RE-CONSTRUCTING THE POLITICAL AND EDUCATIONAL CONTEXTS OF
THE METU PROJECT

A THESIS SUBMITTED TO
THE GRADUATE SCHOOL OF NATURAL AND APPLIED SCIENCES
OF
MIDDLE EAST TECHNICAL UNIVERSITY

BY

DERYA YORGANCIOĞLU

IN PARTIAL FULFILLMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS
FOR
THE DEGREE OF DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY
IN
ARCHITECTURE

SEPTEMBER 2010

Approval of the thesis:

**RE-CONSTRUCTING THE POLITICAL AND EDUCATIONAL CONTEXTS
OF THE METU PROJECT**

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ABSTRACT

RE-CONSTRUCTING THE POLITICAL AND EDUCATIONAL CONTEXTS OF THE METU PROJECT

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September 2010, 286 pages

This dissertation focuses on the roles played by the United Nations experts Charles Abrams and G. Holmes Perkins in the foundation of METU Faculty of Architecture. It aims to highlight the ideas and ideals that informed Abrams's and Perkins's METU projects, and to delineate an integrative and multifaceted picture of their political and educational contexts. This picture may serve as a basis for future researches on the institutional and educational histories of METU Faculty of Architecture. It may also help to better understand the contributions of other administrators and instructors -- including First Acting Dean Thomas B. A. Godfrey and Dean Abdullah Kuran -- who played important parts in the formation of the educational direction of the Faculty.

Abrams, as a United Nations consultant, paved the way for the foundation of METU Faculty of Architecture by recommending a school of architecture and community planning in Ankara, for the education of professionals competent in responding to the problems caused by rapid industrial expansion and urbanization. Perkins contributed to the foundation process of METU Faculty of Architecture. As the head of the team of experts from the University of Pennsylvania School of Fine Arts, who were sent by the United Nations to Ankara in 1955, he advised the Government of Turkey on "the creation of a Faculty of Architecture, a

Faculty of City and Regional Planning" and two research institutes, as a first step towards an institution of university rank, and with a view to promoting "a newer, more practical and modern approach to architecture and urban planning" in Turkey.

In this dissertation, Abrams's and Perkins's METU projects constitute a starting point for exploring significant themes in the changing political and educational trajectories in America in the mid-twentieth century. The influence of different interpretations of the notions of democracy, individuality and society on technical assistance, urban development policies and architectural education is also investigated.

Abrams's professional and academic position as a "reflective practitioner" is appraised in the light of John Dewey's concepts of democracy, democratic education and "reflective thinking." The changing professional and societal roles of the architect and the changing demands upon architectural education in the 1950s framed the background of Perkins's educational approach. The reappraisal of liberal education as part of professional education of the architect, the rising significance of an interdisciplinary pedagogical approach, and the development of "organized research" in architecture were among the major themes shaping new orientations in the field of architectural education in America in those years. In the dissertation, the lasting validity of these themes for today is highlighted.

Key Words: METU Faculty of Architecture, Charles Abrams, G. Holmes Perkins, history of education, history of architectural education, United Nations Technical Assistance Program, education and society.

ÖZ

ODTÜ PROJESİNİN SİYASAL VE EĞİTİMSEL BAĞLAMLARININ YENİDEN İNŞASI

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Eylül 2010, 286 sayfa

Bu tez, Birleşmiş Milletler uzmanları Charles Abrams ve G. Holmes Perkins'in ODTÜ Mimarlık Fakültesi'nin kuruluşunda oynadıkları rollere odaklanmıştır. Abrams'ın ve Perkins'in ODTÜ projelerine şekil veren fikirleri ve idealleri öne çıkarmayı ve bu fikirlerin ve ideallerin siyasal ve eğitimsel bağlamlarına dair bütüncül ve çok yönlü bir resim çizmeyi amaçlar. Böyle bir resim, ODTÜ Mimarlık Fakültesi'nin kurumsal ve eğitimsel tarihleri konularında gelecekte yapılacak araştırmalara bir temel oluşturabilir. Thomas B. A. Godfrey ve Abdullah Kuran gibi, Fakülte'nin eğitimsel çizgisinin oluşmasında önemli rol oynayan diğer yönetici ve eğitimcilerin katkılarının daha iyi anlaşılabilmesine de yardımcı olabilir.

Bir Birleşmiş Milletler danışmanı olarak Abrams, hızlı sanayileşme ve kentleşmenin neden olduğu problemlere yanıt verme konusunda yetkin profesyonellerin yetiştirilmesi için Ankara'da bir mimarlık ve yerleşim planlaması okulu önererek, ODTÜ Mimarlık Fakültesi'nin kuruluşuna zemin oluşturmuştur. Perkins, ODTÜ Mimarlık Fakültesi'nin kuruluş sürecine katılmıştır. Birleşmiş Milletler tarafından 1955 yılında Ankara'ya gönderilen Pennsylvania Üniversitesi Güzel Sanatlar Okulu'nda görevli uzmanlar ekibine başkanlık yapmıştır. Türkiye'de "mimarlık ve kentsel planlama alanında daha yeni, daha pratik ve modern bir yaklaşım"ın geliştirilebilmesi için ve üniversite seviyesinde bir kuruma

yönelik ilk adım olarak, dönemin Türk Hükümeti'ne bir Mimarlık Fakültesi'nin, Şehir ve Bölge Planlama Fakültesi'nin ve iki araştırma merkezinin kurulması yönünde tavsiyede bulunmuştur.

Bu tezde Abrams'ın ve Perkins'in ODTÜ projeleri, Amerika'da yirminci yüzyıl ortalarında değişen siyaset ve eğitim rotalarında ön plana çıkan temaları keşfetmek için bir başlangıç noktası oluşturmuştur. Demokrasi, birey olma ve toplum kavramlarına getirilen farklı yorumların, teknik yardım, kentsel kalkınma politikaları ve mimarlık eğitimi bağlamlarındaki etkisi araştırılmıştır.

Abrams'ın bir "reflektif uygulamacı" olarak mesleki ve akademik konumu, John Dewey'in demokrasi, demokratik eğitim ve "reflektif düşünme" kavramları ışığında değerlendirilmiştir. Perkins'in eğitimsel yaklaşımının arka planını, 1950'lerde mimarın değişen mesleki ve toplumsal rolü ve mimarlık eğitimine dair değişen beklentiler çerçevelemiştir. Liberal eğitimin mimarın mesleki eğitiminin bir parçası olarak yeniden değerlendirilmesi, disiplinler arası pedagojik yaklaşımın artan önemi ve mimarlıkta "sistemli araştırma"nın gelişmesi, Amerika'da mimarlık eğitimi alanında o yıllarda ortaya çıkan yeni yönelimleri şekillendiren başlıca konular arasında olmuştur. Tezde, bu konuların bugün de önemini koruduğu vurgulanmıştır.

Anahtar Kelimeler: ODTÜ Mimarlık Fakültesi, Charles Abrams, G. Holmes Perkins, eğitim tarihi, mimarlık eğitimi tarihi, Birleşmiş Milletler Teknik Yardım Programı, eğitim ve toplum.

To my father, who is a figure of inspiration for me owing to his intellectual curiosity,
search for truth,
and diligence

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

A literature review in the areas pertinent to this dissertation has revealed a plurality of narratives on the foundation of Middle East Technical University Faculty of Architecture. This review encompasses studies that focus on the distinct position this institution achieved among other higher educational institutions in Turkey and studies in which internal politics and international relations of Turkey frame the evaluations of the issue. The influence of Bauhaus pedagogy on architecture program of METU Faculty of Architecture is the topic of a number of scholarly researches as well.

This dissertation proposes that there is a picture that is not addressed in existing accounts on the foundation of METU Faculty of Architecture. The focuses of this dissertation in on the roles played by the United Nations experts Charles Abrams and G. Holmes Perkins in the Faculty's foundation. It aims to highlight the ideas and ideals that informed Abrams's and Perkins's METU projects, and to delineate an integrative and multifaceted picture of their political and educational contexts.

1.1 Background and Significance of the Study

In the literature on higher education, both in national and international circles, the innovative aspects of the legislative, administrative and educational formation of METU constitute the common ground on which diverse perspectives meet.

In his article "Universities in Turkey" Osman Okyar pointed out that METU was designed as "an international center of research" and it was different "from conventional type of Turkish university" in terms of its legislative and administrative structures.[1] Joseph S. Szyliowicz positioned the foundation of METU into the framework of the attempts to create a modern

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[1] Osman Okyar, "Universities in Turkey," *Minerva* 6, no. 2 (Winter 1968): 215.

educational system in Turkey.[2] He emphasized that new institutions were intended to "serve as models of reform and change for established universities."[3] Howard Reed's article "Hacettepe and Middle East Technical University: New Universities in Turkey" pointed to the call for establishing "new and better universities" in the field of higher education in the 1950s.[4] He grouped the newly emerging universities under the categories of "open universities on the lines of those at Ankara and Istanbul in towns outside these two major cities," "an adaptation of the American land-grant collage," and "new types of institutions to supply trained persons for community planning, technology and health."[5] He aligned METU with the third category. In İlhan Tekeli's view, the foundation of these "new types of institutions," including METU, Karadeniz Technical University, Ege University and Atatürk University, was a result of a transition from the German to the American model of university in Turkey and METU was closer to the American model.[6] In her doctoral dissertation titled "Histories, Institutional Regimes and Educational Organizations: The Case of Turkish Higher Education" Zeynep Erden argued that the foundation of METU was an example of "the entry of the American model to the higher education field."[7] Erden asserted that the political relations between the United States and Turkey in the Cold War context were very influential on the realization of this educational import. "The intention," she argued, "was to establish universities, which would be markedly different from those dominating the Turkish higher education system at that time."[8] In her view, METU differed from three other newly founded universities -- Ege University and Karadeniz Technical University, and Atatürk University -- as it was "the only bonafide example that rested on the American model" and did not come "under the 'patronage' of the old 'classical' universities."[9] The major differences lay in the administrative and fiscal support offered by the UN, besides the support of the Turkish Government, and the separate law developed uniquely for METU. At

[2] Joseph S. Szyliowicz, "Turkey: Toward a Modern Educational System in a Democratic Society," in *Education and Modernization in the Middle East* (Ithaca and London: Cornell University Press, 1973), 325-386.

[3] Ibid., 375.

[4] Howard Reed, "Hacettepe and Middle East Technical University: New Universities in Turkey," *Minerva* 13, no. 2 (Summer 1975): 204.

[5] Ibid.

[6] İlhan Tekeli, *Eğitim Üzerine Düşünmek* (Thinking on Education) (Ankara: Türkiye Bilimler Akademisi, 2003), 78.

[7] Zeynep Erden, "Histories, Institutional Regimes and Educational Organizations: The Case of Turkish Higher Education" (PhD diss., Sabancı University, Istanbul, 2006).

[8] Ibid., 46.

[9] Ibid., 47.

this point, Uğur Ersoy's remarks on the distinctive administrative and legislative qualities of METU deserve to be cited:

> Middle East Techical University has been the beginning of a change, an innovation in Turkish higher education. In METU's founding years, the universities in our country were governed by a law in which their operation, financial matters, academic committee and administrative officers were clearly defined. 'The Universities Law' was prepared on the basis of the university system of the Continental Europe. At METU, which was founded in 1956 and the basic law of which was passed at the Grand National Assembly of Turkey in 1959, the American land-grant college was taken as a model. Therefore, until 1980s, significant differences existed between METU and other Turkish universities in terms of both their executive and academic operation.[10]

The opinions voiced by Deputy Ahmet Tokuş from Antalya at the meetings convened in 1957 at the Grand National Assembly of Turkey can be aligned with the category of political accounts on the foundation of METU. Tokuş considered the foundation of this modern institution of higher education as a political achievement of the Democratic Party government:

> [METU] was addressed by the Democratic Party government with a completely new conception and mentality. The history of its existence started two years ago when a professor from the United Nations, Prof. Abrams, came to Turkey merely with a simple task of surveying the housing problem. The Democrat Party government dealt with the problem by convincing Abrams that the solution of housing problem was possible, and easier, via the foundation of a new university. The Professor made this offer to the UN. UN decided to send here three expert professors. One of them was Prof. Perkins, Dean of Architecture at the University of Pennsylvania [School of Fine Arts] who was a specialist on these issues, and two European professors. Here, following a detailed analysis, they agreed with the Government. A decision for the foundation of a university in the Middle East that would be an excellent household of ideas and constructive for Turkey was made by the Government.[11]

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[10] "Orta Doğu Teknik Üniversitesi, Türk yükseköğretiminde bir değişimin, bir yeniliğin başlangıcı olmuştur. Kurulduğu yıllarda ülkemizdeki üniversiteler işleyişin, mali konuların, akademik kurul ve yöneticilerin ayrıntılı olarak tanımlandığı bir yasa ile yönetiliyordu. 'Üniversiteler Yasası' kıta Avrupası'ındaki üniversite sistemi temel alınarak hazırlanmıştı. 1956'da kurulan ve özel yasası TBMM'de, 1959 yılında kabul edilen ODTÜ'de ise esas olarak Amerika'daki 'Eyalet Üniversite Sistemi' örnek alınmaktaydı. Bu nedenle seksenli yıllara kadar ODTÜ ve diğer Türk üniversiteleri arasında hem yönetim hem de akademik işleyiş açısından önemli farklılıklar bulunuyordu" (English translation by the author). Uğur Ersoy, "Orta Doğu Teknik Üniversitesi -- ODTÜ (Middle East Technical University -- METU)" in *Türkiye'de Üniversite Anlayışının Gelişimi II (1961-2007)* (The Development of the Concept of University in Turkey I, 1961-2007), eds. T. Çelik and İ. Tekeli (Ankara: Türkiye Bilimler Akademisi, 2009), 619.

[11] "… [Orta Doğu Teknik Üniversitesi] Yepyeni bir anlayış ve zihniyetle Demokrat Parti Hükümeti tarafından ele alınmıştır. İki senelik bir mazisi vardır. Bu mazi şöyle başlar; evvela bundan iki sene

A similar political perspective was maintained by Ersoy, who approached the relationship between METU and the Democratic Party government through a critical perspective:

> In the founding years and the succeeding period, METU was seen in university circles as the university of Democrat Party. The facts that the Government and especially Menderes supported this University with great enthusiasm and that Menderes was the head of the Board of Trustees were determinants of the formation of such an opinion. In those years, Menderes felt indisposed about the opposition of the universities to the Government. People who considered METU as the university of Democrat Party deemed that Menderes's aim was to establish a university under his authority. It is not possible to give a definite answer to this subject today. Perhaps Menderes supported such a university to be founded in parallel with the American educational system for he believed, as it was fashionable at that time, that 'Americans do the best of everything,' or may be he actually wanted the realization of an educational institution that would be close to him and that he could control through trustees, against the universities he was in conflict with. The truth is, however, the passing of the METU Law, which included provisions unsuitable to current legislation and customary mechanism of the Government, at the Grand National Assembly of Turkey would not be possible without Menderes's support.[12]

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evvel Birleşmiş Milletlerden bir profesör, Profesör Abrams, Türkiye'ye mesken davasını tetkik için gelir. Sadece basit bir vazife ile. Bunu zamanın Demokrat Parti Hükümeti ele alır. Bu zâta; bu memlekette mesken davasının halli, yeni bir üniversitenin kurulmasıyle mümkün olur ve daha kolay halledilir, der. Gayet anlayışlı olan profesör Birleşmiş Milletlere bu teklifi yapar. Birleşmiş Milletler buraya üç tane mütehassıs profesör göndermeye karar verir. Bir tanesi de Pennsylvania Üniversitesi Dekanı Prof. Perkins, ki bu işlerde çok kompetan bir zâttır, iki tane de Avrupalı profesör verir. Burada uzun uzadıya tetkikattan sonra hükümetle fikir birliğine varılır. Hükümetçe, Orta Doğu'da üstün bir fikir ocağı olan ve aynı zamanda Türkiye'ye büyük fayda sağlayacak bulunan bir üniversite kurulmasına karar verilir…" (English translation by the author). See, "Orta-Doğu Teknik Üniverstesinin Kuruluş ve Hazırlıkları Hakkında Kanun Layihası ve Maarif ve Bütçe Encümenleri Mazbataları, 1/572 (1) (Draft Law and Minutes of the Commissions of Education and Budget relating to the Founding Preparations of Middle East Technical University, 1/572 (1))." TBMM Zabıt Ceridesi, Cilt: 16, Devre: X, İçtima: III, S. Sayısı: 82. Ankara: The Grand National Assembly of Turkey Archive, 23 January 1957.

[12] "Kuruluş yıllarında ve bunu izleyen dönemde ODTÜ, üniversite çevrelerinde Demokrat Parti'nin üniversitesi olarak görülmüştür. Hükümetin ve özellikle Menderes'in bu üniversiteyi büyük bir coşku ile desteklemesi ve Menderes'in mütevelli heyeti başkanı olması, böyle bir kanının oluşmasında önemli bir rol oynamıştır. O yıllarda diğer Türk üniversitelerinin hükümete ters düşen bir tavır sergilemesi, Menderes'i çok rahatsız ediyordu. ODTÜ'ye Demokrat Parti'nin üniversitesi olarak bakanlar, Menderes'in amacının kendi denetiminde bir üniversite kurmak olduğu düşüncesindedirler. Bu konuda bugün kesin bir görüş belirtmek olası değildir. Menderes belki o zamanlar moda olan, 'Herşeyin en iyisini Amerikalılar yapar!' anlayışı ile, Amerikan sisteminde kurulacak olan böyle bir üniversiteyi desteklemiş, belki de gerçekten çatışma içinde bulunduğu üniversitelere karşı kendine yakın olacak ve mütevelli aracılığı ile kontrol edebileceği bir eğitim kurumunun gerçekleşmesini istemiştir. Ancak gerçek şudur ki, Menderes'in tam desteği olmadan yürürlükteki mevzuata ve devletin alışılmış işleyişine uymayan hükümler içeren böyle bir yasanın TBMM'den geçmesi olası değildi" (English translation by the author). Ersoy, 2009, 621-622.

Necdet Sakaoğlu's evaluations, too, were on the subject of the relationship between the Government and universities in Turkey in the 1950s and 1960s.[13] Sakaoğlu remarked that the attitude of Democrat Party towards university autonmy was negative. Apparently, the foundation of METU was an exception.

In his doctoral dissertation titled "Housing and the Democratic Ideal: The Life and Thought of Charles Abrams" Alan Scott Henderson approached the topic from a political perspective as well, and examined the foundation of METU through the larger framework of Abrams's studies as a consultant for the United Nations Technical Assistance Administration (UN TAA).[14] Henderson drew attention to the relationship between the realization of this educational project and UN's educational missions to developing countries in the Cold War period.

The conceptions of an "American version of Bauhaus" or "the American extension of the Bauhaus program" frame narratives about the influence of Bauhaus pedagogy on the architecture program inaugated at METU in 1956. A further clarification of these concepts will be revealing before commenting on this group of studies and accounts that are cited in this dissertation.

The influx of Bauhaus ideas to America was initiated through the early-twentieth century relations between the fields of architectural education in Europe and America. The arrival of numerous "European émigrés" to America in the 1930s, which Donald Fleming and Bernard Bailey defined as an "intellectual migration,"[15] prompted a growing interest for European modernism among American architects. The masters of the Bauhaus School such as Walter Gropius, Ludwig Mies van der Rohe and Joseph Albers started teaching at the leading schools of architecture and design in America, including Harvard Graduate School of Design, Illinois Institute of Technology and Black Mountain College. These Bauhaus

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[13] Necdet Sakaoğlu, *Osmanlı'dan Günümüze Eğitim Tarihi* (History of Education from the Ottoman to Present) (Istanbul: Istanbul Bilgi Üniversitesi Yayınları 33, 2003), 270.
[14] See, Allen Scott Henderson, "Housing and the Democratic Ideal: The Life and Thought of Charles Abrams" (PhD diss., University of New York at Buffalo, 1996). Henderson's dissertation was later published as a book under the same title. See, Allen Scott Henderson, *Housing and the Democratic Ideal: The Life and Thought of Charles Abrams* (New York: Columbia University Press, 2000).
[15] The expression "intellectual migration" was first used by Fleming and Bailey. See, Donald Fleming and B. Bailey, eds., *The Intellectual Migration. Europe and America, 1930-1960* (Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press, 1969).

masters played important roles in the realization of a re-orientation in American design and architectural education in the postwar period.[16] In her doctoral dissertation titled "Research for Architecture: Building a Discipline and Modernizing the Profession" Avigail Sachs underlined "a long-lasting narrative in the discourse of architecture," which in her view, "attributes the emergence of American modern design in the mid-20th century to the individual influence of European architect émigrés, resulting in the 'triumph' of Modernists over traditionally-minded architects and the adoption of 'progressive' pedagogies in architecture schools."[17] She reiterated the same line of thought with "alternative" histories when she pointed out that the presence of Bauhaus masters in America resulted more in a re-interpretation of Bauhaus than its "transplantation."[18]

In the background of several scholarly researches about the foundation of METU Faculty of Architecture resides what Sachs called "the narrative of European (and especially of Bauhaus) pedagogical influence."[19] In these studies and accounts, the issue of what was brought by METU Faculty of Architecture to the field of architectural education in Turkey is addressed in relation to the Bauhaus contribution. A doctoral dissertation by Aydan Balamir, titled "The Identity and Discipline of the Modern Architect: A Review of Classical and

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[16] A large literature exists on the influx of Bauhaus ideas on architectural and design education to America through the educational and professional works of the Bauhaus masters. See, Elizabeth Mock, ed., *Built in USA: 1932-1944* (New York: The Museum of Modern Art, 1944); Walter Gropius and Howard Dearstyne, "The Bauhaus Contribution," *Journal of Architectural Education* 18, no. 1 (June, 1963): 14-16; Fermi, 1968; Phelan Andrew, "The Bauhaus and Studio Art Education," *Art Education* 34, no. 5. (September 1981): 6-13; Lewis A. Coser, *Refugee Scholars in America; Their Impact and Their Experiences* (New Heaven and London: Yale University Press, 1984); Leslie Humm Cormier, "Walter Gropius: Émigré Architect. Works and Refuge -- England and America in the 30s" (PhD diss., Brown University, 1986); Margaret Kentgens-Craig, *The Bauhaus and America: First Contacts 1919-1936* (Cambridge, MA: MIT Press, 2001); Katheleen James-Chakraborty ed., *Bauhaus Culture; from Weimar to the Cold War* (Minneapolis, MN: The University of Minnesota Press, 2006).
[17] Avigail Sachs, "Research for Architecture: Building a Discipline and Modernizing the Profession" (PhD diss., University of California, Berkeley, 2009), xi.
[18] For "alternative" histories on the presence of Bauhaus pedagogy in America, see William H. Jordy, "The Aftermath of the Bauhaus in America: Gropius, Mies and Breuer," in *The Intellectual Migration. Europe and America, 1930-1960*, ed. Donald Fleming and Bernard Bailey (Cambridge, Mass., Harvard University Press, 1969), 485-527; Gabriele Diana Grawe, "Continuity and Transformation: Bauhaus Pedagogy in North America," in *Teaching at the Bauhaus*, Rainer K. Wick (Germany: Hatje Cantz Publishers, 2000), 356-359; Jill Pearlman, "Joseph Hudnut and the Unlikely Beginnings of Post-Modern Urbanism at the Harvard Bauhaus," *Planning Perspectives* 15, no. 3 (2000): 201-239; Jill Pearlman, *Inventing American Modernism: Joseph Hudnut, Walter Gropius, and the Bauhaus Legacy at Harvard* (Virginia: University of Virginia Press, 2007); Karl-Heinz Füssl, "Pestalozzi in Dewey's Realm? Bauhaus Master Josef Albers among the German-speaking Emigrés' Colony at Black Mountain College (1933–1949)," *Paedagogica Historica* 42, no. 1&2 (February 2006): 77–92.
[19] Sachs, 2009, "Research for Architecture: Building a Discipline and Modernizing the Profession," xvi.

Modern Approaches," approached this topic from the perspective of "the import of Western models into Turkish architecture":

> ... [T]he Turkish schools of architecture have originally been patterned on western precedents. The architecture departments of the State Fine Arts Academy (now Mimar Sinan University), Istanbul Technical University and Middle East Technical University are known to have been modeled on the French Beaux-Arts, the German Technische Hochschulen and the American version of the Bauhaus respectively.[20]

In her master thesis, "A Survey on the System of Education at the Middle East Technical University Department of Architecture, 1956-1980," Yeşim Uysal drew attention to a shift in the formal architectural education in Turkey; a shift from the domination of the traditional Beaux-Arts pedagogy of the late nineteenth and early twentieth century to "a diffusion of some of the references of the Bauhaus legacy" of the 1930s.[21] Uysal remarked that this educational shift was prompted by the entry of "foreign architects" to the field of architectural practice and education in Turkey. In her view, however, "the Bauhaus legacy" was institutionalized in Turkish architectural education with the foundation of METU Faculty of Architecture. She remarked that "the school established its system of architectural education with reference to the American extension of the Bauhaus program."[22]

It is also possible to re-evaluate the foundation of METU Faculty of Architecture within the framework of advancements in Turkish higher education in the mid-twentieth century. This is out of the scope of this dissertation. However, at this point it will be helpful to briefly touch on the foundation of the State School of Applied Fine Arts (Devlet Tatbiki Güzel Sanatlar Yüksek Okulu (DTGSO), renamed as Marmara University Faculty of Fine Arts) in 1957, which marked a shift in art education in Turkey and resembled, in some aspects, the foundation of METU Faculty of Architecture.

At a symposium titled "Architectural, Art and Design Education in Turkey and Bauhaus," 2008, Bircan Ak remarked that a demand for the foundation of an institution that "would encompass the triple of science-techniques-arts, contribute to the economic development of

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[20] Aydan Balamir, "The Identity and Discipline of the Modern Architect: A Review of Classical and Modern Approaches" (PhD diss., METU Faculty of Architecture, Ankara, 1996), 15-16.
[21] Yeşim Uysal, "A Survey on the System of Education at the Middle East Technical University Department of Architecture, 1956-1980" (Master's thesis, METU Faculty of Architecture, 2005), 48.
[22] Ibid., 82.

the country and provide identitly to domestic goods" constituted the starting point of the foundation of DTGSO.[23] Prof. Adolf G. Schneck was appointed by the Turkish Government to establish this institution and, following his survey on the technical schools in the country, he founded the School in 1957. Schneck's report, which made references to the Bauhaus School in Germany, played a key role in this process.[24] In this report, emphasis was placed on "crafts" and the relationship to be established and sustained with the "industry" and "basic design education" that would be common for students in all departments in the first year of their education.[25] In the same symposium, Prof. Dr. Mustafa Aslıer, who witnessed the founding years as a student and an instructor, explained the Bauhaus influence with reference to three principles: "to give Basic Art Training in all branches in three-four days a week in the first year of instruction," "to conduct professional education within the two parallel planes of art and applied study," "to encourage each student, as distinct personalities, for experimentation and research, which would help them explore and develop their constructive and creative individualities."[26]

The German influence on the foundation of the State School of Applied Fine Arts in 1957 and the key role played by Schneck, who was "assigned as the expert to determine the curriculum, and build and teach the staff," was also addressed by Seçil Satir.[27] In her article "German *Werkkunstschules* and the Establishment of Industrial Design Education in Turkey" Satir remarked that the formative objective of the School "to bring art, science, and

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[23] "… bilim-teknik-sanat üçlemesini içinde barındıracak, ülkenin ekonomik kalkınmasına yardımcı olacak ve yerli mallara kimlik kazandıracak yeni bir kurum" (English translation by the author). An extended version of Ak's presentation was published in the proceedings of the symposium. See, Bircan Ak, "Bauhaus, Schneck ve Tatbiki Güzel Sanatlar Okulu (TGSO) (Schneck and School of Applied Fine Arts)," in *Bauhaus: Modernleşmenin Tasarımı* (Bauhaus: The Design of Modernization), eds. Ali Artun and Esra Aliçavuşoğlu (Istanbul: Iletisim Publications, 2009), 314.

[24] In his report Schneck addressed the issues of the opening of the school, its organization, its regulations, and the equipment required. See, Ak, 2009.

[25] See, Ak, 2009, 325-327.

[26] "Birinci yılda haftada üç-dört gün bütün dallarda Temel Sanat Eğitimi uygulamak, mesleki eğitimi sanat ve uygulamalı çalışma olarak iki parallel eksen üzerinde yürütmek, her öğrenciyi ayrı bir kişilik olarak, kendi yapıcı ve yaratıcı kişiliğini keşfedecek, geliştirecek deneme ve araştırmalara yöneltmek" (English translation by the author). See, Mustafa Aslıer, "Tatbiki Güzel Sanatlar Okulu İlkelerinin ve Çalışma Yöntemlerinin Uygulanmasında Alman Bauhaus ve Werkkunstschule Adlı Okulların Etkileri (The Influence of German Schools Bauhaus and Werkkunstschule on the Implementation of the Principles and Study Methods of the School of Fine Arts)," in *Bauhaus: Modernleşmenin Tasarımı* (Bauhaus: The Design of Modernization), eds. Ali Artun and Esra Aliçavuşoğlu (Istanbul: Iletisim Publications, 2009), 307.

[27] Seçil Satir, "German *Werkkunstschules* and the Establishment of Industrial Design Education in Turkey," *Design Issues*, 22, no. 3 (Summer 2006): 19.

technique together," reflected the educational ideal of "the German *Werkkunstschules*, a continuation of the *Kunstgewerbeschules*, which were effective in the establishment of the Bauhaus in Weimar Germany."[28] To start education with the "Basic Art Training course" was an important innovative aspect of the program inaugurated at the State School of Applied Fine Arts.

By the mid-twentieth century the Bauhaus influence on the education in design disciplines in Turkey became apparent in the newly established institutions of higher learning. In the literature, DTGSO is recognized as the "pioneering school for industrial design training in Turkey," to use Satir's words. A pioneering position in the field of architectural education was achieved at METU Faculty of Architecture in which basic design education constituted the starting point of architectural education.

1.2 Definition of the Problem and Aim of the Study

This dissertation proposes that even though the above mentioned accounts open relevant critical perspectives on the foundation of METU Faculty of Architecture, none completely portray the complexity of the issue. The educational ideas and ideals that informed the foundation of METU Faculty of Architecture can hardly be grasped merely through a specific political model or a singular pedagogical one. These ideals wait to be explored through more complex thematic connections within their political and educational backgrounds. This dissertation re-constructs the political and educational contexts of the METU projects envisioned by United Nations experts Charles Abrams and G. Holmes Perkins. It aims to delineate an integrative and multifaceted picture of the background of the foundation of METU Faculty of Architecture. In this way, the examination of Abrams's and Perkins's METU projects becomes a reference point for this dissertation to explore the themes that framed the mid-twentieth century thinking and practices in political and educational contexts in America.

By concentrating on the role of education in technical assistance policies pertaining to developing countries, this dissertation aims to open avenues to pursue for understanding the positions of UN experts involved in the foundation of METU Faculty of Architecture. It

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[28] Ibid.

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examines the influence of the notion of democracy and democratic education on urban development and educational policies of the UN TAA. A comparison between UN's developmental and educational policies and those of the United States in the mid-twentieth century opens critical perspectives towards the political framework pertinent to this dissertation. It provides a deeper understanding of the influence of nationalistic and humanistic concerns on the formation of development strategies in that period.

To say that METU Faculty of Architecture continued the Bauhaus legacy or that the Bauhaus model was taken as a basis in setting up its architecture program does not help to explain the multifaceted nature of the situation. First of all, it should be made explicit that Bauhaus entered America not as a singular idea but as a group of ideas and approaches pursued by the former teachers at the Bauhaus school. As underlined by Gabriele Diana Grawe, the Bauhaus masters were recognized in their new environments due to their personal positions.[29] In his article "The Aftermath of the Bauhaus in America: Gropius, Mies and Breuer" William H. Jordy argued that the influence of the Bauhaus pedagogy in America need to be evaluated within the broader framework of "the extension of the European movement in modern architecture to the United States from the twenties through the thirties," which had a history of change due to several internal forces.[30] Jordy explained these internal forces as the impact of Great Depression on the field of architectural practice, the growing influence of "International Style" by the early twenties, and the emergence of alternative attitudes by American architects against "the hegemony of the International Style" -- Frank Lloyd Wright's "individualistic emphasis" and "regional and national commitment" were recognized as characteristics of "American" modern architecture.[31]

The American experts and instructors who contributed during the formative years of METU Faculty of Architecture were also educators affiliated with schools of architecture in America in which the Bauhaus influence was still vital. The critical questions raised in this dissertation are: Did Bauhaus pedagogy cover all the educational ideals that the American

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[29] In Grawe's view, although there was a unifying Bauhaus idea that bounded all masters under the roof of the Bauhaus School in Germany, the case was quite different in America. For her, one could hardly speak of the existence of a singular "Bauhaus pedagogy" in America. Rather, the intellectual environment in this continent encouraged Bauhaus masters like Gropius, Mies van der Rohe, Moholy-Nagy and Albers to set forth their individual pedagogical stances in the fields of architectural and design education. See, Grawe, 2000, 356-359.
[30] Jordy, 1969, 492.
[31] Ibid., 492-496.

experts pursued in the realization of this educational project in Ankara? Could it be stated that the mid-twentieth century architectural education in America was shaped merely through the pedagogical influence of Bauhaus? What was the influence of developments in the fields of politics and education of that period on architectural education?

By focusing on the METU projects envisioned by the UN experts Abrams and Perkins, this dissertation proposes that an examination of the visions of these two people is a necessary first step in an effort to understand the significance of the formative educational ideals both for the foundation years and for today, while acknowledging the multiplicity of contributions. This dissertation aims not only to open new ways of viewing the history of the foundation of METU Faculty of Architecture, but also to establish a basis for further studies on this topic.

1.3   Scope and the Limits of the Study

This dissertation focuses on the visions of Abrams and Perkins as two international experts who partook in the foundation of METU Faculty of Architecture and investigates their positions in the contexts of the changing political and educational trajectories in America in the mid-twentieth century. It examines the pertinent themes within the fields of technical assistance policies, education and, particularly, architectural education, which help to delineate the background of the educational ideas and ideals that informed the foundation of METU Faculty of Architecture.

Abrams paved the way for the foundation of METU Faculty of Architecture by recommending the foundation of a school of architecture and community planning in Ankara. As the head of the team of experts from the University of Pennsylvania School of Fine Arts, who were sent by the United Nations to Ankara in 1955, Perkins advised the Government of Turkey on "the creation of a Faculty of Architecture, a Faculty of City and Regional Planning" and two research institutes, as a first step towards an institution of university rank, and with a view to promoting "a newer, more practical and modern approach to architecture and urban planning" in Turkey.

Abrams was appointed by the UN TAA to advise the Government of Turkey on the manifold problems of "housing and planning" in the 1950s.[32] His mission lasted from 1 September 1954 to 31 October 1954 and he prepared a report titled "The Need for Training and Education for Housing and Planning." This was the first official document to mention the proposal for the foundation of a new "school of architecture and community planning" in Ankara. This report played a key role in the foundation of METU Faculty of Architecture. By focusing on Abrams's report, this dissertation examines in detail his critical evaluations of the problems entailed by rapid urbanization in Turkey and the underlying principles of his educational project. It also addresses his practices as a UN consultant for housing, a lawyer, planner and urban reformer in order to answer the questions of what made Abrams qualified for the UN TAA to be appointed for a mission on housing and planning to Turkey, why he was recognized as one of the leading figures in the development discourse in the 1950s and how all these qualities informed the METU project he envisioned.

The head of the following UN TAA mission to Ankara was Perkins. He headed the team of experts from the University of Pennsylvania including Leon Loschetter and Wilhelm V. von Moltke. Following the terms of reference of Abrams's report, the three UN experts came to Turkey in 17 April 1955 and stayed until 30 May 1955. Their mission was to advise the Government of Turkey on the foundation of a school of architecture and community planning and the "organization, policy, and curriculum" with regard to the school.[33] "Report on the Establishment of a School for the Teaching of Architecture and Community Planning in Turkey" prepared by this team for the Government of Turkey at the end of their mission is the second key document in the history of the foundation of METU Faculty of Architecture. In this dissertation, Perkins's report is re-interpreted in order to explore in depth the main objectives of the proposed school of architecture and community planning and the underlying principles of architectural and city and regional planning programs. The METU project envisioned by Perkins is examined within the broader framework of his position in the new orientations in architectural education in America in the mid-twentieth century.

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[32] See, Charles Abrams. "The Need for Training and Education for Housing and Planning." File No: TAA 173/57/018, Report No: TAA/TUR/13. (New York: United Nations Technical Assistance Program, 23 August 1955), 1. This report was prepared as a memorandum by Abrams in October, 1954.

[33] G. Holmes Perkins, Leon Loschetter and Wilhem V. von Moltke. "Report on the Establishment of a School for the Teaching of Architecture and Community Planning in Turkey." File No: TAA 173/57/018, Report No: TAA/TUR/14. (New York: United Nations Technical Assistance Program, August 23, 1955).

It is also important to underline several issues that remain out of the scope of this dissertation but are important subjects that wait to be examined in detail in future studies on the history of foundation of METU Faculty of Architecture.

