and protestors all view the grove as the embodiment of the university.

Figure 3.10: The Grove at the University of Mississippi

Figure 3.11: The Grove during Tailgate Festivities

University Avenue leads visitors directly into the Grove from the town of Oxford, like Charles-Pierre L'Enfant's plan for Washington D.C., where grand avenues and malls lead to the seat of government (Figure 3.11). One has to wonder if this influenced the planners of Oxford and the university. The design incorporated long straight avenue, a limbed-up forecourt of trees to a seat of learning that is intended to hearken back to the ancient Greeks. The architecture of the campus, especially on the Grove proper, is also classical and arranged to look into the Grove. The elliptical shape of the open space enhances the drama of the symbiotic relationship of the composition of architecture and landscape.

Alumnus Paul Stanton, class of 1954, describes returning alumnus' visits to the university as each having a story of the Grove. He says, "you might hear a tale of something happening in this building or that dorm or of this professor or that, but what every alumnus has is a story of the Grove. The Grove is like blood and air to an Old Miss grad; you have to have it to live." (Alltime18). Alumnus Ted Jennings says, "the Grove is where I arrived as a boy, and when I exited four years later, I left a man"

(ROBDEAN4444). This strong tie and allegiance to the school is a direct result of the emotion the open space design has on the experiences of the student. The Grove is a different type of landscape plan than South Carolina or Chapel Hill. It may be a simple, natural layout of trees and grass, but the power of the oval shape and the connection with the building layout provides for a powerful sense of space. These alumni testaments and their overriding emotion for the Grove illustrate the relationship of garden and academia.

Sewanee: The University of the South

Arcadians are often defined as living in nature, rustic, peaceful, simple, pastoral, persons who lead or prefer a simple rural life. This is a definition of the University of the South or, as simply referred to by the students and staff, Sewanee. With over 13,000 acres located in southeastern Tennessee, in a remote section of the Cumberland Plateau Mountains, the college provides a sequestered monastic setting for intellectual pursuit. Founded in 1858, the remoteness of the site complements Sewanee's Episcopal seminary mission. Religious education through the centuries has been situated in remote locations, which afford inward reflection, meditation, and a solitary humble existence. Sewanee has evolved into one of the highest ranked liberal arts colleges in the country. With its roots firmly ensconced as a school of theology, the buildings reflect the cathedral gothic style that became popular on college campuses at the turn of the twentieth-century (Crutchfield).

Figure 3.12: Students in the Quad with Cathedral Gothic Buildings in the Background

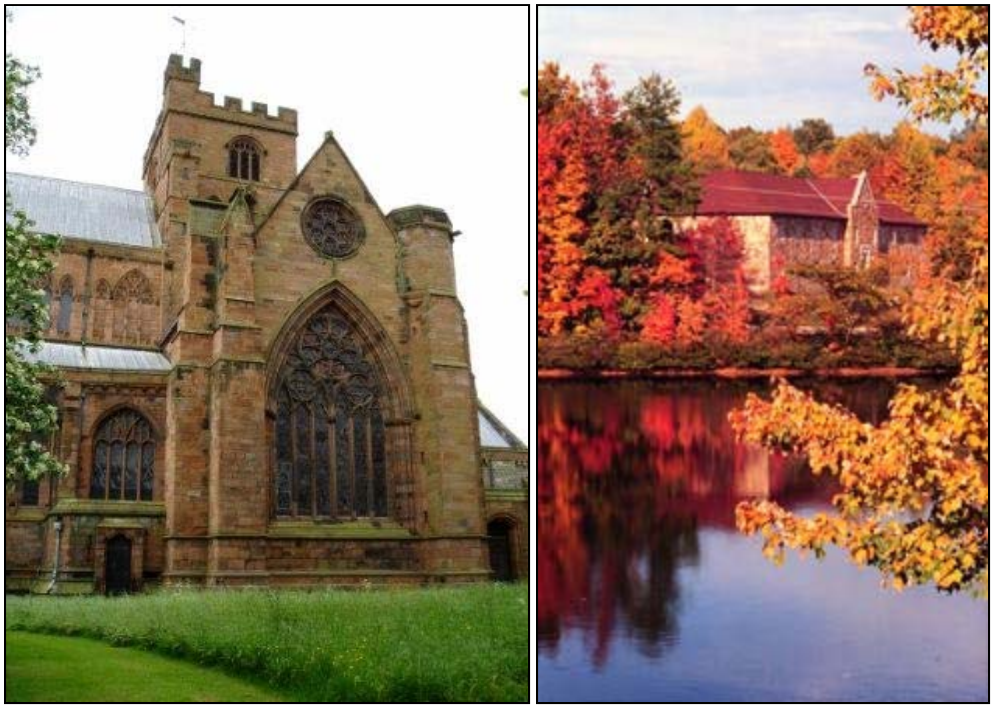


Figure 3.13: Views of Campus Buildings

Figure 3.14: Contemporary Architecture that Reflects the Cathedral Gothic Heritage of the Past

The Cathedral Gothic style that has been preserved so well and is still in use today provides symmetry and balance to the mission of Sewanee. This thematic use of “church” architecture and learning is complemented by the landscape. The Bible contains several stories set in gardens and the out-of-doors. Sewanee’s buildings are clustered on a small section of the 13,000 acres the college owns. The “Domain,” as the area is known, is used as and for the students’ private realm to reflect or socialize in small groups. With its cabins, the Domain is akin to the Benedictine anchorites or small structures for live-in isolation for short periods of time. The nature preserve is also an outdoor classroom where all manner of classes are taught. The relationship between built environment, the

natural environment, and the spiritual environment has created a very special place on the Cumberland Plateau.

Sewanee represents a different type of campus design concept than the traditional campus designs like the University of South Carolina or the University of Virginia. Even though the main campus buildings are laid out to respect a traditional quadrangle arrangement, first impressions of visitors might be buildings in a forest as opposed to buildings on a lawn. The campus is awash in trees, and the current designers understand this completely. Newer buildings are located in nature and do not attempt to dominate the environment. Walking the many paths is the best way to experience the campus, because this campus is truly integrated with its surroundings.

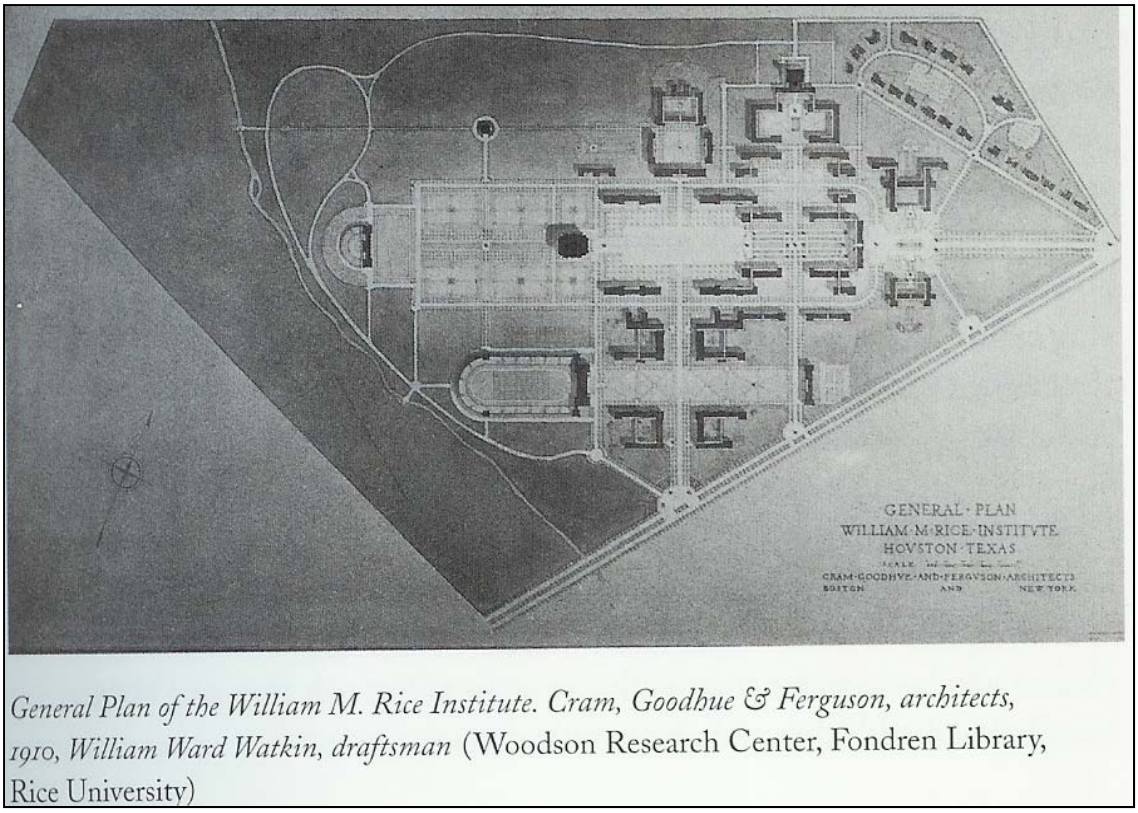
Rice University

Rice University was founded in 1891, but like a story out of a mystery novel that involved Mr. Rice's poisoning by his butler and a falsified will by his trusted lawyer, The William Marsh Rice Institute for the Advancement of Letters, Science and Art, almost did not open its doors. After a murder conviction and a long dispute over the will, Rice Institute finally opened its doors in 1912.

The first president of Rice Institute was Edgar Odell Lovett, who, before construction began, visited 78 colleges across the country to learn as much as he could about campus planning. Lovett retained Cram, Goodhue & Ferguson of Boston to plan the campus and the first buildings. This was a safe choice. Cram, Goodhue & Ferguson had won several campus planning competitions including Sweet Briar, West Point and Princeton. Skilled in the campus planning style of Beaux-Arts and the architectural style of the era, gothic revival, Cram, Goodhue & Ferguson were about to make a surprising

and refreshing departure from the norm. President Lovett wanted something different done with the 277 acres in order to create his vision of a ‘socially constructed’ identity for a new campus (Fox, Turner).

Cram and Lovett worked together on every aspect of the new college from the ground up. The landscape plan and the architectural concepts were developed in conjunction with the academic plan. Cram grouped buildings in four academic disciplines and placed the buildings in a quadrangle formation. These academic quadrangles then supported an arrangement along a major east-west axis. Along two north-south minor axes, Cram laid out gardens and small quadrangles that reflected a human scale. The major axis, which was in line with the main entry forecourt, was framed with alleys of live oaks; this created a harmonious garden-city landscape. They called the plan simply, The General Plan (Fox, p. 7). The General Plan organized related-use functions like administrative buildings along the major axis. Parallel north-south axis structured view and movement where the academic functions were placed.



General Plan of the William M. Rice Institute. Cram, Goodhue & Ferguson, architects, 1910, William Ward Watkin, draftsman (Woodson Research Center, Fondren Library, Rice University)

Figure 3.15: The Cram, Goodhue & Ferguson Master Plan

Cram, possibly because of the climate of Houston, Texas, or possibly because of Lovett's influence, broke from his beloved Gothic style and created a collaborative architectural style. One might describe it as neo-Byzantine style, but Cram used many influences from the Mediterranean region. Examples include tile work that might be found in Spain or the south of France, columns with a Moorish flare, colonnades used extensively in Syria, Sicily and Italy and arches inspired by various regions. Rice's architecture truly was a departure from campuses being built during this time and a huge step away from Gothic Revival.

Figure 3.16: Administration Building Designed by Cram, Goodhue & Ferguson

Figure 3.17: A Colonnade on the English Building and Roof Top View of Rice Today

The Gothic style Cram practiced at Sweet Briar, West Point and Princeton would have clustered the buildings much tighter together like an old medieval town on the Rice

campus. If this had been done, Rice would be a different campus than it is today. It would not have been the green open space campus in the heart of a dense metropolitan city. The Beaux-Arts style allowed tolerance for a looser and more modern interpretation. Whatever the reason, Cram's plan was ambitious and over time was compromised to some degree. However, the spirit of the plan is still pervasive and is the dominant architecture on the campus.

The landscape plan called for large lawns lined with oak trees. The walks and roads today are lined with the original plantings. The grounds have well maintained grassed lawns and privet hedges that give the grounds a country club feel rather than that of a college campus. That being said, the campus is an oasis in a city. The wide vista views from the campus provide a nice interruption to the urban core to the north.

Figure 3.18: Entry Drive

The opportunity to design an entire university from the ground up afforded Cram and Lovett a blank palette to paint a modern campus that incorporated all of the changes that higher education underwent since the Civil War. Movements such as the industrial revolution, the introduction of individual colleges with highly specialized fields of study, departmentalization of units within colleges, and college athletics, are just a few examples of these evolutions. These changes and more influenced campus design and created radically different campuses from the pre-Civil War institutions, such as the University of South Carolina and similar era institutions.

Figure 3.19: Sciences Quadrangle at Rice University

Figure 3.20: View of Campus Buildings at Rice University

Conclusion

The word campus was first used to describe Princeton University. Campus has Latin roots meaning “field” or an “expansiveness of land.” The word later grew to include all of what we know today to be the buildings and grounds of a place of learning. Charles Dickens referred to Yale as “buildings erected in a park” (Turner, p. 4). Even in urban cities where land prices are elevated, campuses strive to include green space in their city’s microcosm. During the 1960s, when the first commuter colleges started appearing, the campuses still maintained open spaces between stand-alone buildings in which students could traverse between classes. This model is so omnipresent that no social or pedagogical change has altered the base design. Many historians who study campus development overlook individual gardens and plants. This is regrettable, because the gardens developed side-by-side with the buildings and grounds. The gardens served multiple purposes: as outdoor classrooms for horticultural, pharmaceutical and fauna

studies; places for pleasurable reading, walking and quiet areas of reflection and as sources of food production, and studies. Botanical gardens were also a part of the American campus development. Rich groves of trees and shrubs were cared for and often preserved as forests, as the towns expanded around the campus. Just like the buildings, the gardens and open spaces changed with the ideals and pressures of society.

CHAPTER FOUR

The History and Development of the University of Georgia's Herty Field

Herty Field on the campus of the University of Georgia serves as an illustrative case study in the versatility and dynamics inherent in green spaces. College grounds constantly evolve to meet institutional needs, mirroring the demands of the university. These demands reflect changes within society. An example of this evolution is the large influx of students to college campuses following World War II. As a result, grounds were converted into building sites and parking lots. Herty Field has undergone similar transformations. For the first ninety years Herty Field demarcated the western edge of the developing University of Georgia. The western edge of the campus did not experience much development and was not utilized as a traditional quadrangle until 1902 with the addition of Candler Hall. The construction of Candler Hall defined the western edge of the campus and formed the traditional quadrangle, which became Herty Field. Before Candler Hall was built, the northwest quadrant of campus was undeveloped, and its usage prior to 1880 is unknown. This case study will explore the genesis of Herty Field, as well as highlight its current usage today and explain how its development played a role in the history of the University of Georgia.

A Brief History of the Grounds at Georgia

The historiography of the grounds at the University of Georgia was nonexistent for most of the university's first one hundred years. Two definitive texts attempt to elucidate this period. The first text is *A Historical Sketch of the University of Georgia*, by

A. L. Hull (1894) and the second is, *The University of Georgia*, by Thomas Walter Reed (1949). These histories chronicle events such as the founding of the college, graduations, notable professors and students, historical milestones, building construction, and the history of the city of Athens, among other topics. The records are limited in regard to grounds care, tree planting, harvesting, and the daily use of the grounds. These histories occasionally reference the general character of the grounds, but such references merely provide general descriptions of the, "rough and unkempt appearance of the campus" (Hull, p. 101). Hull's references to the campus described the results of neglect which occurred during and after the Civil War.

Pre-Civil War University

The university was first proposed by the Georgia Legislature on February 25, 1784. On January 27, 1785, the legislature granted a charter establishing the University of Georgia. From 1784 until 1800, the university primarily existed on paper as the first state-chartered university in America. A land grant provided two separate parcels, each containing 20,000 acres of land. Each parcel was then subdivided into allotments of 5,000 acres each. These sub-plots were then sold for an endowment. In June 1801, a committee voted on a location at, "Cedar Shoals upon the north fork of the Oconee River owned by Mr. Daniel Easley" (Augusta *Chronicle,* July 25, 1801). Six-hundred and thirty-three acres were sold to John Milledge who donated the acres to the university with some of the land intended for the founding of Athens. Interestingly, in the 1790s the selling price for 400 acres was equivalent to "one saddle horse and a rifle" (Hull, p. 11).

The campus was a rough frontier outpost when Josiah Meigs' arrived in June 1801. Long before Athenian images of a Greek Temple within a rural setting materialized

as the University of Georgia stereotype, Meigs began teaching sans buildings. Reed describes Meigs' first teaching experiences at the University of Georgia as follows:

> At the time there was a majestic white oak tree about thirty feet from the road, easily three hundred years old, this is where Meigs, sitting on a stool, held class. Members of the first [collegiate] class of [the University of] Georgia studied as they sprawled around him on the grass. Having arrived in Athens from Yale, Meigs found it was quite different from his previous university classes, but it was a beautiful setting for a campus class—no noise, save for the twittering of the birds and the occasional grunt of a Cherokee Indian who had frozen a few yards away to stare at the newcomers and wonder what it was all about (Reed, T., Vol. 1, p. 17).

It was another four years before a permanent structure was built to house the students and faculty. Meigs served as president, teacher, recruiter, fund raiser, campus and city planner, and architect. His campus and city plans are still evident today (Reed, T.).

Early in its history, the campus grounds had fruit orchards and a botanical garden. Little was written regarding the design or species planted in the botanical garden. It is assumed that there were ornamental, kitchen and food production gardens that were maintained by the campus or located on the land owned by the university. Land was utilized as a revenue source by the university, and it was sold to keep the campus in operation. Notable land sales took place in the first decade (1800–1810), in the 1830s and again in 1842 when the university received no funding from the state. The land sale of 1842 included lots to the west and across Tanyard Branch, which was the last of the land from the original 1799 Milledge donation. The sale of university-owned land yielded approximately $85,000. Another land sale in 1857, which yielded $33,600, removed the portion in the area referred to today as Cobbham. These land sales kept the doors open, constructed buildings, and raised the iconic cast iron fence and arch to keep livestock off campus, but sacrificed the botanical garden (Boney, Hull).

Reconstruction through the Progressive Era

The university grounds and buildings were in an appalling state following the Civil War. The South suffered long after the war concluded and, during Reconstruction, much of the South struggled to rebuild and make sense of its horrific loss. The university's classes were halted in October of 1863 and throughout most of the Civil War the buildings and grounds served as a hospital, treating both Northern and Southern soldiers. The campus was reopened in January 1866 under the leadership of Chancellor Andrew A. Lipscomb. Hull writes that, "The old campus presented a woeful appearance after the close of the war. The walks were overgrown with grass, weeds grew rampant everywhere, fences were broken or burned, windows demolished, and the interior of the chapel and dormitories were hacked and smoked, and in every way disfigured by their late tenants, the Federal soldiers" (Hull, pp. 75–76). Hull describes deep trenches that developed within the grounds due to erosion, holes in roofs, and trees cut for fire wood (Hull). Lipscomb immediately began to revitalize the campus. He proposed a utilitarian curriculum with a scientific thrust (Reed, T., Hull).

Education reform came in waves during the latter part of the nineteenth century. At Harvard College, the radical concept of the elective system was introduced in 1869 and gained popularity amongst the more mature students, most of whom were Civil War veterans who desired the freedom to chart their own studies. With the elective system successfully demonstrated at Harvard, the concept was adopted at other institutions. In 1867, at the University of Georgia, Chancellor Andrew Lipscomb implemented his goal of a scientific curriculum and allowed an elective curriculum (Dyer 115). Additional funding was received as a result of the Morrill Act, as Georgia's land scrip was sold for $243,000, and an agricultural college was established in Athens. This led to "broadening

of the curriculum to include subjects related to agricultural studies and the reception of a substantial number of new students at the Athens campus" (Dyer, p. 120).

The Hatch Act of 1887 established funding for agricultural experiment stations, bringing universities to rural communities. These centers were placed away from main campuses in rural areas in order to provide interaction between farmers and researchers and to obtain agrarian knowledge quickly and completely. This dissimulation of applied research was a tangible resource that local citizens could quantify and which subsequently aided in the recruitment of students. For the first time, farmers had access to academic knowledge and technologies that yielded larger crops per acre (Bowen, p. 84). This also represented the first attempts at creating a higher education system "to teach such branches of learning as are related to agriculture and mechanic arts . . . in order to promote the liberal and practical education of the industrial class in the several pursuits and professions of life" (Dyer, p. 119). The doors of elite universities were opening to the common man, allowing him to better himself and his country.

Similar to many universities across the country, not everyone at the University of Georgia embraced the sweeping changes taking place within higher education, during the latter part of the nineteenth century. Despite the optimistic outlook of many Americans, several at the University of Georgia and in the capital of Atlanta were determined to keep traditional practices. The federal filings for the university to receive the benefits of the Morrill Act were submitted a few months before the decade-long deadline. A special session of the Board of Trustees and Governor Benjamin Conley's influence finally won over the objections to the university becoming an agricultural land grant school. Twice,

members of the Georgia General Assembly tried to strip the University of its status as a public institution, with the majority of the debate centering on religion (Dyer).

Students, faculty and administrators started to take a different approach to managing the buildings and grounds under their care. The University of Georgia, like many other campuses, has a long and rich appreciation of the land. In 1881, Chancellor Mell called on the services of the famous landscape designer P.J. Berckman, designer of the Augusta National Golf Course, to develop a master plan for the north campus grounds. Berckman provided his skills to the university free of charge and donated trees and shrubs in efforts towards the beautification of the campus. Around 1891, the Ladies Garden Club of Athens founded the first garden club in the United States, comprised initially of only twelve Athenian women, and the Garden Club's legacy is still present on campus today (Dyer, pp. 120–122).

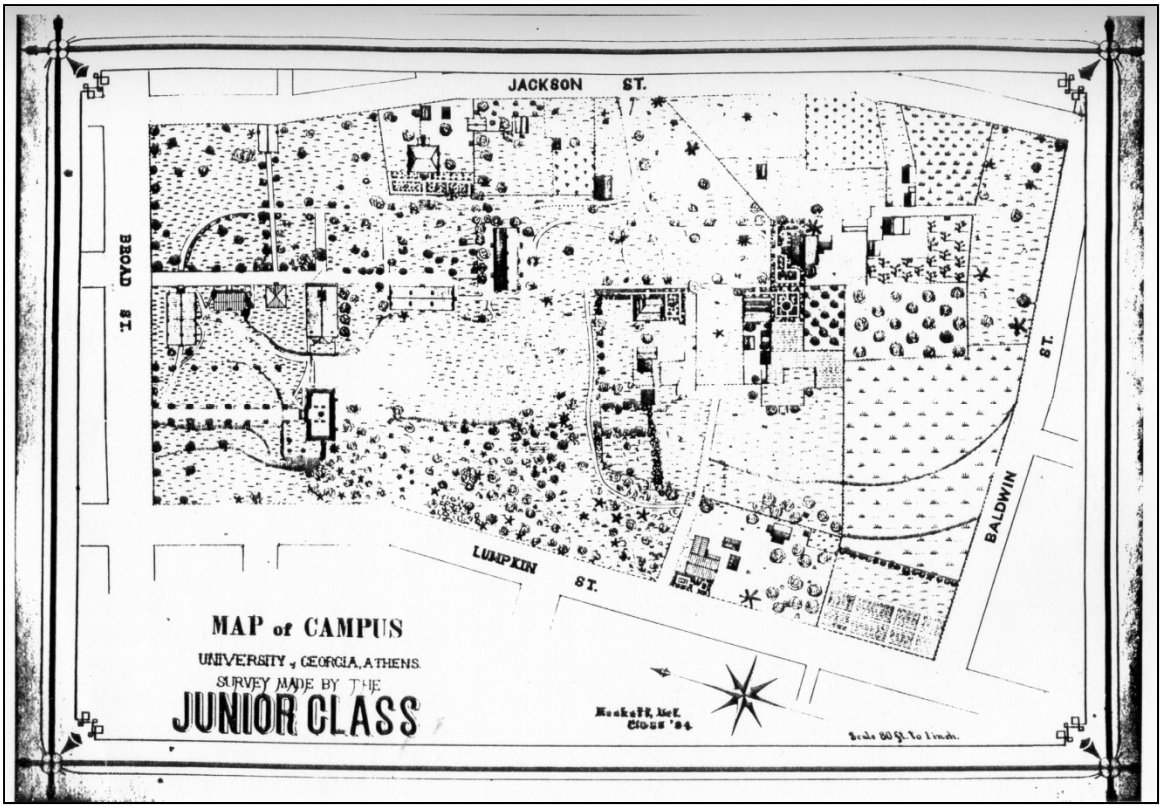


Figure 4.1: Plan of UGA in 1899

In addition to the growing awareness that designed landscape spaces added aesthetic value, it was widely believed that skilled designers could help solve urban and social problems that were festering in the cities of the late nineteenth century. The redesign of Paris (1853–1870) by Napoleon III and his city planner, Baron Georges Haussmann, was touted as proof that large scale city planning could be successful. Paris was transformed from an overgrown medieval city to a pragmatic modern capital. As a result, designers started incorporating broader themes in their planning approaches. Whole cities could be designed or redesigned. At the World's Columbian Exposition of 1893 in Chicago, the City Beautiful Movement blossomed. Daniel Hudson Burnham, the director of the exposition, is still referred to as the indisputable "Father of the City Beautiful Movement" (Encyclopedia of Chicago, p. 61). Designers worked to integrate

the dramatic changes brought about by the industrial age with urban living, where people could live and work in planned cities. City Beautiful was directly linked to Progressivism. Civic leaders placed their faith in beliefs that creating beautiful cities would inspire citizens to higher moral and civic virtue. Designers' imaginations were fueled by Beaux-Arts composition with strong axial arrangements culminating in grand buildings flanked by gardens and wide vistas. These grand buildings were usually civic buildings such as city halls, civic centers or museums. The supporting buildings along these avenues were lesser in scale but of a no less humble style. Many of the grand avenues of today's American cities were created during this phase of American history. The country as a whole was becoming aware of the growing heritage of its built environment. Designers like Frederick Law Olmsted, John Wellborn Root, Louis Sullivan, the architectural firm of McKim, Mead and White's designs for Columbia University, Cram Goodhue Ferguson's plan for William Rice Institute (later Rice University), and Cass Gilbert's University of Minnesota were the Grand Marshals of the City Beautiful Movement.