As has been already mentioned, this dissertation has as its focus the roles of Abrams and Perkins as initiators of the foundation process of METU Faculty of Architecture. However, it should be underlined that there were several other international experts who came to Ankara from the United States, Europe, Austria and Japan, and joined the faculty of the newly established school of architecture and community planning. Thomas B. A. Godfrey was Professor of Architecture and served as the first Acting Dean of the Faculty of Architecture. Architects Marvin Sevely and William Cox were the first two American instructors who were appointed by the UN.[34] Joe J. Jordan and Jaakko Kaikkonen joined the faculty subsequently.[35] The international faculty was grown with the participation of Robert Matters, Johan Otto von Spreckelsen, Fritz Janeba and Taro Amano.[36] Today, all these figures are remembered as "good educators" who partook in the realization of a new vision of architectural education in the founding years of the Faculty.[37] Their contributions to the formation of an extraordinary and enthusiastic teaching/learning environment and the development of a new architecture program are recognized.[38] The distinct positions of these international experts and the intellectual background of their approaches to architecture are important topics that wait to be examined in detail in the future.

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[34] Sevely was a former student of Gropius at Harvard GSD and he taught at the Pratt Institute. He taught Basic Design as a first year course of architectural education at METU Faculty of Architecture. Cox formerly worked with Louis I. Kahn.

[35] Jordan was from Drexel Institute of Technology in Philadelphia, and Kaikkonen was a Finnish architect and urban planner,who was formely the assistant of Alvar Aalto.

[36] For more information on the international academic staff in the founding years, see Sevgi Aktüre, Sevin Osmay and Ayşen Savaş, eds., *Anılar: Bir Sözlü Tarih Çalışması* (Memories: An Oral History Study) (Ankara: METU Faculty of Architecture Press, 2007).

[37] Prof. Dr. Gönül Evyapan stated: "…Here, there was an education that could not be underestimated. Our teachers were very good teachers. Sevely, Cox, and Jordan were all good teachers and, at the same time, good educators. And they all worked with a great deal of enthusiasm. I think, especially, to be in a school that was in the phase of foundation engendered that enthusiasm. They were happy to be part of this school, to be in Turkey, and to be initiating that school. They were good people and gave a good education" (English translation by the author). Gönül Evyapan, interview by author, 12 February 2009, Ankara, Middle East Technical University Faculty of Architecture, tape recording.

[38] This point became evident in the interviews the author conducted with Prof. Dr. Kemal Aran, Prof. Dr. İnci Aslanoğlu, Prof. Dr. Gönül Evyapan and Prof. Dr. Sevgi Aktüre -- scholars who experienced the founding years of METU Faculty of Architecture as students of architecture and, also, played part in the development period of the University as instructors.

As it will be examined in detail in Chapter 3 of this dissertation, both Abrams and Perkins argued that foreign "experts" can make a limited contribution but greater effort should be directed towards educating "inperts." Abrams explained: "It was apparent that what Turkey needed was not only foreign experts but trained people who remain in the country and who can only be trained through an internal education program."[39] The importance of educating "inperts" was also underscored by Perkins who pointed out that "to staff [the newly established school of architecture and community planning] with competent teachers during the early years and to prepare Turkish architects and city planners to assume leadership in the school and in the profession over the long-term" was to be a major responsibility of international experts.[40] The training of Turkish instructors was part of this proposal. An essential step taken by Perkins towards training Turkish instructors was sending five architects and one engineer, in the first year of instruction, to America for joining the master programs of the University of Pennsylvania Graduate School of Fine Arts. They were expected to receive master degrees in diverse areas of specialization and start teaching at METU Faculty of Architecture in their return to Ankara. Adnan Taşpınar, Bülent Onaran, Dündar Elbruz, Orhan Özgüner, Rauf Beyru and Şükrü Kaya were members of the first group of Turkish scholars who were educated abroad.[41] In the founding years of the Faculty, the most successful graduates of the Department of Architecture were sent abroad for graduate education. Kemal Aran, Gönül Aslanoğlu (Evyapan), Kadriye Tan (Seyithanoğlu) and Cengiz Yetken were among the first METU graduates who were granted two-year fellowships for attending master programs at the of the University of Pennsylvania GSFA. Later, these scholars participated to METU Faculty of Architecture as instructors and played part in the development of the institution. A detailed inquiry into the influence of their educational experiences in America on their subsequent academic practices at METU Faculty of Architecture and their distinct contributions to this institution should be done in the future.

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[39] Abrams, 1969, 202.
[40] Perkins, Loschetter and von Moltke, 23 August 1955, 4.
[41] For more information on the education of Taşpınar, Onaran, Elbruz, Özgüner, Beyru and Kaya at the University of Pennsylvania SFA and their subsequent teaching experiences at METU, see "Prof. Ekmel Derya'nın Notlarından Seçmeler," in Aktüre, Osmay, and Savaş eds., 2007, 323-324.

Abdullah Kuran deserves a special attention as a key figure in the founding years of METU Faculty of Architecture.[42] Kuran's formative contribution, both as an administrator and instructor, to the formation and continuation of the educational direction of the Faculty is out of the scope of this dissertation. However, this dissertation may be a starting point for a future study that should be done on the subject of the contributions made by Kuran, in particular, and of the institutional and educational histories of METU Faculty of Architecture, in general. The examination of the works of Turkish instructors, along with international experts, at METU Faculty of Architecture would open critical perspectives about the novelty of architectural education that was put into practice.

As underlined by Tekeli, an account of the "internal history" of METU Faculty of Architecture should comprise an examination of the history of education, in general, and of architectural education, in particular, in Turkey in the first half of the twentieth century. A concise overview of the Turkish educational scene would allow one to see the motives that framed the professional and educational contexts in Turkey in the mid-twentieth century. This would help better understand the distinct position of METU Department of Architecture within the context of architectural education in Turkey in its foundation period.

An essential aspect of this field of inquiry is the modernization of education in Turkey in accordance with the ideals of the newly founded Republic and Turkey's educational contacts with the Continental Europe -- particularly with France and Germany -- and with America in successive periods. The institutional regulations realized in Turkish higher education system from the 1930s to1960s frame another relevant field of inquiry, since these regulations fostered a fertile ground for the realization of change in the field of architectural education.[43]

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[42] Kuran's academic career at METU started in 1957 and lasted for 11 years. He was appointed as the Interim Dean in 1961 and as the Acting Dean in 1962 to the Faculty of Architecture. He served as the Dean of the Faculty until his departure in 1968. For more information on Kuran's academic career at METU, see Çiğdem Kafescioğlu and Lucienne Thys-Şenocak eds., *Abdullah Kuran İçin Yazılar* (Writings for Abdullah Kuran) (Istanbul: Yapı Kredi Yayınları, 1999), 16-17; İnci Aslanoğlu, "Abdullah Kuran Üzerine (On Abdullah Kuran)," *ODTÜ MFD* 1-2, (2004): v-vi.

[43] See, Ernst. E. Hirsch, *Dünya Üniversiteleri ve Türkiye'de Üniversitelerin Gelişimi, Cilt I* (World Universities and the Development of Universities in Turkey, Vol. 1), (Ankara: Ankara Üniversitesi Yayımları No: 23, 1950); Leland C. Barrows, ed., *Higher Education in Turkey* (Prepared by the Student Selection and Placement Center (ÖSYM), Bilkent, Ankara, Cepes (European Center for Higher Education, 1990); Osman Bahadır, "1933 Reformu Niçin Yapıldı? (Why the 1933 Reform is Made?)," in *Türkiye'de Üniversite Anlayışının Gelişimi I, 1861-1961* (The Development of the Concept of University in Turkey, 1981-1961), ed. Namık Kemal Aras, Emre Dölen and Osman Bahadır (Ankara: Türkiye Bilimler Akademisi, 2007), 52-85; Mete Tunçay, "1946 ve Sonrasında

The rise of modern architecture in Turkey in the 1930s, the influential role of prominent modernist European architects in the field of building production, the involvement of these European architects in leading schools of architecture and their role in the realization of a re-orientation in architectural education in Turkey can be the subjects of future researches on the context of Turkish architectural education at a time when METU Faculty of Architecture was founded.[44]

An examination of the growing attention of Turkish scholars to mid-twentieth century international debates in the field of architectural education and their increasing commitment to the quest for change in Turkish architectural education makes apparent the constructive contribution of METU Department of Architecture to the advancement of architectural discourse in Turkey.[45]

Üniversite (University in 1946 and Afterwards)," in *Türkiye'de Üniversite Anlayışının Gelişimi I, 1861-1961*(The Development of the Concept of University in Turkey, 1861-1961), ed. Namık Kemal Aras, Emre Dölen and Osman Bahadır (Ankara: Türkiye Bilimler Akademisi, 2007), 317-320; Bozkurt Güvenç, "Yüksek Öğretim Sisteminin Geçirdiği Değişimler, YÖK Öncesi: 1961-1981 (The Changes Undergone in Higher Education System, Before YOK: 1961-1981)," in *Türkiye'de Üniversite Anlayışının Gelişimi II, 1961-2007* (The Development of the Concept of University in Turkey II, 1961-2007), ed. Tarık Çelik and İlhan Tekeli (Ankara: Türkiye Bilimler Akademisi, 2009), 19-53.

[44] Haluk Pamir's article, "Architectural Education in Turkey in its Social Context," opens critical perspectives towards this complex field by portraying the changes realized in the field of architectural education in relation to the process of "professionalization of architecture" in Turkey. Pamir remarked that in the 1930s, "architecture and urbanism were strong symbols reflecting the goals of Kemalism to establish a new Turkish Republic in the hearth of Ankara." He also highlighted the influence of Ernst Egli, Clemens Holzmeister, and Bruno Taut on Turkish architecture and architectural education in that period. See, Haluk Pamir, "Architectural Education in Turkey in Its Social Context," in *Architectural Education in the Islamic World*, ed. Ahmet Evin (Singapore: Concept Media/Aga Khan Award for Architecture Publications, 1986), 131-151.

[45] There is a literature of debates convened in Turkish academic circles dating back to 1960s in which the main focus was on the need for reform in architectural education in order to respond to emerging needs of the period. Scholars met on the common ground of the idea that architectural education should be enriched and balanced in scope and be re-considered through the broader framework higher education. Positions were mainly defined with reference to theories and practices developed at the Bauhaus School and their influence on American architectural education in the postwar period. A review of the issues of *Mimarlık* may help to grasp the general trajectory of architectural debates and the positions of Turkish academicians and schools of architecture of the period. See, Gazanfer Erim, Tûlu Baytin, Abdullah Kuran and Erol Kulaksızoğlu, "Mimarlık Eğitimi Konusunda Düşünceler (Opinions on Architectural Education)," *Mimarlık* 35, no. 9 (September 1966): 11-17; Erol Kulaksızoğlu, "Mesleki Eğitimi Geliştirme Çabaları (Efforts of Developing Professional Education)," *Mimarlık* 35, no.9 (September 1966): 22-26; Abdullah Kuran, "Başarılı Bir Deneme (A Successful Experimentation)," *Mimarlık* 35, no. 9 (September 1966): 27-28; Bülen Özer, Doğan Kuban, Erol Kulaksızoğlu, Erdem Aksoy, and Gazanfer Erim, "Mimarlık Eğitiminin Amaçları ve Öğretim Programları ile İlgili Sorunlar (Aims of Architectural Education and Problems Concerning Teaching Programs)," *Mimarlık* 71, no.9 (September 1969): 21-36; Teoman Aktüre, Gönül Tankut, Mehmet

An inquiry into the distinct position METU Department of Architecture acquired in the late 1950s should also address the status of architectural education and the architecture programs and pedagogical approaches pursued in existing schools of architecture in Turkey before 1956.

1.4 Theoretical and Conceptual Frameworks of the Study

This dissertation develops as a narrative re-construction of the history of an institute of higher education. It combines chronological and thematic frameworks and maintains a historically conscious attitude towards the past. The past is approached through a present day perspective, which is ineluctably subjective and interpretive. In recognition of the "temporal" distance between the researcher and the historical documents, as underlined by Hans Georg Gadamer, it is aimed to develop a critical historical perspective to understand concepts and discussions in historical documents in relation to their own historical contexts.[46] The possibility of diverse readings and diverse re-constructions is obvious. The endeavor of this dissertation is to try to re-construct the broader picture from within a critical distance and to explore the connections between parts that may seem scattered and unconnected at the first instance. Within this framework, a major task of the dissertation is to explore the roles of historical personalities in the processes of change by focusing on their ideas, practices and interactions.

Adam and Argun Evyapan, "Çevre Düzenleme Disiplini İçinde Plancı ve Mimarın Değişmekte Olan Rolü (Changing Role of Planners and Architects in the Discipline of Environmental Design)," *Mimarlık* 71, no. 9 (September 1969): 39-40; Abdullah Kuran, "Mimarlık Eğitimi Üzerine (Opinions on Architectural Education)," *Mimarlık* 71, no. 9 (September 1969): 19-20; Enis Kortan, "Mimarlık Eğitiminde Topluma Dönük Olma İlkeleri (The Principles of Turning Towards the Society in Architectural Education)," *Mimarlık* 71 (September 1969): 15; Cengiz Bektaş, "Türkiye'de Mimarlık Eğitimi ve Gerekli Olan Yeni Eğitim Kurumları (Architectural Education in Turkey and the Necessary New Educational Institutions)." *Mimarlık* 71, no. 9 (September 1969): 37-40.

[46] Hans Georg Gadamer, who was a notable philosopher in the tradition of hermeneutics in the Continental Europe, explained the task of a researcher who aims at understanding historical texts and grasp the meaning and significance of those texts for today through the notion of "effective historical consciousness." For more information on Gadamer's key concept, see Hans-Georg Gadamer, "The Problem of Historical Consciousness," in *Interpretive Social Sciences: A Reader*, ed. P. Rainbow and W. M. Sullivan, (Berkeley, CA: University of California Press, 1979, 103-160); Hans-Georg Gadamer, *Truth and Method*, trans. J. Weinsheimer and D. G. Marshall (New York: Crossroad, 1991); George R. Lucas, "Philosophy, its History, and Hermeneutics," in *The Philosophy of Hans-Georg Gadamer*, ed. L. Edwin Hahn (Illinois: Open Court Publishing, 1997, 173-190).

Today, fifty-four years later its foundation, the opportunity to obtain the views of many of the first METU graduates who experienced the formative period still exists. However, there also exists a difficulty of maintaining a critical distance from those years. It could hardly be possible for the insiders to have a grasp of the broader political and educational background of the foundation of METU Faculty of Architecture in the formative years. Looking back to those years, to Abrams's and Perkins's reports and to their ideas and practices in their fields, we can now delineate a broader picture and fully realize their roles in the foundation of METU Faculty of Architecture.

In his article "Travelling Theory," Edward W. Said commented on the significance of exploring the strands of the formation and transformation processes in the background of ideas for better understanding their varying implications in particular situations. "Like people and schools of criticism," he argued, "ideas and theories travel -- from person to person, from situation to situation, from one period to another."[47] He underlined the possibility of a "recurrent pattern" that can be discerned in their "travel":

> First, there is *a point of origin*, or what seems like one, a set of initial circumstances in which the idea came to birth or entered discourse. Second, there is *a distance traversed*, a passage through the pressure of various contexts as the idea moves from an earlier point to another time and place where it will come into a new prominence. Third, there is *a set of conditions* -- call them conditions of acceptance or, as an inevitable part of acceptance, resistance -- which then confronts the transplanted theory or idea, making possible its introduction or toleration, however alien it might appear to be. Forth, the now full (or partly) accommodated (or incorporated) idea is to some extent *transformed by its new position in a new time and place*.[48]

The examination of the ideas and concepts that were subjects of the political and educational discussions in the mid-twentieth century is of prime importance to this dissertation. In its attempt to re-construct the political and educational contexts of METU project by taking two key reports prepared by UN experts Abrams and Perkins as a starting point, it becomes important to explore where particular ideas originated from and in which ways they were discussed by different people. The "travel" of ideas between different intellectual contexts, diverse interpretations of them in their new environments and their reflections on educational

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[47] Edward W. Said, "Traveling Theory," in *The World, the Text and the Critic* (London: Vintage, 1983), 226. I want to express my gratitude to Prof. Dr. Gülsüm Baydar for directing my attention to Said's theoretical framework.
[48] Ibid., 226-227, emphasis added.

practices are investigated. This investigation helps grasp the manifold strands of the intellectual background within which Abrams's and Perkins's stances in professional and academic debates can be discerned.

In its attemtp to re-construct a historical narrative, this dissertation addresses a selected sampling of manifold themes related to Abrams's and Perkins's positions within the political and educational discussions of the mid-twentieth century. It is important to note, however, that this dissertation is not a biographical narrative. Comprehensive biographical studies on Abrams and Perkins have already been carried out by Henderson and Joanne P. Scott, which are cited in the following chapters of this dissertation.[49] The aim is not to reiterate a biographical narrative of Abrams, nor of Perkins. The examination of the foundation of METU Faculty of Architecture is structured as a comprehensive exposition of the basic educational ideas and practices of specific historical personalities who are considered to be influential within the political and educational contexts of the the METU project. As mentioned before, the examination of the foundation of METU Faculty of Architecture and of Abrams's and Perkins's professional and academic careers constitute a starting point for investigating the educational ideals that framed changing political and educational trajectories of the mid-twentieth century. Within this framework, this dissertation calls attention to the distinct positions that schools of architecture in America attained in accordance with the educational orientations of that period.

In keeping the scope of the survey as broad as possible during the research phase, the dissertation developed within a broad framework of the history of architectural education and history of higher education in America in the period that prolonged from the early twentieth century to the mid-twentieth century. No doubt, such a historical terrain is an immense and multifaceted subject that could hardly be completely captured within the scope of a doctoral dissertation. What this dissertation does is discerning and examining the themes related to Abrams's and Perkins's positions within the political and educational discussions

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[49] Scott Henderson defined "biography" as the historical methodology pursued in his doctoral dissertation. Henderson's dissertation focuses on "most important episodes of Abrams's life" and offers "biographical sections (that) attempt to illustrate how Abrams's temperament and personal characteristics either aided or hindered him in his professional endeavors." See, Henderson, 1996, 8-10. Joanne Patricia Scott's doctoral dissertation is a biographical study on Perkins. Scott placed a special emphasis on Perkins's educational practices in the "Philadelphia School," the publicly known name of the University of Pennsylvania GSFA. See, Joanne P. Scott, "Origins of Excellence: The Practical Ethos of G. Holmes Perkins" (PhD diss., University of Pennsylvania, 2004).

that occupied the period under examination. Within this framework, it points to the strands of change ongoing in the fields of higher education and architectural education.

The examination covered official documents and reports, biographies, articles, books, proceedings and thesis and dissertations. A special emphasis is placed on two reports that are cornerstones in the foundation of METU Faculty of Architecture: (1) Abrams's report titled "The Need for Training and Education for Housing and Planning," and (2) "Report on the Establishment of a School for the Teaching of Architecture and Community Planning in Turkey," the principle author of which was Perkins.

An archival survey conducted at the Grand National Assembly of Turkey provided access to governmental documents on the agreements between the UN and the Government of Turkey, the discussions convened between the representatives of political parties on the foundation of METU and the legislative documents prepared for METU.

Interviews conducted by the author with scholars including Prof. Dr. Thomas B. A. Godfrey, Prof. Dr. Kemal Aran, Prof. Dr. İnci Aslanoğlu, Prof. Dr. Gönül Evyapan and Prof. Dr. Sevgi Aktüre helped to grasp, from insider points of view, a flourishing educational environment in the founding years of METU Faculty of Architecture and the contribution of international experts to this newly established institution.[50]

The thesis research addressed a literature on the role of education in development strategies, technical assistance policies of the UN and the US and related developments in the field of higher education in America in the postwar period. A literature on new orientations in architectural education in America in the mid-twentieth century is also covered. This provided important information on the relationship between changing demands of the society, changing role and responsibilities of the architect and impending demands upon schools of architecture in that period. Particular emphasis is placed on the proccedings of the annual meetings of the leading professional and educational organizations of the period, like

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[50] These interviews were based on the topic of the educational principles that were influential on the foundation of METU Faculty of Architecture and the formation of its architecture program. They help better understand the personal perspectives and opinions of former students and scholars who were involved in the foundation period and institutional development in the following decades and who are still active in the fields of architectural education and urban design education.

the Association of Collegiate Schools of Architecture (ACSA) and the American Institute of Architects (AIA). These discussions shed light on diversifying perspectives of academicians and professional practitioners and the varying orientations of schools of architecture regarding the goals, content and methods of architectural education.

A review of literature on the history of education in the early twentieth and mid-twentieth century, with a special emphasis on progressive pedagogies and theories of education, helped to delineate the broader educational contexts of the ideas and ideals that informed the debates over the problems of architectural education between the 1930s and 1960s in America.

1.5   Structure of the Study

The discussion is structured within five chapters. Chapter 2 is titled as "The US and UN Perspectives on Technical Assistance to Developing Countries in the Changing Political and Educational Trajectories of the Twentieth Century." It focuses on the US and UN perspectives on technical assistance to developing countries in the changing political and educational trajectories of the mid-twentieth century. A comprasion is made between the underlying concerns of technical assistance policies of the US and UN. Special emphasis is placed on the influence of John Dewey on discussions of democracy and democratic education, which is considered as highly relevant for exploring the motives behind technical assistance policies of the period.

Chapter 3, titled "The Perspective of Charles Abrams: Education, Democracy and Urban Development," examines the professional and academic positions of Abrams within the changing political and educational trajectories of the mid-twentieth century. By concentrating on the ideals that framed Abrams's viewpoint, the third chapter re-contextualizes the foundation of METU Faculty of Architecture into a broader framework of the interdependence of education, democracy and urban development. In the last part of Chapter 3, the examination of Abrams's ideas and practices aims to address the question of why he was recognized as a "reflective practitioner."

The examination of the educational ideals that shaped Perkins's position within new orientations in the field of architectural education in the mid-twentieth century, frames Chapter 4, titled "The Perspective of G. Holmes Perkins: Architectural Education in a Changing World." This chapter focuses on the METU project envisioned by Perkins. It starts with an examination of the UN mission of the team of experts from the University of Pennsylvania on the subject of the establishment of a school of architecture and community planning in Ankara, Turkey. By focusing on the "Report on the Establishment of a School for the Teaching of Architecture and Community Planning in Turkey," the recommendations of the team of experts are examined. The second part of Chapter 4 re-situates these recommendations into the framework of fundamental changes in the field of architectural education in America in the mid-twentieth century. I intend to highlight Perkins's position with reference to this larger educational framework by focuing on the emphasis he placed on the widening responsibilities and opportunities ahead the architect and the need he saw for a higher level of professional competence in architecture. Perkins's search for a liberal arts basis for architectural education and the principles of the unifying pedagogical approach he inaugurated and carried out in the1940s and 1950s are also examined. Further attention is drawn to an increased emphasis placed on the importance of research in architectural education and the changing research priorities of architectural profession and schools of architecture. Chapter 4 concludes with an attempt to re-contextualize these changes in progress in the field of architectural education into the broader framework of the developments in higher education. The objectives of architectural education are reconsidered within the framework of the the ideals of university education, as they were defined in the mid-twentieth century. A closer look at the educational reform realized at the University of Pennsylvania in the 1950s and 1960s aims at revealing the broader institutional setting of Perkins's contribution as a reformer to Penn's program in architecture.

In Chapter 5, the concluding chapter of this dissertation, the general conclusions and discussions are made. Attention is called to the recurrence of the mid-twentieth century themes that were addressed in this dissertation, in the 21st century educational discourse. The aim is to underline the lasting validity of the educational ideas and ideals that informed Abrams's and Perkins's METU projects for today.

CHAPTER 2

THE US AND UN PERSPECTIVES ON TECHNICAL ASSISTANCE TO DEVELOPING COUNTRIES IN THE CHANGING POLITICAL AND EDUCATIONAL TRAJECTORIES OF THE TWENTIETH CENTURY

Abrams and Perkins whose contributions are the center of attention of this dissertation, were appointed by the UN TAA. As underlined by Abrams, the UN "has been instrumental in setting up the Middle East Technical University in Ankara."[51] However, there are some misinterpretations of the situation, which introduce METU as a project envisioned and realized by the US. As it will be discussed in detail in the following pages of Chapter 2, the US did not play part in the foundation of METU Faculty of Architecture but International Cooperation Agency (ICA) of the US and many other international aid agencies provided financial support for the University in its formative years.

This chapter aims to correct this misinterpretation and shed light on the underlying policies of the UN TAA that informed two UN missions to Turkey, the first headed by Abrams, and the second by Perkins. Chapter 2 examines the UN perspective on technical assistance to developing countries within a broader framework of changing political and educational trajectories of the mid-twentieth century. It compares the UN perspective with the technical assistance policies of the US in relation to its foreign aid strategies. In this comparison, the ideas that were subjects of technical assistance and educational development discussions are addressed. Chapter 2 places a special emphasis on John Dewey's democratic philosophy and theory of education that exerted a profound influence on the political and educational discussions of the period. Attention is called to different interpretations of democracy in America in the Cold War period and their influence on changing educational orientations.

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[51] Charles Abrams, *Housing in the Modern World: Man's Struggle for Shelter in an Urbanizing World* (1966; reprint, London: Faber and Faber Press, 1969), 91.

The article "The United Nations Program for Technical Assistance" by Francis O. Wilcox, who was the Chief of Staff of the Senate Committee on Foreign Relations, Washington D.C., underlined the idea that the technical assistance programs of the US and the UN shared the same goals.[52] Wilcox noted:

> The present intention of the Executive Branch of the United States Government is to develop our own bilateral technical assistance activities at the same time encouraging an expanded UN program. This parallel approach reflects the spirit of President Truman's inaugural address when he invited the co-operation of other countries. 'This should be a co-operative enterprise in which all nations work together through the United Nations and its specialized agencies wherever practicable. It must be a world-wide effort for the achievement of peace, plenty and freedom.'[53]

According to Wilcox, the "co-operation" between the agencies of the US and the UN was not an indisputable one. This "co-operation" could be disturbed when reconciliation of competing interests was not possible. "So far as the United States is concerned," he stated, "the task to be undertaken should be carefully selected in the light of the needs of the participating country and in the light of our national interests."[54]

No doubt, a political impetus in technical assistance policies was evident: the goal of providing and preserving peace and security in the world. World-wide peace and security could be maintained when political, economic and social problems in less developed countries were solved. In these countries, problems entailed by industrialization and urbanization were seen as impediments to the development of democratic societies. However, it should be noted that the major goals that this political impetus had driven differed for the US and the UN. Starting from a common ground, aid policies of the US and UN moved in different directions. In America, the influence of liberal and nationalist (and more conservative) perspectives of political circles on the formation of policies for technical assistance was dominant. Alternatively, a commitment to interdependence between democracy, peace and urban development was the underlying motive behind the UN initiatives for developing countries.

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[52] Francis O. Wilcox, "The United Nations Program for Technical Assistance" *The Annals of the* American *Academy of Political and Social Sciences* 268 (March 1950): 45-53.
[53] Ibid., 47.
[54] Ibid., 52.

2.1 The US Perspective

This part of Chapter 2 focuses on the motives behind US technical assistance programs for developing countries within the framework of foreign aid policies of the US in the mid-twentieth century. It examines the role ascribed to education in technical assistance projects. It underlines the diverging concerns that shaped the cooperation between federal agencies and American universities involved in technical assistance missions to these countries.

2.1.1 American Foreign Aid Policy and Technical Assistance

When the US technical assistance for "underdeveloped"[55] countries is concerned, the influence of Cold War in the 1950s cannot be disregarded. In those decades, an increased concern for Communism as a global threat informed, to a great extent, the US foreign policy. It was no surprise that this political orientation dominated the objectives of foreign aid. These objectives were to be consistent with new orientations in the US foreign policy against the pervasion of Communism as an "authoritarian ideology."[56]

Henderson, who stressed the conflict between different lines of foreign aid policy in the political trajectories of America in Cold War, explained how Abrams was profoundly critical of the way this political approach became a criterion for the selection of countries to aid. He remarked that "to provide housing aid in hopes of preventing a country from succumbing to Communism" and "to deny aid simply because a nation had already adopted socialism or

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[55] The term "underdeveloped" is commonly used in a substantial literature that exists on the technical assistance policies of the US for the so-called third world countries. This makes apparent the ideological and political background of the American perspective towards these countries. The discussions in relation to the Point Four Program, which was developed and announced by President Truman on January 20, 1949, deserve a special attention. In March 1950, *The Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Sciences* published a special issue on the theme of "Aiding Underdeveloped Areas Abroad." This issue exposed varying ideas on the objectives of Point Four with regard to underdeveloped areas of the world. See, *The Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Sciences* 268, *Aiding Underdeveloped Areas Abroad* (March 1950): 1-182. In July 1950, another issue of the *The Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Sciences* was devoted to a discussion on the achievements and failures of the Point Four Program. See, *The Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Sciences* 270, *Formulating a Point Four Program* (July 1950): 1-94.

[56] Samuel P. Hayes, "Point Four in United States Foreign Policy," *The Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Sciences* 268 (March 1950): 29.

aligned itself with the Soviet Union" were seen as valid criteria for foreign aid.[57] In other words, the development of a country in economic or social terms would be supported only if that country was to align itself with the US in political terms and become an ally of the US, against the Soviet Union. Thus, the US foreign aid policies aimed less the economic and social advancement of a country than the establishment and preservation of political stability in favor of prevailing political power of the US. Henderson pointed to a widespread belief in the 1950s that "whatever undermined the appeal of Communism necessarily strengthened democracy."[58] He went on to argue that to be recruited as a UN expert was not welcomed in America in the Cold War decades. UN experts were regarded as agents of socialism or of the Soviet Union.[59]

As pointed out by Henderson, the foundation of METU exposed a remarkable case in which the differences between the concerns of US and UN policy makers and administrators became apparent. US officials had a negative attitude towards the foundation of a new university in Ankara. This was explained by Abrams as follows:

> Official experts from the United States had considerable influence in Turkey thanks to the millions of dollars behind their advice, but UN missions got no cooperation from them either in money or in sympathetic interest. There was in fact a hostility among ICA officials to the idea of a UN-sponsored project that either emanated or was carried over into the State Department in Washington. In any event, a competitive feeling was manifest and persisted for years after the University had begun to function…[60]

In his book titled *Türk Yükseköğretiminde Bir Yeniliğin Tarihi: Barakadan Kampüse 1954-64* Arif T. Payaslıoğlu underlined this point, too.[61] Payaslıoğlu stressed the endeavors for supplying foreign financial aid for the foundation of METU and the negative accounts of ICA. He remarked that ICA was not pleased with the decision for the foundation of a university in Ankara via the UN and was unwilling to coordinate with the UN in giving financial support to this project. He explained that William Edward -- an officer in the

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[57] Henderson, 2000, "Cold War, the United Nations, and Technical Assistance," 190.
[58] Ibid., 187.
[59] Henderson underlined that UN experts could even be investigated by the FBI. See, Ibid., 175.
[60] Abrams, 1969, 203.
[61] For more information on the initiatives for supplying financial aid for the establishment of METU by the UN and ICA, see Arif T. Payaslıoğlu, *Türk Yükseköğretiminde Bir Yeniliğin Tarihi: Barakadan Kampüse 1954-64* (A History of an Innovation in Turkish Higher Education: From Barracks to Campus 1954-64) (Ankara: Middle East Technical University, 1996), 25-39.

American Embassy in Ankara, known as "General Riley" -- supported the idea that to establish an institute as part of the existing universities, like Ankara University or Istanbul Technical University, would help to provide immediate practical solutions for existing problems in Turkey. For General Riley this would be more rational than establishing a new and independent university.[62] Riley's position was on target of Godfrey, the first Acting Dean of METU Faculty of Architecture, who remarked that during the three years of his stay at Ankara, ICA provided no financial support for METU.[63] Later in 1957, Godfrey noted, the financial support of the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) was obtained for this newly founded university.

The literature on foreign aid by the US to "underdeveloped" countries in the mid-twentieth century mainly stresses the close relationship between foreign aid programs and foreign policy. The role of educational development in the US technical assistance projects can better be understood in the light of this relationship.

This was the central theme of Edward S. Mason's book *Foreign Aid and Foreign Policy* in which he inquired the roles of "a disinterested desire to promote the economic development of poorer countries" and "the security of the United States" in foreign aid programs of the US.[64] In Mason's view, accelerating economic development in these countries by assisting them financially was evidently one of the major goals of these programs. However, economic aid also served for promoting the national interests and protecting the national security of the US. Therefore, foreign aid was "an instrument of foreign policy" and the objectives of technical assistance executed as part of foreign aid programs were essentially political.[65] Edward W. Weidner's article "Sponsors and Advantages of Technical Assistance Abroad" similarly highlighted the political impetus of technical assistance initiatives by the US governmental agencies: "Technical assistance is a part of the United States foreign

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[62] Ibid., 29.
[63] Godfrey visited METU Faculty of Architecture in 2006, at the 50th anniversary of its foundation and the author had an opportunity to conduct an interview with him. Thomas B. A. Godfrey, interview by author, 9 June 2006, Ankara, Middle East Technical University Faculty of Architecture, tape recording.
[64] Edward S. Mason, *Foreign Aid and Foreign Policy* (New York and Evanston: Harper & Row, Publishers, 1964), 30 and 33.
[65] Mason called attention to the relationship "between development assistance and economic development and between economic development and its political and social consequences." See, Ibid., 3-5.

policy, closely interwoven with economic and military aid as well as the general position of the United States in each region and country of the world."[66]

The political developments in the postwar period and in the Cold War decades that followed it were influential on the US policies of technical assistance.[67] The national priorities of the US that influenced the direction of international relations in the postwar and Cold War years shaped the US aid for development as well.

In the postwar years, the focus of the US technical assistance turned toward so-called "underdeveloped countries" as a primary concern of foreign aid. At this point, the critical question is why these countries were significant for the US. No doubt the answer of this question covers a range of political and economic concerns that shaped international relations of the US in the mid-twentieth century, which is out of the scope of this study. The purpose of this part of the dissertation is not to cover these political and economic perspectives, but to understand the motivations underneath the growing interest in developing countries on the part of the US technical assistance programs.

An effort to reveal these motivations has been made by Cummins E. Speakman. In his book *International Exchange in Education* Speakman stated "more than any previous war in history, World War II mixed people, bred curiosity about others, and developed the feeling of 'one world'."[68] World War II seems to led nations recognize the fact that their initiatives for maintaining their own development and security could not be considered in isolation from the rest of the world. The result was a growing concern for "international relations" that would be based on cooperation for the mutual benefit of countries. Stability and a common understanding, in contrast to disorder and disparity, were preconditions for attaining mutual benefits. "[P]lans for cultural and educational cooperation were part of all peace plans at the

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[66] Edward W. Weidner, "Sponsors and Advantages of Technical Assistance Abroad," in *The World Role of Universities* (New York, San Francisco, Toronto: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1962), 176.
[67] For an overview of the influence of World War II and Cold War on American foreign aid policies, see Harry John P. Arnold, *Aid for Development; A Political and Economic Study* (London: The Bodley Head, 1966); Michael K. O'Leary, *The Politics of American Foreign Aid* (New York: Atherton Press, 1967).
[68] Cummins E. Speakman, "Educational Exchange in International Relations" in *International Exchange in Education* (New York: The Center for Applied Research in Education, Inc., 1966), 16.

end of the war," Speakman noted, "not just for humanitarian reasons but as an essential part of the future prevention of war."[69]

The escalating attention to the significance of international relations played a formative role in foreign policy of the US at a time when the destructive effects of World War II was still at issue and the country was currently entering into the Cold War. For the US, the onset of the Cold War was marked by the threat of communist expansion among "underdeveloped" nations. Under these conditions, foreign development programs were seen as instruments for preventing communist inclinations in these nations. There aroused "a growing new dimension in the conduct of American foreign relations which includes activities in education, information, science, culture, and many kinds of technical assistance."[70] The promise of educational development in the "third world" countries was of paramount importance. As it has been emphasized earlier in this chapter, these countries were seen to be threatened by the diffusion of Communism and education was seen to play a key role in the training of individuals who would resist Communist ideology and contribute to "the attainment of stable development" in their countries.[71] In a report prepared by the Committee on the University and World Affairs, titled "the Committee on the University and World Affairs," it was underlined that "at the root of the many problems of underdeveloped -- or any modern country -- lies the need for an educated leadership and more trained and competent manpower."[72] It was contended that the development of qualified human capital would be a means to train intellectual leaders for future who would stand against totalitarian regimes, and act parallel to the foreign policy interests of the US.