The college campus was equally influenced and transformed by the City Beautiful Movement. During this period in American history, new campuses were opening their doors at an unprecedented rate in order to accommodate the surge in college-bound students. One of the trends at the universities at the time was holding design competitions. The selected winners would subsequently be commissioned to oversee the design and construction of a new campus. Carnegie Mellon University and the University of California at Berkeley were two noted campuses on which trustees held open national

design competitions for their new campuses. Both designs drew heavily from the Beaux-Arts style and the City Beautiful Movement for their final submissions.

At the University of Georgia, Chancellor Walter B. Hill was appointed in 1899, and he ushered in an era of progressive change. He courted New York philanthropist George Foster Peabody, a native of Georgia, who became the first significant private donor via his gift of $50,000. Hill used part of the gift to build a library and hired New York landscape architect Charles Wellford Leavitt to create a master plan for the future of the university.

The Leavitt Plan

Charles Wellford Leavitt (1871–1928) was educated in Connecticut and Pennsylvania as a civil engineer, but summarily started practicing landscape architecture instead and opened his office in New York in 1897. Many of Leavitt's commissions were country estates located in New York and California. His most distinguished commissions were the gardens of the Walter P. Chrysler Estate, located in King's Point, New York and the formal gardens of the Lillian Sefton Dodge Estate in Mill Neck, New York. Leavitt also executed important civic commissions, most notably, improvements to the Gate of Heaven Cemetery in Mt. Pleasant, New York, and the Lake Mirror in Promenade, Lakeland, Florida. Tragically, Leavitt's career was unexpectedly cut short when he contracted pneumonia and died in 1928 (MacKay, et al, pp. 252–253).

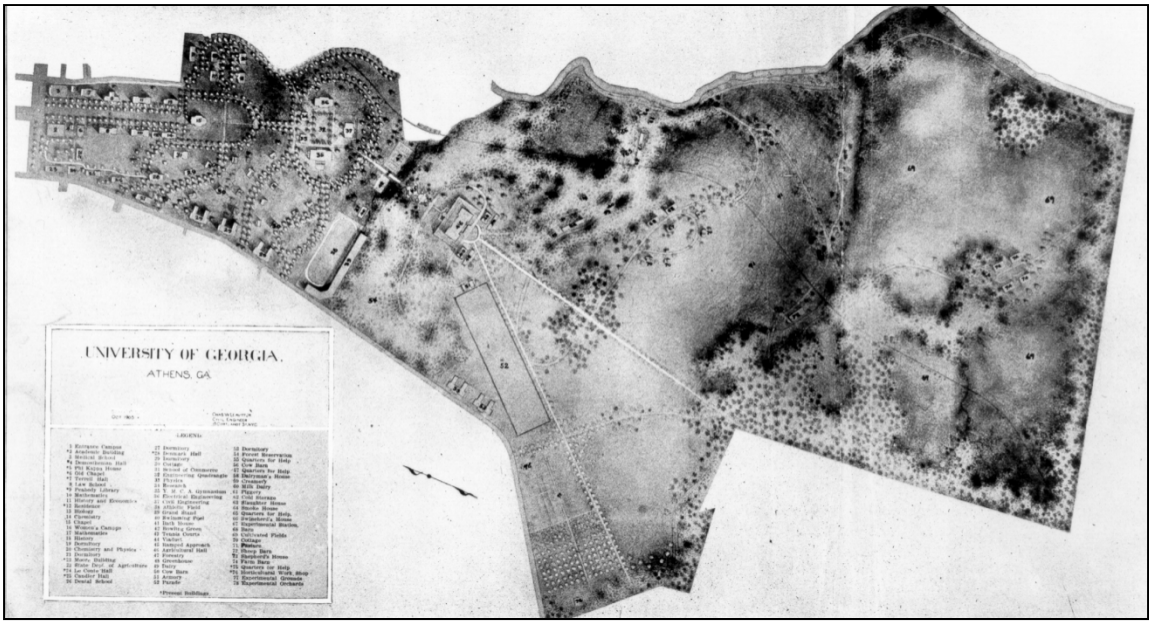


Figure 4.2 1905 Leavitt Plan

Leavitt's plan for the University of Georgia was unveiled in January 1906. The Beaux-Arts composition featured a strong axial arrangement highlighted by a centrally planned domed chapel building. The Leavitt plan divided the campus into five sectors: the Academic Group, the State Department Group, the Engineering Group, the College for Women, and the Agricultural Group. Leavitt proposed that Old College be razed and the quadrangle space be extended in a southerly direction. The chapel was proposed as a terminal feature of the new quadrangle's main axis. Leavitt integrated the mythos of Athens as he configured the Engineering Group. He intended that the buildings in this group "to be modeled after the Acropolis" in Athens, Greece (Bowen, p. 117). Leavitt's plan also solidified the location of the Agricultural School. He proposed that the new buildings be built on a prominent site overlooking Athens to the north. The plan incorporated the acquisition of additional lands, which expanded the size of the campus

and signified the Agricultural School's relationship to the university. The 208 acres of the Lumpkin land was acquired in 1908 (Boney, Bowen).

Leavitt's plan made use of the natural features of the land. His Beaux-Arts plan integrated the deep ravines and steep hillsides that had previously separated portions of the campus and were seen as impediments to campus growth by many past administrators. Leavitt proposed Tanyard Creek be bridged with a "pedestrian aqueduct" (Bowen, p. 207). He also utilized the Tanyard Branch ravine as a site for the relocation of the athletic fields. The natural contour and bowl shape of the ravine was eventually formalized with the construction of Sanford Stadium in 1929. Although many aspects of Leavitt's plan made it to fruition, other recommendations, such as the demolition of Old College and the creation of a monumental quadrangle survive only on paper. Leavitt's plan remained the most significant formal plan in the University of Georgia's history until the 1999 Master Plan.

Leavitt conceived a grand physical plan that embodied Chancellor Hill's vision of the institution's ideals and aspirations. As the University of Georgia grew, influenced by Leavitt's skillfully designed plan, the university was honing its skills within landscape design. A young program was born under the direction of one of the university's own. In 1928, Hubert B. Owens became the director of the newly-formed undergraduate program in landscape architecture. Owens was a landscape architect, and the new program was part of the College of Agriculture in the Horticulture Department (Bowen, p. 252).

The art of landscape in America became more absorbed with the principles of classicism. While the intentions of the first generation of settlers in the new nation may have been survival, subsequent generations began to appreciate the need for refining the

vision of the American landscape. The reasons were less superficial than merely campus aesthetics. The zeitgeist of the American campus tradition prior to the Second World War was the concept that the physical form of an institution should embody and reflect the institution's intellectual ideals as well. Thomas Jefferson's design for the University of Virginia exemplifies this idea. Jefferson asserted that "there is reciprocity between the learning and the physical environment" (Dennis, p. 2).

Herty Field

After the Civil War, a formal corps of cadets was introduced to the campus. They drilled behind New College on what would become Herty Field.

> . . . In the mornings, student infantry companies, still dressed in Confederate gray, formed their battalion. Then, after classes, the college boys gathered on the field to while away the long afternoon hours, running, jumping, scuffling, or just play the fool—anything to work up a good sweat and blow off a little steam. 'We had a football,' wrote T. W. Reed, 'and at times kicked it around on the playing field, It was a round inflated rubber ball about eight inches in diameter, and the main contest was seeing how far it could be kicked (Stegeman, p. 2).

There is very little written about the use of this area of campus. Most of what is known comes from John Stegeman's *The Ghosts of Herty Field: Early Days on a Southern Gridiron.* Stegeman recorded conversations with former Georgia athletes about their memories of the very beginnings of Georgia football. In 1884, Charles Herty was a student and described his first impressions to Stegeman:

> 'It was the morning before college opened that I had my first sight of athletics at the University,' he wrote. 'Charles Ed Morris was standing under the shade of a large tree between the chapel and the Moore building, batting out flies to Cecil Wilcox, the Mell boys, and others, standing near the top of a high hill on the same elevation [as] Yahoo [Old College] . . . . Between the batters and the fielders was a deep gulch. So steep was the decline from the outfield . . . that it was very dangerous for the fielder to run forward on a fly ball and the ever-present small boy was utilized for returning to the batter the balls which fell short of the far outfield.' (Stegeman, p. 2).

The field was only slightly improved when Herty arrived back on campus in 1890.

In 1883 a committee was formed to investigate why so many students were facing disciplinary problems. The study concluded that students received fewer dismissals and other disciplinary reprimands during “field day activities” (Hull, p. 135). In the time leading up to the annual field day, the first of May, there was a sharp decline in the discipline doled out by faculty. The committee concluded that the university should begin a limited amount of intramural athletic activities. The committee’s report and the recommendations were met with great controversy. Sports, games, and other types of physical activity at the time were considered a waste of time and a distraction from important academic, and religious pursuits.

In *A Pictorial History of the University of Georgia,* Nash Boney writes of the strict Calvinist environment that existed from 1810–1900. The university presidents were quite authoritarian and all were ministers, except for one. During the1830s and 1850s the act of playing cards was grounds for expulsion. Regardless, the proponents of intramural athletics prevailed. The 1883 committee reported that “the games worked off the superfluous energy in the boys and took up the excesses of vitality that in former days found its vent in riots and disturbances of various kinds” (Hull, p. 136). In the 1880s intramural athletics were intermittent, but often included actives such as baseball, gymnastics and a style of football that was unrecognizable by today’s principles. Dr. Charles Herty, an adjunct professor of chemistry, is primarily responsible for the development of athletic sports at the University of Georgia. Despite the lack of formal teams, baseball was a favorite sport of the time. Several baseball teams produced record setting statistics. For example Charles E. Morris threw the first curve ball in the South

during the early 1880s, and R. L. Nowell hit a ball 550 feet across Lumpkin Street into the Chi Phi front yard, a record that would stand until the 1920s (Hull, Boney and Dyer).

Dr. Charles Holmes Herty

The development of Herty Field at the University Georgia began with its namesake, Dr. Charles Herty. Herty turned the western side of New College, originally a sloped hillside, into a multi-purpose recreational field. Herty was an adjunct chemistry professor at the university from 1890–1902. He first attended Middle Georgia Military and Agricultural College in Milledgeville and excelled in both academics and on the parade ground. As a boy, Herty was quite athletic and talented on the field, but also understood the finer points of the game. He was a natural leader and an ardent fan of baseball, which was his forté. He transferred to the University of Georgia in 1884 at the age of seventeen to study chemistry. Germaine Reed writes in his book, *Crusading for Chemistry: The Professional Career of Charles Holmes Herty*, that Herty was a standout in many ways:

> He played center field for the university nine, sang and danced, bicycled, and courted young women. Reminiscing about student days fifty years later, Professor C. M. Strahan described Herty as one of the 'jellies' of the day. 'At a square dance, party or any social gathering,' Strahan explained, 'Charlie would take the leading role. He had all the girls around here crazy about him, and he was one of the best dancers to trot a step.' (Reed, G., p. 4).

Herty graduated in July of 1886 and was accepted at Johns Hopkins University to further his education in chemistry. Herty excelled at Hopkins, and continued to pursue his love for baseball, singing in the glee club, gymnastics, and the ladies. He sang in a local opera company and acted in several performances. Herty received his Ph.D. in chemistry from Hopkins in June 1890 at the age of twenty-two and returned to Athens to begin his teaching and research career (Reed, G.).

Athens was a progressive city in 1890. Electric streetlights and streetcars were being installed, schools were being constructed, mail was being delivered to homes, and a professional fire department and a sewer system were in the works. The economic engine was the myriad textile mills and railroads. Athens was a city of the "New South," transforming itself and leaving traditional economic methodologies behind. Athens was in transition, but the university was not. The university was deeply embroiled in a fight with the legislature. Despite the university's conservative nature, denominationalists referred to the university as a place that tolerated "public hugging" (dancing) along with free tuition at the state's expense and as such, the university was considered an opponent to sectarian intuitions. The legislature clamped a financial noose around the university that was not removed until Chancellor Boggs' resignation in 1899. Walter B. Hill was appointed in 1899 and was the first non-minister to lead the university since its second president, Josiah Meigs (1801–1809). Hill is credited with the university's transition from a small parochial college to a modern university (Reed, G., Dyer).

The Building of Herty Field

Dr. Charles Herty worked to encourage and promote intercollegiate athletics. During a time when private fund raising was unheard of at the University of Georgia, Herty utilized this means to build a field for intercollegiate sports. In a 1929 article in the student newspaper, A. F. Simpson wrote a brief history of Herty Field as a kind of obituary (1929 Red and Black). Simpson credits students and the town's citizens with providing the manual labor to build Herty Field. "Herty Field—at the time it bore no name—was selected as the most desirable spot. Grading the upper side and filling the lower side of the field was at once begun, students and citizens of Athens doing the work

together" (Simpson, *Red and Black*, p. 5). Simpson also wrote that the field was smaller in 1892, just 450 feet by 350 feet. In 1896, the field was widened by 60 feet and improved with sod and a "hard clay infield" to improve play and appearance (Simpson).

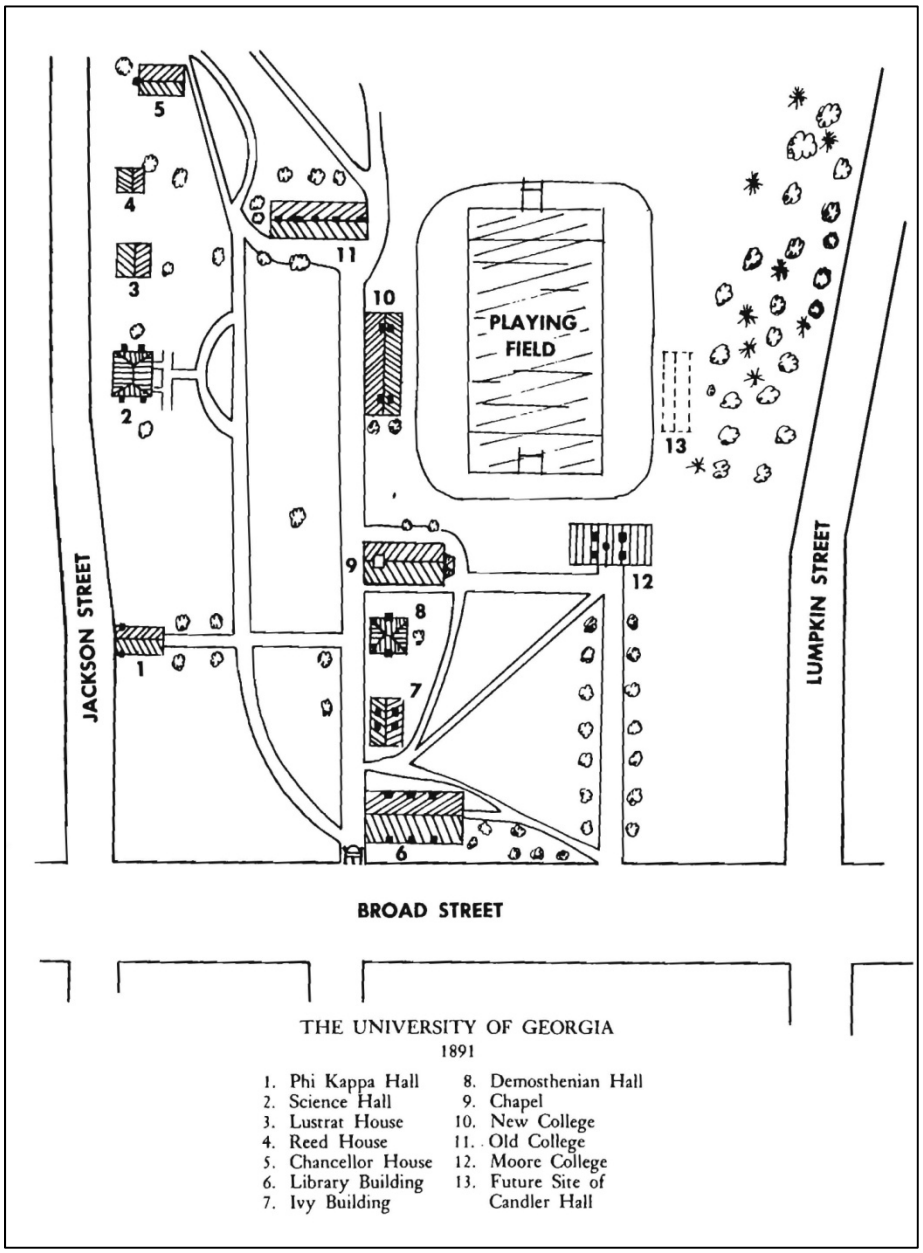


Figure 4.3: North Campus, 1891

Figure 4.4: Herty Field, 1890's

Herty also raised funds for equipment and uniforms and built the first gymnasium located in the basement of Old College. When Herty fell short of his financial goal with private funds, he received a few dollars from the penury board for the construction of four tennis courts at the corner of Broad and Jackson Streets. In the early 1890s Herty worked as an instructor and was compensated at a rate of $1,200 per year for three years. He received no additional reimbursement for his work with athletics. After his promotion to adjunct professor, he was paid $1,500 per year. In 1896 Herty was made the permanent Director of Physical Culture and received a $150 per annum stipend. In 1897, his stipend was increased to $300 dollars (Reed, G.).

On January 30, 1892, the first varsity football season began with Georgia winning against Mercer College 50 to 0. The season ended with a 1-1 record after a loss to Auburn University 10 to 0. In 1895, after a winning season, the field that now bears Herty's name was graded, expanded and improved with a grandstand (Figure 4.5). Herty was promoted to the position of Athletic Director, and Glen "Pop" Warner was named head football

coach. Warner arrived from Iowa and, according to Stegeman, almost got right back on the train. Warner was taken aback by everything he saw. “The field could hardly pass for an athletic field.” ‘There were rocks sticking up all over the field, no grass and both baseball and football stripping were layout.’” (Stegeman, p. 14). Money was requested and the field was improved.

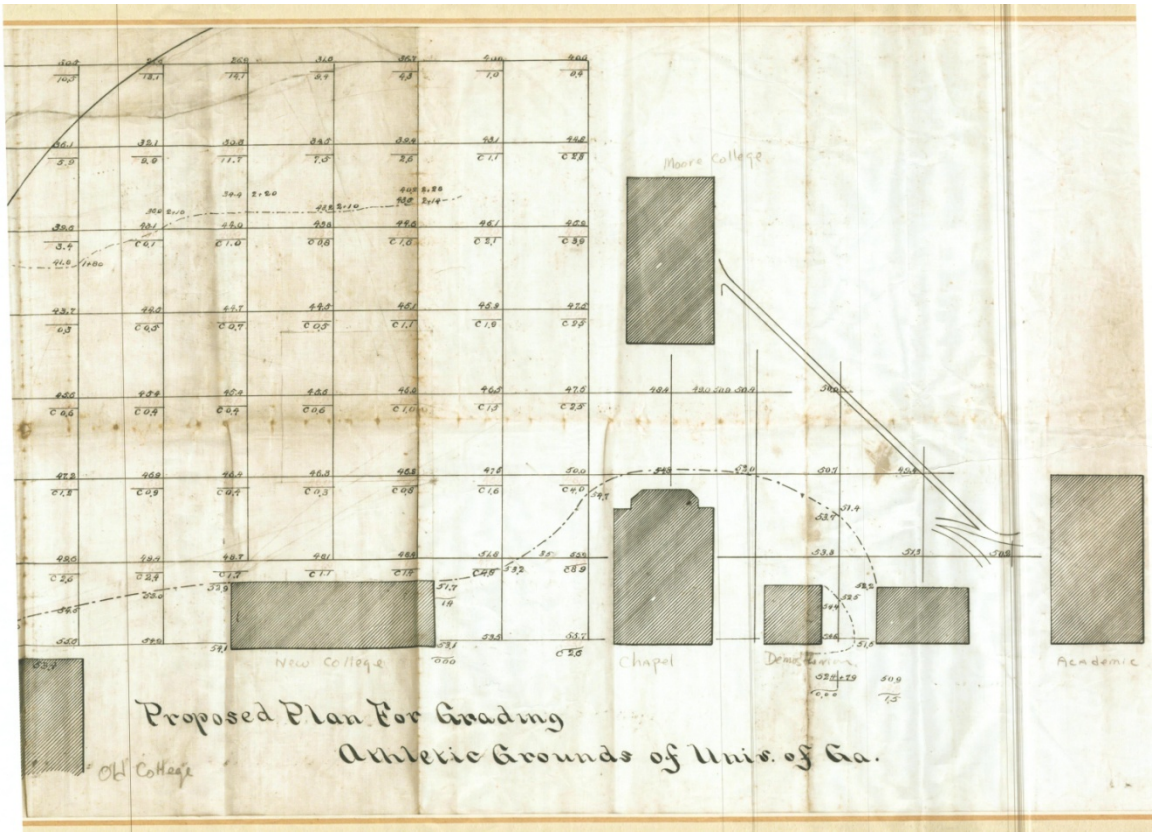


Figure 4.5: Grading Plan for Herty Field Improvements, 1895

Coach Herty maintained strict adherence to the rules of football during a time when such rules were broken and fans did not understand the game, much less the rules. He worked to keep professional players and non-students out of the game. This was not an easy task, and Herty found himself confronted with fans who wanted Georgia to compete like other teams, which meant hiring players. Herty countered these pressures by

helping to establish the Southern Intercollegiate Athletic Association (SIAA) (Stegeman). The battle regarding professionals and students was waged within intercollegiate sports for the next one hundred years and is witnessed in collegiate sports today.

Figure 4.6: Red Coat Band circa 1913

Herty left the University of Georgia over a dispute with a department head in 1902. Reed speculates that Herty's disenchantment begin about 1898 or 1899. After this time period, Herty requested a sabbatical, borrowed money on a life insurance policy, and returned to Athens in 1900. After resigning from the University of Georgia, he worked for the United States Forestry Services, and then in 1905, he accepted a position at the University of North Carolina at Chapel Hill. He had a long and distinguished career as a chemist. Charles Herty died July 27, 1938 of heart failure. He has many accolades to his name, but on the Georgia campus he is remembered for his transformative work in sports and his involvement with the field that rightfully carries his name (Reed, G., Dyer).

Chancellor Walter Hill's Vision

Walter Barnard Hill accepted the Chancellor's position in July of 1899. Still facing attacks from religious groups and agricultural reformers, Hill moved quickly to advance the University of Georgia into the Progressive Age. Fueled by Methodist clergymen, such as Warren A. Chandler, denominational ideologists toiled to close the university. The formal endorsement of football and baseball only added to the tumultuous environment.

Hill, a prominent lawyer known to all members of the legislature, fought proposals to cut funding from the university. Hill made dozens of changes to the campus, both in academics and the physical plant. He constructed a central heating plan, installed indoor plumbing, electrified the buildings, constructed brick walkways and developed a landscape enhancement plan. Hill started a building campaign that resulted in the construction of several buildings, Meigs Hall (1905), Conner Hall (1902), Academic Building (currently Holmes/Hunter Academic Building, 1905), Terrell Hall (1904), Library (currently the Administration Building, 1905) and Denmark Hall (1902). In 1901, he presented a landscape plan that subdivided the thirty-five acre campus into five quadrangles, each serving its own academic function. He wrote to the trustees noting the:

> …unsightly condition of large portions of the campus, especially the area contiguous to Denmark Hall. No principle of education is now better settled than [the fact that the] environment has an influence on the character of the students . . . the ugly, I might say hideous appearance of this area cannot operate otherwise than a deteriorating influence (Annual Report, 1905).

This and other letters may have resulted in the hiring of the landscape architect Charles Leavitt in 1905. Hill and Leavitt only met twice due to the untimely death of Hill in December 1905 of pneumonia. Starting in the spring of 1905 and then again in October, Hill and Leavitt redesigned the campus and as a result, the future of the University of Georgia. Through heavy correspondence, Hill directed Leavitt's to create a plan for the University of Georgia from his office in Athens to Leavitt's office in New York. In the spring of 1906, Leavitt traveled to Athens to present the late Chancellor's vision. On a five-foot by twelve-foot drawing Leavitt's stereopticon view of the new campus thrilled both students and faculty and received a unanimous vote of thanks from the trustees (Mathis, Trustees Minutes 1906, and Boney).