In his doctoral dissertation titled "Academic Ambassadors in the Middle East: The University Contract Program in Turkey and Iran, 1950-1970," Richard P. Garlitz touched upon this point and argued that "technical assistance served as a vehicle to entice developing

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[69] Ibid., "Programs of the United States Government," 33.
[70] Walter H. C. Laves, "University Leadership in Transnational Educational Relationships," in *Universities… and Development Assistance Abroad*, ed. Richard A. Humphrey (Washington D.C.: The American Council on Education, 1967), 18.
[71] Richard A. Humphrey, "The Plane of Government-Academic Dialogue: An Introduction," in *Universities… and Development Assistance Abroad*, ed. Richard A. Humphrey (Washington D.C.: The American Council on Education, 1967), 3.
[72] J. L. Morrill, ed., *The University and World Affairs: Report of the Committee on the University and World Affairs* (New York: the Ford Foundation, 1960), 39.

nations away from Soviet influence."[73] Garlitz related this technical assistance approach to "militarization of American foreign assistance policy" that was activated by "the outbreak of the Korean War in June 1950."[74] Consistent with Speakman's line of argument, Garlitz remarked that these policies were shaped by the intention to prevent the spread of Communism in "underdeveloped" countries and to promote "development along the American model" as a political imperative.[75] Apparently, the claim of "stable development" for third world nations was based on such a model. It is hard to say that the US technical assistance initiatives were disinterested attempts; neither was educational development an end in itself. It was an instrument of the US foreign policy of the mid-twentieth century. As underlined by Mason, foreign aid was not merely "a humanitarian effort to assist the underdeveloped world without regard to political considerations."[76]

In recognition of the fact that education could play a significant role in the development of underdeveloped countries in accordance with the US foreign policy, US governmental agencies became confident that foreign aid could not be limited merely to economic aid. It was to promote educational assistance, too. In this respect, they saw cooperation with institutions of higher education necessary. By the 1950s, technical assistance programs turned their focus toward the field of higher education and leading American universities became increasingly involved in the US technical assistance to underdeveloped countries.[77]

The 1960 report by the Committee on the University and World Affairs deserves to be cited once more. In this report it was underlined that "education has taken a new and prominent place alongside military, political and economic affairs," calling attention to "the important area of international relations where higher education and foreign policy come together."[78] In a similar vein, Richard A. Humphrey, who was the Director of Commission on International Education of American Council on Education, remarked that the US government "discovered in American universities a useful instrument of change in underdeveloped

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[73] Richard P. Garlitz, "Academic Ambassadors in the Middle East: The University Contract Program in Turkey and Iran, 1950-1970" (PhD diss., The College of Arts and Sciences of Ohio University, 2008), 30.
[74] Ibid., 49.
[75] Ibid., 17.
[76] Mason, 1964, 51.
[77] See, Morrill, 1960.
[78] Ibid., 38 and 37.

countries."[79] This discovery paved the way for governmental initiatives to integrate universities to educational development programs. In Humphrey's view, it was the context of "world political, economic and social ferment" that established a ground for cooperation between governmental agencies like Foreign Operations Administration (FOA), ICA and United States Agency for International Development (AID) and American universities.[80] He considered that this cooperation could hardly be dissociated from long-term political purposes of US technical assistance and, in essence, aimed at the achievement of a political "stabilization" in underdeveloped countries.

It should be highlighted that there was a postwar pressure on American higher education pertaining to the growing significance of "world affairs" and "international education." This became apparent in the involvement of American universities in the educational assistance projects to underdeveloped countries.[81] Before examining the priorities of educational assistance for American universities, it may be well to insert a short preface on the institutionalization of the cooperation between the US government and universities. The following part briefly mentions key governmental organizations that took part of this cooperation.

FOA (1953-1956) played a great role in the institutionalization of the cooperation between the US government and universities. Resulted from the "Presidential Reorganization Plan Seven of 1 June 1953 which folded all foreign assistance into a single new agency," FOA promoted the involvement of American universities to foreign education assistance and initiated a university contract program.[82] The first head of the FOA was Harold Stassen who was also a consultant for the US originated financial aid to METU in the late 1950s.[83] Garlitz underlined, "Stassen saw great potential in forging technical assistance linkages between

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[79] Humphrey, 1967, 1.
[80] Ibid., 4.
[81] For more information on the growing interest of American universities in education's relationship with world affairs and international relations, see Howard Eugene Wilson, *Universities and World Affairs* (New York: Carnegie Endowment for International Peace, 1951); Howard E. Wilson and Florence Wilson, *American Higher Education and World Affairs* (Washington, D. C.: American Council on Education, 1963); Education and World Affairs, *The University Looks Abroad; Approaches World Affairs at Six American Universities* (New York: Walker and Company, 1965).
[82] Garlitz, 2008, 30-31.
[83] A more detailed examination of the involvement of the FOA and other US foreign aid agencies to METU and of Stassen's poisition in the foundation process is made in the following parts of this dissertation.

American universities and foreign institutions" through which "mutual cultural benefits" could be produced.[84] He argued, however, that consistent with the US foreign policy, Stassen's practices were in support of the idea that technical aid would be provided to countries who would be willing to pursue the political orientation of the US. According to Weidner, intense criticism of both academic and the foreign assistance communities against Stassen's personal decisions in addition to a growing public disbelief in the potential contribution of universities to technical assistance in a foreign country resulted in the dissolution of FOA and, as an alternative, the establishment of ICA.[85]

Headed by James Hollister, ICA (1955-1961) continued the university contract program, but in a more conservative way.[86] Garlitz pointed out that when foreign assistance was concerned, Hollister saw "national security" more essential than "international development."[87] He was skeptical of universities' contribution to technical assistance. In Weidner's view, the ICA failed "to recognize that universities can potentially do much to relieve the shortages of personnel and know-how in technical assistance through their regular and special teaching and research activities."[88] He argued that the problems in ICA-university partnership were the result of ICA's intervention into universities' technical assistance activities that precluded the achievement of their developmental goals.

AID (since 1961) was the successor of ICA. Different from ICA, however, it promoted university involvement in education assistance to developing countries.[89] Priority was given to the positive impact of universities in development assistance through their "full institutional resources."[90] In the words of Weidner, "the new AID program envisages greatly

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[84] Garlitz, 2008, 32.
[85] See Weidner, 1962, 176.
[86] Ibid. There were a number of American universities that participated to educational development assistance to developing countries under contracts with ICA. American professors served as consultants either for governmental agencies or for institutions of higher education of the host country. For more information of international university activities under ICA contracts, see Weidner, 1962.
[87] Garlitz, 2008, 36.
[88] Weidner, 1962, "Sponsors and Advantages of Technical Assistance Abroad," 282.
[89] Speakman remarked that, AID held "the foreign aid and technical assistance programs of the United States which, although existing before World War II, began with the Marshall Plan in Europe and the Point Four program in Greece and Turkey." See, Speakman, 1966, 48.
[90] David E. Bell, foreword to *AID and the Universities*, A Report from Education and World Affairs in Cooperation with the Agency for International Development (New York: Education and World Affairs), ix.

increased assistance by universities and other contractors in highly sensitive areas such as host-country development programming…"[91] In his article "Formation of Technical Assistance Programs Abroad," he extended his opinion on the facilitator role of host government by remarking that the emphasis in technical assistance was to be "on a host government's general development and on channeling financial, commodity and human resource development to help it carry the plan out."[92] The shift from the host government towards higher education institutions in the host country, in the 1950s, was addressed by Garlitz: "Both the government and university leaders agreed that the optimal role for universities in foreign assistance was the development of educational institutions and education-based programs."[93] Thus, university contract program became an effective instrument of channeling the resources of American universities to newly established educational institutions in third world countries.

As has been emphasized, by the mid-twentieth century American universities became increasingly interested in world affairs and international educational activities. Technical assistance programs for developing countries under the auspices of the US government became appealing for the universities as a consequence of their growing concern for the realities of life and changing conditions of the world. Contracted through US governmental agencies, scholars from numerous American universities went to developing countries to provide technical assistance. This was a result of changing educational atmosphere of the postwar period and of recognition among American universities that "world affairs" could not be merely a political concern.[94] The conditions of the period and international relations could not be disregarded at a time when the role of universities in a changing world was to be redefined.[95] The challenge ahead was explained as follows:

> The American university is caught in a rush of events that shakes its traditions of scholarship and tests its ability to adapt and grow. The United States is just awakening to the fact that world affairs are not the concern of the diplomat and the soldier alone. They involve the businessman, the farmer, the laborer, the economist, the lawyer -- indeed, every citizen. And we are discovering that the world includes vast regions and peoples we have little known before.

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[91] Weidner, 1962, "Long-term Goals in Technical Assistance Abroad," 281.
[92] Weidner, 1962, "Formation of Technical Assistance Programs Abroad," 218.
[93] Garlitz, 2008, 12.
[94] Morrill, 1960, 1.
[95] Ibid.

This *American awakening* has come along with the upsurge of demands for independence and economic advancement among hundreds of millions abroad who have known little of either. In their own awakening they see *education as indispensable to their quest for growth and dignity*.

At the center of these new educational demands, all the more pressing because they often coincide with the policy goals of our government stands the American University. It is challenged to meet the needs of our own people for a far better knowledge and understanding of others. It is challenged at the same time to help meet the needs of emerging nations for the creation and rapid improvement of whole educational systems.[96]

The "expanded activities" of American universities covered the following issues:

In the postwar years American universities, responding to the nation's new involvement in world affairs, have taken on many new and expanded activities. These include new courses on Asia, Africa and the Soviet Union, and United States relations with them; research on economic, political, and social development of the newly independent nations; foreign students in large number; and special overseas projects to help build and strengthen educational institutions in other countries.

… To meet the challenge of their potential role in world affairs adequately, they now have an historic opportunity to undertake, individually and in cooperation, a major effort as institutions. They have the responsibility, in the best university tradition, to make a contribution which no other institutions can: to enlarge our horizons as a free society, to help educate the leaders and help build the educational foundations of the newer nations, and to cooperate with educational institutions in other nations in order to help create a free international society. These tasks require the substantial participation of the best American university competence and the pioneering of new academic traditions.[97]

An increased emphasis on international relations informed not only the attempts to redefine foreign aid policies, but also the activities of institutions of higher education in America, which became more and more concerned with the developments in other parts of the world.

"In order to educate their students for the world of today and tomorrow and to carry out their tasks of advancing human understanding," John W. Gardner argued, "universities must relate themselves to the rest of the world."[98] Their growing interest in understanding other areas

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[96] Ibid., emphasis added.
[97] Ibid., 2.
[98] John W. Gardner, "The AID-University Relationship," in *AID and the Universities*, ed. John W. Gardner (New York: Education and World Affairs, 1964), 4.

and cultures of the world also paved the way for the establishment of numerous international programs in American universities.[99]

These were the prominent aspects of the educational atmosphere in which the university contract program was established and American universities served the US government through technical assistance programs. That the US government received many advantages from universities' involvement is self-evident. It is also evident that, for universities, contributing to technical assistance in developing countries opened new horizons and gave the opportunity to play part in the shaping of international relations. In their book *American Higher Education and World Affairs* Howard E. Wilson and Florence Wilson remarked, "their participation in the conduct of a foreign policy encompassing their scholarly and professional specialties increased the participation of higher education generally in the actualities of international affairs."[100]

Nevertheless, it should be emphasized that the priorities of foreign policy were more influential upon government-university partnership than the intellectual priorities of American universities. In the words of Walter H.C. Laves, the intention of "achieving a deeper American involvement in the worldwide development of educational, scientific, technological, and broadly cultural resources" played a major role in foreign aid, in general, and government-university partnership, in particular.[101] Richard A. Humphrey commented on the inescapable political interference in government-university partnership in technical assistance: "Everything a university or a scholar does in a foreign country under government subvention is "political" in import." [102] No doubt, Garlitz was thinking on the same plane when he used the phrase "academic ambassadors for the United States" for the university personnel who contributed to technical assistance to developing countries as "technical advisors."[103]

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[99] The Institute of Research on Overseas Programs at Michigan State University, the program of International Studies and World Affairs at State University of New York, the School of International Affairs at Columbia University, and the Russian Research Center at Harvard University were examples of the education programs developed in American universities in the postwar period. For more information, see Wilson, 1951; Weidner, 1962; Wilson, 1963.
[100] Wilson, and Wilson, 1963, "Higher Education in the Twentieth-Century Society," 7.
[101] Laves, 1967, 18.
[102] Humphrey, 1967, 14.
[103] Garlitz, 2008, 13.

The US government and American universities approached to the issue from different perspectives. Humphrey pointed out that "the American ambassador or the AID officer conceives of educational assistance only as one segment of abroad United States support pattern," which "itself is conditioned, in turn, by political considerations within a particular foreign country or region, and it is evolved with the national interest both of the United States and the "host" country in view."[104] On the other hand, for American universities "the interest of scholarship" was to be an essential concern in re-defining the objectives of educational assistance and the means of achieving these objectives.[105] Academicians called attention to the possible contributions of "an emerging world of intellectual community" to proper development of all nations.[106] In Humphrey's view, "experience in educational development assistance abroad could contribute to imaginative strengthening of international intellectual communication in future."[107] In his essay "University Leadership in Transnational Educational Relationships" Laves remarked that in their involvement to development assistance to third world countries, "the universities are committed to the values inherent in teaching and research."[108] These values, he argued, were "essentially timeless in nature and are the unifying concern of scholars and teachers, not only within the United States, but in the world community."[109]

In the 1950s there were a number of technical assistance projects that were held in Turkey by American universities, under contracts with governmental agencies such as FOA, ICA and AID. For instance, New York University was involved in a public administration program for Ankara with the aim of strengthening the education and practices of public administration.[110] Technical assistance work of Georgetown University, initiated in 1954, aimed at training Turkish personnel in English by sending them to America.[111] The task of Spring Garden Institute of Philadelphia, for an ICA financed program initiated in 1955, was "to bolster Turkey's automobile repair and maintenance schools."[112] Michigan State University (MSU)'s involvement in AID-university contract programs for Turkey covered

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[104] Humphrey, 1967, 9.
[105] Morrill, 35.
[106] Gardner, 1964, "The AID-University Relationship," 6.
[107] Humphrey, 1967.
[108] Laves, 1967, 26.
[109] Ibid.
[110] Weidner, 1962, "Achievements of University Technical Assistance Abroad," 249.
[111] Payaslıoğlu, 1996, 32.
[112] Weidner, 1962, 161-62.

sending Turkish faculty members to MSU for studying business administration and economics, assisting the Ministry of Education "in transforming a system of academies of economic and commercial sciences" and later "in creating a central planning, research, and coordination office (Planlama, Araştırma, ve Koordinasyon Dairesi, PAKD)."[113]

In the contracts between US governmental agencies and universities for technical assistance to developing countries, there was a search for balance between "national interests" and "interests in scholarship." Nevertheless, the balance could be tipped in favor of the priorities of the US governmental agency or of the host government. Such was the case with the technical assistance for Turkey in which University of Nebraska under an ICA contract assisted the foundation of Atatürk University in Erzurum. Okyar, who was the rector of Atatürk University from 1965 to 1966, gave details about the realization of this educational project.[114] In Garlitz's view, the main problems that endured in the cooperation between ICA (later AID), Turkish Government and University of Nebraska from 1955 to 1968 stemmed from "the legal structure of the university" and "its relationship to the Ministry of Education."[115] The technical assistance history of Atatürk University is illustrative of situations wherein the role the host government played is a "restricted" one, in Weidner's words, since "governmental approval had to be obtained on almost all matters requiring additional expenditures, such as professorship, departments or institutes."[116]

The problems in the US originated assistance for Turkish institutions of higher education were at issue during the foundation process of METU. But in that case, different from the AID-university contract employed in the foundation of Atatürk University, no contract

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[113] Garlitz, 2008, 233 and 214.
[114] "The Atatürk University, situated in Erzurum in northeastern Turkey, about 300 km. from the Soviet border, was set up by law in 1957 and began classes in November 1958. It is named for the founder of the Turkish republic because Atatürk had indicated several times before his death a desire to establish a university in eastern Turkey which would play a key role in the cultural and economic development of that backward region of the country.
In 1954, the Turkish Government approached the American Government with a request for technical assistance in establishing such a university in northeastern Turkey. It was agreed then to create an institution on the lines of the United States land-grant universities, which would take an active role in regional economic development and in agricultural extension. An agreement was concluded with the United States Government, the University of Nebraska and the Turkish Government, according to which the University of Nebraska would provide technical assistance to the Atatürk University for a period of 10 years…" See, Okyar, Winter 1968, 216.
[115] See, Garlitz, 2008, 149.
[116] Weidner, 1962, "Formation of Technical Assistance Programs Abroad," 218.

between a US agency and an American university was at work. The initiatives for establishing a cooperation between FOA (and later ICA), the Turkish Government and the University of Pennsylvania resulted unsuccessfully because of a number of reasons. As it was emphasized earlier in this chapter, Abrams and the team of experts headed by Perkins were appointed by the UN TAA and acted as facilitators in the foundation of METU. Thus, the UN could participate in the project.[117] It should also be underlined that during the foundation process, Turkish Government requested financial aid from FOA (later ICA was involved instead) for funding travel and subsistence costs of the Committee from the University of Pennsylvania and the salaries of foreign instructors and for providing equipment required for education. However, the relationship between ICA (after FOA was abolished), the Turkish Government and the UN advisors was an uneasy one. The US agency was unwilling to accept the UN involvement into the project and disagreed with the Turkish Government on the status of the institution. As a result, the US aid could not be received for the foundation and, hence, the opening of the institution had to be delayed. Ersoy underlines the fact that no American funds were allocated in the foundation of METU and this fact, in his view, challenges the widespread belief in Turkey that METU was founded by Americans.[118]

An effort to explore in more detail the attempts to acquire American aid for the foundation of METU was made by Payaslıoğlu. He pointed out that after FOA was abolished in May 1955 and its head Stassen was unseated, the outlook of American officials to the foundation of a achool of architecture and community planning in Ankara changed negatively.[119] M. L. Dyton, who was the head of FOA's Ankara office, resigned. General Riley was appointed as the head of new ICA office. General Riley was discontented with the role played by the UN officials and aimed at keeping them out of the process by making a contract with the University of Pennsylvania and Turkish government for financial aid to the foundation of the institution. However, in General Riley's view, the technical assistance of America in Turkey should be directed towards improving the standards of existing schools in the country. Instead of establishing an independent school, he maintained, the proposed school could be

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[117] For more information on the key role played by UN TAA in the foundation of METU, see Abrams, 1969; Payaslıoğlu, 1996.
[118] See, Ersoy, 2009, 620.
[119] Payaslıoğlu, 1996, 26-27.

founded as part of Ankara University or Istanbul University.[120] ICA was willing to provide aid not to the foundation of an independent school that was envisaged to be of university rank, but to the foundation of a research institute. As underlined by Payaslıoğlu, the Turkish Government insisted on the foundation of a university with or without the financial aid of the US agency. As a result, the initiatives for the US aid ended unsuccessfully, and the institution could not be opened in November 1955 as it was planned.[121] Reed's account was in support of Payaslıoğlu's position:

> … Anticipated external support from the precursor of the USAID did not materialize in the amount or form desired in time to carry out the plan that autumn, although professor Loschetter and William Harris from Yale University spent several weeks in Turkey trying to establish the Institute. Disagreement between the Turkish and American governments led to withdrawal by the latter of the proposed aid.[122]

In the founding years, the Turkish Government played a key role in financing most of operating costs of the University. METU acquired considerable amount of funding from the UN as well.[123] There were a number of other foreign agencies that supported METU financially; to name a few, the British and Netherlands governments, the Baghdad Pact (the predecessor of CENTO) and CENTO (Central Treaty Organization).[124] The US aid for

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[120] Ibid., 33-34.
[121] Ibid., 31-32.
[122] Reed, Summer 1975, 222.
[123] The approximate grant by the UN for the foreign staff and an initial six fellowships for future staff of the university was $ 90,000 in 1955-56. In 1959, METU received $ 1.5 million from a UN Special Fund Program "to strenghten its faculties of architecture and engineering by providing experts, fellowships, and equipment through UNESCO." From 1966 to 1971, $ 2.6 million was granted for supplementary allocation and extensions. For more information, see Reed, Summer 1975, 226-227.
[124] A grant of £45,000 to the University for the Department of Physics and for the establishment of the Department of Electrical Engineering was provided by the British Government; 2,500,000 T.L. was provided by the Baghdad Pact; a loan of $1,500,000 for a Technical Training College in association with the University was provided by the Council of Europe. Teaching and laboratory equipment assistance was provided to the schools of Engineering and Arts and Sciences by CENTO. Several experts were provided by the Netherlands Government. In the academic year of 1960-61, a specialist was funded by the Ford Foundation. In cooperation with Turkish Government, USAID helped establish a fund for scholarship to students of METU -- "President John F. Kennedy Memorial Scholarhsip Fund." See, *Middle East Technical University Catalog 1959-60*. Vol. 3. (Ankara: Middle East Technical University, September, 1959), 16; *Middle East Technical University Catalog 1961-62*. Vol. 4 (Ankara: Middle East Technical University, October, 1961), 8; *Middle East Technical University Catalog 1965-66*. Vol. 8. (Ankara: Middle East Technical University, October, 1966), 27.

METU was obtained later, by the 1960s. Ford Foundation and AID provided one private and one public support, in the forms of grant, loan and scholarship.[125]

2.2 The UN Perspective

In this part of Chapter 2, the focus shifts towards the UN's technical assistance policies. The democratic principles that were pursued in assisting urbanization processes in developing countries are underlined. This part examines the proposed role of research, education and training facilities in urban development, which was a determinant of technical assistance policies pursued by the UN TAA.

2.2.1 The United Nations Technical Assistance Policies for Developing Countries

The UN policies for technical assistance to developing countries can be better understood in the light of the emphasis given to the notions of democracy and equality. From the perspective of the UN, international co-operation was key to achieve success in the "the economic and social advancement of all people."[126] It was considered that a stable peace in the world could not be maintained unless the gap between the poor and the rich countries was bridged and the standards of living in less developed countries were raised.

The establishment of the UN Technical Assistance Program was based on the efforts to make such an international co-operation more systematic and comprehensive. This program was organized as an international initiative aimed at achieving a co-ordination of efforts for assisting developing countries in their fight against the economic, social and environmental problems entailed by urbanization. Starting from 1946, this program has provided technical assistance "when the General Assembly decided to instruct the Economic and Social Council

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[125] In June 1960, Ford Foundation gave a funding for Edwin S. Burdell, who was appointed as the "interim and consulting president" of METU. By September 1969, the Ford Foundation had made grants, $ 3,544,000 in total, to assist the University's academic studies, "mainly in the sciences and for training in the English language." Apart from the Ford Foundation as a private agency, AID, as a governmental agency of the US, gave financial support for the University. In the agency of AID, Cornell University was appointed to assist the Faculty of Administrative Sciences of METU in 1961. In 1967 AID made "a loan of $ 4.5 million and a grant of $2.5 million to assist all METU facilities and the library with experts, fellowships, equipment, and books." See Reed, Summer 1975, 226-227.
[126] David Owen, "The United Nations Program for Technical Assistance," *The Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Sciences* 270 (July, 1950): 109.

to study ways and means of furnishing, in-cooperation with the specialized agencies, and expert advice to member nations which desire assistance."[127] On 20 January, 1949, the United States President Truman made an inaugural address to expand the ongoing technical assistance initiatives of the UN "toward an expanded technical assistance program" that would address the "underdeveloped" areas of the world.[128] This technical assistance program aimed at nourishing from "the resources, skills, and experiences of fifty-nine nations, each of which, in its own way, can make its contribution to the common effort."[129] This common effort was defined as "looking at the total problem in terms of the world's over-all needs."[130]

This was the underlying motive behind the UN missions to developing countries by experts who primarily aimed to develop strategies for coping with the overall problem of urbanization. Technical assistance, in the sense envisioned by the UN, intended "a co-operative venture through which technological know-how (including technical advice, technical training, and demonstration equipment) will be supplied to those countries which are ready to move ahead with their own economic development plans, but which need assistance on some of the technical aspects."[131] In this perspective, to provide financial support was not enough by itself. It was envisioned that achieving progress, both in economic and social terms, could not be possible unless people in their native lands were assisted to establish or enhance their own legislative, technical, professional and educational institutions. This was seen as the key to achieve development in a country in the long-term. "Urban development" was the center of attention in formulating strategies for developing countries. Technical experts addressed the economic, social and environmental problems

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[127] Owen, 1950, 111. Owen remarked that the Third Session of the General Assembly approved the joint draft resolution on the technical assistance program on 4 December, 1948. The aims of the program were explained as follows: "(1) to arrange for the organization of international teams consisting experts; (2) to arrange facilities for the training abroad of experts of underdeveloped countries, through the provision of fellowships, for study in those countries or institutions which in the particular fields of study have achieved an advanced level of technical competence; (3) to arrange for the training of local technicians within the underdeveloped countries themselves, by promoting visits of experts in various aspects of economic development, for the purpose of instructing local personnel and for assisting the organization of technical institutions; (4) to provide facilities to assist governments to obtain technical personnel, equipment, supplies, and to arrange for the organization of other services as may be appropriate in the promotion of economic development, including the organization of seminars on special problems and the exchange of current information concerning technical problems of economic development." See, The Third Session of the General Assembly Resolution, December 4, 1948, quoted in Owen, 1950, 112.
[128] Wilcox, 1950, 45.
[129] Ibid., 47.
[130] Ibid.
[131] Ibid., 46-47.

entailed by urbanization in order to fulfill emergent demands on the road to urban development.

Abrams underlined that a growing concern for evolving urban and housing problems in developing countries came to agenda of the UN in the 1950s, which demonstrated itself with the establishment of "a branch on Housing, Building and Planning and its Bureau of Social Affairs."[132] The initiatives of this branch covered the topics of "urban land problems and policies," "community services and facilities in large-scale projects," "tropical housing and research techniques," "stabilized soil construction," financing," "planning of education," "cooperation between Asian countries," and "regional planning and cooperative housing." More emphasis was given to training and education when constructive aid to housing and urbanization was concerned.

From the perspective of the UN, research, training and education facilities played an important role in the long-term development of a country. The ideas of numerous international scholars who worked as technical experts on the subjects of urban development and a general plan for research, education and training make apparent this perspective.

The Fifth Delos Symposium, which was held on July 22-29, 1967, in Athens, was based on the theme of "Setting a Strategy for Development of Human Settlement."[133] This important occasion brought scholars together from different disciplines and all around the world, who were involved in international projects for developing countries. The significance of this symposium for this part of Chapter 2 also derives from Charles Abrams's participation to it and his comments on the foundation of METU in Ankara, presented as a case study in the "strategy of development."

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[132] Abrams, 1969, 91. In 1951, Ernest Weissmann became the Head of the Housing, Building and Planning Brach of the UN.

[133] The Second Athens Ekistics Month was organized by the Athens Center of Ekistics of the Athens Technological Institute in July 1967. Five separate programs took place from July 10, to August 4. Over 250 people from 25 countries attended to the program. Program No: 1 was devoted to the subject of the "Future of Human Settlements," and was attended by 130 people from diverse disciplines, who gave lectures and convened discussions. Charles Abrams, Edmund Bacon, David Bell, Emile Despres, C. A. Doxiadis, Louis Friedland, Buckminster Fuller, Roger Gregoire, Michael Ionides, Reginal Lourie, Edward Mason, Robert Matthew, Margaret Mead, Martin Meyerson, Jerome Monod, Peter Nash, James Oates, Hasan Ozbekhan, James R. Perkins, James Scheuer, Julius Stratton, Arnold Toynbee, Barbara Ward were participants of the final discussion of the symposium.

In this symposium, the critical issue of how to articulate a strategy in order to make positive effects on human settlements was stressed by James R. Perkins. In his view, the specificities of the environment should be recognized and should play part in identifying the priorities of a strategy of development.[134] Later in December 1967, in another symposium convened at the Athens Center of Ekistics, Abrams reiterated the same line of thought when he described that the circumstances confronting different parts of the world should be taken into consideration by a technical expert in order to develop and apply different strategies.[135] For Abrams, success in urban development was due to the recognition and consideration of national and cultural patterns of a country, its social, economic or political background and existing potentialities. Urban problems were seen as interrelated, and, thus, a single project was to be evaluated as part of a development program of a country.

The problems confronting developing countries were manifold, so were expectations from external aid. Under the condition of the multiplicity of problems and needs, education may not be seen as most critical need for development. Improvement in education necessitated considerable costs and intense efforts. Yet, the outcomes of projects cannot be seen immediately. In other words, education may not help to solve urgent problems in a short time. On the other hand, in the long-term, education produces "high-level" human capital by training qualified personnel and professionals who would have a lasting influence upon the development of their country in varying degrees. Education was regarded as an integral part of the plans to create "the vast manpower needed to carry out the strategies" in developing countries.[136] This understanding was consistent with the underlying principle of the UN's conception of technical assistance as it was pointed our by Wilcox: "[T]he main impetus toward development must come from the people of the underdeveloped areas."[137]

From the perspective of the UN, qualified human capital was needed to obtain direct and immediate solutions for less developed countries. This human capital should be specialized on specific skills and professions. The planning of education and training facilities was to be based on a proper identification of the areas in which a lack of human capital was most

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[134] James R. Perkins, "Seven Case Studies in Strategy Development: The Elements of Strategy," *Ekistics* 24, no. 143 (October 1967): 338-339.
[135] Abrams, December 1967, 457-461.
[136] Peter Nash, Gerald Dix, Jacqueline Tyrwhitt and C. C. Benninger, "Need for Research and Experimentation," *Ekistics* 24, no. 143 (October 1967): 362.
[137] Wilcox, March 1950, 47.

critical. The efforts to build educational institutions through which the demand for human capital would be fulfilled would be beneficial. But unless the challenges of urbanization were addressed in education programs, the task of helping a country to achieve its own economic, social or environmental goals could not be completed.

> The main problem is to develop original thinking -- not merely skills. Technical assistance should aim at disappearing as soon as possible. The only way to do this is the long and painful process of boosting local institutions until they can stand on an equal footing with their legs.[138]

Consistent with the above mentioned concerns in outlining a general education plan for developing countries, an essential task of technical assistance projects was defined as the foundation of educational institutions, the recruitment of administrative and teaching staff for newly established universities and the training of native students who would fulfill the technical and professional demands of their country.

H. Peter Oberlander, who was Head of the Department of Community and Regional Planning at the University of British Columbia and also affiliated with the UN as a consultant in the 1960s, continued the same line of argument. Although Oberlander's ideas addressed particularly "planning education" in developing countries, their significance for the present chapter derives from the fact that they reflected the UN's educational policies for developing countries. In Oberlander's view, "the establishment of an appropriate teaching and training program at home" would be more realistic and responsive for a developing country than sending students abroad, especially to American universities, regardless of "whether what we teach and the planning process for which most of our own students are trained is in fact applicable to them."[139] The scheme for the establishment of education programs "at home" should include "exporting teachers and helping young overseas institutions to help themselves in creating indigenous planning education."[140] Oberlander cited the role played by the University of Pennsylvania in "the establishment of a Planning Department in the School of Architecture of Middle East Technical University" as an

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[138] Nash, Dix, Tyrwhitt and Benninger, October 1967, 360.
[139] H. Peter Oberlander, "Planning Education for Newly Independent Countries," *Journal of the American Institute of Planners* 28, no. 2 (May 1962), 116.
[140] Ibid., 121.

example of the projects that was based on above mentioned educational strategy for developing countries.[141]

Governmental support and other means of collaboration with related agencies of the host country were indispensible for success of external aid activities. This was true for educational projects, too. Abrams considered "to identify people and authorities able to maintain the initial momentum" as a perquisite for the realization of the foundation of METU in Ankara.[142]

The emphasis placed on research in the UN's technical assistance deserves a special attention. More research on urban problems was seen as indispensable in order to expand knowledge necessary for the development process and for the creation of more livable human settlements. More importantly, the contribution of carrying out research to the development of methods of critical inquiry and experimentation was emphasized. Research was valued as an integral part of urban development strategies designed.

"Need for Research and Experimentation" was the concluding theme of the report prepared at the end of the Fifth Delos Symposium held in Athens in 1967. In the Delos Report, scholars from all over the world serving as technical advisors concluded that:

> All forms of urban strategy still operate under the severe disadvantage of a general lack of scientific method, data and research -- a fact which also inhibits private citizens and institutions from evaluating the proposals put to them by governments or planners and contributing their own ideas to the process of inventing and building

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[141] A point in Oberlander's statement needs correction. Abrams's mission to Turkey resulted in his proposal for the establishment of a school of architecture and community planning in Ankara, and, later, a team of experts from the University of Pennsylvania SFA was appointed "to advise and to submit proposals to the Government on matters concerning the organization, policy, curriculum and other details relating the establishment of a school for the teaching of architecture and community planning in Turkey." See, Perkins, Loschetter and von Moltke, 23 August 1955, 1. Therefore, the role of the University of Pennsylvania was not limited to the establishment of a planning department, but the establishment of a school of architecture and community planning that would constitute the core of a technical university. Oberlander also mentioned two other projects for the establishment of teaching and training programs in developing countries: Harvard University's assistance in the creation of a new Department of Regional and City Planning at the Bandung Institute of Technology in Indonesia, and University of British Columbia's assistance in establishing, staffing, and supervising an Institute for Community Planning at the Kwame Nkrumah University of Science and Technology at Kumasi, Ghana. See, Ibid.
[142] Charles Abrams, "The Middle East University in Ankara," *Ekistics* 24, no.143 (October 1967): 346.

the urban future. The need has to be underlined for more research institutes in the urban field, more university programs, more exchanges and experimentation on a national and international basis, more coordination of separate activities. And the institutions involved can in turn take on the task of expanding in a systematic way the lamentably small cadre of men and women trained in the ekistic skills of creative urbanism.[143]

Enough had been said to indicate the divergent concerns and objectives of technical assistance initiatives for developing countries pursued by the US and the UN in the mid-twentieth century. An approach to education as a matter of producing well-qualified human capital that was common to both perspectives needs some further elaboration. It should be underlined that human capital was a central theme not only in technical assistance discussions but also in the discourse of educational development in general.

In their book *Education, Manpower and Economic Growth* Frederick Harbison and Charles A. Myers addressed the issue as a matter of "human resource development," which they defined as "the process of increasing the knowledge, skills and capacities of all people in a society."[144] Harbison and Myers argued that this process had "economic," "political," and "social and cultural" dimensions:

> In *economic terms*, it could be described as the accumulation of human capital and its effective investment in the development of an economy. In *political terms*, it prepares people for adult participation in political processes, particularly as citizens in a democracy. From *the social and cultural point of view*, the development of human resource helps people to lead fuller and richer lives, less bound to tradition. In short, the processes of human resource development unlock the door to modernization.[145]

In their view, when education is planned as part of "human resources development" processes, it could fulfill the need "to provide the knowledge, the skills and incentives required by a productive economy" and "to preserve and enhance the freedom, dignity, and worth of individual."[146] In this perspective, educating individuals was seen as the key to achieve change in the society.

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[143] Nash, Dix, Tyrwhitt and Benninger, 358.
[144] Frederick Harbison and Charles A. Myers, eds., *Education, Manpower and Economic Growth* (New York, Toronto and London: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1964), 2.
[145] Ibid.
[146] Ibid., 13.

This outlook became apparent primarily in the course of technical assistance policies and programs. These policies and programs targeted at assisting the countries whose "indigenous human resources is insufficient to permit [them] to move forward on their own."[147] Hence, the need for external aid was an imperative for the countries that were in quest for progress. What is more, educational facilities that were seen as part of the process of "human resource development" were to be established and supported. Education was considered as an agent of change, and institutions of higher education were expected to play critical roles in building of advanced human capital for developing countries. Harbison and Myers noted, "in the long run all nations look to their institutions of higher learning to produce the manpower for a complex society, to undertake research, and to give expression to national culture and ideals."[148] In these countries, the foundation of universities was given priority and the education programs were expected to take local concerns and urgent demands of the country into consideration.[149]

Governmental agencies of the US and the Technical Assistance Program of the UN were among major organizations that conducted technical assistance projects with this line of educational objectives. For both sides, education could serve for the development of so-called "third world" countries. They agreed that technical assistance should concern human capital development as an integral part of political, economic and social development. However, an important difference in approach resulted with regard to the priorities of education in the development process and the priorities of assistance for educational development the between the US and the UN agencies involved. An examination of the US and the UN perspectives of technical assistance to developing countries helps to reveal these differences. It also helps better understand the intellectual background of the mid-twentieth century technical assistance initiatives in Turkey, into which the UN agencies, the US governmental agencies and American universities were involved.

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[147] Ibid., 49.
[148] Ibid., 69.
[149] It should be underlined that Abrams as a UN consultant reiterated the same line of thought. He envisioned that Middle East Technical University would address the problems entailed by rapid industrial expansion and urbanization in Turkey and the needs of the entire Middle East region and assure the development of human capital competent in technical and professional areas.

2.3 The Influence of John Dewey on the Discussions of Democratic Education

This last part of Chapter 2 examines the relationship between democracy and education and the increased emphasis given to communal responsibility and citizenry in the first half of the twentieth century. It focuses on Dewey's idea of democracy and of democratic education and the possible influence of these ideas on the changing political and educational trajectories of the 1950s. The examination of Dewey's stand on the importance of education for democracy offers a broader framework for a critical understanding of the motives behind technical assistance programs of the US and the UN that are examined in this chapter.

The mid-twentieth century was a time of political, social and educational unrest, in which conflicting political orientations put pressure on educational thinking and practices. In different intellectual and political contexts, educational policies and theories took varying models of individuality and society as their basis.[150]

Dewey was the intellectual mentor of the progressive education movement in America. He was a leading figure in the ongoing discussions on education based on democratic principles. In his writings he focused on the individual and the significance of individual freedom. He emphasized a sense of individuality that should be combined with a sense of communal responsibility. He saw democracy as the proper way of living that would enable and enhance the realization of individuality and the formation of a community. In this part of Chapter 2, particular emphasis is placed on the role Dewey ascribed to education in the development of individuals and their contribution to the formation of a democratic society.

In his major book *Democracy and Education* Dewey stated: "A democracy is more than a form of government; it is primarily a mode of associated living, of conjoint communicated experience."[151] A democratic community, in Dewey's view, is marked by "the realization of a form of social life in which interests are mutually interpenetrating, and where progress, or

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[150] See, John S. Brubacher, "Politics and Education,*"* in *Modern Philosophies of Education* (1939; reprint, New York, San Francisco, Toronto and London: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1962), 121-145. In his book, Brubacher examined the relationship between education and politics from the perspective of the varying approaches in democratic and totalitarian regimes.

[151] John Dewey, "The Democratic Conception in Education," in *Democracy and Education; An Introduction to the Philosophy of Education* (New York: Macmillan, 1916; reprint, New York: The Free Press, 1997), 87, emphasis added.

readjustment is an important consideration."[152] He explained: "A society which makes provision for participation in its good of all its members on equal terms and which secures flexible readjustment of its institutions through interaction of the different forms of associated life is in so far democratic."[153] The phrase "associated life" used by Dewey deserves a special attention. This can be the point from which one may depart in order to understand the prominence of social concerns in Dewey's educational philosophy. The individuals who are part of a society should be in search for the common good. Obviously, this common good is whatever good for everyone, not a good which is determined by an external authority or which is good merely for a group or a part of a society. He explained:

> The extension in space of the number of individuals who participate in an interest so that each has to refer his own action to that of others, and to consider the action of others to give point and direction to his own, is equivalent to the breaking down of those barriers of class, race, and national territory which kept men from perceiving the full import of their activity. These more numerous and more varied points of contact denote a greater diversity of stimuli to which an individual has to respond; they consequently put a premium on variation in his action. They secure liberation of powers which remain suppressed as long as the incitations to action are partial, as they must be in a group which in its exclusiveness shuts out many interests.[154]

For Dewey, individuals can make their best contribution to the common-good by maintaining independent and critical positions. That is to say, the uniqueness of each individual should be respected and their demand for self-realization and self-expression should be fulfilled. "Regarding freedom, the important thing to bear in mind is that it designates a mental attitude," he stated, "but that this quality of mind cannot develop without a fair leeway of movements in exploration, experimentation, application, etc."[155] What Dewey understood as freedom was the freedom of mind. He considered that the development of open-minded individuals was an essential educational task:

> … [T]he essence of the demand for freedom is the need of conditions which will enable an individual to make his own special contribution to a group interest, and to partake of its activities in such ways that social guidance shall be a matter of his own mental attitude, and not a mere authoritative dictation of his acts… Freedom means essentially the part played by thinking -- which is personal -- in learning: -- it means

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[152] Ibid.
[153] Ibid., 99.
[154] Ibid., 87.
[155] Dewey, 1997, "The Individual and the World," 307.

intellectual initiative, independence in observation, judicious invention, foresight of
consequences, and ingenuity of adaptation to them.[156]

In their book *A History of Education in American Culture* R. Freeman Butts and Lawrence
A. Cremin pointed out that Dewey's educational philosophy was informed by "a social
conception of mind and self."[157] Taking this conception as a starting point, Dewey viewed
education as "a social process."

It is hard to dissociate the political connotations of democracy when it was subject to
educational debates in the mid-twentieth century. What Dewey defined as an "undesirable
society" or John S. Brubacher's definition of a "totalitarian" society were important themes
of debates in which the role of education in the formation of an ideal society was
emphasized.[158]

Within the framework of an "American" conception of democratic society, the aim of good
education was a good society. A good society was conceived to be the one in which a good
educational system was in function. This relationship between education and society was
interdependent. Education was considered as one of the most powerful institutions which had
substantial influence on the formation of the social structure. A good illustration of this
vision was found in the case of progressive education: education was primarily seen as a
means of a democratic re-construction of the society.

In his book titled *Philosophies of Education: In a Cultural Perspective* Theodore B. H.
Brameld underlined the significance of education in American democratic culture by
remarking that education has been considered as "one of our chief instruments of cultural

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[156] Ibid., 301-302.
[157] Freeman R. Butts and Lawrence A. Cremin, "The Expansion of American Education (1865-1918);
Reshaping the American Mind," in *A History of Education in American Culture* (New York: Henry
Holt and Company, 1953), 343-347.
[158] An "undesirable society" was, in Dewey's view, "one which internally and externally sets up
barriers to free intercourse and communication of experience." See, Dewey, 1997, "The Democratic
Conception in Education," 99. Brubacher argued that according to "the theory of totalitarian states," a
society was envisioned as "a corporate entity in addition to the individual entities which compose it"
in which "the individual realizes freedom only through merging his identity with the organic whole."
See, Brubacher, 1962, 123.

solidarity and progress" and "a gigantic force for democratic evolution."[159] Development of a sense of responsibility towards the society was a center of attention in the debates on education's role in the development of a good society. It was argued that this responsibility could be fulfilled by individuals well-equipped to deal with the problems facing them in a critical and reflective manner. For Brameld, a democratic individual should take into consideration "the relation of what we have previously known to what we do not know yet for certain," rather than accepting "blind obedience or routine."[160]

Within this framework, education was to encourage and foster the development of all individual capacities and these capacities would be developed most effectively when students were motivated for social interaction. This point was made obvious in Elmer Harrison Wilds's book *The Foundations of Modern Education*, too. Wilds remarked that relating to the ideal of a "re-construction of the social order," schools' task was "to develop in pupil a social motive and a social intelligence that will enable him to play his part in solving the problem of a changing civilization."[161]

As underlined by Brubacher, there existed different outlooks within democratic ideals of education, too. There were varying educational approaches in which the conceptions of "democracy as freedom" or "democracy as sharing" were taken as bases. These differences derived from the degree of emphasis given to individual or society in the educational process. The conviction that individuals are born different and, thus, ought to be free "to develop the unique differences of his individuality," constituted the ground for individualistic concerns in education.[162] From the perspective of social concerns, in general, and of education, in particular, it was argued that respect for personality of an individual also necessitated respect and tolerance for differences among individuals. As the individual could not be seen as an isolated whole, the improvement of individual could not be separated from the improvement of society formed by individuals.

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[159] Theodore B. H. Brameld, *Philosophies of Education: In a Cultural Perspective* (New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1955), 155.
[160] Ibid., 111.
[161] Elmer H. Wilds, "The Emphasis upon Social Education," in *The Foundations of Modern Education* (New York: Rinehart & Company Inc. Publishers, 1942; reprint, New York: Rinehart & Company Inc. Publishers, 1952), 573.
[162] Brubacher, 1962, 135-136.

In the postwar period, different interpretations of democracy became a grounding rationale for the raise of nationalistic interests in education. A demand for re-defining national policies for education in accordance with changing trajectories of the world was under discussion. Within this framework, Dewey's conception of social ideal in democratic education came under attack by those who advocated a shift of philosophy in American education.

In Dewey's view, "the conflict of a nationalistic and a wider social aim" was a critical source of problems arising in the field of education:

> This confusion corresponds to the existing situation of human intercourse. On the one hand, science, commerce, and art transcend national boundaries. They are largely international in quality and method. They involve interdependencies and cooperation among the peoples inhabiting different countries. At the same time, the idea of national sovereignty has never been as accentuated in politics as it is at the present time. Each nation lives in a state of suppressed hostility and incipient war with its neighbors. Each is supposed to be the supreme judge of its own interests, and it is assumed as matter of course that each has interests which are exclusively its own… This contradiction (for it is nothing less) between the wider sphere of associated and mutually helpful social life and the narrower sphere of exclusive and hence potentially hostile pursuits and purposes, exacts of educational theory a clearer conception of the meaning of 'social' as a function and test of education than has yet been attained…
> …
> It is not enough to teach the horrors of war and to avoid everything which would stimulate international jealousy and animosity. The emphasis must be put *upon whatever binds people together in cooperative human pursuits and results, apart from geographical limitations…*[163]

For him, nationalistic concerns would naturally play part in shaping of educational goals of a country. However, these concerns should not necessarily be in conflict with those of other countries. Other countries in the world should not be considered as threat or impediment against nationalistic concerns. He insisted on the possibility of an attempt to contribute to the progress and welfare of the world as a whole. For Dewey, education was to cultivate in students the intellectual freedom and social consciousness they needed to make their own contribution to the improvement of humankind. In his view, a vital "democratic criterion of education" was "the very idea of education as a freeing of individual capacity in a progressive growth directed to social aims."[164]

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[163] Dewey, 1997, "The Democratic Conception in Education," 97-98, emphasis added.
[164] Ibid., 98.

However, in the changing political orientations of the twentieth century, Dewey's educational ideals became subject to criticism in America. The political, economic, social and educational problems entailed by the two world wars and the Great Depression in America opened the way for critical voices and differences of opinion in the field of education. Wilds pointed to the existence of "a general confusion in educational thinking that indicated the absence of a consistent philosophy of life from which the educational goals of a country derives."[165] There was an emerging need "to adopt education more effectively to the needs of a world in crisis."[166] An effort to reveal the intellectual climate of the postwar period has been made by Freeman R. Butts who pointed out that "world wars and depression changed the focus of educators towards the claims of industrialism, technology, democracy both in social and individual terms."[167]

By the mid-1940s the critical atmosphere continued unabated, and even grew harsh with the rise of nationalist concerns. That was a time when America was not only struggling with the consequences of the two world wars and the Depression, but also was experiencing the political and economic challenges of the Cold War.

A 1955 issue of *The Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Sciences* was devoted to the theme "Higher Education under Stress" and exposed the raising influence of this outlook in academic circles.[168] Gordon K. Chalmers's article "The Purpose of Learning" questioned why "a new philosophy of education" was urgent in the changing political trajectories of the world, and especially with regard to the Cold War stress in America.[169] According to Chalmers, Dewey's principles that had a profound influence on American educational thinking and practices in the first half of the twentieth century did not have

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[165] Wilds, 1942, 595.
[166] Ibid., 596.
[167] Freeman R. Butts, "America in the Twentieth Century: Ideas and Education," in *A Cultural History of Western Education; its Social and Intellectual Foundations (*New York, Toronto, London: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1955), 571. It deserves to be mentioned that, Butts were among the professors of the faculty of Teachers College who acknowledged their commitment to the creed in "Democracy and Education in the Current Crisis" declared as a manifesto in the 1940s. See, "A Manifesto on Democracy and Education in the Current Crisis," in *Foundations of Educational Thought. Vol. 2 Modern (1932-1979*), ed. Eugene F. Provenzo (Los Angeles, London: SAGE Publications, Inc, 2008), 25-38.
[168] *The Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social* Sciences 301 (September 1955).
[169] Gordon K. Chalmers, "The Purpose of Learning," *The Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social* Sciences 301 (September 1955): 7-16.

validity for the second half of the century.[170] In Chalmers's words, Dewey's "naturalistic conception of man" and "the humanitarian purposes of the 1910 reformers" were "sentimental," and they could no longer play major role in shaping national policies for education.[171] Because, in his view, Communism was a "political dogma" that paid no respect for individuality or freedom and it stood as the major threat against the field of education:

> …Today we reckon with the world Communism, a political dogma so potent in its evil that our worries about the British and German Empires now seem mere mosquito bites. In intellectual and spiritual terms we have been challenged with ideas, not mere military power- a new experience for us; and the scare which the ideas of Communism have thrown into us is not honorable. As a nation we have always been ready, or knew we soon could get ready, to face armaments. Having gone to school in institutions which are boyish, relaxed, imprecise and sentimental, we are now acting like boys in the face of intellectualized evil.[172]

Chalmers also underlined an increasing emphasis placed on assuming the position of a leader country in the world. It was contended that, not only social reform or technological and industrial advancement, but also political power were key to achieve a world leadership.[173] He explained this goal with reference to the notion of "constitutional democracy" that was seen as a prerequisite for preserving democracy against threats like Communism.[174] In this perspective, democracy could not be preserved simply through "social" control but there was

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[170] Ibid., 8.

[171] Ibid., 9 and 13.

[172] Ibid., 8-9.

[173] Ibid., 8.

[174] It is interesting to see that, in the 1950s, the term "constitutional democracy" was used in the field of architectural education too. A research conducted by the Commission for the Survey of Education and Registration of the American Institute of Architects, in which numerous meetings were convened in different parts of America, was illustrative of the influence of changing political and social trajectories of the period on architecture and architectural education. The participants were expected to respond to the following questions: "What kind of a society do you foresee in the future? Will the trend toward collectivism in England, Western Europe, and Asia extend to the Western Hemisphere, or will the system sometimes referred to as democratic free enterprise be strengthened in the Western Hemisphere? In other words, are we in the United States in a declining phase of an outmoded European social system or in the process of giving new life and vitality to a system that will be peculiar to our needs and temperament?." The reply of Dr. Henry Aldous Dixon, President of the Weber College, Ogden, Utah, was striking: "We must clearly see the difference between unlimited democracy and constitutional democracy. Unlimited democracy as advocated by some groups will create chaos. Constitutional democracy, of course does restrict some people's liberties to a certain extent, but that is all by mutual agreement. Under a constitutional democracy we become self-governing." See, Francis R. Bellamy, ed., *Architect at Mid-Century: Conversations Across the Nation*, The Report of the Commission for the Survey of Education and Registration of the American Institute of Architects, vol. 2 (New York: Reinhold Publishing Corporation, 1954), 107.

a need for a "constitutional" control as well.[175] From within this perspective, with such an interpretation of democracy, education was to search for "a firm, old and central tradition of the great ethical import of all literary study," which was to be found in studies in humanities.[176] It should be highlighted that this perspective constituted only one dimension of the emphasis that was given to humanities in American education in the mid-twentieth century. Another emphasis on role of humanities in architectural curricula will be examined in detail in Chapter 4 of this dissertation.

In his doctoral dissertation titled "Education as Cold War Experience: The Battle for the American School" Andrew Hartman offered a critical historical perspective on the shift in American education in support of an "anti-communist" thinking and an "American conservatism."[177] Hartman pointed to the 1930s progressive educators' conviction of "a cultural and educational reproduction realized in the school" and their belief that education can build "an empowered subject that could bring about social change."[178] He remarked, however, that with the rise of "the conservative, anti-socialist state of US political culture" in the Cold War years, the power of the "child-centered, academic and socially transformative" pedagogy defended by Dewey and his followers was weakened.[179] Hartman noted:

> People seemed to believe that the US system of education failed fulfilling the needs of a nation in the midst of a global struggle against Communism, and as a result, an anxiety was directed at progressive education… schooling became more conservative in the 1950s, part and parcel of US society as a whole becoming more conservative.[180]

The criticisms that were raised against Dewey's theory of education in the post World War II and Cold War periods and the emerging "conservative" approaches in American education have a particular significance for Chapter 2 of this dissertation. These developments marked the emergence of new orientations in the field of education that politicized the role of education also in technical assistance initiatives. These more "conservative" orientations put

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[175] Chalmers, September 1955, 10-13.
[176] Ibid., 14.
[177] Andrew Hartman, "Education as Cold War Experience: The Battle for the American School," (PhD diss., The George Washington University, 2006).
[178] Ibid., 357.
[179] Ibid., 362 and 365.
[180] Ibid., vi.

a burden on American aid agencies and universities and the educational policies they pursued for developing countries, which were examined in detail in this chapter.

CHAPTER 3

THE PERSPECTIVE OF CHARLES ABRAMS: EDUCATION, DEMOCRACY AND URBAN DEVELOPMENT

Chapter 3 re-constructs the political and educational contexts of Charles Abrams's METU project. It tries to explore the role Abrams played in the foundation of METU Faculty of Architecture. The ideals that informed his professional and academic positions within the changing political and educational trajectories in America in the mid-twentieth century are of particular consideration of this chapter of the dissertation. By focusing on Abrams's priorities as a UN expert, Chapter 3 re-situates the foundation of METU as a UN project into the framework of UN's technical assistance policies in that period. This chapter also contemplates on the conception of "reflective practitioner" in order to better understand the distinguishing aspects of Abrams's stance in the fields of housing and urban policy in the mid-twentieth century.

3.1 Introduction: The UN Mission by Charles Abrams and the First Step towards the Foundation of a School of Architecture and Community Planning in Turkey

> Pursuant to the Basic Agreement of 5 September 1951 concluded between the United Nations and the Government of Turkey, the Technical Assistance Administration (TAA) of the United Nations provided the services of Mr. Charles Abrams (USA) to advise the Government on a number of aspects of housing and planning.[181]

Following his arrival to Turkey in September 1954, Abrams made surveys in the country and convened meetings with the Deputy Prime Minister, the Minister of Education, and many officials and citizens.

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[181] Abrams, 23 August 1955, 1.
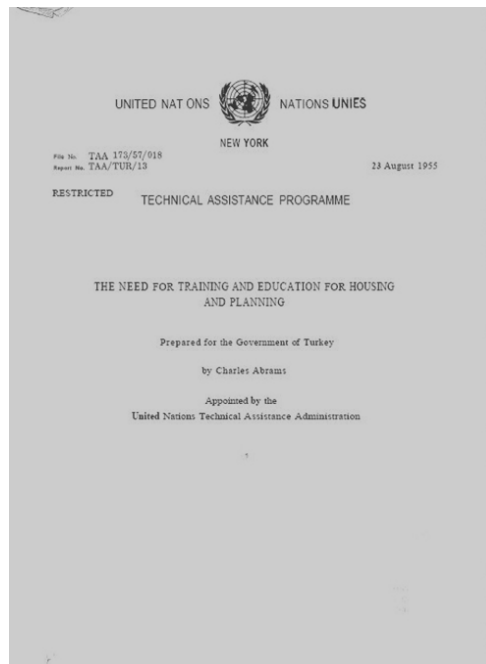
Figure 3.1. Cover page of the report prepared for the Government of Turkey by Charles Abrams.

Subsequently, he prepared the report titled "The Need for Training and Education for Housing and Planning" for the Turkish Government. This report was the first official document to mention the proposal for the establishment of a new "School of Architecture and Community Planning" in Ankara. This report is significant also because it offers a comprehensive critical perspective towards housing and urbanization problems in Turkey in the 1950s. It presents an evaluation of the local context through a global perspective. Abrams based his report on his observations about existing problems in the built environment entailed by rapid urbanization. These covered the shortages he saw on administrative, operational and educational levels in the country. "Speculation and blight," "frustration of city plans," problems in "public and cooperative housing," "limitations of use of pension funds," and "impairment of individual resourcefulness and initiative in cities" were among the major problem areas in the Turkish scene of the 1950s as defined by Abrams.[182] He also underlined the significance of training and education for the solution of problems in the fields of housing and planning and the enhancement of urban development in the long-term.

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[182] For more information on his evaluations on the Turkish scene of the 1950s, see Abrams, 1969, 195-212.

In his mission to Turkey as a consultant for the UN, Abrams's recommendations were welcomed by Turkish officials and his proposal was put into operation immediately. His report created an immediate and concrete response. The ultimate result, following the second UN TAA mission headed by Perkins, was the realization of a significant educational project: the foundation of METU.

In a letter by Olle Sturen[183] to the UN it is apparent that the realization of this project was very significant for the UN, as it was for Abrams:

> The reason why this project to me seems so important is that as far as I understand, it is the first time since we started out technical assistance program in Turkey, that our recommendations have been so rapidly accepted and not only that but have been discussed, considered and accepted on the absolutely highest governmental level. I am certain you agree with me that if we achieve success in this project, it will reflect on the future of the whole UN technical assistance here in Turkey.[184]

For Abrams, the foundation of METU Faculty of Architecture was the most important accomplishment of his career. He told to Catherine Bauer that this was "probably the most important thing I've ever done in my life."[185] Conceivably, Abrams was excited about the possible contribution of the graduates of an independent technical university to urban development in Turkey in the long-term.

A re-reading of Abrams's writings on the themes of urbanization, planning, and education helps to explore, in depth, the essential concerns of his mission to Turkey and the ideas and recommendations expressed in his report. This also shed light on Abrams's professional and scholarly positions.

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[183] Sturen was the Acting Head of the UN Technical Assiatance Board in Ankara and he was involved in the foundation process of METU. He also initiated the foundation of Turkish Standards Institution (Türk Standardları Enstitüsü). He was invited to Turkey by the Turkish Government for assisting the foundation of a national institute for standardization. He prepared a report for the Government. In October 16, 1956, the Turkish Standards Institution was founded in Ankara. For more information on the history of this institution and Sturen's role in its foundation, see "Türk Standardları Enstitüsü," http://www.etmd.org.tr/teknikkutuphane/tse_tanitim.doc (accessed September 7, 2009).
[184] Olle Sturen, "Letter to the United Nations," October 6, 1954, quoted in Abrams, 1969, 205.
[185] Abrams to Catherine Bauer, July 15, 1959, quoted in Henderson, 2000, 181. Bauer was a scholar in the fields of housing and redevelopment policy in America. She served as the Director of the United States Housing Authority. She was a lecturer in City and Regional Planning at the University of California in Berkeley and at Harvard University. She was also a consultant for the UN.

3.2 Abrams as a Housing Expert for the UN

References have been made, in the previous chapter, to the UN's primary concerns in technical assistance for developing countries. The major goal was to assist urban development in these countries by: re-considering the existing problems within the framework of the conditions specific to that country; identifying the actual needs and deficiencies and the existing sources and skills; initiating and enhancing education, training and research facilities, training native people in the host country and re-integrating them into the process of urban development.

This part of Chapter 3 addresses the principles informing Abrams's approach as a UN expert, which demonstrate his interest in housing as part of urban development process that should be approached as a process enhancing democracy and modernization in developing countries.

In his well-known book *Housing in the Modern World: Man's for Shelter in an Urbanizing World* Abrams made a comprehensive analysis of the UN's initiatives in Africa, Asia and Latin America through his critical evaluations of housing and urban problems in developing countries including Ghana, India, Turkey, the Philippines, Pakistan, Nigeria, Ireland, Jamaica, Japan, Singapore and Bolivia, where he served as a UN expert.[186] Abrams placed a special emphasis on housing and re-situated this problem into the complex issue of urbanization. He addressed the themes of "population inflation and urban invasion," "squatting," "the urban land problem," "obstacles to progress in housing," "the problem of administration and personnel," "the problem of finance," and "the need for education and research" as interdependent strands of this problem area. For Abrams, urbanization process was a complex and multi-layered phenomenon that required an interdisciplinary approach.

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[186] See, Abrams, 1969.

Fig. 3.2. A greeting for Charles Abrams in a village in India during his visit as a housing consultant for the UN.

In his view, collaboration between architects, planners, engineers, surveyors, lawyers, builders, legal draftsmen, financers, economists and sociologist was indispensable for the solution not only of the housing problem, but also of other problems entailed by rapid urbanization.

Abrams's concern for improving the living conditions of people deserves to be highlighted. This manifested itself in his approach to the squatter problem in developing countries. His position was characterized by a comprehensive approach to the squatter problem and the need for housing. Ernest Weissmann, head of the UN Housing Town and Country Planning Section (HTCP), stated: "He sees housing as part of the whole social, political, and economic picture. This alone makes him more valuable than any other specialists I know."[187] These were, in Abrams's view, primarily societal problems prevalent in the third world countries. In these counties, the migration of masses from the rural areas into the cities was bringing forth a demand for new houses and the lack of necessary housing stock was provoking the illegal construction of houses that formed squatter settlements. Abrams argued that social inequality and a lack of land policies necessary for the supply of livable environments for

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[187] Ernest Weissmann, quoted in Bernard Taper, "The World Expert," *Habitat International* 5, no. ½ (1980): 39.

people were among the factors that led to the formation of squatter settlements and their unavoidable growth.[188]

As underlined by Barbara Ward, Abrams "grasped urbanization as a whole process" and he "included in his concept of 'housing,' work, tenure, security, services, wider economic stimulus, in short, the whole modernizing process."[189] Within this framework, she remarked, "Abrams thought of housing not simply as numbers of dwellings constructed but as the whole process by which an orderly urban settlement could be created."[190] Abrams's approach to squatter problem was a humanitarian one. For him, the demolition of squatter settlements could not be a solution. Rather, their conditions could be improved, so that squatter settlements would not be barred as "forbidden" parts of a city. This point was highlighted by Bernard Taper:

> … Abrams believes that if appropriate land is made available, if the site plan is properly laid out with ample space between plots, if necessary services are furnished, and if the squatters are given an opportunity to buy their own plots eventually (as most of them want to do), in the due time they will improve their dwellings ultimately concerting their colonies into descent neighborhoods. He has seen this happen to certain older colonies, including those in Ankara and Lahore.[191]

From the perspective of Abrams, achieving success in the way toward urban development would also bring public confidence to the authority and, thus, enhance political stability. For the UN, and for Abrams, political stability was not the major aim, but a natural consequence of technical assistance policies. His main criticism was directed at American policymakers because of their lack of concern for "dispensation of technical and financial aid on the basis of 'sincere political disinterestedness'."[192] The notion of "sincere political disinterestedness" was a starting point for Henderson in his approach to Abrams's position as a housing consultant for the UN. In the words of Abrams, "[a]id should be provided without the profit or political motive when benevolence is warranted and at appropriate interest rates and terms when not so warranted."[193] In Henderson's view, "urbanism," "democracy" and "peace"

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[188] See, Abrams, 1969, "Squatting and Squatters," 12-24.
[189] Barbara Ward, "A Tribute to Charles Abrams," *Habitat International* 5, no. ½ (1980): 8.
[190] Ibid.
[191] Taper, 1980, 37.
[192] Henderson, 2000, 190.
[193] Abrams, 1969, 248.

should be the guiding principles of an attempt to understand Abrams's perspective regarding technical assistance policies of the UN.[194]

Abrams opposed the importation of formulas to developing countries in the solution of housing and urban problems. What is more, he asserted that a careful consideration of the problems and urgent needs peculiar to a local context was indispensable to development strategies for these countries. He noted:

> After studying and reporting on the housing problems of fourteen countries, I have identified *no panaceas* for the housing problem in the developing countries… The book lays claim to *no universal or lasting truths*. What is applicable to Bolivia may not be so in Nigeria. In fact, each country within Africa, South Africa, and Asia will present special problems of its own. Some countries as less industrialized than others; some are advanced industrially but suffer from lack of institutional development. Each may change for the better or worse as the years go by. At a time when theories must be tested as well as formulated, an author's conclusions cannot always be expected to be enduring or infallible.[195]

For Abrams, the main achievement in any international technical co-operation program in developing countries was to be helping these countries enhance their own know-how and skills in related fields. It is at this point that the emphasis he placed on training and education for developing countries can be better understood. He considered that the efficiency of external aid to developing countries was highly dependent on the attempts to initiate and enhance training and education facilities that would make a vital contribution in the solution of manifold problems entailed by rapid urbanization.

He explained the relationship between urbanization, and training and education on two grounds. Firstly, he emphasized the training of "inperts." He saw a need for "qualified nationals within the countries themselves."[196] In the words of Nash, Dix, Tyrwhitt and Benninger, the challenge was "how to increase expertise in development among the people in the developing countries as well as how to make advances in research and technology available to them."[197] The answer was to be found in inaugurating and enhancing training

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[194] Henderson, 2000, 190.
[195] Abrams, forward to *Housing in the Modern World: Man's Struggle for Shelter in an Urbanizing World* (London: Faber and Faber Press, 1969), xi, emphasis added.
[196] Ibid., 104.
[197] Nash, Dix, Tyrwhitt and Benninger, October 1967, 358.

and education programs in these countries, which should take urban and housing problems as their focus. Secondly, Abrams asserted that "experts" should be trained, too. He pointed to an "absence of an international pool of experts" in the field of urbanization.[198] In his view, the lack of well-equipped and competent experts was due to a "lack of sustained, comprehensive training courses in the United States or in the world on the problems of urbanization, housing, and urban land economics in underdeveloped countries."[199] "Since there are so few experts on urbanization and so few city planners with experience in the less developed areas," he argued, "more people will have to be trained and more brought into the field from related disciplines."[200] The ideal expert Abrams had in mind had a comprehensive outlook towards the manifold aspects of urbanization and was competent in multidisciplinary fields. He explained:

> The field requires people who have a grasp … of the related disciplines -- housing policy, urban land problems, administration, sociology, city planning, finance, law and legislation, transportation, architecture, building and building materials, and public relations -- plus a large gift of common sense. They must be able to identify the more pressing aspects of a problem while visualizing them in the broader perspective…[201]

It should be made explicit that for Abrams education should be reconsidered as part of a comprehensive development plan. As a UN expert, he was concerned with the demand for technically trained and professionally qualified people in developing countries. He envisioned the most important educational goal for these countries as "a simultaneous long-term development of the major skills and professions that an urbanized economy demands."[202] This outlook was at work in Abrams's mission to Turkey:

> The main task in most countries is to define and prove both long and short-term requirements as part of a *development plan*. Education for the varied skills and professions needed in the production of housing as well as in the operation in industry is indispensable. The most constructive device is the presence of a *technical university* whose disciplines are closely related to those required by the urban industrial society. This fact has been demonstrated in Turkey.[203]

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[198] Abrams, 1969, 103.
[199] Ibid., 254-55.
[200] Ibid., 252.
[201] Ibid., 104.
[202] Charles Abrams, "Emerging Social Problems in an Urbanizing World," *Ekistics* 24, no. 145 (December 1967): 460.
[203] Ibid., emphasis added.

"Along with education and training," Abrams opined, "more research into the problems of urbanization is needed, as well as the development of plans and programs to deal with problems."[204] In his view, a methodological investigation of a vast range of urban problems that had a negative influence on development process was necessary:

> Research into urbanization embraces not one problem but a score or more of related problems, and it is impossible to isolate one from the others. The problems include, among others, economics and the land problem, the relationships of the urban to rural economies, population problems and demography, tax, finance, and subsidy policies, manpower problems, public works and transportation, sanitation, administration, politics, community and social organization, regional policy, housing policy, architecture and city planning, materials production, code enforcement, industrial location.[205]

As underlined by Henderson, technical experts played a critical role in advising developing countries and, thus, the selection of the experts who would assume this responsibility was decisive. What made Abrams be recruited as an expert for the UN? His knowledge, skills and professional competences or his personal qualifications and outlook as well? His colleagues pointed to the distinguishing characteristics of Abrams as a UN expert. Robert C. Weaver is one of them. In his article "Charles Abrams as a Champion of Civil Rights in Housing," Weaver explained:

> Charles Abrams was one of the most creative thinkers, writers, and teachers in the field of housing, planning and urban development. Those who knew him and his many contributions quickly recognized that his efficacy was due, in large measure, to his incisive mind, engaging personality, contagious enthusiasm, great facility with the English language, and a flair for public relations.[206]

Besides his involvement in technical assistance projects to developing countries, Abrams was actively involved in policy making in the fields of housing and planning in America. A commitment to democracy and civil rights constituted the basis of his activities as a lawyer, planner and urban reformer. Abrams was mainly interested in the social dimensions of housing.

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[204] Ibid., 461.
[205] Abrams, 1969, 209.
[206] Robert C. Weaver, "Charles Abrams as a Champion of Civil Rights in Housing," *Habitat International* 5, no. ½ (1980): 27.

Fig. 3.3. Charles Abrams and W. A. Nielsen in the Second Athens Ekistics Month organized by Athens Center of Ekistics of the Athens Technological Institute, Greece, July 1967.

The emphasis he placed on different dynamics of living in the city was obvious in his article "Emerging Social Problems in an Urbanizing World," in which he defined urban renewal "not only as a way to clear the cities of slums, but also to update and breathe new life to the old downtown business district."[207] He took active roles in urban renewal projects. He was commissioned by the Ford Foundation to undertake a study of urban renewal program in the United States. He also worked for the Housing Program of the United States and maintained a critical stance toward federal urban renewal programs. These renewal programs were on his target, as they did not address the physical, social and economic problems in the urban context. This stance was exposed in his book *The City is the Frontier.*[208] In a similar vein, *Forbidden Neighbors; a Study of Prejudice in Housing* was a critical account on the issues of "discrimination" and "racial segregation" that persisted in housing policies of America in the mid-twentieth century.[209] Abrams's article "The Legal Basis for Recognizing Metropolitan Areas in a Free Society" continued the same line of argument.[210] He approached the control of federal government in urban projects critically and advocated the necessity of co-operation between the State and local organizations.[211] Policymakers of the federal government, he argued, did not emphasize on the minority problems. On the contrary, by

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[207] Abrams, December 1967, 459.
[208] Charles Abrams, *The City Is The Frontier* (New York: Harper & Row Publications, 1965).
[209] Charles Abrams, *Forbidden Neighbors: A Study of Prejudice in Housing* (New York: Harper & Brothers, 1955).
[210] Charles Abrams, "The Legal Basis for Recognizing Metropolitan Areas in a Free Society," *Proceedings of the American Philosophical Society* 106, no. 3 (June 1962): 177-189.
[211] Ibid., 179.

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spending funds inequitably, they promoted segregation in urban development. However, Abrams was still optimistic about the change in federal government's approach due to the shift in political trajectories and the potential of federal government for preserving the rights of minority.[212] Abrams was also in search for equality and impartiality. He pointed to the critical role "government power and policy" could play in housing and planning and argued that progress in these domains could be achieved insofar unbiased policies were at work.[213] He maintained that the government should take the position of a "mediator" and "regulator" in order to overcome the inequalities in a society. In "The Lives of Two Housers and Planners," Keating highlighted the major role Abrams played "in the creation of public authorities to address slum clearance and to develop public housing" and she argued that this role constituted a threshold in his career as a lawyer and led to be acknowledged as an urban reformer.[214]

3.2.1 Abrams's Views on the Contribution of a Technical University to the Process of Urbanization in Turkey

The personal characteristics of Abrams as a UN expert, a lawyer, planner and urban reformer were at work in his mission to Turkey. Apparently, in Turkey, Abrams was recognized due to his personality as well as his scholarship in the issues of housing and urban development. First of all it should be remarked that the scope of Abrams's studies on housing and urban planning in the United States made him eligible to be appointed for advising the Government of Turkey. He had fulfilled a considerable number of missions in many countries before. What is more, as underlined by Henderson, he established effective communication with related parties in Turkey.

During his stay, Abrams made a 4,000 miles automobile journey covering numerous cities in the country. This enabled him not only to have a direct experience of different aspects of problems, but also to establish face-to-face communication with related parties, which

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[212] Ibid., 185.

[213] See, Abrams, 1969, "The Growth of Government Power and Policy," 40-50. For background information on Abrams's conception of equality, see Charles Abrams, foreword to *Equality*, ed. Robert L. Carter, Dorothy Kenyon, Peter Marcuse and Loren Miller (New York: Pantheon Books, 1965), vii-xxv.

[214] Denise W. Keating, "The Lives of Two Housers and Planners," *Housing Studies* 16, no. 5 (2001), 697.

included "provincial governors, an equal number of mayors and city officials, as well as many private architects, businessmen, directors of factories, village officials and villagers, and officials of state enterprises."[215] He focused on the problems of zoning, finance, housing and planning in Turkey. The extensive scope of his professional expertise, which covered housing, urban renewal, city planning and social policy, led him to explore different layers of urban problems in Turkey. His critical evaluations and proposals about the Turkish scene were positively received by Turkish officials. This resulted partly from their respect to his expertise. But their immediate response and endeavors for putting these proposals into practice resulted, to a great degree, from his ability to communicate and convince.[216]

Abrams stated, "When I went to Turkey on a UN mission, I had not the slightest notion that a university would be the outcome."[217] He remarked that his evaluations of the problems entailed by rapid urbanization in the country, especially on the issues of housing, planning and architecture, convinced him that the foundation of a technical university would be a necessary first step towards solving the existing problems and fulfilling the demand for technically trained human capital. However, in this dissertation it is argued that education was a significant component of the UN's Technical Assistance Program for developing countries. Education and training facilities were seen as indispensable elements of urban development process. At this point, the dissertation concentrates on Abrams's educational ideas in accordance with UN's policies for developing countries and examines the ways these ideas informed his METU project.

There are several issues that wait to be examined. What were the motives behind Abrams's idea of an educational project for Turkey in the 1950s? What would be the contribution of a "school of architecture and community planning" for the urbanization of Turkey? In which ways did Abrams relate education and policy making, education and research, and education and professional practice?

A short preface on Abrams's ideas on the problematic consequences of "rapid industrial expansion," "urbanization," and "a changing rural pattern" in Turkey in the 1950s will help

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[215] Abrams, 23 August 1955, 2.
[216] See, Henderson, 1996; Henderson, 2000.
[217] Abrams, 1969, 202.

delineate the broader framework of his proposal for the establishment of a technical university in this country.

His report starts with an attempt to identify the background of the observed problems. The speed of the process of industrialization and urbanization in Turkey, Abrams discussed, made it difficult to implement the necessary regulations at the legislative level and in the field of professional practice:

> Barely a generation ago, major political reforms were introduced which included a new constitution and a new legal system patterned upon the Swiss. Simultaneously, lands were redistributed and industrialization speeded which, in more recent years, has placed an increasing emphasis upon private enterprise and initiative. Considerable enterprise, however, still remains in state hands.
>
> Major reforms were simultaneously introduced which emphasized subsidies to agriculture, aid to squatters, housing assistance of various forms, educational advancement and other measures.
>
> The transitions were accompanied by what was virtually a social mutation in dress and customs, and in more recent years a road programme of major proportions began to open up the hinterlands, bringing influences of an incipient mechanization and a market economy to the rural areas; it speeded a migration to the cities, sometimes causing their populations to double in a short time.
>
> Confronted with these changes, there has been little time to plan in advance for the reception of the new population, for their housing, for the layout of new areas, for the enactment of appropriate building or zoning laws, for the rationalization of urban-provincial-central relationships, for the development of a mortgage financing system, or for a workable local tax system. There has been no regional planning to control suburban blight, rationalize the relationships between village, city and region, nor has there been any village planning aimed at improving the patterns of the villages themselves.[218]

He remarked that Turkey was a developing country in which "building was proceeding rapidly, and the physical patterns were being created that would have a lasting influence upon the future formation of the country."[219] However, her argued, there was a lack of technical and professional competence, both in quantitative and qualitative terms. The consequences of this lack were observed at governmental level, too. In his report he noted, "[t]he deficiency exists in the inability to secure competent assistance for the

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[218] Abrams, 23 August 1955, 3-4.
[219] Abrams, 1969, "Education and Research: A New University is Born in the Middle East," 203.

implementation, i.e. the specialists who can draw legislation and make the plans, program the financing, help improve the local administration."[220] The problem of control existed, firstly, at the managerial level. The "inability of officials to read plans" as well as the "vagueness of building code," Abrams pointed out, resulted in "violation of building regulations."[221] The negative consequences of the attempts to import ideas and strategies originated in other countries to the Turkish scene were also on target by Abrams:

> … The building code currently in effect is a German import, though it seemed suitable neither in the country of its origin nor in that of its adoption. Planning concepts are predominantly German with monumentality of structure often rearing its pillars on minuscule streets. The Pension Housing Plan seems to have borrowed its '90 per cent of cost' lending formula from the US Federal Housing Administration. French influences may be noted here and there, too. The product is an odd hybrid, a mixture more often than not of the best but of the worst.[222]

The problem of the import of foreign ideas and strategies, which did not address the problems and potentialities specific to the Turkish context, combined with a shortage of architects and planners. Abrams pointed to the demand for well-equipped human capital in the country. There was an urgent need for technically equipped personnel and professionally competent architects and planners.