Leavitt's Plan and Herty Field

The plan, called "Greater Georgia," was rooted in a landscape plan that supported the five academic groups. Gardens and terraces were flanked by tree-lined malls. The Grand Mall was the center piece of the composition. The Mall was built on the existing north quad and terminated at a University of Virginia type rotunda style building, which was a new domed library. This majestic building commanded hilltop views, and Leavitt envisioned elaborate gardens cascading down the hill leading students to the next group of buildings. Herty Field, by then established as a defined part of the campus, was incorporated into the plan. The Grand Mall had the Arch for its entry, but Herty Drive would have a new brick entry gate, constructed in 1907. The drive was lined with tree plantings in a bosque arrangement. While Thomas Jefferson created the "Academical Village"; Leavitt created the "academic city." The heart of the new academic city was the Grand Mall; the western side of this Mall was bounded by Herty Field and enclosed by new academic buildings. In addition to the existing Candler Hall, new buildings were planned to house the new medical and dental schools. These new buildings would face Lumpkin Street to the west and Herty Field and Harris Terrace to the north of Meigs Hall. To the south of Herty Field was the new School of Commerce. Leavitt moved the sports function of Herty Field to the new middle of the campus. The new ball fields served as a knuckle, while the south of campus developed into an agricultural campus. The new sports fields were north of Tanyard Branch seated between the creek and Compton Hill. The new sports complex housed a baseball field, athletic dormitories, football field, bowling greens, a swimming pool and tennis courts. Six new dormitories

eventually lined Lumpkin Street, which had a southern trolley line that transported students up and down the hills of Athens (Wright).

Leavitt's Plan was the manifestation of Hill's vision of a university that met the challenges of the new century. Hill was acutely aware of the politics that had plagued his predecessor, Boggs. He also understood that if the University of Georgia was to become a force in higher education it needed a master plan that matched the explosion of knowledge that was a complement to the industrial revolution. The twentieth century held great promise, which Hill understood, and he planned the university accordingly.

Herty Field's Next Iteration

The field continued to be the venue for intercollegiate sports, but also served as a military drill field and practice field for the Georgia Redcoat Band. The 1895 leveling and expansion of the field made the site a perfect location for a variety of activities. Many students walked across the field to class, met friends or sat along the edge of the field. There is also a record of a fist fight taking place on the field in 1910; it was between residents of New College and Old College. The melee was quickly broken up by faculty. Young soldiers drilled on the field before deploying for the trenches of World War I. Herty Field became one of the great open spaces that typified a college campus green (Boney, Dyer).

With the influx of men returning from World War II and the university's decision to admit females, the campus became crowded, and plans to implement Leavitt's design incorporating Tanyard Creek into the campus, were initiated. America was experiencing a post-war economic boom. The country basked in the victory over the Germans, and there was an increase in the percentage of the middle class that wanted their children to

have a college education. Colleges were opening their doors like never before in the history of higher education. John Thelin writes in his book, *The History of American Higher Education*, that the "nineteen twenties were the golden age of higher education" (Thelin, p.125). College life was romanticized by raccoon coats, shorter dresses, wild dance crazes and men in convertible cars driving friends to fraternity parties. Life on a college campus took on a social function endemic with a party atmosphere that was seen for the first time by the public. Social aspects of college life in the nineteenth century were limited to dinner clubs and social norms of the day. Alternatively, college life in the nineteen-twenties was very different from the earlier era in that students expressed their newfound parental independence for the first time. Thelin points out that there was always a social aspect to college life, but the nineteen twenty's magazines and popular books regaled readers with stories that created an image of fun and entertainment. College was also affordable for the new middle class and became a ticket to the upper echelons of society. As building projects increased to meet the demands of the student population, the sports complex was moved from Herty Field to the Tanyard Creek area. The new football venue, Sanford Stadium, was opened in 1929 with great fanfare. Herty Field fell silent; no longer the host to cheering crowds on North Campus. For some forty years Herty Field had been privy to a burgeoning sport that many fans struggled to understand. While football grew into an American institution, Herty Field became a quiet green space. (Dyer, Thelin, Boney)

Herty Field was quiet for just ten years. In 1938 the university paved the old field, converting it into a parking lot. The automobile was making its presence known all across America and college campuses were no exception. Cars became cheap to obtain and

college planners allowed haphazard parking wherever spots were available. Herty Field became the logical location for parking.

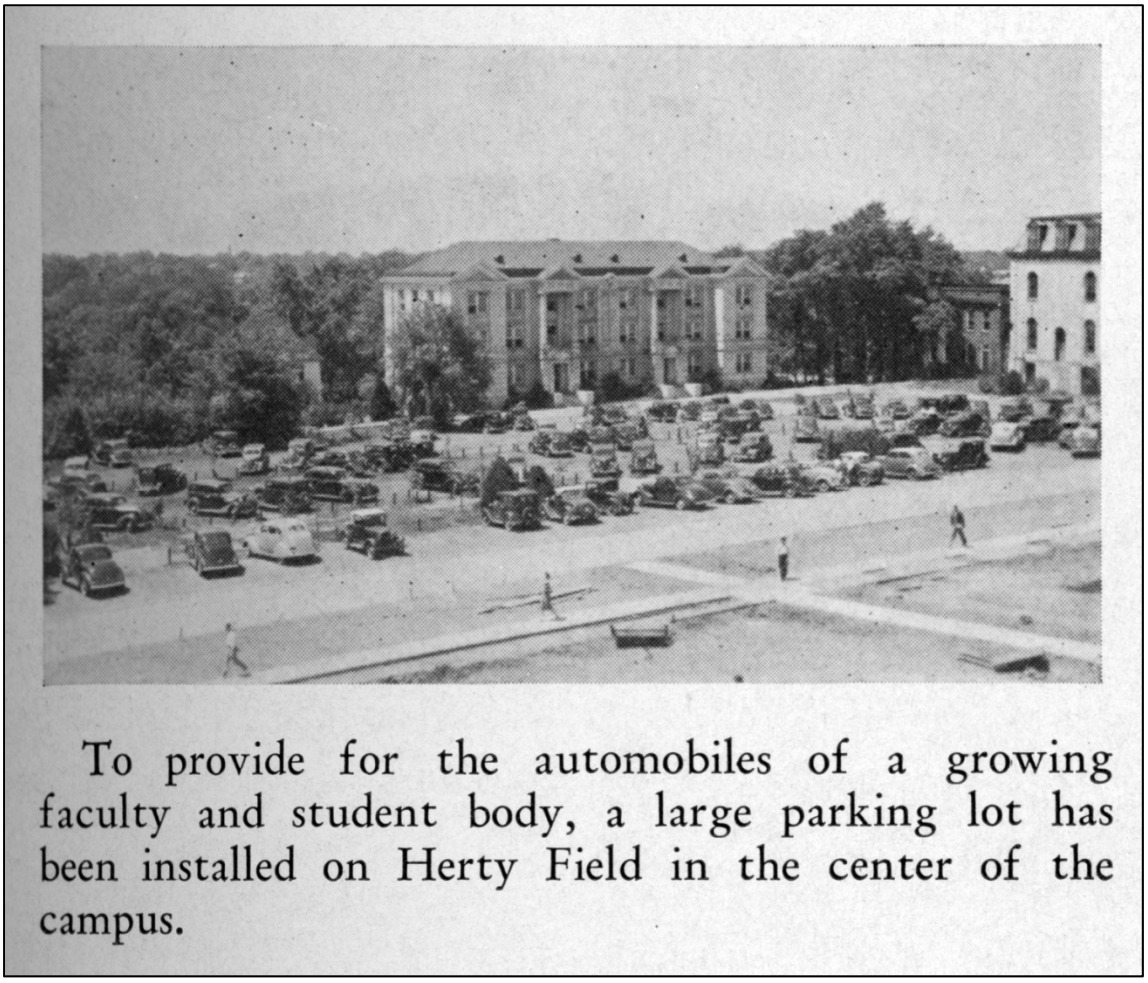


Figure 4.7: 1938 Pandora Yearbook

Although there is no written explanation as to why Herty Field was paved, by the late 1930s it was only a secondary green field in the hierarchy of the open spaces on Georgia's campus. The north quadrangle was the primary quadrangle and green space on campus, so Herty served as a good location for parking because it was close to academic functions and administrative offices. Over the course of the next sixty-one years, Herty Field remained a parking lot. A review of literature, the minutes of trustees' meetings, the

Pandora yearbook, the Red and Black student newspaper and written histories revealed that Herty Field was merely a minor player in the events on the university's campus. Herty Field was a parking lot and as such served a utilitarian function. A search of this material before 1938 revealed an active vibrant green space. A search of the The Red and Black from 1938 until August 1999 found no mention of Herty Field.

The Master Plan of 1997

Many great ideas on college campuses have failed because campuses, by nature, are inundated with opinions from faculty and administrators. In order for broad ideas to be implemented, this diverse university community must accept and take ownership of new initiatives. At its July 9, 1996 meeting, the Board of Regents of the University System of Georgia adopted the *University System of Georgia Comprehensive Plan 1996-1997*. The Regents' purpose for passing a master planning policy, which mandated all university campuses within the system to complete a master plan, was two-fold. The first goal was to foster the development of a physical plant that efficiently served the academic mission via the university's physical operations and, secondly, to create a physical environment that was beautiful, emblematic of its educational purpose, and encouraged social and intellectual exchange among students, faculty and staff (University System of Georgia Minutes).

In February 1997, in accordance with the Regents' mandate, the University of Georgia hired the architectural firm of Ayers Saint Gross to guide the master planning process. Ayers Saint Gross inherited the framework of a master plan already underway with in-house staff. The in-house effort was led by the Director of Campus Planning and Campus Architect, Daniel Sniff. Additionally, the university had adopted a planning

policy entitled *University of Georgia Campus Master Development Plan Planning Policy Manual* completed March 15, 1995. It was a compilation of policies that were designed to guide architectural consultants and administrators in all planning matters on the campus. This document also attempted to bridge the gap between the failed 1967 master plan and the chaotic physical growth that had occurred in the years between 1967 and 1995. The *University of Georgia Campus Master Development Plan Planning Policy Manual* was adopted by the university, but was never implemented because it was superseded by the *University System of Georgia Board of Regents Physical Master Planning Template* accepted July 1996. Although there were many flaws in the university's manual—most markedly the lack of drawings, no analysis of deficiencies, no ties to an academic plan, and no university-wide strategic goals—the document did provide the necessary attention to the fact that the university desperately needed a structured physical master plan.

The master plan team led by Sniff and Ayers Saint Gross (ASG) took up a difficult task. The University of Georgia had a legacy of commissioning physical master plans, 1953 and 1967, but not adhering to it after it was approved. The only master plan that was executed to any real extent was the 1906 Leavitt Master Plan. The 1953 plan was abandoned shortly after the general assembly approved funding for the sciences complex in 1956, and the 1967 plan was made null once the President of the university and the Board of Regents dropped a monorail style transportation system in 1968.

The team of ASG and Sniff quickly compiled background information that included the history of the physical development of the campus, an existing conditions assessment, building usage, existing infrastructure, open spaces, vehicular circulation, environmental issues and topography. Through the systematic analysis of this data, the

design team could understand, in part, how the campus had developed. These building blocks of information provided a rational foundation for the different design vignettes or options, which were examined by the campus community through public forums.

From the beginning, the team found that the lack of master planning for almost one hundred years created many challenges, the first being widespread skepticism among university administrators and faculty in master planning and planning in general. The fact that the 1953 and the 1967 master plan had been completed, but forsaken so shortly after approval, only added to the environment of doubt prevalent within senior administration members, many of whom were present during the 1967 plan debacle. Additional problems faced by the planning team were the fact that the university had no firm academic or strategic plan on which to base design decisions. In the spring of 1997, the first formal meeting convened with the master planning committee.

The New President

On September 1, 1997, Dr. Michael Adams assumed the leadership role as president of the University of Georgia. The design team soon learned that the newly selected president was open to innovative solutions to many of the problems that past administrations had not considered. The team developed "Guiding Principles" for the master planning process that all planning decisions were to honor:

1. Create the Optimal Student Environment.
2. Extend the Characteristics of North Campus.
3. Develop a Connected Campus.
4. Define and Provide for the Current and Future Needs.
5. Provide for Academic and Student Needs on Contiguous Land.
6. Develop Comprehensive Solutions to Traffic, Parking and Infrastructure Issues.
7. Participate in Regional Coordination.
8. Prepare for Sustained Implementation.

(The University of Georgia's Master Plan, 1997)

The background research encompassing past campus development, specifically the Leavitt Plan, proved to be an integral building block of information on which to base different design scenarios. The Leavitt Plan used traditional campus planning design methods that reinforced the almost three hundred and fifty-year history of campus planning and development of the American college campus. These design methods include buildings surrounding a green quadrangle, with a lawn or tree planted outdoor space. This design was park-like with cars on the perimeter.

A History of Sprawl

From the beginning of the 1997 Master Plan, the Levitt model was the inspiration for design vignettes and directed the team. The team drew ideas from campuses around the country where walking from one end of campus with no or minimal conflict with cars was the preferred version for the "new" University of Georgia. The main question at hand centered around whether the new president would endorse a plan that restored green space and moved cars to the edges of campus. Or would the new president, Dr. Adams, align with faculty and administrators who valued parking adjacent to their buildings more than green space? The University of Georgia campus had a history of parking needs dominating planning decisions. Like most campuses across the country, in the 1960s the Athens campus saw explosive growth. A pattern of clearing tree-covered land for buildings and parking lots was a common practice. Natural areas of campus had been cut and developed and traditional planning principles were abandoned (Figure 4.8). Parts of campus closely resembled an office park or large retail mall, as opposed to a college campus.