He related the lack of technical and professional competence in the country to problems existing in the field of education, particularly in architectural and planning education. "[T]here are today few architects in Turkey to do work that is either good or bad," he argued, and continued: "Absence of city planning know-how exerts an equally serious impact upon the Turkish environment."[223] The critiques he raised towards formal architectural education in Turkey concerned not only the insufficient number of enrollments. He also criticized programs offering a joint degree of "architecture-engineering" offered for the students.[224]

The contribution of the UN mission to Turkey that he was in charge with was to be more than a critical evaluation of the existing problems. He made his recommendation explicit in the mission report he prepared:

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[220] Abrams, 23 August 1955, 10.
[221] Ibid., 5.
[222] Ibid., 4.
[223] Ibid., 4 and 5.
[224] Ibid., 4.

Turkey's resort to foreign aid and example is of course inevitable when it has little to draw upon from its own, i.e., laws from abroad, standards from abroad, experts from abroad. One city's plans are made by a French man; others by Germans; still other experts are invited from abroad for 'quick solutions.' In each case the architect or expert stays for a month or a year and goes. A report is made and relegated to the dustbin because there is not one to give it implementation or interpretation.

What Turkey needs are not only experts but 'in-perts' -- people who live here or stay to see the development through and even after completion help guard it against perversion. This brings me to the imperative need for a school of architecture and community planning in Ankara as a basic element of a programme of training and education.[225]

Later, in his book, he explained the details of his proposal for a school of architecture and community planning that would be the starting point of a technical university as follows:

There was… one important factor favoring the prospects for a university in Turkey, i.e., the sheer need for it. A university could do more than train people, more than simply develop an indigenous competence in architecture. The need for architects and planners was the wedge, but engineering and training in other disciplines were also essential to build the country. A university could be the focus of much needed research. If located in Ankara, it would be oriented toward Asiatic Turkey, as well as Istanbul. It could draw upon the pool of experienced personnel in the nation's capital to help with training. An interchange of ideas between teachers and government officials would benefit both, and the country as a whole. If opened to students throughout the Middle East, the institution could help expand training in other countries as well.[226]

Abrams's above words cover a number of concerns. Firstly, he stressed the scope of education programs of the technical university he envisioned. Though the shortage of trained professionals in the fields of architecture and planning was emphasized, this university was envisioned to train engineers, lawyers, experts in public finance, economists, sociologists, as well as architects and planners. Secondly, he emphasized the relationship between education and research. Research into manifold aspects of urbanization and the built environment would advance knowledge and contribute to practice. The envisioned university was expected to make a substantial contribution to the improvement and modernization of the country via its graduates who were to assume leadership in their professional fields. Fourthly, to be located in the capital city of the country would enhance a closer relationship between the university and the government. As competent professionals, the graduates of the

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[225] Ibid., 10.
[226] Abrams, 1969, 202-203.

technical university were to take critical roles in governmental institutions and play part in design, planning and implementation processes. The location of the university was critical also due to its regional effects. Besides its contribution to the improvement of Turkey, the technical university was envisioned to train students from the Middle East region and, in this way, help these countries fulfill their own need for technically trained and professionally competent human capital. Fifthly, it is obvious that all these schemes were envisioned as part of a larger development plan for Turkey.

A further point that characterizes Abrams's educational policies should be underlined; the idea that the problems, needs and potentialities of Turkey could most appropriately be recognized and responded by the people who live in this country. The primary goal should be the creation of institutions needed to educate the inhabitants.

The vision of building a body of technically trained and professionally competent individuals who would take major roles in the development of Turkey and of other countries in the Middle East region may seem to ascribe a regional character to METU. However, to say that METU was envisioned as a regional university would be a misinterpretation. Rather, it was projected to be international in nature. At this point, the following quotation from the University Catalog of the 1965-66 academic year would be revealing:

> From the outset, the University was conceived not only as a regional institution but as an international one as well, and in this sense it is unique in the field of higher education. The students of Middle East Technical University are provided with every possible opportunity for furthering their studies in an environment which is ideally suited for their development of character and breadth of vision. It is incalculable value to promote understanding between students of different origins and background and to bring them together.[227]

Hence, it can be stated that Abrams's METU project emphasized: the significance of specific professional fields in Turkey; the demand for technical and professional human capital; the education of native technicians and professionals and the need for "inperts"; education and research as imperatives for urban development; the significance of the location and character of the proposed institution: identifying and interpreting the particular priorities of the country and the region; education and training as part of a "development plan" for the country.

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[227] *Middle East Technical University General Catalog 1965-66*. Vol. 8. (Ankara: Middle East Technical University, 1965), 15.

Abrams noted:

> Progress in a country depends not only on a few people who are talented, resourceful, and wise but also on a larger pool of people who are instructed, experienced, and willing. Education and training are essential to bring out the abilities and usefulness of both groups… The main task in most countries is to define and provide for both long and short-term requirements as part of a development plan. Education for the varied skills and professions needed in the production of housing as well as in the operation of industry is indispensable. The most constructive device is the presence of a technical university whose disciplines are closely related to those required by the urban industrial society. The importance of such facilities for training and education was dramatically demonstrated in Turkey in 1954.[228]

The above mentioned principles were influential on three main decisions in relation to the foundation of a "school of architecture and community planning" in Ankara; (1) that this school should be an "independent" school, (2) that it should give priority to "technical and professional education," and finally, (3) that the school should be an institution of university rank. It should be clarified that these principles are not only about the legislative and organizational structure of the institution. They are more about the underlying educational approach that informed Abrams's initiatives and the educational orientation of a new independent technical university he envisioned.

It becomes clear from Abram's report "The Need for Training and Education for Housing and Planning" as well as his book *Housing in the Modern World: Man's Struggle for Shelter in an Urbanizing World* that there was an agreement with Turkish officials on the location of the school. It would be located in the capital of Turkey. The issues of whether this school would be a part of Ankara University that already existed in Ankara, or whether to be adjacent to an existing school would bring about difficulties and several restrictions were under discussion. Abrams knew that to be a departmental part of Ankara University would be advantageous in terms of consolidating the institution's educational, administrative and financial resources.[229] However, he was confident that the legislative and educational orientation of Ankara University would be an obstacle to the new school. He opposed "the argument that association with the University would immunize it against political interference." He argued that to be part of a university that was funded by the State would pave the way for such interference. Alternatively, being directed by "an independent Board,"

[228] Abrams, 1969, "Self-Help, Core Housing, and Installment Construction," 165-166.
[229] Abrams, 23 August 1955, 11.

assisted on the organization, policy and curriculum by an American university and receiving fund both from the Government and international agencies would provide more freedom.[230]

Abrams emphasized the independence of both the administrative structure of the school and its educational orientation. For him, Ankara University's focus on "humanities and political sciences" did not correspond to the priorities of the new school that would fulfill the demand for technical and professional education and contribute to the development of urbanizing Turkey.[231] He remarked that there was "a need for a technical school which can grow as a technical school instead of being limited by the horizons of the existing non-technical school to which the subject matter is new."[232] To be founded as an independent technical school would allow and encourage experimentation and implementation of new educational theories and methods. Perkins, Loschetter and von Moltke, in agreement with Abrams, insisted that the aspiration "to develop a newer, more practical and modern approach to architecture and planning" could be achieved insofar as an independent and experimental school was founded.[233] Thus, it becomes obvious that the educational direction of this new school would be different from the existing institutions of higher education in Turkey. As Henderson and Scott underline it, for both Abrams and Perkins a fresh new beginning was important.

From the very beginning, Abrams insisted that priority had to be given to the technical character of the school. As an urbanizing country, Turkey was destined to economic, technological and scientific growth and was in demand for well-qualified human capital that would fulfill the emerging needs. For Abrams, Turkey needed more architects, more city planners, more engineers and more scientists who would take major roles in development of a modern urbanized society. He thought that "the presence of a technical university whose

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[230] Abrams's ideas found an explicit expression in the "General Policy Recommendations" section of the report prepared by Perkins, Loschetter and von Moltke. They proposed: "that the institution be governed by an independent Board of Trustees appointed by the Government; that each Trustee hold office for ten years with staggered terms; that two Trustees be appointed to represent that Government, one appointed from a list of three nominated by the Chamber of Industry, one from a list of three nominated by the Alumni of the institution, and one from a list of three nominated by the University Pennsylvania (for the first four years the University of Pennsylvania will nominate the Alumni Trustee); that Advisory Committees be appointed by the Trustees upon nominated by the President of the institution for each Faculty or Research Institute from the relevant professions or related fields which shall make annual inspections and public reports." See, Perkins, Loschetter and von Moltke, 23 August 1955, 4-5.

[231] Abrams, 23 August 1955, 12.

[232] Ibid.

[233] Perkins, Loschetter and von Moltke, 23 August 1955, 5.

disciplines are closely related to those ["skills and professions"] required by the urban industrial society" was an urgent need in Turkey.[234] The development of urgent "skills and professions" could be achieved in a school that would facilitate technical and professional education combined with research on the basis of scientific principles. It was to be a technical school that would contribute to the advancement of knowledge on related fields.[235]

This independent school was envisioned to develop into a university. However, the report Abrams prepared for the Turkish Government did not include any statement on this issue. In his report he only maintained that the Turkish government supported the idea that in the future the school should be expanded to include engineering as well.[236] Education would not be confined to architecture and community planning. Later, he devoted a section of his 1969 book, "Education and Research: A University is Born in the Middle East," to his mission to Turkey in which he used the term "university" for the school he envisioned in 1954.[237] The status of this new school was clarified in the 1955 report by Perkins, Loschetter and von Moltke: "that the new institution be of University rank but independent of any existing University."[238] In the same report it was mentioned, for the first time, "that the name of the institution be the Middle East Technical University." Perkins, Loschetter and von Moltke devoted a part of their report for "Basic Provisions of a Proposed Law for the Establishment of the Middle East Technical University." They described the purpose of the law as follows:

(a) to create a corporate body titled THE MIDDLE EAST TECHNICAL UNIVERSITY, with its principle seat in Ankara, composed of faculties of Architecture, Regional and City Planning, Engineering and related Research Institutes.

(b) to grant to Minister of Education and to the Trustees of the University the broad and flexible powers needed to fulfill the University's responsibility to the country through:

   (1) the study and research of its faculty in their endeavors to enlarge the range of human knowledge;

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[234] Abrams, 1969, "Self-help, Core Housing, and Installment Construction," 165-6.

[235] The following statement quoted from the *Middle East Technical University Catalog* prepared for the 1958-59 academic year is in support of Abrams's ideas: "For the Middle East this is a period of great cultural and technological growth, resulting in an ever increasing demand for skilled professional workers and leaders, and for a corresponding growth of technical knowledge." See, *Middle East Technical University Catalog 1958-59*. Vol. 2. (Ankara: Middle East Technical University, August 1958), 7.

[236] Abrams, 23 August 1955, 13.

[237] Abrams, 1969, "Education and Research: A New University is Born in the Middle East," 195-212.

[238] Perkins, Loschetter and von Moltke, 23 August 1955, 4.

(2) the training of architects, engineers and regional and city planners who will better serve their fellowmen;

(3) the general dissemination of knowledge by publication of research;

(4) collaboration with the Government in improving the technical standards of building and of legislation in these fields.[239]

The UN experts' reports made the expectations more apparent. Combining education and research was seen as a major characteristic of an institution of higher education in the status of a university. METU achieved its distinctiveness through its emphasis on research. Envisioned as a modern university, METU was to be a research center and offer advanced studies and research as well. The proposal for the establishment of two research institutes -- "Research Institute for the Modernization of Construction and Materials" and "Research Institute for Housing, Regional, City and Village Planning" -- along with the establishment of "Faculty of Architecture" and "Faculty of City and Regional Planning" was in support of this concern.[240]

As mentioned before, Abrams considered the shortage of architects, city planners and engineers as an obstacle faced in the way toward urban development in Turkey and insisted that the educational program of the proposed school was to cover "engineering and such other technical disciplines as may be found advisable," as well as architecture and community planning.[241] This can be discerned in his following words:

> Though there were more trained engineers than architects in the country, there was a shortage of engineers as well -- thus after the school of architecture and community planning was organized and in operation, the scope of the school should be expanded so as to embrace engineering. However, the teaching of architecture should be directed toward *a specialized profession*, not coupled with engineering as a unit either in training or in the conferring of degrees; the same principle should apply to the engineering profession.[242]

In this quotation, two points need to be highlighted. The first point is the relationship Abrams envisioned between the disciplines of engineering and architecture, due to their significance for the development of an urbanizing country. Noticeably, he was committed to

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[239] Ibid., 14.

[240] The objectives of these research institutes as they were defined in the report prepared by Perkins, Loschetter and von Moltke are mentioned in Chapter 4 of this dissertation.

[241] Perkins, Loschetter and von Moltke, 23 August 1955, 1.

[242] Abrams, 1969, "Education and Research: A New University is Born in the Middle East," 203-204, emphasis added.

a set of values and principles commonly shared by architects, community planners and engineers concerning the creation of more livable environments. However, he also considered that engineering education should be initiated not along with architectural and planning programs, but after the programs in architecture and planning were developed and matured.[243] The second point that should be underlined is what Abrams meant by "specialized profession." The alternative of a joint degree of architecture-engineering, which Abrams criticized, was seen as a balanced program in architecture.

3.3 Abrams as a "Reflective Practitioner"

Chapter 3 aims to reveal Abrams's position with respect to the technical assistance policies of the UN for developing countries. It underlines the principles that framed his ideas on education and his proposal for the foundation of a technical university in Ankara. By concentrating on his mission report titled "The Need for Training and Education for Housing and Planning," I examine his critical evaluations of "the problems of housing and city and regional planning in Turkey," which he approached as part of the broader framework of problems caused by rapid industrial expansion and urbanization. It is argued that the significance of his proposal for the 1950s can better be understood and appreciated in light of the comprehensive approach he pursued. Abrams's critical evaluations are re-situated into the broader framework of his grasp of urbanization as a UN expert. His approach to the housing problem in developing countries, and his priorities on the subject of external aid is examined. Attention is called to the relationship he saw between education, democracy and urban development. This is followed by an examination of his evaluations regarding the possible contribution of a technical university for the problems of urbanization in Turkey.

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[243] This issue was mentioned in Abrams's report as follows: "The Government has expressed a desire that ultimately the school might expand to include engineering. Initially, however, it is felt that the school should start without being burdened too heavily with additional curricula and it should feel its way before expanding too rapidly." See, Abrams, 23 August 1955, 13. Later, the team of experts from the University of Pennsylvania mentioned the objectives of their mission as follows: "To advise and to submit proposals to the Government on matters concerning the organization, policy, curriculum and other details relating the establishment of a school for the teaching of architecture and community planning in Turkey, taking into account the possibility of a future expansion of such a school to embrace engineering and such other technical disciplines as may be found advisable." See, Perkins, Loschetter and von Moltke, 23 August 1955, 1.

Abrams envisioned a school that would be "independent" both in administrative and educational terms. Priority was to be given to technical and professional education. This school was to be in the status of a "university" in which education and research would be jointly carried and experimentation into urban problems would be encouraged. For Abrams, the establishment of a technical university, as a center for scientific research, would help initiate and foster research into urbanization. Professional and technical knowledge produced in the University was to be integrated with action by the graduates who should be well equipped as socially responsible and competent professional leaders. Educating and encouraging the future agents of change for Turkey was regarded as the main educational task of METU.

In the previous chapter, attention was drawn to Dewey as a leading intellectual figure behind the social and educational theories of the mid-twentieth century. This last part of Chapter 3 focuses on Dewey's possible influence on Abrams's approach to urban problems as a scholar and practitioner. It tries to understand the ways Deweyan ideas informed his constant search for integrating theory with practice.

Abrams makes no reference to Dewey's work, but it is highly likely that he, as an "urban reformer" and "social activist", has been acquainted with Dewey's ideas and his conception of democracy. Reference has already been made to a Deweyan influence on Abrams by Henderson. This found an explicit expression in the title of his doctoral dissertation and his subsequent book as "Housing and the Democratic Ideal: The Life and Thought of Charles Abrams." Henderson argued that Dewey played an important part in shaping Abrams's ideas and practices.

The influence of Dewey's democratic ideal on Abrams's missions to developing countries, as UN housing advisor, was noticeable. Abrams considered that in providing external aid, the differences in national, social or cultural patterns of the local contexts should not be disregarded. He sought to develop practical responses to the problems arising out of urbanization processes and he did this by combining his expertise in housing and planning with his experiences in the field of practice. Ward, a colleague of Abrams, noted:

> … Drawing on his profound knowledge on urban problems in America and seeking to apply this experience to the emerging cities of the Third World, he was a pioneer in bringing to governments and ministries and to the new professional groups some sense of the scale of urban disorder and deprivation they would have to confront and some outlines of the strategies they would need for effective action…[244]

Abrams's critical stance against racial discrimination in the fields of housing and redevelopment in America was in support of his commitment to Deweyan democratic ideal.[245] He saw the diversity and cosmopolitanism of the modern city as a wealth, rather than a problematic situation. He defended equality and human wrights. When planning and policy recommendations for public housing and urban renewal were concerned, Henderson argued, Abrams placed a special emphasis on "citizen empowerment and participation."[246] He defended the idea that the inhabitants of a particular area should be allowed and encouraged to take part in the planning processes and voice their particular needs and desires. This approach is related by Henderson to the notion of "participatory democracy" that was gaining significance in the 1960s.[247]

Abrams's scholarly position at the New School for Social Research in the mid-1930s provides an insight in the role of Deweyan ideas on his work. Henderson underlined that the New School, which was structured in 1918 "by Charles Beard, John Dewey, Alvin Johnson, and James Harvey Robinson" and was "solidly grounded in Progressive assumptions," offered ideal institutional conditions for Abrams.[248] He pointed out that in parallel with the progressive developments in the fields of education, social sciences and history, the New School represented "an endeavor to link practice with scholarship" due to "its emphasis on an integrated approach to studying and solving social problems."[249] The underlying

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[244] Ward, 1980, 7-8.
[245] From 1956 to 1959 Abrams was the Chairman of the State Commission Against Discrimination. See, Bernard Taper, "Charles Abrams: A Lover of Cities," in *The American Planner*, ed. Donald A. Krueckeberg (New Jersey: Center for Urban Policy Research, 1994), 429.
[246] Henderson, 1996, 445.
[247] Ibid., 446.
[248] Ibid., 153.
[249] Ibid., 155 and 158. It is important to mention that beginning from its foundation in the early twentieth century, the New School for Social Research acquired a distinguished position in the field of social sciences in America and this was, to a great extent, due to the existence of European intellectuals among the faculty of the school. In his forward to *Intellectuals in Exile: Refugee Scholars and the New School for Social Research*, Arthur J. Vidich argued that the faculty covered the "new generation of thinkers [who] sought their own ways of analyzing the social, cultural, political, and economic problems of the twentieth century." Claus-Dieter Krohn, the author of the same book, argued that the New School offered an ideal institutional setting for "German scholarship in exile" by

principles of the New School's educational direction were in parallel with Abrams's constant search for integrating theory and practice. These principles harmonized his holistic approach to urbanization and housing problems taking the needs of all related parties into consideration. Henderson explained why the New School was an ideal institutional setting for Abrams:

> Not all institutions supported the kind of *applied scholarship* that Abrams found appealing. One of the few did was the New School for Social Research. Unique among universities even today, the New School was both *a pedagogical and academic experiment* that attracted a wide range of American scholars. The New School, given its innovative nature, was an ideal place for Abrams to combine his skills as an instructor with his experiences outside academia.[250]

The way he integrated his "own experiences in law, real estate, public housing" to the curriculum of two courses he designed and taught at the New School -- "Contemporary Housing and Rehousing" and "Modern Problems in Real Estate" -- made manifest that Abrams matched the instructor profile, namely "the practitioner as scholar," that was emphasized at the New School.[251]

Chapter 3 of this dissertation concludes with an attempt to enlarge on this point -- Abrams's position as "reflective practitioner."[252] It directs its focus on Dewey's concept of "reflective" individual in order to better understand Abrams's position with reference to a vision of educated human individual that was influential in the mid-twentieth century.

"offering a place where the German tradition in the social sciences, having just been eradicated in its country of origin, could be carried on." For more information, see Arthur J. Vidich, foreword to *Intellectuals in Exile: Refugee Scholars and the New School for Social Research*, by Claus-Dieter Krohn, trans. Rita and Robert Kimber (Massachusetts: The University of Massachusetts Press, 1993), vii; Claus-Dieter Krohn, *Intellectuals in Exile: Refugee Scholars and the New School for Social Research*, trans. Rita and Robert Kimber (Massachusetts: The University of Massachusetts Press, 1993), 59.

[250]Henderson, 1996, 152, emphasis added.

[251]Ibid., 161-162. As underlined by Henderson, in 1939, Abrams played a key role in the establishment of the "Institute for Urban Studies" at the New School. This Institute facilitated "basic courses in planning" and it was based on "an interdisciplinary approach to subject matter."

[252]See, Henderson, 2000, 40-42 and 83-98.

Dewey's concept was examined in detail in Brian Holmes's essay "The Reflective Man: Dewey."[253] Holmes remarked that the state of being "subjected to pressures of industrialization and urbanization" necessitated being educated in accordance with modern conditions.[254] Education was to be designed to meet the emergent needs of the period. Consistent with the contention that the individuality of a human being develops in a society, Dewey believed that "man must be educated for a particular kind of society."[255] Dewey's ideal of individuality was bound to his ideal of a democratic society. In his view, an essential educational task was to endow individuals with a sense of responsibility and personal capability of playing part in the processes of problem-solving. A reflective human individual was the one who could combine his/her knowledge and skills with previous experiences in order to deal with problematic situations. The reflective human individual continuously learned from past experiences relating them to new situations.

Taking a step back in order to look critically to existing circumstances was essential in the process of problem-solving. "Where there is reflection," Dewey noted, "there is suspense."[256] The aim was to prevail over the problematic conditions. In Dewey's words, reflective thinking "is the condition of our having aims."[257] In his book *How We Think* Dewey remarked that the underlying intention is "*to transform* a situation in which there is experienced obscurity, doubt, conflict, disturbance of some sort, into a situation that is clear, coherent, settled, and harmonious."[258] In the words of Butts, reflective thinking meant "approaching experience intelligently with the intent *to remake* human experience and to accomplish real changes in events with the purpose of improving and enriching human life and enjoyment."[259] The terms "transforming" and "remaking" used for reflective thinking designate the most important component of this process; the fact that it concerns ways of acting as well as ways of thinking. Holmes remarked that, reflective thinking "cannot, one must realize, be used to indicate what knowledge the educated man should possess or the

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[253]See, Brian Holmes, "The Reflective Man: Dewey," in *The Educated Man: Studies in the History of Educational Thought,* eds. Paul Nash, Andreas M. Kazamias and Henry J. Perkinson (1965; reprint, New York, London, Sydney: John Wiley & Sons, Inc., 1967), 305-336.
[254] Ibid., 332.
[255] Ibid., 311.
[256] Dewey, 1997, "Experience and Thinking," 148.
[257] Ibid., 146.
[258] John Dewey, *How We Think; A Restatement of the Relation of Reflective Thinking to the Educative Process* (Boston, New York, Chicago: D.C. Heath and Company, 1933), 100-101, emphasis added.
[259] Butts, 1955, 565, emphasis added.

hierarchy of values by which he should live," but rather "can appropriately be used to identify a pattern of attitudes and the qualities of mind and character that constitute the equipment of any educated man."[260]

For Dewey, reflective thinking was a process that was initiated through "a sense of disturbance, or problem, to be solved," continued with "observation of the conditions surrounding the problem" and was followed by "formulation of suggested hypotheses, or plans of action, with their possible consequences if acted upon."[261] The final phase of this process comprised "actual and active experimental testing to see if the hypotheses when acted upon give the desired consequences." As underlined by Butts, Dewey considered and valued problem-solving as an "educational method":

> [B]asing educational method upon this process of thinking, Dewey reached the following implications for education: the student must be in the center of genuine situations of experience and constantly engaged in activities in which he is interested when the problem confronts him as a genuine stimulus to thought. He must possess or obtain the proper information to make observations that are necessary for dealing with the problem. Suggested solutions, or hypotheses, must occur to him, and he must be responsible for developing them in an orderly way. Finally, he must have the opportunity and the occasion to test his ideas by applying them in practice in order to make their meaning clear and to discover for himself their validity. Thus, *educational method really consists in the method of thinking made conscious and realized in action.*[262]

Thinking and acting reflectively should be developed as a method of inquiry that students could apply throughout their lives. As a student, a professional practitioner, or a citizen, the individual would operate problem-solving processes in realizing and responding change. In a Deweyan perspective, education should aim to instill in students problem-solving as a habit of thought and action. In their book *Education for Effective Thinking* William H. Burton, Roland B. Kimball and Richard L. Wing defined the responsibility of schools as "to provide ample opportunity to exercise the process of thinking, to the end that the natural tendencies to reflect and to draw inference will be transformed into attitudes and habits of systematic inquiry."[263] When these educational goals were achieved, students would be well-equipped

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[260] Holmes, 1967, 319.
[261] Butts, 1955, 565.
[262] Ibid., emphasis added.
[263] H. Burton, William, Roland B. Kimball and Richard L. Wing, *Education for Effective Thinking* (New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts Inc., 1960), 293.

to actively interact with their environment and partake in the attempts to solve problems specific to that environment.

Donald A. Schön's conception of "reflective practice" should be cited here. Dewey's idea of reflective thinking was a reference point for Schön, who himself mentioned that he was inspired by "the spirit of Deweyan inquiry that seeks to integrate thought and action, theory and practice, the academy and the everyday world" and "Dewey's recognition of practitioners as inquirers"[264] What Schön valued was the idea of inquiry as a process that combined "mental reasoning and action in the world."[265] He underlined that Dewey considered inquiry as a process in which the "inquirer does not stand outside the problematic situation like a spectator; he is in it and in transaction with it."[266] To be engaged in the situation, in Dewey's view, allowed the inquirer to test the validity of ideas through action. As underlined by Leonard J. Waks, for Dewey "the process ends only when the results of inquiry have been carried back to practice and are confirmed in the experiences of practitioners."[267] In this way it becomes a process in which the inquirer can learn from his/her experiences.

In Waks's view, what should be understood of Schön's idea of reflective practice is "the form of thinking specific to e.g. professional practices, and it is learned in the thick of the professional activity, not at one remove."[268] Schön opposed the idea that professional practice is "instrumental" in which "science or systematic knowledge" is applied into "the instrumental problems of practice."[269] On the contrary, he saw professional practice as an area in which knowledge specific to a profession is generated. Waks explained: "Schön set out to develop an epistemological alternative in which the actual practices of professionals, acquired from tradition and experience, rather than from science, constituted the core of professional knowledge."[270]

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[264] Donald A. Schön, "The Theory of Inquiry: Dewey's Legacy to Education," *Curriculum Inquiry* 22, no. 2, (Summer, 1992): 123.
[265] Ibid., 121.
[266] Ibid., 122.
[267] Leonard J. Waks, "Donald Schön's Philosophy of Design and Design Education," *International Journal of Technology and Design Education* 11 (2001): 40.
[268] Ibid.
[269] Donald A. Schön, "The New Scholarship Requires a New Epistemology," *Change* 27, no. 6 (Nov/Dec95).
[270] Waks, 2001, 39

Schön based his arguments on the criticism he raised against "technical rationality," according to which "instrumental, practical knowledge becomes professional when it is based on the results of scientific research."[271] He criticized the persistence of technical rationality as a legitimate epistemological basis in the modern research university, which resulted in the emergence of "a dilemma of rigor or relevance."[272] For university-conducted research to be "rigorous," Schön argued, it is supposed to fulfill the "norms" determined by the academy. On the other hand, the "relevance" of research maintaining these academic norms is also problematic:

> Research, of the kind that was viewed as proper to the 'higher schools' -- rigorously controlled experimentation, statistical analysis of observed correlations of variables, or disinterested theoretical speculation -- finds little place to stand in the turbulent world of practice, which is notoriously uncontrolled, where problems are usually ill-formed, and where actors in the practice situation are undeniably 'interest-ed.' The consequence, stronger today than ever, was that the research produced by the 'higher schools' seemed to have little to say that was of value to practitioners.[273]

By considering practice as "a setting not only for the application of knowledge but for its generation," Schön saw professional practitioners as reflective practitioners whose knowledge resides in their action and who reflect on their actions in order to deal with problematic situations.[274] He also stressed the issue of teaching what you are doing, and considered that, the thing to be emphasized is "to observe ourselves in the doing, reflect on what we observe, describe it, and reflect on our description."[275]

This was the kind of "reflective practice" that informed Abrams's work as a scholar. He aimed at teaching what he was doing. He matched what Henderson called "the practitioner as scholar":

> … [H]e very much wanted to convey to others his experience-derived expertise and insights in housing: teaching and scholarship were logical avenues through which to channel and refine these interests… Abrams's teaching was an opportunity to enlarge the compass of his intellectual activities and a chance to link scholarship to public problems and issues. In doing so, he would define and sometimes redefine the

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[271] Schön, 1992, 119.
[272] Ibid.
[273] Schön, Nov/Dec95.
[274] Ibid.
[275] Ibid.

interrelationships among academic scholarship, municipal research, activism, reform and individual agency.[276]

Taper underlined that Abrams's students "place particular value on his wide range of practical experience, for very few of their professors have been as active in the nonacademic world as Abrams."[277] Abrams emphasized the significance of knowledge that was generated through practice. He shared this kind of knowledge with his students and encouraged them to be actively involved in real world affairs, which will open the way for them to partake in new knowledge-generating processes. Abrams's goal as a scholar was to train his students as "reflective practitioners." As the head of the Columbia University's Division of Urban Planning, he played a key role in the establishment of the Institute of Urban Environment. He inaugurated courses on housing problems in developing countries with the aim of training "a crop of young experts who can be of help to the developing nations in the way that he himself has been in his missions for the UN."[278]

In his mission to Turkey, Abrams laid stress upon observing different aspects of urban problems, revealing the deficiencies at the levels of policy making, practice and education and suggesting plans of action for enhancing urban development process. He saw collaboration with the host country indispensable in order to achieve success. Collaboration was emphasized due to its potential to open the way for all related parties to partake into a systematic critical inquiry and plans of action needed to meet future needs as well as existing demands. The concern for collaboration was underlined in his report, but more importantly, was actualized in his actions. Abrams's "pragmatic, reflective style of problem-solving," to use Henderson's words, was once more at issue.[279]

A striking demonstration of this style was seen through his ideas on the vital contribution of "inperts" versus "experts." He emphasized the ways foreign experts could channel their know-how and international experiences to make observations, from outsider points of view, and build up strategies for developing countries. However, he was certain that to inaugurate and enhance training, education and research facilities in these countries could make much more effective contribution to the implementation of these strategies and secure the

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[276] Henderson, 1996, 151-52.
[277] Taper, 1994, 435.
[278] Ibid., 436.
[279] Henderson, 2000, "Cold War, the United Nations, and Technical Assistance," 182.

continuance of urban development process. In Tekeli's view, Abrams emphasized "inperts" as people who were able to recognize the problems specific to their environment and propose solutions, the particularity and effectiveness of which stems from the inperts' being acquainted with their country.[280]

Therefore, Abrams proposed that the major educational task was training of "inperts" for Turkey by developing students' skills to deal with "the multiple tasks that lay ahead."[281] These "inperts" could contribute to the advancement of technical and professional know-how in the country.

In his mission to Turkey, he underlined an urgent need for the establishment of a technical university in Ankara, in which education and research programs in interrelated disciplines addressing the problems entailed by rapid urbanization will be put into operation. This technical university should train a body of professionally competent and open-minded individuals that the country needed. This was the focal point of an article published in *Time* in 1960 on the topic of the first graduation ceremony for students of architecture at METU.[282] Emphasis was placed on the ways the education program inaugurated at METU enabled and encouraged "students [to] learn practical answers to practical problems" specific to their country. [283] It was underlined that "by learning on home ground, they are in a better position than many students who go abroad and come back filled with knowledge that may or may not apply to the home region."

Abram's critical re-evaluation of the problems in the areas of urbanization, housing and planning, the shortage of well-equipped professionals, and the challenges facing architectural and planning education in Turkey in the 1950s, constitutes the starting point of his METU project. He emphasized the possible contribution of a technical university to the country's ongoing efforts for the solution of the above mentioned problems. As underlined by Henderson, METU "demonstrated Abrams's ability to solve problems as a reflective practitioner."[284] He not only initiated the foundation process of METU, but continued his

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[280] Tekeli in Aktüre, Osmay, and Savaş eds., 2007, 88-89.
[281] Abrams, 1969, xi.
[282] "Technology for Turkey." *Time* 76, no.2 (July 11, 1960): 63.
[283] Ibid.
[284] Henderson, 2000, 180.

interest in the development of this institute of higher learning. "As the years pass and the thousands of trained young men and women take their places throughout Turkey's cities and farms," Abrams noted, METU "will have a greater and more lasting impact on Turkey and perhaps on the Middle East."[285]

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[285] Abrams, 1969, 208.

CHAPTER 4

THE PERSPECTIVE OF G. HOLMES PERKINS: ARCHITECTURAL EDUCATION IN A CHANGING WORLD

The objective of this chapter is to highlight the educational ideals that informed G. Holmes Perkins's METU project and examine his position in the new orientations emerging in the field of architectural education in America in the mid-twentieth century. The examination is divided into two main parts. In the first part, I examine the objectives and results of the UN mission fulfilled by the team of experts from the University of Pennsylvania. By concentrating on "Report on the Establishment of a School for the Teaching of Architecture and Community Planning in Turkey," which played a significant role in the foundation of METU Faculty of Architecture and shaping of its architecture program, I examine the recommendations that were put forward by Perkins, Loschetter and von Moltke. In the second part of Chapter 4, the focus is directed towards understanding the ideals that Perkins pursued as an urban planner, architect, administrator and educator. I concentrate on his writings and practices through which he achieved a distinguished position in the mainstream debates of the period.

4.1 Introduction: The UN Mission Headed by Perkins and the Realization of an Educational Project

> Pursuant to the Basic Agreement concluded on 5 September 1951 between the United Nations and the Government of Turkey, the Technical Assistance Administration (TAA) of the United Nations on 6 April 1955 entered into a contract with the University of Pennsylvania to send a team of experts to Turkey, consisting of:
>> G. Holmes Perkins, Dean, University of Pennsylvania
>> Leon Loschetter, Professor of Architecture, University of Pennsylvania
>> Wilhelm V. von Moltke, Professor of Architecture, University of Pennsylvania
> with the following terms of reference:

1. To advise and to submit proposals to the Government on matters concerning the organization, policy, curriculum and other details relating the establishment of a school for the teaching of architecture and community planning in Turkey, taking into account the possibility of a future expansion of such a school to embrace engineering and such other technical disciplines as may be found advisable.
2. To submit to the TAA a final report embodying the conclusions arrived at by the team upon completion of its duties.
3. To secure the co-operation of an established university in the United States of America to assist in guiding the school during its formative years.[286]

This quotation officially declared the participation of the University of Pennsylvania to the foundation process of a school of architecture and community planning in Ankara and made clear the scope of the mission of the team of experts. It is important to note that this mission was not limited to founding a school. The aim was also to assist the procedures and development of the proposed school in the years following the foundation. In "The General Policy Recommendations" part of their reports, Perkins, Loschetter and von Moltke stated:

> that foreign experts are needed to advice on the creation of the institution, to staff it with competent teachers during the early years and to prepare Turkish architects and city planners to assume leadership in the school and in the profession over the long-term.[287]

The intention was to provide a long-lasting and efficient assistance for METU Faculty of Architecture. Establishing a new school was an exciting task. It would help create a fertile environment for the realization of new ideas. Transplantation of emergent approaches, however, was not an easy task and required considerable time. Therefore, the extent to which the objectives of this mission were achieved and the ways the formative ideals were put into practice could be explored through an examination not only of the foundation process, but also of the period following the foundation. Yet, the focus of this dissertation is the foundation of METU Faculty of Architecture and the political and educational contexts of the ideas and ideals that informed this process.

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[286] Perkins, Loschetter and von Moltke, 23August 1955, 1.
[287] Ibid., 4.
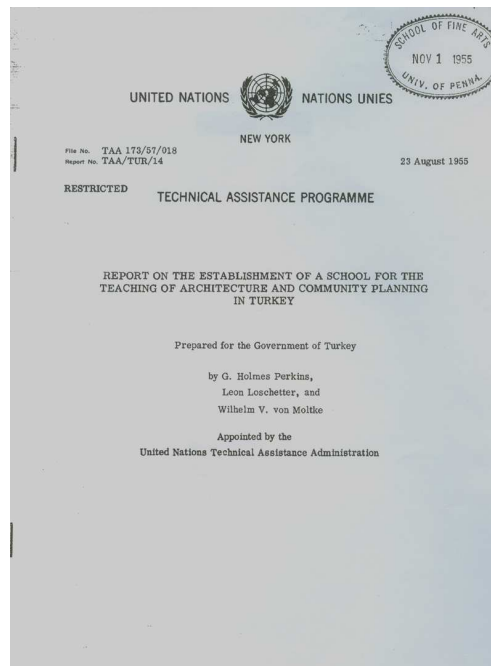
Fig. 4.1. Cover page of the report prepared for the Government of Turkey by G. Holmes Perkins, Leon Loschetter, and Wilhelm V. von Moltke.

It may be well to start with the brief background information regarding the mission of the team of experts from the University of Pennsylvania in connection with Abrams's mission:

1. The previous United Nations mission of Mr. Charles Abrams in September and October 1954, after a survey of the problems of housing and city and regional planning in Turkey, and after consultation with the Deputy Prime Minister, the Minister of Education, and many individuals, recommended that the most effective attack upon these problems would be the establishment of a school (of University standing) of Architecture and Community Planning in Ankara.

2. In accordance with Mr. Abrams's recommendations the Turkish Government requested the United Nations to 'make available the technical assistance essential as a first step toward implementing such a project.' The objective of this United Nations Mission was 'to discuss with representatives of the Turkish Government the organization, policy, curriculum and other details of the proposed school of architecture and community planning which, in the future and as experience and opportunity afford, would be expanded to embrace engineering and other technical disciplines.'

3. In response to the above request the United Nations contracted with the University of Pennsylvania to send a mission of three experts to advise the Turkish Government.[288]

The second UN mission to Ankara was in the agenda of Turkish officials, too. A review of the official documents gathered in an archival survey in The Grand National Assembly of Turkey reveals the emphasis placed on Perkins's professional expertise and the final report that the team of experts prepared for the Government of Turkey:

In our country public works activities are increasing rapidly in parallel with the developments in the fields of agriculture, industry, trade and economy. In this respect, it is highly necessary to take preventive measures for fulfilling our present and future needs for the development and construction of public facilities. In the meanwhile, to put into function Middle East Technical University for the purpose of training personnel who will firstly produce development plans for our cities, towns and villages, design projects for modern and inexpensive buildings, and construct these buildings will be helpful. For this purpose, following the advices of Perkins, Dean of Architecture at the University of Pennsylvania [School of Fine Arts], and his fellows who came to our country through the agency of the United Nations Technical Administration Agency, it is determined to establish this institution in Ankara.[289]

As it is stated in the preamble of the draft law in detail, the development and construction of public facilities are progressively continuing in parallel to the economical and industrial development of our country; optimistic outlooks are witnessed every day, and, therefore, there is demand for architects, engineers, Master of Architecture and Master of Science specialized on mechanics, transportation and construction, city planning, and water works. However, our schools and opportunities are insufficient in training the demanded technical personnel.

For that reason, a necessary survey is done for our Government by a team invited from the University of Pennsylvania through the agency of the UN's technical

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[288] Ibid., 2.
[289] "Memleketimizde ziraat, endüstri, ticaret ve ekonomi sahalarında kaydedilen inkişaflara muvazi olarak bayındırlık faaliyetleri de süratle artmaktadır. Bu itibarla, imar bakımından şimdiki ve gelecekteki yeni ihtiyaçlarımızı karşılamak için gereken tedbirlerin alınması çok lüzumludur. Bu meyanda, önce şehir, kasaba ve köylerimizin imar planlarını hazırlayacak, modern ve ucuz binaların projelerini çizecek ve bunları inşa ettirecek elemanları yetiştirmek gayesiyle bir Orta Doğu Teknik Üniversitesinin açılması faydalı olacaktır. Bu maksatla Bileşmiş Milletler Teknik Yardım Teşkilâtının aracılığı ile memleketimize gelmiş olan Pensilvanya Üniversitesi Mimari Dekanı Dr. Perkins ve arkadaşlarının tavsiyelerine uyularak bu müessesenin Ankara'da kurulmasına karar verilmiştir" (English translation by the author). See, "Orta-Doğu Teknik Üniverstesinin Kuruluş ve Hazırlıkları Hakkında Kanun Layihası ve Maarif ve Bütçe Encümenleri Mazbataları, 1/572 (Draft Law and Minutes of the Commissions of Education and Budget relating to the Founding Preparations of Middle East Technical University, 1/572)," TBMM Zabıt Ceridesi, Cilt: 16, Devre: X, İçtima: III, S. Sayısı: 82 (Ankara: The Grand National Assembly of Turkey Archive, 16 November 1956).

assistance and in the light of a report prepared by the team, it is decided to establish a technical university in Ankara and, for the present, to put architectural and city planning branches into operation.[290]

The contract with the University of Pennsylvania was signed after several meetings were convedened between Abrams and the officials of the UN TAA on the subject of the involvement of an American university in this educational project. It can be stated that the team of experts from the University of Pennsylvania partook in the foundation of METU Faculty of Architecture through the initiatives of Abrams.

In her doctoral dissertation titled "Origins of Excellence: The Practical Ethos of G. Holmes Perkins," Scott underlined that three American universities -- University of Pennsylvania, Harvard University, and University of California at Berkeley -- were recommended by Abrams to the UN TAA with the objective of "determin[ing] the new school's structure."[291] Scott pointed out that "atop that list was Dean G. Holmes Perkins of the Graduate School of Fine Arts at the University of Pennsylvania." In her view, his reputation as "the leader in modern housing pedagogy" and also "a pedagogical leader and innovator" made Perkins eligible for this recommendation.[292] Alternatively, in his book *Bozkırı Yeşertenler: ODTÜ Kuruluş Yılları Anıları, 1959-1963* Ersoy argued that it was Harold E. Stassen, the president of the University of Pennsylvania from 1948 to 1953, who paved the way for the participation of this American university to the foundation process of METU.[293] Pointing to

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[290] "Layihanın esabu mucibesinde de tafsilatiyle arz olunduğu üzere memleketimizin iktisadi, sınai kalkınmasına muvazi olacak imar faaliyetleri büyük bir hızla devam etmekte, her gün inşirah verici manzaralara şahit olunmakta ve bu itibarla makine, elektrik, yol ve inşaat, şehircilik, su işlerinde mütehassıs, mimar, mühendis ve yüksek mimar ve yüksek mühendislere çok ihtiyaç görülmekte olup halen mevcut mekteplerimiz ve imkanlarımız bu teknik elemanları kâfi derecede yetiştirememektedir. Bu sebeple Hükümetimiz Birleşmiş Milletler teknik yardımından faydalanarak Pensilvanya Üniversitesinden davet edilen bir heyete gerekli tetkikatı yaptırmış ve bu heyetin hazırladığı rapordan mülhem olarak, Birleşmiş Milletler teknik yardımından faydalanmak imkanı da sağlanmış olduğundan Ankara'da bir teknik üniversitenin kurulmasına ve şimdilik mimari ve şehircilik şubelerinin faaliyete geçmesine karar verilmiştir" (English translation by the author). See, "TBMM Bütçe Encümeni Mazbatası, 1/572 (Minutes of the Commission of Budget of the Grand National Assembly of Turkey)," Cilt: 16, Devre: X, İçtima: III, S. Sayısı: 82 (Ankara: The Grand National Assembly of Turkey Archive, 18 January 1957).
[291] Scott, 2004, 12.
[292] Ibid., 13.
[293] Ersoy experienced the founding years of METU as an instructor and administrator alongside the leading international people of those years such as Perkins, Godfrey, and W. R. Woolrich. Ersoy noted: "ODTU'nün kuruluşu aşamalarında Pennsylvania Üniversitesi'ni devreye sokan, H. Stassen olmuştur. Stassen, bu üniversitenin rektörlüğünü yaptığı yıllarda, Mimarlık Fakültesine çeki düzen vermek için Perkins'i Dekan atamıştı" (English translation by the author). Uğur Ersoy, *Bozkırı*

the fact that Perkins was appointed as the Dean of the School of Fine Arts during Stassen's presidency, Ersoy was confident that this reference made Perkins eligible for the UN mission. Opinions about the roles played by Abrams and Stassen in Perkins's appointment as a UN consultant vary. Chapter 4 of this dissertation examines Perkins's position in the field of architectural education in America, which helps to better understand his expertise for the UN mission to Turkey.

Following the contract between the UN and the University of Pennsylvania, Perkins nominated the other experts to participate him in the technical assistance mission.[294] These experts were Leon Loschetter and George Howe. Howe could not participate in the mission because of his immediate decease. It should be underlined that he was a well-known figure in the field of architecture in America in the 1950s.[295] Wilhelm V. von Moltke was appointed as an expert for the UN mission along with Perkins and Loschetter.[296]

Yeşertenler; ODTÜ Kuruluş Yılları Anıları, 1959-1963 (Those Who Turned the Steppe Green: Memories of the Founding Years of METU, 1956-1963) (Ankara: Evrim Yayınevi, 2002), 7. Reference to Stassen's appointment of Perkins to University of Pennsylvania "to revamp the School of Fine Arts" was made earlier by Christopher Klemek in his doctoral dissertation. See, Christopher Klemek, "Urbanism as Reform: Modernist Planning and the Crisis of Urban Liberalism in Europe and North America, 1945-1975" (PhD diss., University of Pennsylvania, 2004), 214. As has already been noted in the previous chapter, Stassen was the first head of the FOA and had a positive outlook toward the foundation of a school of architecture and community planning in Ankara. Furthermore, he was employed by UNESCO as a consultant to METU. In collaboration with Woolrich, the first Consultant President and subsequently the first Interim President of METU, Stassen prepared "Initial Policies and Program Complementary and Supplementary to the Charter of June-4 1959 of the Middle East Technical University." For further information on this document, see W. R. Woolrich, "A New Middle Eastern University with Modern Western World Objectives," Reprinted from *Journal of Engineering Education* 50, no. 9 (May 1960), 702.

[294] For a more detailed examination of the members of the team of experts from the University of Pennsylvania see, Scott, 2004; Payaslıoğlu, 1996.

[295] George Howe (1886-1955) was known as a modernist architect in America. He was trained in Harvard University and the Ecole des Beaux-Arts in Paris. He was a practicing architect as well as being an attendee of numerous committees relating to architectural education -- the Board of Overseers of Harvard University for the new Graduate School of Design, the advisory council for the Department of Architecture at Princeton University, and a national advisory group in connection with design instruction at the California Institute of Technology. For more information, see Robert A. M. Stern, *George Howe: Toward a Modern American Architecture* (New Haven, CT: Yale University Press, 1975); Andrew Shanken, "Between Brotherhood and Bureaucracy: Joseph Hudnut, Louis I. Kahn and the American Society of Planners and Architects," *Planning Perspectives* 20 (April 2005): 147–175; Sandra L. Tatman, "Biography from the American Architects and Buildings Database: George Howe," Philadelphia Architects and Buildings, 2009, http://www.philadelphiabuildings.org/pab/app/ar_display.cfm/25206 (accessed January 10, 2009).

[296] "A graduate of the *Technische Hochschule* in Berlin, Wilhelm von Moltke (1911-1987) continued his studies with Walter Gropius in the GSD master Studio; receiving an M.Arch. degree in 1942. He practiced with Marcel Breuer and Eero Saarinen, developed his own practice as a city planner, working, most notably, as chief designer for the Philadelphia City Planning Commission, 1953-1961.
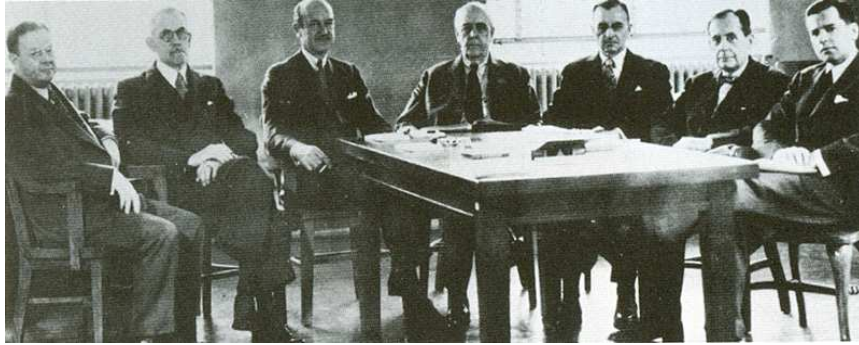
Fig. 4.2. George Howe as a member of the competition jury for the "Smithsonian Gallery of Art, Washington D.C.," 1939. Left to right: Joseph Hudnut, John A. Holabird, Henry Shepley, Frederic A. Delano, George Howe, Walter Gropius, and Thomas Mabry.

Fig. 4.3. Wilhelm V. von Moltke as a graduate student in the jury for the "New City" Project, Urban Design Studio, Harvard GSD, 1961. Left to right, José Sert, Sigfried Gideon, Louis I. Kahn, and Wilhelm von Moltke.

He was director of urban design for the Guayana Project (p.v.), 1961-1964 and in 1963 became the first director of the urban Design program at the GSD. In addition to his activities in developing the Urban Design curriculum, von Moltke was an influential lecturer and consultant." See, "Wilhelm Viggo von Moltke," Harvard University, Graduate School of Design, http://www.gsd.harvard.edu/loeb_library/special_collections/collections/ (accessed February 1, 2007).

Fig. 4.4. G. Holmes Perkins and Georgia Perkins at the Çankaya Presidential Residence with Celal Bayar (President of the Republic of Turkey), Celal Yardımcı (Minister of Education), Mithat Yenen (Deputy General Director of the Bank of Provinces), Celalettin Uzer (Head of Technical Services Department, the Ministry of Public Works) and Adli Yener (General Director of Highways).

Appointed by the UN TAA, Perkins, Loschetter and von Moltke arrived at Ankara on 17 April 1955 and stayed here until 30 May 1955. During their mission, the team of experts collaborated with Vecdi Diker, Ahmet Tokuş, Mithat Yenen, and Adli Yener. As has already been mentioned in the previous chapter, in his UN mission to Ankara, Abrams made field surveys and put special emphasis on establishing dialogue with different groups of people involved in manifold aspects of the problems entailed by rapid urbanization. The team of experts from the University of Pennsylvania continued the same approach. Perkins, Loschetter and von Moltke carried numerous meetings with Turkish governmental officials, administrators, academicians, architects, planners and engineers, and paid attention to their possible contribution to the realization of this educational project in Ankara.[297]

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[297] They visited Celal Bayar (President of the Republic of Turkey), Refik Koraltan (President of the National Assembly), Adnan Menderes (Prime Minister), Mükerrem Sarol (Minister of State), Celal Yardımcı (Minister of Education), Muammer Çavuşoğlu (Minister of Transport), Kemal Zeytinoğlu (Minister of Public Works) and Osman Faruk Verimer (Acting under Secretary of Education). They visited the Technical University of Istanbul, State Fine Arts Academy in Istanbul, the University of Ankara, the Ankara Trade Institute, and the Ankara Technical Teachers' Training College. They studied collaboratively with Prof. Ahmet Tornay and Prof. Ismail Yalman from the Technical Teachers' Training College; Bedri Gürsoy (Dean of Faculty of Political Science, Ankara); Prof. S. Kemal Yetkin (History of Art, Faculty of Theology, Ankara); Mustafa Santur (President of the Istanbul Technical University); Kemal Ahmet Aru (Professor of City Planner, Istanbul Technical University); Kemal Süleymanoğlu (Professor of Construction, Istanbul Technical University); Sedat Hakkı Eldem (Prof. of Architecture, State Fine Arts Academy in Istanbul); Fuat Çobanoğlu (Chemistry Engineer and Economist, Ankara); Celal Uzer (architect and city planner, Ministry of Public Works, Ankara); Aydın Germen (city planner, Istanbul); Nihat Yücel (city planner, Iller Bank, Ankara). See, Perkins, Loschetter, and von Moltke, 23 August 1955, 27.

At the end of their visit, the team of experts prepared a final report in which their critical evaluations were developed into policy recommendations and details about the legislative, administrative and educational aspects of the proposed school. "Report on the Establishment of a School for the Teaching of Architecture and Community Planning in Turkey" was the basis for the preliminary architecture program. It was an official document clarifying the educational ideals that informed the foundation of METU Faculty of Architecture. Any attempt to explore the METU project envisioned by Perkins should take this report as its basis.

There are different interpretations about Perkins's role in the foundation of METU Faculty of Architecture. Ersoy's evaluation deserves to be mentioned. "The contacts made by the team headed by Perkins in their arrival to Turkey in 1955 and the report that was prepared as a result of these contacts," he noted, "made positive effects both on the Turkish Government and the United Nations officials and played a significant role in the foundation of METU."[298] In his view, "the person who played the major role in the foundation of METU Faculty of Architecture was Perkins."[299]

Scott devoted a part of her doctoral dissertation to an examination of Perkins's involvement into the foundation process of METU Faculty of Architecture.[300] She noted:

> G. Holmes Perkins points to the creation of Middle East Technical University (METU) as the most complete expression of his ideals in the field of architecture. Its origin, development, and implementation spanned nearly a decade, and in the process, it went from being a small school aimed at developing well-rounded architects and planners to combat the terrible housing problems of Turkey, to being the largest, most comprehensive university in the country, enveloping disciplines as far reaching as science, engineering, medicine, and business, as well as, the original architectural intent. The story of its creation and the process of its becoming reflect Perkins's priorities thoroughly.[301]

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[298] "Perkins'in başkanlığındaki heyetin 1955'de Türkiye'ye gelerek yaptığı temasların ve bu temaslar sonunda hazırladığı raporun, gerek Türk Hükümeti, gerekse Birleşmiş Milletler yetkilileri üzerinde çok olumlu etkileri olmuş ve ODTÜ'nün kurulmasında önemli rol oynamıştır" (English translation by the author). Ersoy, 2002, 8.
[299] "Kanımca Perkins, ODTÜ Mimarlık Fakültesinin kuruluşunda baş rol oynayan kişi olmuştur" (English translation by the author). Ibid., 9.
[300] Scott, 2004, 184-192.
[301] Ibid., 184.

This study proposes that a detailed examination of the project Perkins envisioned for METU should address the following questions: What did he intend to realize in Ankara? What were the strands and the underlying principles of his project? What were the educational ideals that framed his approach to architecture and architectural education? By pursuing these questions, this chapter aims at exploring the characteristics of what Scott called "the distinctively different attitudes toward education set up in METU" with reference to new orientations in the field of architectural education in America in the mid-twentieth century.

The instruction in architecture was initiated on 1 November, 1956, with a group of 50 students and the school was officially opened on 15 November, 1956 under the title "Middle East High Institute of Technology" (Orta Doğu Yüksek Teknoloji Enstitüsü).[302] This was reported in the document "Middle East Technical University Draf Law and Minutes of the Provisional Commission, 1/357" (Orta-Doğu Teknik Üniversitesi Kanunu Layihası ve Muvakkat Encümeni Mazbatası, 1/357) as follows:

> … Middle East Technical University had begun to function, firstly, on 15 November, 1956, with faculties of Architecture and City Planning; under the title of Middle East Institute of Technology in Ankara, composed of 2 distinguished professors appointed by the United Nations and 4 Turkish instructors and 50 students. Subsequently, the initiatives for the development of the Institute into a university have begun with the passing of the Law, No. 6887 of 23 January, 1957…[303]

Two years after the passing of the draft law, the basic law of METU was passed in the Grand National Assembly of Turkey on 27 May, 1959, and METU authoritatively assumed the

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[302] This was the first official name of the Institute that constituted the core of METU Faculty of Architecture. In the literature, the name of the Institute is also known as Middle East Technical Institute (Orta Doğu Teknik Enstitüsü) or Middle East Institute of Technology (Orta Doğu Teknoloji Enstitüsü). See, "Orta-Doğu Teknik Üniversitesi Kanunu Layihası ve Muvakkat Encümeni Mazbatası, 1/357 (Middle East Technical University Draft Law and Minutes of the Provisional Commission, 1/357)," TBMM Zabıt Ceridesi, Cilt: 9/1, Devre: XI, İçtima: 2, S. Sayısı: 268 (Ankara: The Grand National Assembly of Turkey Archive, 20 May 1959); Reed, Summer 1975; Payaslıoğlu, 1996.

[303] "… Orta Doğu Teknik Üniversitesi ilk önce, 15 Kasım 1956 tarihinde mimari ve şehircilik fakülteleriyle; Orta Doğu Teknoloji Enstitüsü adı ile Ankara'da, Birleşmiş Milletlerin temin ettiği iki kıymetli profesör ve 4 Türk öğretim görevlisinden müteşekkil bir kadro ve 50 öğrenci ile faaliyete geçmiştir. Bilahare 23 Ocak 1957 tarih ve 6887 sayılı Kanunla müessesenin üniversite olarak kuruluşu ile ilgili hazırlıklara başlanmıştır…" (English translation by the author). See, "Orta-Doğu Teknik Üniversitesi Kanunu Layihası ve Muvakkat Encümeni Mazbatası, 1/357 (Middle East Technical University Draft Law and Minutes of the Provisional Commission, 1/357)," TBMM Zabıt Ceridesi, Cilt: 9/1, Devre: XI, İçtima: 2, S. Sayısı: 268 (Ankara: The Grand National Assembly of Turkey Archive, 20 May 1959), emphasis added.

status of a technical university.[304] This was firstly declared in the related article of the basic law of METU, No. 7307: "A university entitled Middle East Technical University having the status of a legal entity has been established in Ankara to provide education for young people, to carry out research and to be regulated under the related legislative provisions."[305] The goals of the University were defined as follows:

(a) to provide technical and professional education in English language for a large number of Turkish students;
(b) to carry out research in economical, technical and other areas having critical significance for Turkey;
(c) to welcome students especially from countries of Middle East and to help advance the international agreement to educate all students in accordance with the same vision of a liberated humanity;
(d) to carry out research to advance scientific knowledge, as in all universities.[306]

When the foundation of METU Faculty of Architecture is under examination, Dean Godfrey and his role in the founding years should be cited.[307] In September 1956, he was appointed by the UN to put in operation the proposal for the foundation of a school of architecture and community planning in Ankara, and during the first two years of his stay in Turkey, he assumed the responsibilities of Dean of Architecture and Director of METU.[308] In the 1957-1958 academic year, as a Professor of Architecture he taught the courses of Basic Design

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[304] "Orta Doğu Teknik Üniversitesi Kanunu (The Middle East Technical University Law)," TBMM Kavanin Mecmuası, Cilt: 41, Devre: XI, İçtima: 2 (Ankara: The Grand National Assembly of Turkey Archive, Date of Approval: 27 May 1959, No. 7307; Date of Announcement in *Official Journal* (Resmi Gazete): 4 June 1959, Sayı: 10222).

[305] "Gençliğin eğitimini temin etmek, araştırmalar yapmak ve bu kanun hükümleri dâhilinde idare edilmek üzere Ankara'da Orta Doğu Teknik Üniversitesi adı ile hükmi şahsiyeti haiz bir üniversite kurulmuştur" (English translation by the author). See, Ibid.

[306] "(a) Yüksek sayıda Türk gencinin umumiyetle İngilizce ile teknik ve mesleki öğretimini sağlamak; (b) Türkiye için büyük ehemmiyeti haiz iktisadi, teknik ve sair sahalarda araştırmalar yapmak; (c) Bilhassa Orta-Doğu memleketlerinden gelecek öğrencileri kabul etmek ve bütün öğrencilerini aynı hür insanlık idealine göre yetiştirecek milletlerarası anlayışı kuvvetlendirmeye yardım etmek; (d) Genel olarak her üniversite gibi, ilmi hakikatlerin araştırılması yolunda çalışmalar yapmak" (English translation by the author). See, "Orta-Doğu Teknik Üniversitesi Kanunu Layihası ve Muvakkat Encümeni Mazbatası, 1/357 (Middle East Technical University Draft Law and Minutes of the Provisional Commission, 1/357)," TBMM Zabıt Ceridesi, Cilt: 9/1, Devre: XI, İçtima: 2, S. Sayısı: 268 (Ankara: The Grand National Assembly of Turkey Archive, 20 May 1959).

[307] Godfrey was born in 1920 in Philadelphia. He received the degree in Architecture in Harvard University in 1942. He worked as an architect in Philadelphia and taught at University of Pennsylvania as a member of the faculty articulated by Perkins. See, Godfrey, 9 June 2006.

[308] See, Reed, Summer 1975, 222. Godfrey underlined the fact that in an official meeting with the Minister of Education of Turkey, he was told that his mission was to start a university, not a school of architecture and community planning as envisioned in the previous UN mission. See, Godfrey, 9 June 2006.

and Architectural Design I and II and headed "Field Practice in Construction" and "Office Practice in Architecture" together with Professor Marvin Sevely.[309] Dean Godfrey was in close relationship with Perkins and his existence in Ankara in the founding years enabled and strengthened the effectiveness of Perkins's involvement in the development process of METU Faculty of Architecture.

Payaslıoğlu pointed out that although Perkins did not attend the opening ceremony of the Institute, he continued his interest in the improvement of the University in legislative, administrative and educational terms.[310] Like Abrams, Perkins considered the foundation of METU Faculty of Architecture as the most important accomplishments of his career. Apparently, he was excited about the foundation of a new independent school that would create a fertile ground for the realization of his educational ideals. Perkins explained the positive atmosphere in the founding years of METU as follows:

> There was never any serious impact upon our educational ideas. They didn't pressure us in any way. In the first five or six year, we selected all the professors. The head of it, for the first few years, the temporary head in the beginning, was Tom Godfrey, who had been my Vice Dean here. He lived in the building, which we were given at the time to take care of about fifty students. It was a family atmosphere.[311]

Perkins's appointment for directing the mission for the establishment of a school of architecture and community planning in Ankara had important implications for the kind of urban development envisioned for Turkey.

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[309] See, *Bulletin of Middle East Technical University*. Vol. 1 (Ankara: Middle East Technical University, July 1957), 20-26. (I want to express my gratitude to Prof. Dr. İnci Aslanoğlu for providing a copy of this bulletin from her private achieve). A reference should be made to the project proposal titled "Village redevelopment" that was presented by Godfrey and Sevely to the first 50 students of architecture in 4 March 1957 in the course of Architectural Design 1. This document is significant as it delineated some principle concerns of Godfrey's approach as an instructor. The project site was Ağsak Village, Ankara. The students of architecture were expected to take the existing environmental problems of the site into consideration in developing proposals for the redevelopment of the village. The objective of the course was explained as "to introduce the student the basic methods and creative approach to the problems of the designer, rather than to place a body of knowledge at his disposal." It was aimed at making the students "aware of the human, the technical, the aesthetic components of architecture." They were "asked to undertake a problem in community design, to organize the problem, to plan an integrated program and with constructive means and space development to arrive at an architectural expression."

[310] Perkins visited METU for the second time on 17 June, 1957 and stayed in Ankara till 14 July, 1957. In this visit, he made examinations, evaluations and further recommendations regarding METU's development. See, Payaslıoğlu, 1996, 56.

[311] G. Holmes Perkins, "Interview," May 31, 1994, quoted in Scott, 2004, 188.

Fig. 4.5. G. Holmes Perkins, Georgia Perkins, Thomas B. A. Godfrey and Mrs. Godfrey in a social gathering with the students of architecture of METU Faculty of Architecture.

The educational implications of his involvement in this UN project should also be emphasized. As Scott underlined, he was also acknowledged as "a pedagogical innovator." In the mid-twentieth century he aimed at bringing in modern approaches to architectural and planning education both at the Harvard GSD and the University of Pennsylvania GSFA. The educational program of a school of architecture and community planning in Ankara was to be well structured to meet the urban challenge ahead by bringing "a more modern and practical attitude towards building."[312] This program was to be designed, also, to solve the problems Abrams observed in existing educational practices in Turkey.

This part of Chapter 4 concentrates on Perkins's report to reveal significant themes concerning the foundation of METU Faculty of Architecture and the formation of its architecture program.

As has been remarked in the previous chapter, the Turkish Government was concerned primarily with the problems of housing and urbanization in Turkey in the 1950s and the proposed school was expected to fulfill the immediate needs of the country in a practical and realistic manner. The basic premise of METU was envisioned as the training of body of

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[312] Perkins, Loschetter, and von Moltke, 23 August 1955, 4.

students and pursuing research in areas that wait to be handled for improving urban development in Turkey.

In responding to the Government of Turkey's quest for technical assistance "to help meet the urgent demand for better housing, town and regional planning recognized in the early 1950s," Abrams comprehensively defined the manifold aspects of the problem area in the country.[313] His contention that, in the long-term, the foundation of a school of architecture and community planning in Ankara would enhance and sustain urban development was convincing for Turkish officials. Abrams, and the UN, approached the problem from a broader perspective and sought for the development of students as competent professionals and well-qualified individuals.

The following quotation from "Report on the Establishment of a School for the Teaching of Architecture and Community Planning in Turkey" demonstrates that the concerns of the Turkish Government were pursued by Perkins, who underlined the significance of inaugurating a problem-based education:

> that the institution be conceived as a training center for a future integrated building industry and as a medium for modernization of building techniques and materials, building codes, zoning and subdivision regulations, city and regional planning legislation; such a concept will have a decisive influence upon the form, organization, and curricula of the institution, and upon the choice of its location and site; only through close integration in the teaching of skilled mechanics, technicians, contractors, procedures of building materials, industrial designers, engineers, architects and city and regional planners, can a better understanding of common problems be achieved and a more modern and practical attitude towards building be efficiently promoted.[314]

The parties concerned with the METU project agreed that the proposed institution was to assume the status of an educational center for the whole region in which it would be located. By helping "develop a newer, more practical and modern approach to architecture and urban planning" through its teaching and research programs, this institution was to take part in the creation of a better environment.[315] From the very beginning, METU was envisioned as a

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[313] Reed, Summer 1975, 221.
[314] Perkins, Loschetter and von Moltke, 23 August 1955, 4.
[315] Ibid., 5.

center of professional education and scholarly research in areas that were in need of competent professionals and specialists. It was recommended:

> that the first step towards this goal should be the creation of a Faculty of Architecture, a Faculty of City and Regional Planning, a Research Institute for the Modernization of Construction Methods and Materials, and a Research Institute for Housing, Regional, City and Village Planning looking to the addition of faculties of engineering in the near future.[316]

METU was to be a research university combining education and research facilities.[317] The idea to establish research institutes in cooperation with "a Faculty of Architecture" and "a Faculty of City and Regional Planning" pointed to an essential aspect of the character of the new university. There was an institutional effort to establish and enhance "organized research"[318] as part of METU's education and training program.

In the Perkins report the objectives of "Research Institute for the Modernization of Construction and Materials" (İnşaat ve Malzemeyi Modernleştirme için Kurulacak Araştırma Enstitüsü) were delineated as follows:

> The objective of this Institute is to promote through research, publication and the organization of regional seminars, the modernization of building industry. *It will not be a testing laboratory for new materials*, but will rely upon co-operation with the Government sponsored bureau for information of this nature. It should promote the better utilization of local materials and resources. In addition, it should undertake studies leading to the standardization of sizes and types of building materials and the modernization of construction methods, and at the same time act as a catalyst to bring about agreement on these points between producers of materials, builders, engineers and architects. Its activities should not be confined to Turkey but it should serve as a Building Research Center for the Middle East at which *experts and students from many countries should be encouraged to share experiences*.
>
> *This Institute will also be of indispensable help in the education of architects* because through it students may be brought into direct contact with major practical problems of the profession and of the building industry.[319]

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[316] Ibid., 4.
[317] The conception of "research university" in the mid-twentieth century, its scope and objectives are examined in the following parts of this chapter of the dissertation.
[318] "Organized research" was a phrase used to identify the attempts to develop a systematic and institutionalized mode of methodological inquiry in higher education in the mid-twentieth century. The development of this concept is examined in the following parts of this dissertation.
[319] Perkins, Loschetter and von Moltke, 23 August 1955, 9, emphasis added.

"Research Institute for Housing, Regional, City and Village Planning" (Mesken, Bölge, Şehir ve Köy Planlama Araştırma Enstitüsü) would be assigned the following functions:

> The objectives of this Institute are *the development and dissemination of knowledge* in these fields; *service to the Government* in the evolution of city, regional and village planning and housing policies; the preparation of physical planning standards for housing, health centers, schools, playgrounds, parks, commercial quarters, industrial districts, car parking, village planning, etc.; provision of leadership in these fields in the Middle East through meetings of delegates from various countries; *the preparation of new literature* on these subjects and the translation and distribution of the best publications, and the organization of planning exhibitions.
>
> The Institute and its members acting as consultants will give assistance to the Government on the preparation of modern city planning laws, zoning and subdivision regulations, capital budget procedures for carrying out city plans, housing legislation, etc.
> Throughout the Middle East similar problems in housing and city and regional planning are already arising*; a modern research center such as the one planned can provide, regionally and more intensively, technical aid in these fields which would effectively supplement that of the United Nations.*[320]

A focus on the problems in the built environment and on collaborative efforts of diverse actors involved in practice was central to the programs of these two research institutes. These institutes would generate new knowledge, disseminate scientific and technical knowledge to the public, and, hence, foster the interchange of ideas in Turkey and the Middle East region. With the aim of improving architecture as a profession and contributing to the enhancement of the quality of built environment, the research institutes were aimed to establish contact with industrial and governmental agencies as well. In their report, the UN experts placed special emphasis on their contact with the Turkish Government in the form of consultancy. Perkins, Loschetter and von Moltke also pointed to the significance of the location of the new school:

> … [I]t is recommended that the new school not be in Istanbul where two already exist and that there appear to be advantages to locating in Ankara because it is contemplated that extensive aid can be given the Government more effectively in this city by the Research Institute as outlined in the description of their objectives.[321]

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[320] Ibid, emphasis added.
[321] Ibid., 5.

The research institutes were to accommodate a research environment in which research would be part of students' learning experiences and of teacher's educational activities. This innovative aspect of the program was called attention by Woolrich, the first Consultant President and subsequently the first Interim President of METU. In his article "A New Middle Eastern University with Modern Western World Objectives," he underlined that the active involvement of academicians into research projects was encouraged:

> … It is anticipated that for balance about one-third of the amount of the University budget normally devoted to teaching will be assigned to *fundamental and applied research* for the development of Turkey. It is expected that most full-time men and women of the teaching staff will devote a reasonable amount of time to creative research, especially for the economic advancement of Turkey. A climate of *active research* is in the making of all academic departments.[322]

No doubt Perkins was thinking also on the plane of university-community relationship when he emphasized that "the Technical University and the Research Institutes … contribute to the spread of technical knowledge in housing and planning throughout the Middle East."[323] Through its teaching and research facilities, METU was envisioned to provide service to the surrounding community. For Perkins, far from being isolated from the community, METU was to serve as an institutional catalyst in urban development. METU was to be involved in the affairs of its surrounding community and society through its educational and communal facilities. It was recommended "that the University should be authorized to grant certificates, for courses in building construction management, contracting and manufacture, and distribution of building materials, of less than four years in length as an extension of the University's service to community."[324] A proposal for close interaction with governmental or private agencies was in support of the objective to be involved in public service. It should be remembered that university-community relationship was among the themes that were covered in Abrams's writings on the role of education in the UN's technical assistance projects, and particularly on the foundation of METU.

Woolrich stated:

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[322] Woolrich, May 1960, 705, emphasis added.
[323] Perkins, Loschetter and von Moltke, 23 August 1955, 13.
[324] Ibid., 5.

… [The] initial conference of Mr. Abrams of New York City, United Nations Consultant and Housing and Town Planning, and Mr. Vecdi Diker, then Director of Progressive Highway Department of Turkey, dreamed *an institution of high academic standards not unlike the best of the American and British technical universities*. This educational institution was planned to make available as its specialties, architecture, engineering, the physical sciences, and administrative sciences education for a large number of gifted students from Turkey and the Middle East.[325]

Woolrich's words echoed the emphasis placed on academic priorities, along with professional and communal interests, from the inception of the University. The aim was to create an international institute "of high academic standards." Apparently Woolrich attributed the realization of this ideal to Stassen when he said, "[t]he administration of the Middle East Technical University has been fortunate to have the advice and counsel of Dr. Harold Stassen, a statesman and university educator of world recognition in formulating its Charter and future plans."[326] He furthered his argument by pointing out that "[t]he Board of Trustees are dedicated to developing an institution that recognizes the value of emphasizing high scholarship in well chosen areas rather than spreading out into too many fields of endeavor in the beginning years."[327]

However, it should be underlined that the idea of an institution that would enhance architecture as an academic discipline was previously evident in Perkins's report. The UN experts recommended the beginning of advanced study at graduate level. In emphasizing the whole educational process, Perkins emphasized the design of professional and graduate programs with a strong research component. As the principal author of the report, he recommended:

that the institution be authorized to grant degree of Yüksek Mimar (Master of Architecture), Yüksek Mühendis (M.S. in Engineering), Yüksek Şehirci (Master of City and Regional Planning), Doktor Mimar, Şehircilik Doktoru and Doktor Mühendis, to establish the requirements for the respective degrees and to set the terms and conditions for faculty appointment and tenure.[328]

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[325] Woolrich, May 1960, 703, emphasis added.
[326] Ibid., 704.
[327] Ibid.
[328] Perkins, Loschetter and von Moltke, 23 August 1955, 5.