Figure 4.8: East Campus at 1998

This type of auto-centric development became the norm, reflecting administrators' preference of parking to green spaces. Such was the attitude of the administration in 1998, but with a new master plan and a new president, the opportunity to turn back the clock and re-establish the traditional planning principles that made the American college campus such a special place in our society could be achieved.

After three months of meeting with Dr. Adams, the design team formulated a plan to test the president's commitment to the new master plan. As part of the in-house plan developed by Sniff, large parts of campus were destined to be returned to green spaces, starting with Herty Field. The basis of the restored green space plan was to provide traditional lawns and greens to the campus. Core design team members included Daniel Sniff, campus architect and director of the Master Plan; Dr. Jack Crowley, dean of the School of Landscape Architecture; Dexter Adams, grounds department manager; and LuAnn Green and Adam Gross of Ayers Saint Gross Architects. Since the Vice President of Business and Finance was a strong proponent for parking and part of the Executive Planning Committee, along with many parking advocates, a plan was devised to isolate the president and present the concept of restoring Herty Field as a primary initiative. At the conclusion of the October planning meeting, Dr. Adams was available and Sniff presented the maverick concept. Sniff ran the risk of losing his job if Dr. Adams rejected the Herty Field concept. Dr. Adams instantly embraced the plan. The timing of the field's conversion would coincide with the Master Plan's implementation phase, Fall 1999.

The Herty Field parking lot was not a typical lot. The highest level senior administrators and faculty parked in the Herty lot. Deans and Vice Presidents parked in spaces shaded by Moore College. The parking lot's asphalt extended to Moore College and parking signs were bolted to the side of the building. In addition, the lot was one of the most popular locations for tailgating, and the decision to restore the green space held consequences for such practices. However, Dr. Adams enthusiastically accepted the plan almost immediately, but delayed its implementation in order to plan for the inevitable

negative reaction. He then asked the team to have the green space ready by fall semester 1999. This decision signaled to the design team that the university had taken a positive turn in the fight against sprawl and unplanned development.

The Renovated Herty Field

Each member of the design team wanted to be the author of the plan to renovate Herty Field. Therefore, members of the team designed several different schemes. David Hale, landscape architect in the grounds department, developed the design that was ultimately selected. Hale's design was original in that it did not have any historical basis, but respected the existing trees and other plantings that had grown over the last sixty years. A large fountain was integrated within all of the designs because Dr. Adams wanted to have a fountain on campus as a focal point. Construction occurred over the summer and when the students returned in August 1999, Herty Field's renovation was complete. The total cost was $280,000, and the physical plant's grounds department performed the labor.

As Director of Campus Planning, Sniff had the task of gaining support for the Master Plan. Herty Field's restoration was the first priority of the new master plan and Sniff meet with dozens of interested parties within the university community and the Athens area. There were many people who opposed the master plan's objectives. The master plan reflected a radical departure from how the campus operated and how the campus had developed. The most radical departure was in the parking and transportation planning. Cars would be moved to the edge of campus and people would have to walk or ride the buses. Herty Field was the first parking lot conversion and the concept met with much opposition. Part of the counter-argument that Sniff presented to the distressed

faculty and staff who parked in the lot was that forty-thousand faculty, staff and students would benefit from the open green space compared to a mere one hundred and twenty people who could sit and watch their cars bake in the sun; as a result, Sniff became very unpopular. Sniff was unpopular with not only the faculty and staff who parked in Herty, but with many members of the university community.

Figure 4.9: Herty Parking Looking South, 1999

Figure 4.10: Cars Parked in Herty Lot Looking West, 1999

The completion of Herty Field was a turning point in the restoration of green space on the university's campus. Between 1999 and 2010, over forty-five acres of the six hundred acres of the main campus have been restored to green space. At the same time over eight million square feet have been built or renovated, a 41 percent increase in space on the main campus. Herty Field signified the beginning of this process—one that was rooted in traditional college campus planning principles (Institute of Research and Planning).

Figure 4.11: Herty Field at The University of Georgia, Fall 1999

The renovated Herty Field became used as a green space just as predicted. Lori and Ryan Tiller became the first couple married on Herty Field, holding their ceremony in December of 2001. Herty Field is used like every other open space on the college campus: classes are held, students study, sleep, and picnic, tailgate, recreate and enjoy the plants that ring the quad. The lawn serves as a counter balance to the tree-covered north quad. The lawn is a frequently-used venue for social dining and scheduled receptions for the different colleges of the university. In September 2001, a vigil was held for victims of the World Trade Center bombing. Students and staff lit candles, sang “America the

Beautiful" and recited the Pledge of Allegiance. 2002 saw Herty Field become the first wireless outdoor space on campus. Since those early days, Herty Field has become so fully integrated into the campus that many students cannot believe that a parking lot was in the location for over sixty years. A search of the university's archives found dozens of references written in the students' *Red and Black*, the faculty and staff monthly newspaper, *Columns*, and different colleges' publications citing usage by a variety of groups for events (Simpson).

Herty Field embodies all the qualities of an eighteenth- or nineteenth-century college campus. The intimate tie to the ideal landscape, a picturesque green field, lawn, and quadrangle defines the American college. The history that is woven into these landscapes makes them culturally significant to the universities that they support. A cultural landscape is defined by the Secretary of the Interior's Standards for the Treatment of Historical Properties as a "geographic area, including both cultural and natural resources, associated with a historic event, or person or exhibiting other cultural or aesthetic values"(National Historic Preservation Act of 1966). By this definition, Herty Field qualifies as a cultural landscape.

CHAPTER FIVE

The Influence of the Space Between

This thesis has explored the history of how education and places of higher learning have developed with the landscape to create a unique archetype, a place where the buildings and grounds work as one unified composition. What was created at Harvard and William and Mary set the stage for an archetype of buildings and grounds that cannot be separated. Jefferson's "academical village" created a microcosm shielded from the outside world. The order of a central lawn flanked by pavilions—houses in the form of temples for the professors—counterparts the yeoman farmer, was a reflection of the Virginia countryside. The scholarly community is the embodiment of Jefferson's vision of America. His agrarian ideal of a place of learning firmly rooted in the principles of nature was imitated repeatedly across the country. The different case studies illustrated in this thesis show how campuses developed and utilized their outdoor spaces. The use of the space between varies depending on pedagogy, the intended use and history of each campus' creation. The one universal element within each campus is the space created between the buildings.

New campuses that have opened their doors in the past fifty years have traditional lawns and open spaces. Commuter, urban and distance-learning campuses almost always use the traditional college green as an important aspect of their brand. A quick search of for-profit schools, reveals that these businesses such as the University of Phoenix, DeVry University, Walden University, Heald University, and Kaplan University, to cite a few

examples, usually provide images of buildings set in traditional college settings, even though they deliver most, if not all, of their academic studies via the Internet (Figure 5.1).

Figure 5.1 DeVry University – Image from Website

The image of buildings on a green field is so strong that it has become synonymous with higher education. The American model has influenced the campus archetype to the extent that other parts of world are mimicking the layouts of U.S. campuses.

Figure 5.2: Vedanta University, India

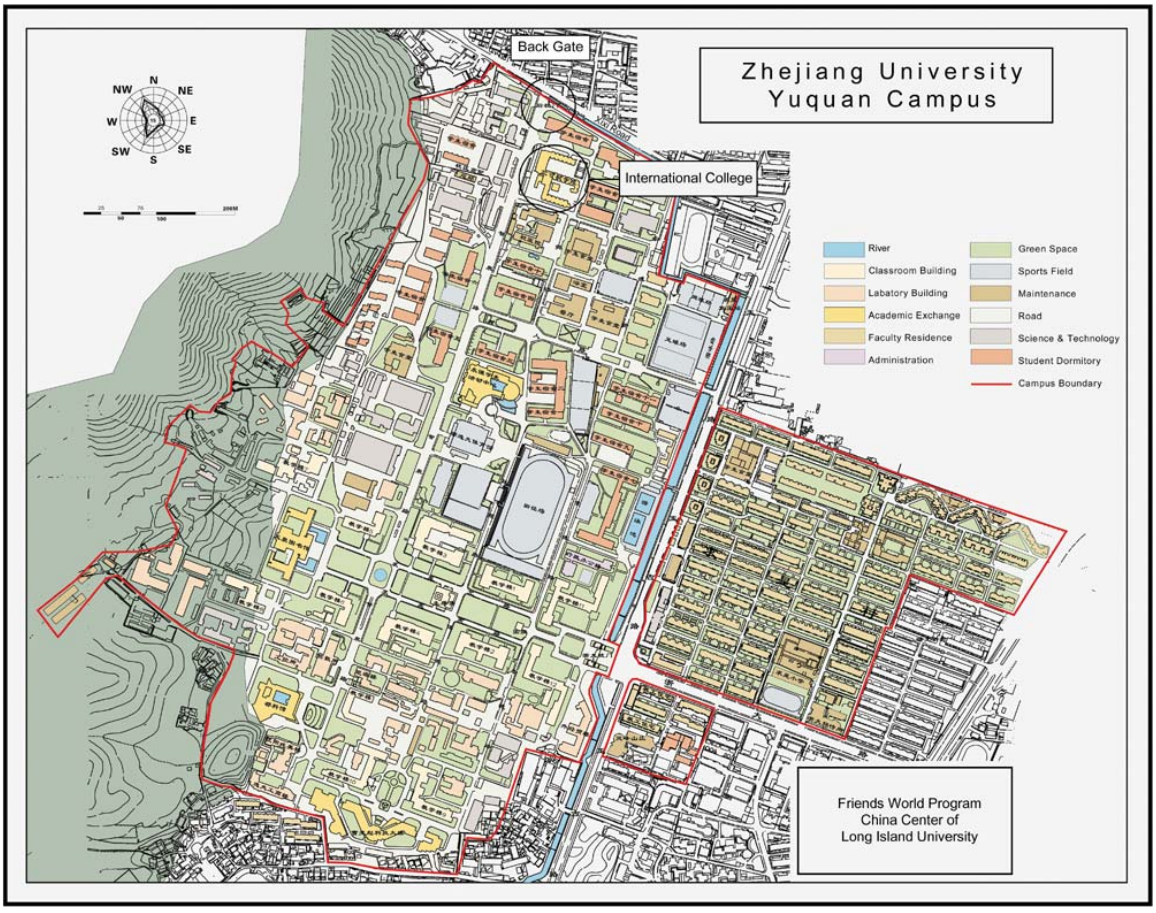


Figure 5.3: Zhejiang University, Yuquan Campus, China

The international imitation of the American campus layout is possibly a result of exchange students traveling to America to receive a college education and then returning with the archetypal image in mind of buildings in a green field. Global education has many facets; one outcome is the exporting of the American campus as a model for campuses in other countries.

A Sense of Place

Architects and other design professionals use the term “a sense of place” to define a space that invokes positive or good feelings. It is often used in relation to those characteristics that make a place special or unique, as well as to those that foster a sense of authentic human attachment and belonging. A sense of place is used to describe one’s neighborhood, community or town. In these definitions, designers are trying to apply an emotion to the built environment. The space between the buildings on a campus supports the community of scholars and gives pride to the institution. The lawns, greens, quads and gardens of the American college campus are the tangible expression of the institutional identity. The American campus stands apart from its European counterpart in that it blends the qualities of the natural world and a man-made ordered place. The space between buildings fosters human interaction and gives meaning and memory to the college experience. The landscape also imbues the campus with a social characteristic that enhances the learning experience. This experience affects the students and leaves them with a unique sense of place.

The American campus is a manifestation of American history. Independent buildings, placed around a quadrangle or lawn may have been the result of the trustees at Harvard’s purchase of a narrow section of a cow-yard. Was the fractured way Harvard

developed the reason for the departure from the European connected monastic square? Or was it William and Mary's sunken garden with buildings flanking the garden, inspired by Sir Christopher Wren's Royal Hospital in Chelsea? William and Mary's campus served as a model for Thomas Jefferson when he designed the University of Virginia. Could Jefferson's years in Paris and his knowledge of Les Invalids have been his inspiration? Could the American campuses have developed as simply the next logical step in the architectural evolution that was moving away from the medieval era? Baroque architecture was beginning to gain favor in the latter part of the sixteenth century. Or was the American campus simply the result of the times and the necessity of constructing buildings quickly and with the materials at hand? Even with rough-hewn buildings surrounded by a wilderness or a small town, the builders of the new colleges were ever mindful of European historical idioms. Those Old World precedents were modified and adapted to the American landscape. So powerful was this new form that it is now the quintessential archetype of higher education campuses across the world.

Open Space as the Defining Feature of the American Campus

What separates the American college campus from its European counterparts? At the core of this question, it is the open spaces that define the American campus. American campuses have great works of architecture, but this is not unique, many places have notable architecture. What is unique about the American college campus is that the buildings and grounds are set on a green field, arranged in such as way as to frame and support the architecture. The buildings are not the important or significant element of the campus. The open spaces, gardens and lawns are the knitting that bonds the composition of the American campus. Buildings are arranged parallel and perpendicular with open

green spaces that delineate and establish the campus or as Charles Dickens referred to Yale as “buildings erected in a park”. The word campus was first used to describe Princeton University. Campus has Latin roots that mean “field” or an “expansiveness of land”. Even in urban cities were land prices are high, campuses strive to include green space in their city’s microcosm.