The aim was to train future instructors and/or researchers. Perkins was aware of the interdependence of the quality of education in a university to that of the teaching faculty and researchers. Before focusing on his ideas with respect to educating educators, the criteria according to which Perkins sought to select the initial faculty members of the University should be highlighted. This point becomes apparent not only in Perkins's report, but also in numerous accounts on the foundation process and in the university catalogs published in the formative years. It is argued that the emphasis on professional and academic competences of faculty members was consistent with the goal of establishing "an institution of high academic standards," in Woolrich's terms. The faculty members were to be competent in their fields and they were expected to take part in the formation of an academic community of scholars. As pointed out by Woolrich, the attention was directed toward international scholars:

> The Abrams-Diker dream was a University where some of the best scientists, engineers, architects and business executives of the Western World could be brought together in Ankara to teach selected young people of the Middle East at the same high level as can be found in Western Europe and North America.[329]

In a similar vein, Reed commented that the intellectual atmosphere in the founding years "attract[ed] adventurous scholars who were ready to take part in a pioneer venture with good students and a flexibility not found in established Turkish universities."[330]

Like the faculty, the organization of student body would prove to strengthen the international character of the University. Alongside with Turkish students from all over the country, international students especially from the surrounding region were welcomed to apply for admission. Reed remarked that "[f]rom the start about 10 per cent of the student body has come from abroad, mainly from Iraq, Jordan, Cyprus, Iran, and Pakistan, and the staff has always had an international element of up to 20 per cent."[331] The medium of instruction would be English so that recent developments in professional and disciplinary fields could be pursued and an international character could be achieved. "In order that the Technical University and the Research Institutes may most effectively contribute to the spread of technical knowledge in housing and planning throughout the Middle East," the UN experts

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[329] Woolrich, May 1960, 703.
[330] Reed, Summer 1975, 223.
[331] Ibid.

pointed, "and because of the availability of texts and the presence in the early years of many foreign professors, it would be best to offer the courses in English."[332]

The motives behind the proposal for the establishment of graduate programs can be examined on several grounds. Perkins put a special emphasis on educating educators. What he also valued was the prospective contribution of specialization and scholarly research to the academic advancement of the University. Graduate study leading to the M.A., M.Sc., and Ph.D. degrees was encouraged. The establishment of graduate programs, and especially of Ph.D. programs, at METU Faculty of Architecture was very important.

Perkins not only encouraged the establishment of graduate programs alongside undergraduate programs, but also played a key role in the training of Turkish instructors. Scott remarked that "[b]efore the opening of the school, and as stipulated in the UN report, Perkins personally trained six instructors. They went to the United States and attended classes at the University of Pennsylvania with Perkins, specifically."[333] Perkins also opened a path for sending most successful students of architecture abroad in the founding years of METU Faculty of Architecture. In his report it was recommended "that United Nation's fellowships be earmarked by the Turkish Government for future faculty members for study and training at the University of Pennsylvania; that six two-year fellowships be made available the first year and for each year thereafter."[334] The UN provided funds and the University of Pennsylvania GSFA accepted Turkish students to its graduate programs.

A further point should be highlighted. Through their initial draft for architectural, and city and regional planning curricula, Perkins, Loschetter and von Moltke proposed a common training ground for these two allied fields. In the "Curricular and Admission Requirements" section of their report the UN experts noted:

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[332] Perkins, Loschetter and von Moltke, 23 August 1955, 13. The admission requirements described in Perkins's report included "a working knowledge of a foreign language (preferably English), and the passing of an aptitude test set by the appropriate Faculty." It was also noted that "for students without a command of English there should be offered an intensive course in English in the summer period to admission." See also, Ibid., 8.
[333] Scott, 2004, 188. As mentioned earlier in Chapter 1, Adnan Taşpınar, Bülent Onaran, Dündar Elbruz, Orhan Özgüner, Rauf Beyru and Şükrü Kaya were sent to the University of Pennsylvania SFA to receive master degrees in diverse areas of specialization and, in their return, they started teaching at METU Faculty of Architecture.
[334] Perkins, Loschetter and von Moltke, 23 August 1955, 5.
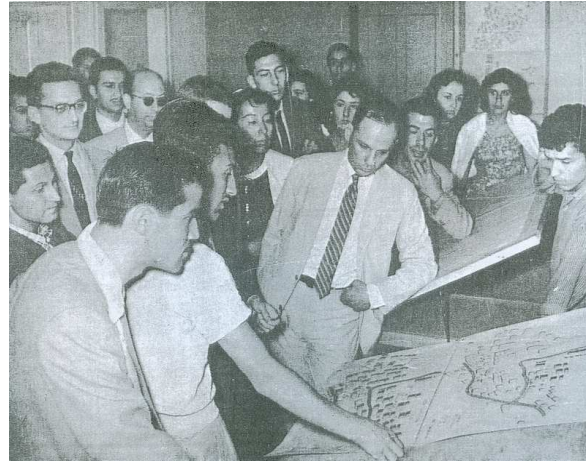
Fig. 4.6. and **Fig. 4.7.** G. Holmes Perkins and Marvin Sevely criticizing student projects at METU Faculty of Architecture, 1957.

1. The proposed curriculum in architecture is eleven terms in length including three required terms of practical study and field experience under the direction of the Faculty. It may be completed in four calendar years. Two options are offered in the final year.

2. The proposed curriculum in City and Regional Planning is fourteen terms in length including four terms of practical study and field experience. It may be completed in five calendar years. The first three years (nine terms) are identical with the architectural curriculum; in the fourth year the student follows option 2 and receives the degree of Yüksek Mimar; and in the fifth year completes the remaining courses in City and Regional Planning and receives the degree of Yüksek Şehirci.[335]

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[335] Ibid., 8.

Such an interdisciplinary training ground was expected to initiate and foster collaborative efforts primarily during the educational process and afterward in the field of professional practice. An awareness of the interdependence of problems in architecture and city and regional planning and an educational concern for "total environment" was apparent.[336] When the faculty was concerned, competence in research was placed as much emphasis as professional competence. It was also underlined that "advanced work in architecture and city and regional planning should be offered by the professors in charge, for which a doctor's degree will be given upon completion of an original, published doctoral thesis."[337] "Faculty members," the UN experts remarked, "should be permitted a limited private practice as consultant to the Government or to private industry in their University offices."[338] Apparently, an effort to establish a connection between education and the field of practice was also at the forefront of this educational project.

Before attempting to re-situate the educational ideals that informed Perkins's METU project in the context of the field of debates on architectural education in America in the mid-twentieth century, it will be revealing to underscore the particular continuities between the proposals of two UN experts.

Both Abrams and Perkins insisted that the aim "to develop a newer, more practical and modern approach to architecture and planning" could be achieved insofar as an independent and experimental university was founded. They were both aware of the potentials of a university setting for the advancement of teaching, learning and research activities. Service to community was a major aspect of Abrams's educational project, as it was in Perkins's project.

They both emphasized students' professional and individual development. Freedom of thought and self-expression were key principles regarding their development. Abrams placed special emphasis on the development of problem-solving skills and on the education of professionally competent and socially responsible individuals who would be able to

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[336] Perkins put emphasis on the concept of "total environment" in relation to the widening scope of architecture in the mid-twentieth century. This issue is examined in detail in the following parts of this chapter of the dissertation.
[337] Perkins, Loschetter, and von Moltke, 23 August 1955, 8.
[338] Ibid., 7.

recognize and respond change, and further shape the direction of change. For Perkins, too, education should facilitate the development of professionally competent and socially responsible architects and city and regional planners who would be leaders in their professional fields. As future professional practitioners, they were expected to be actively involved in the creation of better living environments for the society. Prof. Dr. Pamir, Dean of METU Faculty of Architecture, underlined that the creation of a "homeless mind" was a foundational objective of METU Faculty of Architecture.[339] He stated: "The METU curriculum in architecture directly aimed at giving Turkish youth an evaluative, critical, de-localized and broad outlook to enable them to look at tradition without any prejudices."[340]

Up to this point, Chapter 4 focused on the report prepared by Perkins, Loschetter and von Moltke and tried to reveal the educational ideals that informed the METU project envisioned by Perkins. The lasting legacies of Abrams's and Perkins's projects have also been highlighted. In the following part of this chapter, the educational ideals pursued by Perkins are re-interpreted in the context of the broader field of debates on architectural education in America in the mid-twentieth century. Taking Perkins's ideas and practices as reference points, the following part aims to delineate an overview of new orientations in architectural education and the prevailing educational approaches of that period.

4.2   Perkins and New Orientations in the Field of Architectural Education in America in the Mid-Twentieth Century

As a scholar, Perkins took part in the critical educational debates of the mid-twentieth and shared his ideas by participating in educational discussions in diverse institutional settings, conferences, symposiums, or annual meetings. There were a considerable number of articles he produced, which were published in distinguished periodicals in America. These sources help explore his position with reference to the broader framework of debates on architectural education of the period. Concentrating on these sources, I examine how he formulated his ideas on architectural education in a changing world.

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[339] Pamir, 1986, 138.
[340] Ibid.

4.2.1 The Changing Role of the Architect and the Growing Demands upon Architectural Education

In the mid-twentieth century, the field of architectural education had already entered a process of change. New educational approaches were the center of attention in the ongoing debates on architectural education. A sample of the titles of articles published in the *Journal of Architectural Education*, from the 1940s to late 1960s, may help get insight into the trajectory of ongoing debates: "New Directions in Architectural Education" (1949), "The Balanced Education" (1949), "New Demands on the Architectural Curriculum" (1955), "The Challenge to Architectural Education" (1958), "The Continuing Revolution" (1959), "A New Curriculum" (1961), "The Advancement of Architectural Education" (1963), "Change and Innovation" (1967).

Perkins's participation in the ongoing debates was shaped by his concern for increasing demands upon architectural education that made such a process of change indispensable. He explained the driving forces of change in architectural education on several grounds. "Changing social demands" and "technical inventions," he argued, resulted in "the technical and organizational complexities of architecture."[341] Another significant result was "the changing scope of professional knowledge." Perkins's ideas on architecture and architectural education developed on the basis of his growing concern for the particularities of the period. In his 1954 article "Teaching of Architectural Design" Perkins's concern for the distinct circumstances of the mid-twentieth century became apparent:

> … Never in history has the architect been forced to find in so short a time so many unprecedented design solutions to problems created by changing social demands and technical inventions. Facts which he learns at school become out-dated before he has the opportunity to use them as a responsible professional. The basic weakness of any approach which emphasizes the accumulation of current facts becomes overwhelmingly clear in this period of rapid change.[342]

Perkins was concerned with the impact of the 1950s, which he considered as "a period of unprecedented change," on architecture as a profession and architectural education as a form

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[341] G. Holmes Perkins, "Teaching of Architectural Design," *Progressive Architecture* 7 (July 1954): 153-154.
[342] Ibid.

of professional education. He argued that, in professional terms, the future architect was expected to play a critical role in the changing urban society and in the creation of urban environment. This resulted in a growing pressure upon schools of architecture for acting in response to the widening responsibilities and challenges facing the architecture of the twentieth century.

He saw the importance of change. In his view, the widening responsibilities of the twentieth century architect also pointed to new opportunities. Central to responsibilities and opportunities was a "concern for total environment."[343] For him, architects' responsibility could no longer be limited to the design of a single building. Architects were to concern themselves with the relation of a single building to the larger environment. They could not turn their backs to urban problems. They had to recognize the part they can, and should, play in solving these problems. Perkins advocated the idea that "a concern for total environment" should be a major frame of reference of architectural design process.

He not only underlined the role architects could play in the creation of the urban environment, but also re-interpreted this role with reference to that of city planners and urban designers. He was aware that, city planning, urban design and architecture were practiced at different scales. However, he also believed that the creation of "total environment" was the common ground on which they could meet. In his view, architecture has the potential to make a distinctive contribution to "the processes of city making."[344] This distinctive contribution could make "an architecture of cities" possible:

> City planning, which depends so heavily upon so many professions, asks a unique contribution of the architect. By scientific methods, abetted perhaps by intuition, the needs and ills of the city can be measured, diagnosed, and eventually prescribed for; but it is the architect who brings *form* and *life* into the resulting land patterns, plans and zoning maps. The dwelling unit can become a home. Community facilities can brim with vitality and laughter. If we would have *an architecture of cities* which goes beyond the stern limitations of social utility, to whom else can we turn for guidance?[345]

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[343] G. Holmes Perkins, "The Architect and the City," *Journal of Architectural Education* 17, no. 2. The 1962 AIA-ACSA Seminar Papers Presented at the Cranbrook Academy of Art. Part I. (November, 1962): 95.
[344] G. Holmes Perkins, "The Architect and City Planning," in *Forms and Functions of Twentieth-Century Architecture, Volume IV; Building Types*, ed. T. Hamlin (New York: Columbia University Press, 1952), 820-840.
[345] Ibid., 839, emphasis added.

The concern of architecture was to be not only the "physical" but also the "social" organization of the city, since, in Perkins's words, "[a]rchitects contribute more than any other group to the city."[346] For him, the distinctiveness of architects' contribution stemmed from the ways they would generate "visions" and "inspirations" for human life:

> It must remain the architect's most rewarding job to create, or help to create, cities which will not only stand the tests of economy and social utility but also inspire men's lives. We are not without abundant evidence of the success of the architect in offering visions which have caught the public imagination. Man's dissatisfaction with his environment combined with new vision has time and again proved his most powerful stimulus for action. And the briefest glance in history shows many architects whose ideas have shaped our lives. There are architects whose designs have inspired a new generation that will build the cities of the future, and others whose creations still need testing in the furnace of time.[347]

In Perkins's view, the twentieth century architect was to be well-equipped to design at larger scales and act not as an individual practitioner, but "a member of a team":

> With the widening scope of city planning, the architect's former unchallenged leadership has vanished. As a social and political art, city planning requires for its healthy exercise the aroused interest and support of the entire community. To maintain unity against attack is the hardest task; without the support of all sciences and arts the problem will be doubly difficult. Yet it has been argued that the architectural profession, since it is addressed to social objectives, should assume an unshared leadership in city building. *This argument is not persuasive, for unless the architect is by some magic to become at the same time an economist, geographer, and public administrator he must remain as the member of a team; he must share both the labor and the glory…*[348]

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[346] Perkins appreciated Daniel Burnham's approach as "the basis for a modern planning content" with reference to "the City Beautiful movement," which, according to Perkins, "was the first great plan in the world which concerned itself with the total social and physical organization of the city." See, G. Holmes Perkins in "Performance and Response," *Journal of Architectural Education* 16, no. 3, The 1961 AIA-ASCA Seminar Discussions at the Cranbrook Academy of Art. Part I: The Changing Role of the Architect (Autumn 1961): 100, emphasis added.

[347] Perkins, 1952, 831.

[348] Ibid., 829, emphasis added.

Fig. 4.8. The participants of the *Conference on Urban Design Criticism* organized by Perkins, the University of Pennsylvania, October 1958. Left to right: William L. C. Wheaton, Lewis Mumford, Ian L. McHarg, J. B. Jackson, David A. Crane, Louis I. Kahn, Arthur C. Holden, Catherine Bauer Wurster, Leslie Cheek, Chadbourne Gilpatrick, Eric Larrabbe, Jane Jacobs, Kevin Lynch, Gordon Stephenson, Grady Clay, I. M. Pei.

Perkins insisted on the necessity of a higher level of professional competence for architects. In his view, as a member of a team composed of practitioners from the planning and design professions, the architect was to be trained as a professionally competent designer. A key issue was, for Perkins, bringing schools of architecture to the exercise of their responsibility in the preparation of competent practitioners. He noted: "The trouble is that there aren't enough people who are really good enough in the various fields to make these teams. We must educate more."[349]

On this subject, a point needs further explanation. Architects' potential to make a distinctive contribution to the realization of "an architecture of cities" depended on the development of those competences which would make them "really good enough," to use Perkins's words. It was time for the field of architectural education to take a new view of its goals and methods. It was time to reformulate architecture programs in a way to offer a "special training" that was needed to meet the widening responsibilities and emerging opportunities at the forefront of the twentieth century architect:

> … [A]s valued and indispensible member of the team, he alone can give inspiring
> form to the city; he alone can crystallize in brick and mortar in glass and steel, a

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[349] Perkins, Autumn 1961, 101.

people's aspirations and by his buildings influence the habits and thought of future societies.

> Those are impressive contributions which the architect can make as a result of his *special training*… His designs in their most creative form have the power to open one's minds to finer prospects, to kindle the hopes and to shape man's course…[350]

Perkins was critical of schools of architecture that could not well-equip students as competent practitioners and professional leaders of tomorrow. "Yet without some re-orientation of architectural education," he maintained, "there is small hope that in our time new city cadences and forms will be created which will be as inspiring for us as were the earlier ones for the society…"[351] While he highlighted "the needs of a profession which has become painfully aware of its wider responsibilities," he went on to argue that "too few of its members are prepared to offer these expanded services."[352]

For Perkins, there was an urgent need for change in architectural education. His distinguished position in the debates on this subject was shaped by his endeavors to define the direction of change. What should be the major concerns of professional education of the twentieth century architect which would offer the professional qualifications necessary for meeting the challenges ahead? As aforementioned, a concern for "total urban environment" was to be central to professional education if the architect was expected to partake in urban design and city planning processes as well. This point was raised for consideration in his paper titled "The Architect and the City," presented in 1962 AIA-ACSA Seminar at the Cranbrook Academy of Art:

> *Tomorrow's architect will obviously be involved in urban design*. His interest and his acts will impinge upon the landscape, on art, on city planning, on engineering; in fact, upon the total urban environment. Yet his training is most inadequate. We have a long way to go before we are prepared to fulfill this expanded role. *Our educational facilities are way behind the times…*[353]

What should be the direction of change in order not to be "behind the times"? At the 47th Annual Meeting of the ACSA, 1961, Perkins's answer to this question was as follows:

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[350] Perkins, 1952, 829, emphasis added.
[351] Ibid., 839.
[352] G. Holmes Perkins, "Graduate Programs 2: The University of Pennsylvania," *Journal of Architectural Education* 19, no. 2 (September, 1964): 25.
[353] Perkins, November 1962, 95, emphasis added.

> … I do not believe …. that giving the planning option within an architectural program as suggested and started by seven more schools this year, is the answer. I believe it goes further than that, into *the basic concept of what is architecture.*

> I feel really that architecture has to some extent given up its birthright to this enlarged scale of design of the community and city. I think we should be in it to our neck. I think we should consider this to be the basis on which all architecture develops.[354]

In Perkins's view, to cultivate in students an awareness of the relationship of architectural design to the larger urban environment was to be a major responsibility of professional education:

> … [F]rom the day a student enters a school, I think this viewpoint should be stressed and that it should never occur to him that he is ever going to design a building which is out of context of the larger environment. If we look at it this way, it does not mean that all of us are going to practice design on such a large scale, but I think we are going to understand the relationship of what we do to the larger environment…[355]

In an interview with Scott, 1994, Perkins underlined that this perspective found reflection in schools of architecture in the mid-twentieth century and informed a new approach to architectural education. "There was a period in the fifties and sixties," he remarked, "when schools over the country were becoming more concerned with the larger picture -- whether you call it urban design, or city planning, or environmental design."[356]

The key issue was "the problem of future education of the architect to make him a more effective and influential designer."[357] In his words, "the essence of the architect's contribution to the city and to society is now and should always be the sincere and undivided dedication to creative design."[358] For Perkins, although the primary concerns and areas of expertise may vary from school to school, "[t]he only constants may be a dual dedication to an architecture concerned with the totality of the man-made environment."[359] Schools taking this conception of architecture as their basis would also aim at fostering an insight into human nature and the inherent social character of architecture.

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[354] G. Holmes Perkins, in "Minutes of the 47th Annual Meeting of the ACSA," *Journal of Architectural Education* 16, no. 1 (Spring 1961): 30, emphasis added.
[355] Ibid.
[356] Scott, 2004, 36.
[357] Perkins, Spring 1961, 20.
[358] Perkins, November 1962, 94.
[359] Perkins, September 1964, 25.

The goals of architectural education were not limited to the transmission of professional knowledge or development of professional skills. In Perkins's view, students should be given priority in any reassessment of the educational goals and methods. Schools of architecture were to concern themselves with the acquisition of specific attitudes as well as the acquisition of relevant skills and knowledge. Perkins's following words demonstrate his idea of an architectural education that would give much more attention to development of students as individuals as well as competent architects:

> All architects deserve a solid liberal education. Each must possess the professional knowledge needed to serve his client and to understand his own place in the complex team producing the modern city. Some will have the talent and the desire to become the specialist-expert. Some will devote themselves to research. Only in the university, with its vast and varied resources, are all these educational opportunities available.[360]

The above quotation includes the basic elements that, Perkins believed, should be covered in professional education of an architect. Each sentence deserves to be examined in detail. Each one frames the goals and scope of architectural education as envisioned by Perkins and need to be contextualized into the broader framework of the debates on architectural education in America in the mid-twentieth century. To examine the educational ideals Perkins highlighted above, and clarify his position is at the core of the following part of Chapter 4. The fact that these educational ideals informed the foundation of METU Faculty of Architecture and the formation of its architecture program is of prime significance for this dissertation.

4.2.2 A Reappraisal of Liberal Education

The quest for "a solid liberal education" was central to Perkins's continuous effort to identify the goals of architectural education in the mid-twentieth century.[361] This theme remained consistent throughout his writings on architectural education.

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[360] Ibid., 23.
[361] At the beginning of the examination of Perkins's ideas on liberal education, the relationship and differences between the concepts of "liberal education," "liberal arts" and "general education," which are sometimes used interchangeably, should be clarified. *Liberal education* can be defined as "a philosophy of education that empowers individuals, liberates the mind from ignorance, and cultivates social responsibility," whereas *liberal arts* designate "specific disciplines (the humanities, social sciences, and sciences)." *General education* is "the part of a liberal education curriculum shared by all students" which "provides broad exposure to multiple disciplines and forms the basis for developing important intellectual and civic capacities." See, Association of American Colleges and Universities,

It should be made clear that Perkins was not referring to a pre-professional liberal education at college level when he said "all architects deserve a solid liberal education." In his view, liberal arts education at college level prior to enrollment in architecture would provide a significant basis for architectural education. However, what he emphasized more was the integration of liberal education into professional education of an architect. Furthermore, it will be helpful to clarify how he conceived liberal education. Did the concept of the twentieth century architect in Perkins's mind correspond to the "well-rounded citizen" or "gentleman" as the main conceptions of traditional liberal education? Apparently, what he implied was relatively different.[362] He noted:

> Until two or three generations ago it was possible for the individual architect to command a sufficiently broad professional knowledge to allow him with a clear conscience to give his client reliable and competent advice on all phases of building. Today no architect in his right mind would claim such omniscience. This is not to suggest that the basic services have changed but rather that the comfortable day of the 'gentleman-architect' in the image of Jefferson is past. The architects can no longer hope to rely on the general knowledge provided by a liberal education which, in the words of President Lowell of Harvard, allowed the 'educated man to make sound decisions based upon inadequate evidence.'… But those were simpler times; today the great laboratories of universities and of industry are spewing forth so vast a stream of new materials, techniques and ideas that the solitary architect unaided can no longer acquire all the skills now needed to produce a modern building.[363]

"Greater Expectations: A New Vision for Learning as a Nation Goes to College," 2002, http://www.greaterexpectations.org./ (accessed May 10, 2010).

[362] General education originally was "the kind of education given to free men and citizens, in ancient slave-owning societies." Different from slaves who were "trained in their single, useful, or vocational arts," education for free men and citizens was "not the narrowly specialized and crassly utilitarian arts appropriate for slaves, but those applied in mastering life as a whole and public affairs." It was supposed that the free men and citizens should be equipped with "a range of knowledge or understanding as ample as the sphere of all his interests and responsibilities; understanding of the cosmos, nature, man, society, beauty, and the principles of moral and political wisdom." Accordingly, liberal education offered to superior classes of a society was to be broad and rounded. In modern eras, too, lower classes of Western societies were trained through "apprenticeships" in order to develop "practical skills," which were necessary to "serve and earn their livings." Liberal education was offered to small elite in the aim of cultivating in the *gentlemen* "the general art of rationally ordering their lives and societies in the light of knowledge of the all-embracing order of the universe." Evidently, Perkins's stance approached the attempts to reconsider the goals of liberal education in the changing conditions of a democratic society: "For in contrast with the old, aristocratic societies, democratic society not only turns all men into free men and citizens but also rejects the idea of a leisure class and demands that all shall make themselves useful in specific jobs. Thus the two kinds of education, once given separately to different classes, must be given together to all alike." See, Overton H. Taylor, "Liberal Education and Liberalism," *Ethics* 55, no. 2 (January 1945): 88-90.

[363] Perkins, September 1964, 22-23.

Perkins raised criticism against the traditional conception of liberal education in which specialization was considered as a barrier to all-round development of personality of students. He was aware that the architect of the twentieth century could not be a master-builder able to handle all aspects of building processes. For him, the idea that the architect could entirely manage the changing and widening scope of professional knowledge was misleading. Specialization in professional education of the architect was a necessity. However, he considered that this specialization was to be based on a broader educational basis developed through liberal education.

As mentioned earlier, Perkins emphasized facilitating the development of an awareness of change and the capability to act in response to it, as a major responsibility of professional education in the mid-twentieth century. In this respect, professional education was to be responsive to the present and future needs. This did not mean, however, that the historical forces shaping the present period should be disregarded. For Perkins, liberal arts courses would help students of architecture develop "a deeper acquaintance with the scientific as well as the humanistic roots of today's culture and particularly the dynamic character of its evolution":

> The growing complexity of our urban society and the revolution in technology will force changes in both undergraduate and graduate architectural education. It is my conviction that as time goes by, the architect must welcome and indeed sponsor an extension of his education. There is little room for doubt that this lengthening will occur in both his general as well as in his professional education. His understanding of those historical, social, economic and cultural forces which are forming our society is vital to him if he is to assume a leadership role in designing the urban environment. A unique professional competence, though essential, is not enough. Though it has been customary for young men to acquire a liberal education before embarking upon a professional career, there is no convincing evidence that such a sequence is superior to one that spreads his liberal education more evenly over a longer period within the university and into those years ordinarily devoted exclusively to professional courses. But no matter how acquired, the future architect is direly in need of a deeper acquaintance with the scientific as well as the humanistic roots of today's culture and particularly the dynamic character of its evolution.[364]

Therefore, Perkins defended the extension of liberal education into professional education. In his view, architectural curricula should be enlarged to include liberal arts courses along with

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[364] Ibid., 23.

professional courses. However, it is important to underline that liberal education was not emphasized merely in virtue of its special body of knowledge. To integrate liberal arts courses into architectural curricula was not a matter of adding more subjects. Rather, it was a matter of endowing students with a breadth of understanding and a deeper insight into the world and an ability to approach knowledge in a critical and synthesizing manner.

Liberal education appeared to mean for Perkins also a basis for the development of an interdisciplinary approach to architectural education. Scott highlighted also this aspect of his position:

> It is clear from examining Perkins's actions that there are two aspects of architectural training. The first is developing a deep understanding of the fundamental duties of architecture, i.e., always building well, with requisite durability, proper function, and appropriate beauty. Beyond this, however, is the matter of framing these duties within the context of a larger worldview. Perkins developed a pedagogical structure that reflected the concerns of his time. Planners, architects, and landscape architects shared time in their training. They developed camaraderie and respect between disciplines. Overlaps in interests, common understanding of appropriate solutions, and shared experiences created bonds and mutually shared values.[365]

Perkins's idea of making liberal education a part of professional education of the architect in order to develop a necessary background both for individual and professional development of students pointed to a new orientation that gained more and more importance in architectural education in the mid-twentieth century. A study of articles published in notable architectural periodicals and symposium proceedings in that period reveals that liberal education was on the agenda of numerous architects and educators. However, the interpretations were not unidirectional. The focus of debates varied from the place of liberal education in the entire educational process to its contribution to professional specialization. It is also important to note that in these debates, the concepts of liberal education and general education were often used interchangeably. The interdependence of the intellectual and professional aspects of architectural education was at the core of these debates. It was argued that the objective of architectural education was not only to prepare students for the profession but to facilitate their development as democratic and creative individuals. The scholarly attention was increasingly directed toward the necessities of an architecture program through which these educational goals could be achieved.

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[365] Scott, 2004, 203.

The theme of the 1961 AIA-ACSA Seminar Discussions convened at the Cranbrook Academy of Art was "The Changing Role of the School." Norbert Gorwic, a seminar attendee, underlined the differences between an architectural school and a "trade school" by arguing that the distinctness of professional education in the university setting stemmed from the development of a broader educational basis for professional specialization. In Gorwic's view, "architecture needs specialists who have a thoroughly good, basic, broad foundation."[366] He argued that "[a] university which teaches architecture should not provide half-baked draftsmen for architectural offices."[367] Sociologist Amos Hawle, another attendee of the 1961 AIA-ACSA Seminar Discussions, furthered the argument by remarking that "a basis, a broad general, liberal education" could offer the students of architecture "breadth" essential in their approach to architectural problems.[368]

An article by Anthony Ellner, "Toward a Broader Liberal Arts Base," underlined that such a broader educational basis would constitute a "context" essential for the development of a "full and proper understanding of architecture."[369] He stated:

> A broader liberal arts base can produce a stronger general background, and must be justified from this viewpoint alone. We must bring to our students our maximum understanding of architecture, which may be conceived of as a comprehensive, physical manifestation of human thought and action. If we would agree that full and proper understanding of architecture requires some such context, then the extent to which the context is sacrificed is doubtless the extent to which we are developing technicians.[370]

Ellner argued that professional knowledge, techniques and skills should be complemented with an insight on the nature of architectural problems and how to respond them. "Without such understanding," he argued, "skill, knowledge, and technique become incapable of growth or change and therefore rapidly obsolete, leaving the individual stubbornly blind,

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[366] Norbert Gorwic, in "Aims," *Journal of Architectural Education* 16, no. 4, The 1961 AIA-ASCA Seminar Discussions at the Cranbrook Academy of Art. Part II: The Changing Role of the School (Autumn 1961): 94.
[367] Ibid.
[368] Amos Hawle, in "Aims," *Journal of Architectural Education*16, no. 4, The 1961 AIA-ASCA Seminar Discussions at the Cranbrook Academy of Art. Part II: The Changing Role of the School (Autumn 1961): 94.
[369] Anthony Ellner, "Toward a Broader Liberal Arts Base," *Journal of Architectural Education* 15, no. 1 (Spring 1960): 21.
[370] Ibid., 20.

helplessly dangling, or grasping at fads."[371] For Ellner, the majority of architecture programs failed to offer the students a full understanding of architecture because of a "lack of real college preparation or proper attitude toward learning" in secondary school education.[372]

A close relationship between widening responsibilities of the twentieth century architect and the need for a thorough reappraisal of architecture programs laid at the center of the debates on the quest for change in architectural education. An urgent need was seen for advancing the quality of professional education. Fostering an understanding of the environment and society in which an architect would live and perform and of the cultural background of the society, was to be a major objective of the attempts to advance architectural education. Architecture programs were to cultivate in students a grasp of the forces that shaped problems of the period. In order to achieve this educational goal, architecture programs should not be limited to professional and technical concerns. They should be well-grounded in disciplines such as the humanities and social sciences.

In his article "General Education Content of Curricula" Henry Kamphoefner, Dean of the School of Design at North Carolina State College, underlined the need for a balanced relationship in architectural curriculum between "the basic studies" and "the professional, technical and aesthetic studies":

> … [I]t is only through a full integration of the basic studies, or as we are calling it, the general education content with the professional, technical and aesthetic studies that we can bring the student to a full understanding of the nature and character of the period, so that he may fuse a synthesis of its past and present to gain an insight into possible future directions of society. The understanding of the nature of contemporary civilization can be accomplished through an extensive study of changes in human cultures through the time of history and the space of the region, the nation and the universe. *That study should begin in the first year of the program and should remain the core of the whole program as the student develops a philosophy and achieves a synthesis.*[373]

Kamphoefner's ideas were illustrative not merely of a personal perspective, but of a particular outlook toward professional education in the mid-twentieth century. These ideas

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[371] Ibid., 21.

[372] Ibid., 20-21.

[373] Henry L. Kamphoefner, "General Education Content of Curricula," *Journal of Architectural Education* 5, The Proceedings of the Thirty-Fifth Annual Convention of the Association of Collegiate Schools of Architecture (Fall 1949): 17, emphasis added.

were influential in numerous schools of architecture. In a report published by ACSA in 1963, it was underlined that to equip students of architecture with "an understanding of the richness of life" and recognition of the needs and desires of people for whom they will design was essential for their development as creative designers.[374] The significance of courses in "humanities and social sciences" in the entire educational process was explained as follows:

> … To comprehend the culture and vital ideas of our time requires a broad general education the central purpose of which is to understand 'why.' Professional training to provide the 'how' logically follows the 'why.' If insights are to be gained into the interaction of the humanities and social sciences on the one hand and the technologies on the other, levels of intellectual discipline must be raised for those aspiring to positions of leadership in the profession of architecture. *If architects are to assume their full responsibilities to the community and fulfill their roles as designers of the man-made environment, their cultural understanding must match their technical skills*.[375]

The significance of liberal education for the development of individuality regardless of their professional specializations was under consideration. For Walter A. Taylor, who was the Director of the Department of Education and Research of the AIA, in the future, architectural education was expected to be "higher in its philosophic and educational aims, deeper in the fundamentals to be understood, broader in the scope of its subject matter, longer in the total period of years, larger in the quantitative sense providing enough well-trained men to meet the demands for professional service."[376]

In his article "Objectives of Architectural Education" Ralph Rapson continued the same line of argument. He commented that "none will deny that it is the total man we are interested in, as it is the total environment" and further noted, "essentially we must be concerned with graduation of well-rounded citizens soundly equipped with fundamental knowledge rather than highly trained specialists."[377] Rapson's ideas point to a central theme in debates on the problematic relationship between a general basis and specialization in professional

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[374] "The Advancement of Architectural Education: The ACSA Committee Reports," *Journal of Architectural Education* 18, no. 2 (September 1963): 19.
[375] Ibid, emphasis added.
[376] Walter A. Taylor, "A School of Architecture of the Future," *Journal of Architectural Education*14, no. 2. ACSA-AIA Seminar: The Teaching of Architecture (Autumn 1959): 50.
[377] Ralph Rapson, "Objectives of Architectural Education," *Journal of Architectural Education* 14, no. 2, ACSA-AIA Seminar: The Teaching of Architecture (Autumn 1959): 22.

education. The main question was whether the architect of the twentieth century be a generalist or a specialist.

This controversy was framed through the traditional liberal education argument that specialization was a barrier to all-round personal development. On the one hand, it was considered that architectural education was to be based on a broader educational basis. On the other, the changing scope of professional knowledge and technological inventions were deemed to make specialization indispensable. It was generally recognized that the demand for a broader basis and specialization at the same time was not contradictory and that they could be reassessed as complementary parts of an entire educational process. This idea was underlined by David Crane, the Head of the Planning Design Studio at the University of Pennsylvania, as follows:

> … If there is no general education preceding specialization, it is hopeless. We cannot then call him a professional; we can only call him a technician. We cannot call him a professional unless he is equipped to make choices, equipped to operate on the basis of making values and convictions.[378]

Crane's remarks bring to light another significant dimension of the debates; the need for establishing a balanced architecture program. The balance was envisioned to be established by inauguration of general and professional courses simultaneously. It was increasingly recognized that general and professional courses were to be treated as complementary parts of the entire curriculum since general and professional education were seen as complementary parts of the entire architecture program. Within this framework, "special selection and treatment of material in relation to a central purpose," in Richard Wilson's words, had a critical role in maintaining unity in the learning process.[379] This "selection" and "treatment" was to be informed, for Wilson, by "the principles of continuity or the process of letting (or even making) one thing lead to another." In a balanced program, the goals of general courses and professional courses could not be treated separately. They would play a

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[378] David Crane, in "Minutes of the 45th Annual Meeting of the ACSA Discussion," *Journal of Architectural Education* 15, no. 2 (Summer 1960): 58-59.
[379] Richard Wilson, "The Balanced Education," *Journal of Architectural Education* 4, The Regional Meeting of the Southeastern Schools of Architecture (Winter 1949): 41.

part in the continuous process of learning. As Rapson pointed out, "[t]he important thing is that each subject studied be related to the entire process."[380]

Organization of courses as well as their appropriate selection was significant for the achievement of particular educational goals. What were these goals? Why were they of prime significance for the entire process of learning? Wilson addressed these questions as follows:

> The first point is concerned with the closeness of relationship between *the development of creative capacity* and *the assimilation of technical knowledge*, at each stage of the course. It is felt that as these two aspects are competing for valuable time anyhow, there might be something to gain in time as well as in effectiveness, by linking them together at every possible point. There is also the question of the relative time which should be allocated to each aspect. It may be truthfully said that the deliberations of an architect cannot be made successfully without due regard for scientifically organized facts, and without the use of mathematics and logic. It should never be forgotten however, that his primary function is *the exercise of judgment and imagination*, and that in this he is mostly dealing in incalculables. The most significant part of his training is therefore *the development of these abilities*, which is brought about for the most part by methods of practice and criticism, suggestion and example, the investigation and solution of problems, *through which the principles of design may be approached*, not as so many words to be memorized, but as original realization which once having taken place for an individual will remain with him permanently…[381]

Wilson emphasized that the major goal of general education was not merely imparting knowledge, but the development of habits of mind and methods for acquiring knowledge.