The following six sketches illustrate the development of the American college campus. The drawings were developed by Brain Kelly, from the University of Maryland’s College of Architecture. This series of vignettes illustrate that the American campus is not a static plot of land or an unchanged collection of buildings, but rather an ebbing palette that adapts to the needs of the user. They also demonstrate the important role of open space to the function and character of the campus landscape. This is the key point of my thesis; the American college campus is the building in the landscape and this is what makes it original and unique to America.

Just like the pedagogical change from the Socratic Method to the elective curriculum of the mid-nineteenth century and the demands of the industrial revolution, campuses have morphed to accommodate change. Whether it was social demand, like the introduction of women, college athletics or the GI Bill, colleges have been instruments of change. Throughout the changes made to the American campus, the constant variable has been the relationship between the open spaces and the buildings. This symbiotic relationship is the defining archetype of the American Campus:

Drawing number one is a hypothetical college campus, circa 1800. The one-hundred acres campus is designated with a log cabin, a few out buildings, and gardens. The town is a small frontier settlement at a cross road somewhere in America.

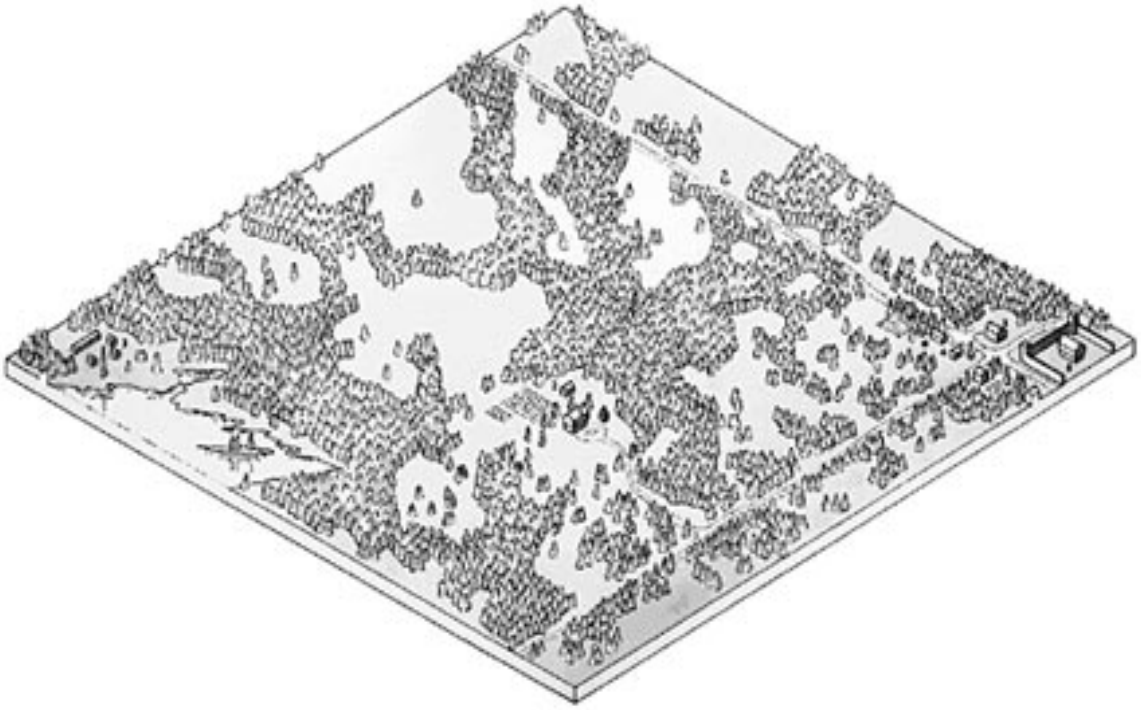


Figure 5.4: Hypothetical College Campus, Circa 1800

Drawing number two is an 1860s campus on the same one-hundred acres with additional and larger buildings. The college is still small, but an old main type building has replaced the log cabin and a quadrangle is formed by several other buildings, additions to the campus over the last sixty years. The town is growing; the development of the town reflects the growth of the college.

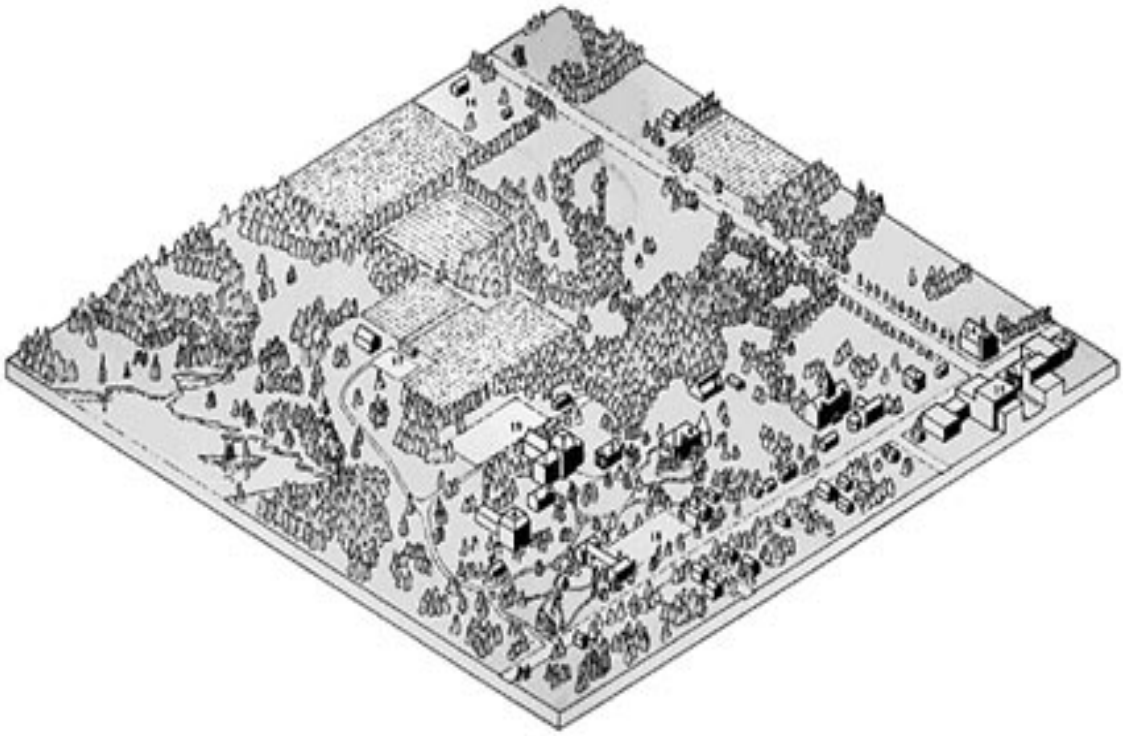


Figure 5.5: Hypothetical 1860s Campus

The year is 1900 and the last forty years has brought a large growth in both the college and the town. This growth represents the growth in both the country and higher education. Large buildings that have special purposes, like science, engineering or medicine have been built and the open space quadrangle is fully defined. Secondary quadrangles are developing and a sports field has been added.

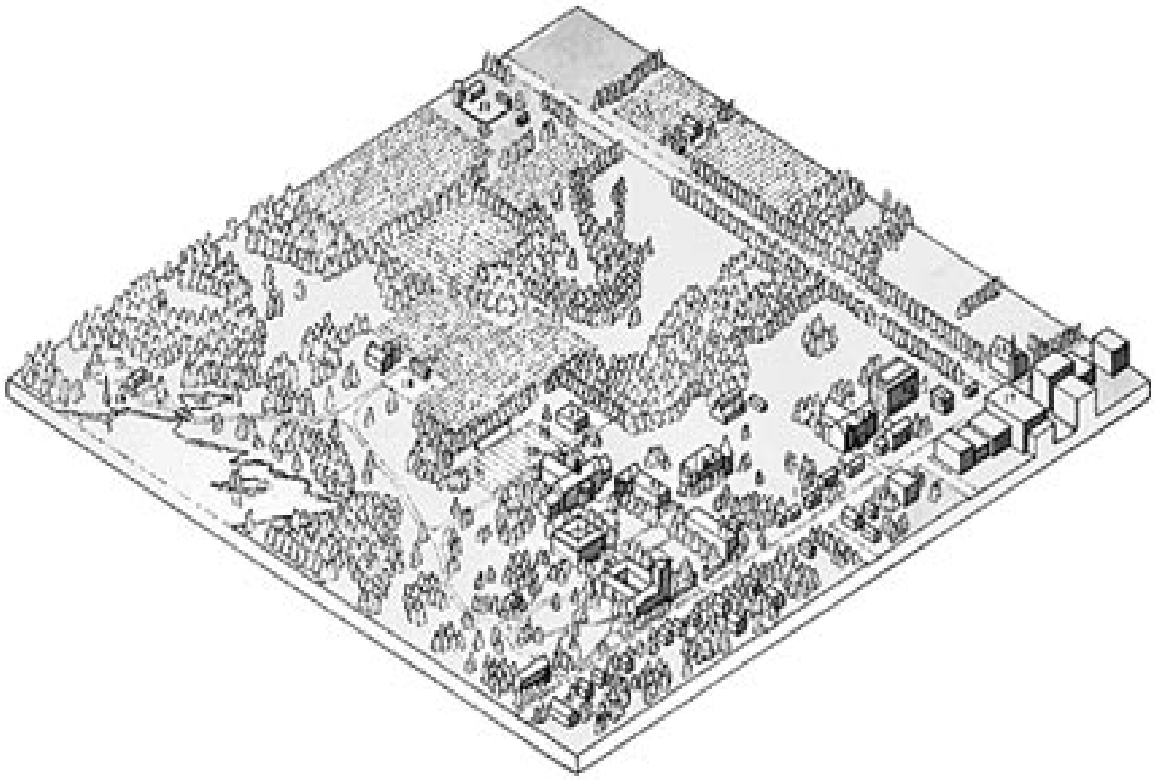


Figure 5.6: Hypothetical 1900 Campus

The campus is forty years older in this drawing and is a modern college campus. The buildings are much larger and taller. The football stadium, field house are the largest buildings on campus. The town has built midrise buildings and has expanded in proportion with the college.

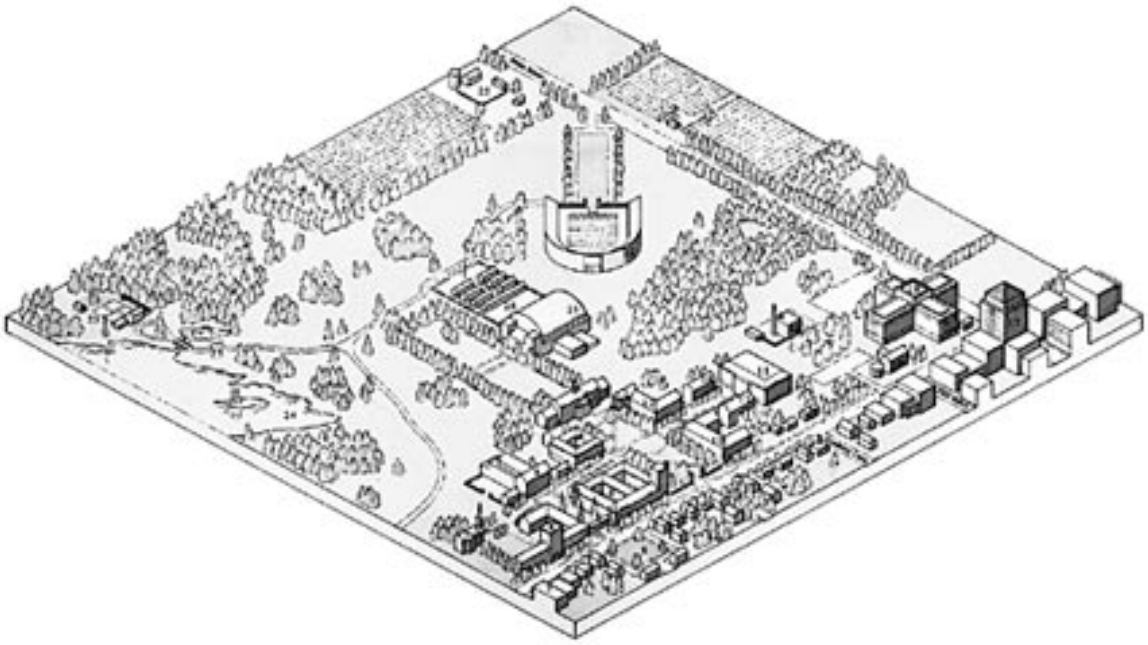


Figure 5.7: Hypothetical 1940 Campus

The same circa 1800 campus with one-hundred acres has transformed to resemble a city with multiple large and small buildings, expressing the versatile work that this miniature city conducts.

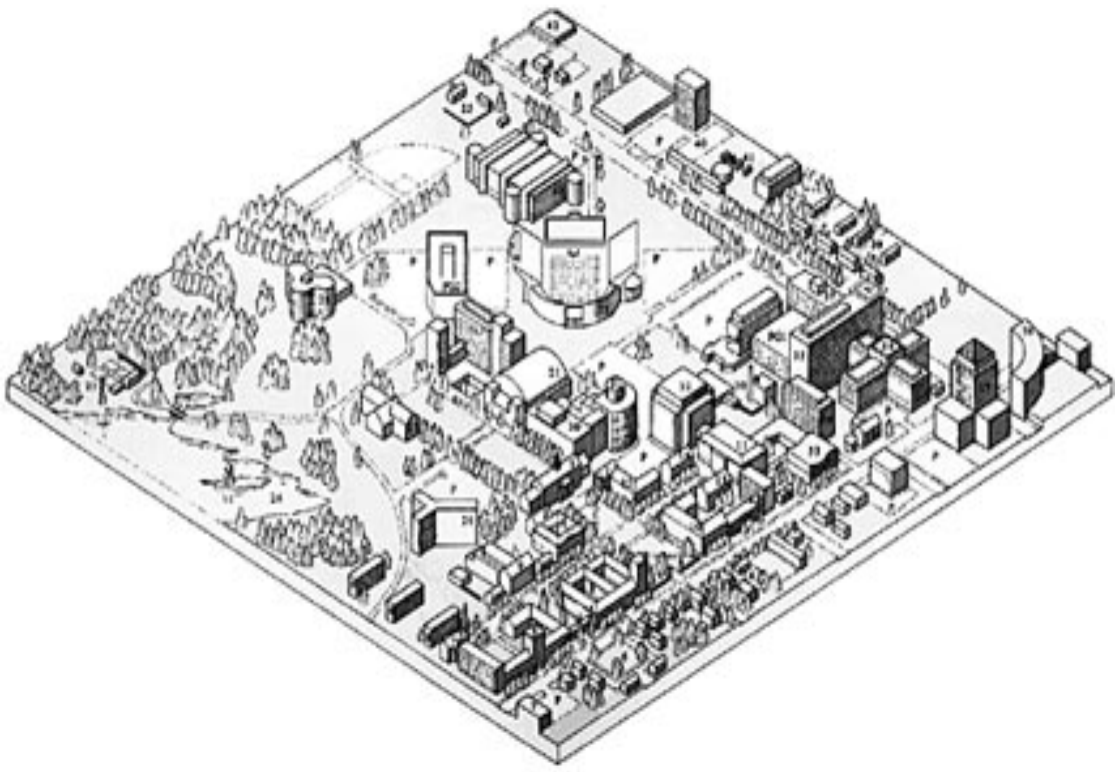


Figure 5.8: Hypothetical 1985 Campus

This final drawing illustrates a modern campus. A large football stadium, several large building complexes, tall and large buildings that house hundreds of working professionals in many different fields of scholarly endeavors comprise the modern college campus in its entirety. The constant is the open space and green spaces. The value of these places has endured over two hundred years. This hypothetical exploration of campus development could represent any campus in America. The complex array of buildings still has green lawns and areas that unfold from one space to another and reinforces the concept of the original campus. This series of drawings demonstrates how, despite the long and profound changes our country has seen, the rudiments of the college campus remain and identify this archetype as the American college campus.

Figure 5.9: Hypothetical 2000 Campus

Conclusion

My research question asks whether the American college campus differs from its European counterparts in that the open space is the defining feature of the American campus and whether this defining feature makes the American campus a unique archetype? This thesis followed the use of outdoor space as an integral component of learning. The Greek Lyceum, the cloisters of the medieval period, the monastic squares of the great European campus are all examples of the use of designed outdoor spaces used in education. The American campus used the outdoor space as a component of learning, but in a different way, a different expression in buildings arranged in a green field separate and standing along, yet united by the landscape. Beginning with the construction of Harvard in 1636 and William and Mary in 1694, the colonial campuses departed from their European counterparts in building arrangement. The European colleges had architecture that was connected and focused inward, the American campus used the land by placing buildings in a green field, arranged in such as way as to frame and support the architecture. The buildings are not the important or significant element of the campus.

The analysis of the literature on the history of the American college campus demonstrates that all colleges that developed after Harvard and William and Mary developed along the same pattern. The case studies in Chapter Three illustrate the fact that after the Revolutionary War for independence, campuses developed along the same archetype. The case studies reflect one hundred years of campus evolution using building built on a green field with successive buildings being sited to support the concept of the American college campus. These case studies also demonstrate that during the expansion

of higher education in America the pattern of design was followed with little variation and arguably improved to some extent, but remained strong in its execution.

Herty Field as a case study focused on a specific area on the University of Georgia's campus. Herty Field exemplifies the versatility of the campus lawn. The history revealed the dynamics of social influences on college campuses as well how the lawns are important to the college experience. The history also showed the divergence of ideas of how to use land on a campus. The case in point is the conversion of the field into a parking lot and then the herculean task of changing the parking lot back to a green lawn. This dynamic is played out on campuses across the country and has been from the beginning of campus development, but Herty reminds us of the importance of the green field to campus life. The University of Georgia valued Herty Field as a green space over a parking lot. Herty Field is now a vibrant open space that all students can enjoy.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

Alltime 18, Retrieved October 26, 2010, from http://www.youtube.com, The Grove, October 1, 2008.

Barlarment, Laura, "A Distinguished Architectural Heritage," *Sewanee Magazine*, Winter 2004, 123-136.

Boney, F. N., *A Pictorial History of the University of Georgia*. Athens Georgia: University of Georgia Press, 1984.

Bowen, Joel Thomas, Jr. "Room to Grow: A Historical Analysis of the Physical Growth at the University of Georgia, 1785 to 1990." PhD Diss., University of Georgia, 1990.

Cameron, Gabi. "Understanding the Sunken Garden at William and Mary", PhD Diss., William and Mary College, 2005.

Chapman, Perry M., *American Places, In Search of the Twenty-first Century Campus,* New York: American Council on Education, Praeger Publishing, 2006.

Cocola, Jim, "The Ideological Space of the Academical Village." Retrieved February 14, 2011, from <http://faculty.virginia.edu/villagespaces/essay>.

Cordasco, Franscsco, *A Brief History of Education: A Handbook of Information on Greek, Roman, Medieval, Renaissance, and Modern Education Practices,* London and San Francisco: Rowman & Littlefield, 1976.

Coulson Andren, J., *Market History: The Unknown History*, Washington D.C.: Social Philosophy and Policy Center and by Transaction, 1999.

Crutchfield, James, *About Sewanee, Sewanee: The University of the South*, Cambridge Massachusetts: MIT Press, 2003.

Crutchfield James, *Sewanee First 150 Years*, Cambridge Massachusetts: MIT Press, 2007

Dennis, Michael. *On Campus Design and Planning*, Cambridge Massachusetts: MIT Press, 1997.

Dyer, Thomas G. *The History of Georgia, A Bicentennial History 1785-1985,* Athens Georgia: University of Georgia Press, 1985.

Forsyth, Ann. "Ian McHarg's Woodlands A Second Look." *Planning*, August/September 2003, 101-103.

Fox, Stephen, *Rice University, A Historical Sketch,* New York: Princeton Architectural Press, 2001.

Gaines, Thomas A., *The Campus as A Work of Art*, New York: Praegar Publishing, 1991.

Hall, Max, R., *Harvard a History,* Harvard Press, Cambridge and London, 2004.

Hamilton, William, *At Old Miss, the Tailgaters Never Lose,* The New York Times, September 29, 2006.

Hines, Thomas S. "Architecture: The City Beautiful Movement." The Encyclopedia of Chicago, 2005.

Horn, Walter, "On the Origins of the Medieval Cloister," *Gesta*, Vol.12.1/2. 1973: 13-52.

Hughes, Robert. "Fiery Robert Toombs was spark for South." *Washington Times,* April 8, 1995. Retrieved December 3, 2010 from <http://www.uga.edu/demsoc/toombs.htm>.

Hull, A.L., *Catalogue of the Trustee Officers and Alumni of the University of Georgia from 1785 to 1894,* The Foote & Davies Co., Atlanta, 1894.

Hunt, Janin, *The University in Medieval Life*, London: McFarland, 2008.

Institute of Research and Planning, University of Georgia, *The University of Georgia Fact Book*, The University of Georgia Printing Department, Athens, 2009.

Kelly, Brian. "History of the University of Georgia," Ayres/Saint/Gross Architects report for University of Georgia Master Plan, 1997.

Kloppenburg, Jack, "Coming into the Foodshed." *Planning*. January/February 2006. 97-102.

MacKay, Robert B., Anthony Baker and Carol A. Traynor, eds. Long Island Country Houses and their Architects, 1860-1940. New York: W.W. Norton & Company, 1997.

Mathis, University of Georgia Trustee's Minutes 1905, Hargrett Rare Book and Manuscripts Library.

Morison, Eliot, *Three Centuries of Harvard*, Cambridge Massachusetts: University Press, 1986.

Pierre, Rich, *Education and Culture in the Barbarian West: From the Sixth through the Eighth Century*, Columbia SC: University of South Carolina Press, 1978.

Powell, William, *The History of the University of North Carolina at Chapel Hill*, Raleigh: The University of North Carolina Press, 1989.

Rebel, The, The University of Mississippi Yearbook, The University of Mississippi Special Collections, V.:ill; 28-30 ocm, p.128, 1902. Retrieved September, 15, 2010, http://umiss.lib.olemiss.edu/record

Reed, Germaine, *Crusading for Chemistry, The Professional Career of Charles Holmes Herty*, Athens and London: The University of Georgia Press, 1995.

Reed, Thomas Walter, *A Historical Sketch of the University of Georgia*, Athens Georgia: 1949.

Reiff, James, L. Encyclopedia of Chicago, ed., Durkin Keating, James Grossman, Retrieved December7, 2010 from http://www.encyclopedia.chicagohistory.org/

ROBDEAN4444, Retrieved October 26, 2010, from http://www.youtube.com, The Grove, August 31, 2008.

Ryan, Elizabeth Shreve, *Orange County Trio: Histories and Stories of Chapel Hill and the University of Carolina at Chapel Hill*, Chapel Hill: Chapel Hill Press, 2004.

Sanz, Nuria, *The Heritage of European Universities,* Higher Education Series, No. 7, Council of Europe, London, 2006,

Schumann, Margerite, *The First State University,* Raleigh, The University of North Carolina Press, Chaple Hill and London, 1985.

Schuyler, Montgomery, "Architecture of American Colleges, The Southern Colleges." The Architectural Record, Volume 98, July-December 1911, 197-223.

Simpson, A.F., "Red and Black", *The University of Georgia Student Newspaper*, September 29, 1929, Hargrett Rare Book and Manuscripts Library. Retrieved January 29, 2011 from http://redandblack.libs.uga.edu/xtf/search

Stegeman, John, *The Ghost of Herty Field: Early Days on the Southern Gridiron,* The University of Georgia Press, Athens and London, 1966.

Strode, William, *Sewanee, The University of the South,* Harmony House, Louisville, 1984.

Thelin, John, R., *A History of American Higher Education,* The John Hopkins University Press, Baltimore and London, 2004

Turner, Paul Venable, *Campus an American Planning Tradition,* The MIT Press Cambridge, Massachusetts, and London, England, 1985.

United States Department of Veterans Affairs, Retrieved January 28, 2011 from http://www.gibill.va.gov/gi_bill_info/history.htm

University of Georgia Trustee's Minutes 1905, retrieved October 9, 2010, Hargrett Rare Book and Manuscripts Library. Retrieved November 4, 2010 from http://dlg.galileo.usg.edu/1905catalogue

University of Georgia Trustee's Minutes 1906. Retrieved October 9, 2010, Hargrett Rare Book and Manuscripts Library. Retrieved November 4, 2010 from http://dlg.galileo.usg.edu/1906catalogue

University System of Georgia Board of Regents Physical Master Planning Template, Georgia System Board of Regents, 1995. Retrieved November 5, 2010 from http://www.usg.edu/policymanual/

University System of Georgia Campus Master Development Planning Policy Manual, Georgia System Board of Regents, 1995. Retrieved November 5, 2010 from http://www.usg.edu/policymanual/

University System of Georgia Comprehensive Plan 1996-1997. Georgia System Board of Regents, 1995. Retrieved November 4, 2010 from http://www.usg.edu/policymanual/

University System of Georgia Minutes, Georgia System Board of Regents, 1995. Retrieved November 6, 2010 from http://www.usg.edu/policymanual/

University History, Sewanee, www.sewanee.com.

Williamson, Samuel, *Sewanee Sesquicentennial History*, Harmony House, Louisville, 2010.

Wright, Elliott, *A Chancellor's Great Vision and the Leavitt Plan: The University of Georgia Enters the Progressive Era,* University of Georgia Press, Athens and London, 1988.

SOURCE OF FIGURES

Page