At this point, Joseph Hudnut's position should be underlined. Hudnut saw these habits of mind essential particularly for design education and maintained that "a liberal philosophy" was an indispensable quality of architectural education.[382] The concepts of the unity of

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[380] Rapson, Autumn 1959, 22.
[381] Wilson, Winter 1949, 42, emphasis added.
[382] Jill Pearlman, who made extensive studies on the role of Joseph Hudnut in modern architecture and urbanism in America in the mid-twentieth century, remarked that German city planner Werner Hegemann (1881-1936) was very influential on the formation of Hudnut's ideas. She stated, "[f]rom Hegemann, whose planning work was informed by a broad education of philosophy, history, political science and sociology, Hudnut learned many of the fundamental principles that would inform his ideas about modern architecture and urbanism…" She furthered her argument as follows: "Two principles gleaned from Dewey, and from Hegemann, lay at the heart of Hudnut's modern program at Columbia. To build in a meaningful way, Hudnut maintained that architects must have a wide understanding of the society they are building for, knowledge of its social, economic, technological

architecture and the unity of learning process set the framework for Hudnut's ideas on architectural education. This framework found a remarkable expression in his article "The Education of an Architect," in which he defined three essential responsibilities of a school of architecture:

> Two responsibilities of a school of architecture … are plain. First, to teach through *process of instruction and discipline*, the science of construction, especially in its more abstract and general phases, so that the student may leave the school with that *habitual imaginative experience* with materials and constructed forms that is the necessary basis for a command of structural design. Second, to explain, so far as these can be explained, *the important facts concerning those economic and intellectual currents in which the student lives*; to make him so aware of these currents and of their origin, nature and direction, that the need to know them more profoundly will appear urgent and necessary... and this third responsibility is more exacting than the either of the two I have described. This responsibility is the encouragement of those *qualities of the mind -- or the soul --* of which the creation of beauty is the tangible expression.[383]

Another topic of debates was the significance of the qualifications of instructors for achieving the envisioned educational goals. This was decisive as much as the selection and organization of courses. In his article titled "The Continuing Educational Process," Taylor remarked that "the escalating demands on the one hand for a broader liberal education and on the other for more intensive and practical technical knowledge present a dilemma."[384] He considered that such a dilemma "cannot be solved in terms of time and credit hours," but by training of "specialist in the liberal arts departments," who would be competent enough to bring to light the significance of liberal arts for professional and technical development of students.[385] These specialists were to be developed as "inspiring teachers," he maintained, able to "present mathematics and mechanics and the sciences in an historical and cultural setting."[386] Kamphoefner continued the same line of argument. Achieving a unity between

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and intellectual currents, as well as of its historical roots. To this end, he argued for a broad liberal and interdisciplinary education. Hudnut was also determined to change architects' 'habit of thought' (a Deweyan phrase that he often used), to make them into intelligent reformers -- and not mere embellishers -- who used their art to reconstruct the human environment for the better of the community as a whole." See, Jill Pearlman, "Joseph Hudnut's Other Modernism at the 'Harvard Bauhaus'," *Journal of the Society of Architectural Historians* 56, no. 4 (December 1997): 454-458.
[383] Joseph Hudnut, "The Education of an Architect," *Architectural Record* 69, no. 5 (May 1931): 412, emphasis added.
[384] Walter A. Taylor, "The Continuing Educational Process," *Journal of Architectural Education* 4, The Regional Meeting of the Southeastern Schools of Architecture (Winter 1949): 48.
[385] Ibid.
[386] Ibid.

general and professional courses, he argued, was dependent on the competences of instructors as much as on the success of curriculum design. He pointed to the responsibilities on the part of the "teachers" who taught general education courses and professional courses:

> Most of us have found in the past few years that it takes some help from the teacher responsible for the professional development of the young architect to achieve a balance in the whole study needed to make an architect and a man. The collaboration can best be accomplished by a core of basic studies, beginning in the first year and running through the entire program. However, these studies can become as completely isolated as they were during the former full separation of the beginning two basic years if those in charge of instruction are not familiar with the work of their colleagues. *In other words, an integration of the basic disciplines with the professional studies is dependent upon the full knowledge of the whole study by all members of the faculty.*[387]

Kamphoefner further argued that to achieve collaboration between the instructors of general education courses and professional courses was also a criterion for connecting these groups of subject matters. For a general education instructor to be able to clarify significance of courses in humanities and social sciences courses for architectural students, s/he should have an understanding of what architecture is.

Substantial debate centered on the topic of the relationship between college and professional education in the continuing educational process. Scholars parted with each other. Some advocated carrying out liberal education and professional education simultaneously at the university level. For some others, as it was agreed upon in the 1963 ACSA Committee Report, "two years study in the liberal arts and sciences before entering professional programs" was the most appropriate scheme for general education.[388] According to this report, general education given at professional training period could hardly influence the intellectual development of students. It was underlined that for schools of architecture to be appointed as a member to ACSA, they had to "revise their programs as conditions permit to require, ultimately, that students entering the professional programs have a minimum of the equivalent of a two-year course of study in the basic liberal arts and sciences."[389] For Ellner, too, "[i]f there is one last chance in formal education where we may, with some success,

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[387] Kamphoefner, Fall 1949, 15, emphasis added.
[388] "The Advancement of Architectural Education: The ACSA Committee Reports," September 1963, 19.
[389] Ibid.

require the students to question and revise his habits and standards, it is upon college entrance."[390]

4.2.3 An Interdisciplinary Pedagogical Approach

Perkins maintained that the complexity of urban problems made an interdisciplinary effort indispensable. Being trained as a creative designer, the architect had to act as an essential member of a team of experts whose efforts were to be directed toward a common goal; the creation of a better urban environment. Within this framework, collaboration between the planning and design professions was of prime significance.

In his article "Urban Design and City Planning" Perkins underlined an essential task in front of "all the professions which contribute to a good design": the creation of a "climate in which progress can be made toward an environment that will promote better living for everyone."[391] He argued that for the development of a "common agreement as how we go about getting this better environment," each member of the team should recognize that their decisions and practices would have an impact on those of other members and, consequently, on the overall environment. Each member was to recognize the potential role of other members in relation to one's own. Perkins considered city planners as responsible for persuading "our present social scientists, our architects, or our administrators that their truly collaborative efforts are needed and that no one of them (with their present professional attitudes) can produce the city plan without the collaboration of all the others."[392]

Perkins continued the same line of argument in defining the changing demands in architectural education. For him, the seeds of collaboration could be planted during the educational processes. Schools of architecture were responsible to make their students aware that the creation of a better environment was possible only through joint efforts of the planning and design professions. Edmund Bacon advocated similar principles about this

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[390] Ellner, Spring 1960, 21.
[391] G. Holmes Perkins, "Urban Design and City Planning," *Planning and the Urban Community: Essays on Urbanism and City Planning Presented before a Seminar Sponsored by the Joint Committee on Planning and Urban Development of Carnegie Institute of Technology and University of Pittsburgh,* ed. Harvey S. Perloff, 179-187 (Pittsburgh: University of Pittsburgh Press, 1961), 179-180, http://www.questia.com/PM.qst?a=o&d=1147891 (accessed November 4, 2008).
[392] Ibid., 186.

issue. At the 47th Annual Meeting of the ACSA held at University of Pennsylvania, Bacon, who was at the moment the executive director of the City Planning Commission of Philadelphia, commented on architect's role in the planning process and the problems in education of the future architect.[393] For Bacon, the critical lack was not that of collaboration: "I think the notion that you put planners and architects together, without a real understanding of their relationships, and ask them to work together, to produce a joint effort is wrong and can result in the worst disaster possible."[394] The prerequisite for the realization of professional teamwork, he argued, was acquiring a deeper insight into what architecture and city planning was and on which common ground they met. This was an urgent task of education programs. "I think the emerging, basic question in architectural education," Bacon pointed, "is going to be the appreciation of the existence of this larger design structure as a key design issue, and the training of people who are competent to think in terms of this design structure, who are skillful in carrying it forward."[395]

The significance of dialogue as the basis of professional collaboration was also articulated by Charles Burchard who identified the development of an "attitude of mind" as a responsibility for schools of architecture:

> … [A]rchitects have an existing role in shaping the human environment. But they can fulfill this role only by working in partnership with others and by trying to act with others as peers. This attitude of mind, however, cannot be turned on at a moment's notice. It is a matter of training and is a function of the schools...
>
> The isolated architect, the isolated engineer, the isolated sociologist, each highly skilled within his own orbit but without means of communication or of pooling skills, surely no longer suffices for the bulk of things that have to be done.[396]

It is important to note that to establish a dialogue between people thinking and acting through different sets of mind was not an easy task. As John Esherick highlighted, this was a

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[393] Bacon attended the session on architectural education and city planning convened in April 23, 1961, under the presidency of Dean Perkins. See, Edmund Bacon, in "Minutes of the 47th Annual Meeting of the ACSA," *Journal of Architectural Education* 16, no. 1 (Spring 1961): 3-89.
[394] Ibid., 30.
[395] Ibid., 23. For further information on Bacon's position, see Edmund Bacon, *Design of Cities* (New York: Viking Press, 1967); Edmund Bacon, "Urban process," in *The Conscience of the City*, ed. Martin Meyerson (New York: George Braziller, 1970), 75-88.
[396] Charles Burchard quoted from Wuster. See, Charles Burchard "Gropius at Harvard," *Journal of Architectural Education* 14, no. 2, ACSA-AIA Seminar: The Teaching of Architecture (Autumn 1959): 25.

matter of "the integration of a vast number of attitudes and understanding of all the disciplines."[397] That was why both practitioners and academicians felt that the responsibility was that of the schools. Through their teaching and research programs, the schools potentially could encourage interdisciplinary learning environments and cultivate in their students awareness of the role of architect, with reference to the roles of others, in the creation of the built environment.

Taylor's ideas deserve to be mentioned as they reflect a point of view on this subject from within architectural profession:

> In the past some of our schools tended to develop an ivory-tower art-for-arts-sake attitude which would not profane itself with technology. Our professional public relations are suffering from the results of that attitude. For a statement of position and attitude for today, we may compare ourselves with the medical profession. In the whole field of health there are many kinds of technologists: bacteriologists, physiologists, nurses, laboratory technicians, pharmacists and dieticians, etc., and there are physicians who decide when and how the talents and products of all the others are to be used for human welfare. The architect is not merely another kind of engineer who designs buildings instead of bridges or machines. In the vast field of shelter, the building industry, there are manufacturers, financiers, realtors, many kinds of engineers and builders. Are we staking too wide a claim in saying that the architects' role is primarily that of diagnostician and coordinator of the talents and services of the others; that the architect is the quarterback of the building team? *The attitudes of the teachers and the experiences of the student in relation to student engineers and other specialists should be such as to cultivate this attitude in the students. We will be accepted at our own appraisal if we can give our students the right kind and amount of technical training to command the respect and cooperation of the specialists*. The architect should not be a technical specialist. I propose the following definition of an architect: -- a technologist who specializes in the human aspects of the problem. I believe that this is broad enough to include everything from aesthetics to air conditioning and city planning.[398]

Perkins, too, was in search for the development of an interdisciplinary approach to architecture. He saw the establishment of interdisciplinary teaching and learning environments as the essential step to be taken to achieve this goal. He encouraged the integration of the disciplines of architecture, city planning and landscape architecture under a single faculty. He emphasized collaboration between students of architecture, city planning

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[397] John Esherick, in "Minutes of the 46th Annual Meeting of the ACSA," *Journal of Architectural Education* 15, no. 3 (Autumn 1960): 36.
[398] Taylor, Winter 1949, 49-50, emphasis added.

and landscape architecture as well as among specialist. "Under the umbrella of a single faculty dedicated to the design of a total environment," he maintained, "there should be programs in landscape, in structural and mechanical engineering, in art, in planning and in architecture."[399]

For Perkins, from the very beginning of the educational process, a student of architecture should be encouraged to recognize that architecture was part of the "total environment" -- a concept that covered an area from large scale design to the design of a single component of a building. He believed that to integrate the planning and design disciplines under a single faculty would encourage exchange of ideas among both instructors and students from allied departments. This brings us to the second aspect of Perkins's interdisciplinary approach: the design of programs in which students from allied disciplines would attend common courses and, at the studio, would deal with common design problems. In this way, he searched for making use of collaboration as an effective method of learning. What Perkins valued was a method that would enable students to acquire maximum return from joint educational experiences. He placed special emphasis on "the intellectual and personal values gained by collaborative work."[400] He sought to extend collaboration between students of architecture, city planning and landscape architecture to studies at graduate level, too. Training specialists who would investigate urban problems at all scales was important. "A major challenge facing the schools," he argued, "is the development of programs capable of producing a significant proportion of the specialists who will be members of our profession tomorrow."[401]

Perkins's educational practices at Harvard GSD and the University Of Pennsylvania GSFA, which spanned more than 40 years, were portrayals of the realization of an interdisciplinary teaching and learning environment that he envisioned. An examination into what he did at Harvard GSD should not pass without mention of the reforms at that institution in the period of his employment. Dean Hudnut's role in the implemention of these changes was seminal.

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[399] Perkins, November 1962, 96.
[400] G. Holmes Perkins, "Theory and Reality: The Framingham Study -- Harvard University," *Journal of the American Planning Association* 15, no. 1 (1949): 35-40.
[401] Perkins, September 1964, 25.

Fig. 4.9. Joseph Hudnut, the Dean of Harvard GSD, 1945.

Fig. 4.10. Joseph Hudnut being awarded "Certificate of Appreciation" as a "distinguished educator and scholar" at the 53rd Annual Meeting of the Association of Collegiate Schools of Architecture, New York, 1967.

When Perkins began teaching at Harvard, the architecture program was under the direction of Jean Jacques Haffner, who, like Paul Cret at the University of Pennsylvania, based his teaching methods on those of the Ecole des Beaux-Arts in Paris. The direction of Harvard's program shifted significantly in 1936 when Joseph Hudnut was recruited as dean, with a mandate to move the curriculum toward emerging European modernist style and philosophy. That same year, architecture, landscape and city planning programs were brought together to form the Graduate School of Design. In 1937 Walter Gropius was brought on as professor and chairman of the Department of Architecture.[402]

With Hudnut's arrival, GSD entered into a process of transition and Perkins partook in this process. In her article "Joseph Hudnut's Other Modernism at the 'Harvard Bauhaus'," Jill Pearlman pointed out that when Hudnut arrived at GSD, Perkins was a young instructor and a proponent of modern architecture and modern pedagogy.[403] In Pearlman's view, Perkins's modernist approach made him eligible for Hudnut for his endeavor to reshape the pedagogical direction of the school. She explained Hudnut's proposal as follows:

> … In February 1936, less than a year into his deanship, the university approved his proposal to dissolve the old Faculty of Architecture and merge its three schools into a single new school, the Graduate School of Design. Hudnut made the three former 'schools' into 'departments,' each with its own chair who would work closely with others, under the guidance of the dean. Hudnut chose the name 'Design' for the school to underscore the new unity among the different disciplines. He explained that 'design' described the shared and essential activity of the three fields: architects, planners, and landscape architects alike arranged and interpreted ideas, both practical and aesthetic, into visible patterns.[404]

Burchard, who experienced those years as a graduate student at the GSD, offered an alternative view on the development of an interdisciplinary learning environment at Harvard in the late 1930s. He underlined Gropius's key role in this process:

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[402] G. Holmes Perkins Collection Finding Aid, "Biographical/Historical Sketch," *The Architectural Archives of the University of Pennsylvania*, 2003, http://www.philadelphiabuildings.org/faids/aaup/Perkins.pdf (accessed September 22, 2006).
[403] Pearlman, December 1997, 467-468.
[404] Ibid., 460.

Fig. 4.11. Walter Gropius and master's class students at Harvard GSD, 1946.

Fig. 4.12. Gropius as a jury member at the public presentation for a collaborative thesis project for the redevelopment of downtown Province, Rhode Island, prepared by Marvin Sevely, R. I. William Conklin and Ian L. McHarg, 1950.

It was at Harvard as a graduate student in 1938 (this was the second year both Gropius and Marcel Breuer were at Harvard) that, for the first time in the experience of most of us, architecture was taught as a function of a contemporary situation from which appropriate methods of designing were developed. The design problems given were set within realistic limits and were related to real sites. Research, programming and study were made a significant part of the design sequence and we were brought in touch with other disciplines: engineers, economists, city planners, public administrators, businessmen who could help us to understand and relate some aspect of our problem to the total solution. We also began to work in groups toward the solution of one common problem. This was done not as a speedy and efficient way of pooling individual resources but as a method of education; *for Gropius felt that group working was a valuable educational vehicle and a technique needed to be learned for the role the architect had to play in contemporary mechanized society.*[405]

In the late 1930s, Perkins taught alongside Hudnut at "an advanced design studio."[406] Perkins's academic studies were interrupted during World War II, but he was called by Hudnut to return to Harvard as Chairman of the Department of Planning. This opened up new avenues in Perkins's academic career:

During World War II, Perkins took a leave of absence from Harvard (1942 to 1945) to work in Washington D.C. with the National Housing Agency; during his final year he served as acting director of its Urban Development Division. He returned to Harvard in 1945 as the Charles Dyer Norton Professor of Regional Planning and chairman of his department. With Hudnut's support and Gropius's participation, Perkins developed a first-year joint curriculum that brought architecture, landscape and planning departments together in a collaborative venture. Shared studio projects further encouraged design cooperation among the students of the different disciplines, a goal of the G.S.D. from its inception only truly realized after Perkins became chairman of the planning department. Perkins remained at Harvard until he was recruited to head the School of Fine Arts at Penn upon the retirement of George S. Koyl in 1950.[407]

In addressing the issue of what made Perkins eligible for the chair of the Department of Planning at Harvard, Pearlman pointed out that "Perkins was an unconventional choice to head City Planning since he had no training in planning and minimal experience in the field."[408] "What Perkins knew of city planning," she noted, "he had learned during the war

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[405] Burchard, Autumn 1959, 23, emphasis added.
[406] Pearlman, December 1997, 459.
[407] "Biographical/Historical Sketch," 2003.
[408] Pearlman, 2000, 219.

with the National Housing Administration in Washington."[409] She also underlined that Gropius, too, supported Perkins's recruitment:

> One reason was that Gropius wanted a designer in that position and not a public administrator like [John] Gaus, with whom he had shared little common ground. More significantly, Perkins was a close friend to both Gropius and Hudnut and may have been the one person who could help mediate the growing 'power struggle' between the two men. By 1945 Gropius and Hudnut had recognized the vast differences between their ideas of design and education. Gropius's determination to advance a Bauhaus urbanism at the GSD did not fit with. Along with the other duties that went along with the Planning Department chair, Perkins was to serve as a conciliator.[410]

Pearlman should be cited, once more, due to her valuable contribution to the literature on the uneasy relationship between Hudnut and Gropius at the GSD and their disagreement regarding the principles of architectural and design education. She remarked that this disagreement turned into a "power struggle" for the determination of the GSD's pedagogical direction after World War II.[411] Perkins was in close relationship both with Hudnut and Gropius and he was a mediator between the two. However, Perkins's contribution was not limited to that. As pointed out by Scott, he reformed the curriculum of the planning program by "introducing classes in economics, public administration, and finance, and by hiring Mumford's protégé, Catherine Bauer, to bring a comprehensive view of housing problems to the students."[412] Scott's examination underlined that one aspect of the curricular reforms Perkins initiated was widening the scope of training of architects, planners and landscape architects by adding new courses.

The other aspect was reshaping it as a joint-curriculum. More precisely, Perkins proposed that "all students in the Graduate School of Design's programs of architecture, planning and

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[409] Ibid.
[410] Ibid., 219-220.
[411] Pearlman pointed out that Hudnut's major aim was to "root the Harvard School in the larger humanistic traditions of architecture and civic design, though without surrendering to the old ways of the Beaux-Arts educational system." Although Hudnut himself recruited Gropius as the Chairman of the Department of Architecture of Harvard, over time he disagreed with Gropius's design philosophy and saw it as a barrier to achieve his educational goals. For further information on this subject, see Pearlman, December 1997, 452; Jill Pearlman, "Joseph Hudnut and the Education of the Modern Architect," (PhD diss., The University of Chicago, 1993).
[412] Scott, 2004, 24.

landscape, take a common first year coursework."[413] Pointing to the innovative aspects of Perkins's proposal, Scott remarked that this was "a completely new way of training students in these disciplines" in which "students found themselves working with, and beside, students in sister disciplines."[414]

Pearlman also remarked that Perkins, as Chairman of the Department of Planning at Harvard, played "a key role in helping implement design collaboration among the various fields."[415] Perkins defined his position with reference to the argument between Hudnut and Gropius on "the first-year course" at the GSD. What Pearlman defined as "the battle over basic design" resulted, on the one hand, from Gropius's assertion that Basic Design -- a Bauhaus preliminary course -- should be the core of the program, and, on the other, Hudnut's criticisms over the goals of this course.

Pearlman pointed to the "new curriculum for first-year students" including two courses -- Planning I and Design I -- that was envisioned to be common for the programs of architecture, city planning and landscape architecture.[416] Perkins headed the course of Planning I. The content of this course as well as the methodology employed was planned by Perkins. As underlined by Scott, in this course he introduced a new way of teaching students

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[413] Ibid.

[414] The reform Hudnut implemented at Harvard GSD and Perkins's pedagogical approach that fostered an interdisciplinary learning environment were remarkable. However, there were earlier initiatives in similar directions. The Department of Urban Studies and Planning at Massachusetts Institute of Technology, which "began as a division within the School of Architecture" in 1933, included a new course of City Planning titled "Course IV-B." The main objective of this course was "to encourage in the architectural student a breadth of outlook which will enable him to see city planning problems in a broad perspective," and to equip him so that he is "qualified to cooperate intelligently with engineers, landscape architects, lawyers, economists, and sociologists in the planning or re-planning of urban areas." For more information, see The Institute Archives, "History of the Department of Urban Studies and Planning," MIT, 2004, http://libraries.mit.edu/archives/mithistory/histories-offices/urbstud.html (accessed May 5, 2006).

[415] Pearlman, 2007, 116.

[416] Pearlman also remarks that Gropius was not satisfied with the course Design I, the second course standing at the core of the joint curriculum for the first year students, as well. Because, it was quite different from the course Basic Design, which he envisioned to be the core of the new program at Harvard GSD. She noted: "… More than any other single course, Basic Design embodied Gropius's design philosophy and embraced his two primary aims in teaching -- to foster individual creativity and to establish a 'universal language of form' accessible to all people, regardless of their nationality or social status." See, Ibid., 203.

of architecture, city planning and landscape architecture.[417] This was further elaborated by Pearlman as follows:

> In Planning I, the central course of the first year, students explored the common principles and techniques of each of the GSD's three fields with a team of teachers from each department. The students carried out extensive research on an aspect of a particular city or town, often a part of Boston or an area nearby, studying the actual site, digging through research materials, and conducting interviews with officials and involved citizens. They then worked collaboratively in small groups to design a comprehensive plan for the site and each of the individual elements for the plan. Planning I turned out to be exactly the course that Hudnut had wanted to develop from the time he first founded the GSD. It promoted a 'unity of process' among architects, planners and landscapers and encouraged them to think broadly about the physical, political and socioeconomic environments as they designed in space and form. Holmes Perkins, who now headed the Department of Planning, played a major part in creating Planning I. *He described its method as 'the exact reverse of the Beaux-Arts way. We started with the city and we worked our way down to the individual parts. By hemming the three professions together, the students got accustomed to working together, and they began to respect each other instead of thumbing their nose at each other as they had always done in the past. It really worked.'*[418]

When the goals of the Planning I course are reconsidered, it becomes evident that Perkins followed Hudnut's ideals of design education. Hudnut placed a special emphasis on the development of "a mutual understanding" and "a habit of collaborative effort." This found a remarkable expression in his article "Education and Architecture":

> *... I think that in the universities and technical schools we ought to do all that we can to effect a mutual understanding, a habit of collaborative effort, a group practice which, whatever may be its necessary artificialities, should exhibit the interdependence of all and establish a spirit of unity -- a spirit which, by the way, should be as real and as persuasive in the faculties as in the student body.*
>
> The idea of a collaborative problem is not new; but we have failed to develop the idea to a sufficient usefulness. It is not enough that students in the several professions should work together on a common design, each making his prescriptive contribution; they should have some actual experience in the processes of the related professions, not as observers merely or as critics, but as authors. Their interest in the allied fields should be active and sustained, their knowledge definite and organized, their opinions positive to the point of belligerency. *It is up to us who are in charge of*

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[417] Scott, 2004, 13.
[418] Pearlman, 2007, 202, emphasis added. Pearlman highlighted the notion of the "unity of process" with reference to Joseph Hudnut, "Architecture Discovers the Present," *The American Scholar* 7, no. 1 (Winter 1938): 109.

schools of design to invent and to put into practice the educational machinery which will affect that kind of collaboration.[419]

Examination of Hudnut's practices at the two leading schools of architecture in America -- Columbia University School of Architecture and Harvard GSD -- reveals that the ideals framing his position fostered the development and implementation of reforms in education programs. Hudnut was trained as a Beaux-Arts architect. Throughout his academic career, however, he maintained a critical distance from this traditional pedagogy. During his deanship at Columbia School of Architecture, from 1934 to 1935, Hudnut adopted a position against the Beaux-Arts methods that prevailed in most of the schools of architecture in America. As he took over the deanship of the school, he prepared a report declaring his agenda, which promoted the "elimination of competition as a regular practice."[420] Pearlman remarked that Dewey's conception of democratic education had a decisive impact on Hudnut's pedagogical approach at Columbia. "Heeding Dewey's call for a democratic education," she pointed out, "Hudnut began by abolishing the Beaux-Arts competitive method of designing wherein students opposed one another for jury awards that advanced them in the school."[421] His program primarily aimed at encouraging students work "collaboratively" in the design studios. In this way, the program would lead to the development of "a cooperative community of students."[422]

As underlined by Pearlman, Hudnut maintained this pedagogical approach during his deanship at Harvard GSD as well. Once more, he aimed at replacing "the Beaux-Arts teaching methods -- competition, juries, elaborate design problems, and formal renderings" with "cooperative design studios, more practical (and often collaborative) design problems, and experimentation with materials and techniques of construction."[423] As Chairman of the Department of City Planning, Perkins participated in the efforts to make formative changes in the pedagogical direction of Harvard GSD and its planning curriculum. His position at Harvard made him eligible for the University of Pennsylvania School of Fine Arts (SFA) which was then dominated by the Beaux-Arts pedagogy.

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[419] Joseph Hudnut, "Education and Architecture," *Architectural Record* 92, no. 4 (October 1942): 37, emphasis added.
[420] "Education of the Architect: Report of Dean Joseph Hudnut," *Architectural Forum* 52, no. 2 (June 30, 1934): 165.
[421] Pearlman, December 1997, 458.
[422] Ibid., 457.
[423] Ibid., 459.

Fig. 4.13. G. Holmes Perkins and Louis I. Kahn in studio discussion at the University of Pennsylvania GSFA, 1958.

However, at the SFA there was also a search for a pedagogical re-orientation similar to the one realized at Harvard GSD. The recruitment of Perkins as the new Dean of the SFA was a consequence of this search. In Scott's view, Perkins was eligible for this position due to his following qualifications: "Perkins's theoretical and practical ethos was clear. He was well able to articulate and defend his fundamental principles and beliefs. He was comfortable with his understanding of modern architecture and uninterested in compromises that undermined architecture's potential."[424] Different from his position at Harvard GSD, in the University of Pennsylvania, he had the chance to direct his efforts to redesign an entire program, play a key role in shaping the pedagogical direction for the school, designing its curriculum and establishing its faculty. This was a significant moment not only in Perkins's career but in the institutional history of the SFA as well. For the SFA, this was a period of change, of an educational reorientation.

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[424] Scott, 2004, 25.

Before considering the changes initiated by Perkins at the SFA, the pedagogical approach that dominated the school in the 1950s should be briefly cited. At this point, David Leatherbarrow's remarks are insightful.[425] Leatherbarrow remarked that the Beaux-Arts pedagogy continued to characterize the school when Perkins arrived, but there were also incidents that implied a growing interest in change:

> By the end of World War II Penn's program was still operating under the Beaux Arts system. More than anything else, its steady dedication to tradition distinguished Penn's Program from Gropius' Harvard, or Mies's I.I.T. -- especially the strident form of modernism they had institutionalized in those places. Many of Penn's faculty had studied in Paris, most notably perhaps, its renowned professor, Paul Philippe Cret, who regarded Julien Guadet's *Eléments et Théorie de l'architecture* as the sole 'authorized document on the modern teaching in the ecole in the last fifty years.'
>
> … One might have thought dedication to the old system would have run its course by 1929, when Cret stepped down from his leadership position in Penn's atelier, five years after his most important student, Louis I. Kahn graduated. Yet, it had not. By the mid-40's students had started to refuse to take part in the design competitions. The situation was made worse by the fact that Cret's sketch of a 'humanist' modernism -- less doctrinaire than that of Gropius or Mies, but not as conservative as Jean Labatut's program at Princeton-- was not developed by his immediate successors; instead, they offered a hardened version of the old system. In 1950 upper level and graduating students made their dissatisfaction known to the university president, pressing for change. He responded with the appointment of Perkins, signaling a dramatic reorientation.[426]

A focus on "total environment" was central to Perkins's proposal for the SFA at Penn, as it was to his practices at Harvard. He was convinced that the SFA should widen its scope to include the disciplines of city planning and landscape architecture besides architecture. Scott stated: "Perkins made his acceptance of the deanship contingent upon a proposal that the

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[425] David Leatherbarrow is a Professor of Architecture and the Chair of Graduate Group in Architecture at the University of Pennsylvania School of Design.

[426] David Leatherbarrow, "Squaring the Circle: or, Building the Ph.D. in Architecture Program at the University of Pennsylvania," Unpublished manuscript. (I want to express my gratitude to David Leatherbarrow for sharing with me his valuable study and directing my attention to different strands of the intellectual atmosphere at the SFA before and during Perkins's Deanship). At this point, reference should also be made to Klemek's doctoral dissertation. Klemek remarked that in the 1950s both the faculty and students put a pressure over administrators to change the direction of education from Beaux-Arts pedagogy, which prevailed in the SFA from the early twentieth century, to "new functionalist design principles." He noted: "In 1950, under pressure from students, university president (and former liberal Republican governor Minnesota), Harold Stassen lured modernist architect George Holmes Perkins (b. 1904) from Harvard to revamp the School of Fine Arts." For more information on Perkins's implementations at the University of Pennsylvania SFA, See Klemek, 2004, 213-224.

environmental design portion of the Graduate School of Fine Arts grow and evolve into more than an 'architecture only' school."[427] Perkins asserted that architectural education was to be in contact with city planning and landscape architecture education. Within this framework, the existence of the departments of architecture, city planning, and landscape architecture within the same school was crucial.[428] In a 1994 interview conducted by Scott, Perkins explained the requisites he presented to the committee of appointment as follows:

> I said, to have a school that really addressed the total problem of the man-made environment… we had to have people that were dealing with planning, not just from an architectural point of view, but from other points of view as well. … That obviously meant it would be necessary to build up departments in planning and landscape, and to remodel the one in architecture.[429]

On 12 February, 1951, Perkins's proposal for the foundation of a Department of City Planning was approved.[430] In Scott's view, "acceptance of this proposal provided the most important vehicle for the transition of the School of Fine Arts to a modern pedagogy."[431] She also pointed out that "opening the Department of City Planning created a number of new faculty positions, which Perkins filled with professionals and academics acting under a shared ethic of modern architectural theory and practice."[432]

On Scott's comment, a point needs further exploration: the key role of the "attitude" and "quality" of the faculty that Perkins saw of prime significance for the realization of change in a school of architecture.[433] A decade after he was recruited as Dean of the SFA, Perkins expressed his particular concern for this subject in the 1961 AIA-ASCA Seminar Discussions at the Cranbrook Academy of Art. He stated: "The faculty must really believe

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[427] Ibid.

[428] A similar educational approach was pursued by William W. Wurster at the College of Environmental Design, University of California at Berkeley. In 1959, Wurster brought the departments of architecture, landscape architecture, and city and regional planning together to form the College of Environmental Design. He saw a need for "mutual contact and understanding" between the professions involved in environmental design. For more information on the changes he implemented in architecture program at Berkeley, see Richard C. Peters, "W. W. Wurster," *Journal of Architectural Education* 33, no. 2 (November 1979): 36-41.

[429] Perkins, "Interview," 7 June, 1994, quoted in Scott, 2004, 25-26.

[430] "Trustees Minutes," UARC, Vol. 21-52, 12 February 1951, quoted in Scott, 2004, 31.

[431] Scott, 2004, 31.

[432] Scott, 2004, 31.

[433] Perkins, November 1962, 96.

that the architect has a role to play in the city. And it must act upon this belief. It must itself participate in the problems of the city. This is true of the University of Pennsylvania.[434]

Within this framework, to transform the faculty of the school was an essential step to be taken to implement change at the SFA. Upon his arrival, Perkins searched for establishing an interdisciplinary faculty composed of leading intellectuals and practitioners who contributed to the advance of modern architecture and urbanism in America. What made these people highly qualified for Perkins was his commitment that they could contribute to his effort to "revitalize programs and move away from the Beaux-Arts methods and subjects that dominated the school since the turn of the century."[435] Historian and critic Lewis Mumford, planner and Perkins's former Harvard student Robert Geddes, Professor of Landscape Architecture and Regional Planning Ian L. McHarg, architect Louis I. Kahn, architect Romaldo Giurgola, architect Robert Venturi were among the earliest members of the new faculty. Later, structural engineer Robert Le Ricolais, landscape designer Karl Linn, city planner Paul Davidoff, architect and former student of Perkins at Harvard David Crane, landscape architect David Wallece, architect Preston Andrade, architect Mario Romanach, landscape designer Roberto Burle Marx, architect and urban planner Edmund Bacon, architect William von Moltke, architect Thomas Vreeland, designer Stanislowa Nowicki and architect and planner Denise Scott Brown participated in the faculty of GSFA. No doubt, such an interdisciplinary faculty would enhance students' learning experiences, especially in the studio. In Klemek's words, "Perkins envisioned for Penn a comprehensive *interdisciplinary training ground for architects, planners and other designers (including landscape)*, like the one Gropius had brought from the Bauhaus to Harvard when he and other modernists fled Nazi Germany."[436]

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[434] G. Holmes Perkins, in "Methods," *Journal of Architectural Education* 16, no. 4, The 1961 AIA-ASCA Seminar Discussions at the Cranbrook Academy of Art. Part II: The Changing Role of the School (Autumn 1961): 97.

[435] "Biographical/Historical Sketch," 2003.

[436] Klemek, 2004, 215, emphasis added. The attempts to generate interdisciplinary educational environments in graduate programs at the University of California, Berkeley and the University of Illinois deserve to be mentioned here. Joseph Esherick, Sami Hassid and Charles Moore, who played key roles in this process, explained that seeing a need for "an interdisciplinary attack of the problems involved" in urban environment, the administrators were increasingly convinced that more interaction should be fostered within and between the students and the faculty. For more information on the interdisciplinary scheme they exercised at undergraduate and graduate programs at the University of California, see Joseph Esherick, Sami Hassid and Charles Moore, "Graduate Programs 1: The University of California," *Journal of Architectural Education* 28, no. 2 (September 1963): 21-24. The pedagogical value of collaboration was also under consideration at the graduate program of

The previous part of this chapter concentrated on Perkins's initiatives for the development of an interdisciplinary learning environment both at Harvard GSD and University of Pennsylvania GSFA. It directed attention to his search for reintegrating the planning and design disciplines under a single faculty and encouraging students from diverse programs to join their efforts at the design studio. It was underlined that Perkins sought to extend these practices to a wider set of principles upon which architectural education should be based. The following part of Chapter 4 addresses the special emphasis Perkins placed on research as an essential component of such an interdisciplinary teaching and learning environment. It re-contextualizes Perkins's position within the broader framework of the role of research in architectural education in the mid-twentieth century.

4.2.4   The Role of Research in Architectural Education

The mid-twentieth century witnessed an increasing emphasis placed on research both in the fields of architectural profession and architectural education. From the perspective of architectural profession, this can be explored through the ways research established its importance for professional practice and the research responsibility assigned to schools of architecture. The tremendous scope and complexity of problems to be solved in the profession created a demand for their methodical investigation. In her article "The Postwar Legacy of Architectural Research" Avigail Sachs discussed that, increasingly committed to the importance of a scientific attitude towards the problems unsolved, the profession became in search for establishing a more rational basis enriched by scientific data.[437] From the perspective of architectural education, research was important not only because it would help produce new knowledge. The educational value of research was emphasized as well. Schools of architecture became increasingly aware of their potential for, and responsibility of, guiding professional advancement. They could take part in the production and advancement

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architecture at the University of Illinois. A. Richard Williams explained that collaboration between the departments of architecture, urban planning and landscape architecture was encouraged through the "urban and regional design projects" carried out with the contribution of graduate students from these departments. For more information on these projects and "a joint studio in urban design" conducted at the University of Illinois, see Richard Williams, "Graduate Programs 3: The University of Illinois," *Journal of Architectural Education* 19, no. 3 (December 1964): 38-41.

[437] Avigail Sachs, "The Postwar Legacy of Architectural Research," *Journal of Architectural Education* 62, no. 3 (2009): 53-64.

of knowledge in the profession. Undertaking research as part of architectural education would also enhance teaching and learning processes.

What Sachs called "the enthusiastic pursuit of scientific research in architecture in the postwar period" may be the starting point of an examination of the growing concern for research in the field of architectural education.[438] The similarities and differences between professional and educational perspectives set another field of inquiry that would help better understand this multifaceted issue. One should also address the positions of schools of architecture with regard to the advancement of knowledge, the research potentials of teachers and students, and scholarship.

4.2.4.1   The Postwar Quest for Scientific Research in Architecture

Sachs pointed out that "the argument for scientific research in that period was in fact part of a wider argument about the nature of modern architectural practice and the future of the architectural profession in the United States."[439] Scientific research was seen as the proper means to develop the knowledge basis upon which professional advancement would be build. The "research economy of the postwar years," Sachs argued, set the broader framework of the growing concern for "an architecture based on research." This framework was characterized by "a widespread American consensus in which scientific investigation was seen as crucial for further progress and a better societal order."[440] An increasing governmental support for scientific research was a consequence of such a consensus. What Sachs called "research economy" was a new system initiated through government's growing concern for science and its role in providing funds for scientific research. Sachs's remarks on the governmental involvement in the organization of postwar research in America and its relevance to the "political and economic climate" of the period seem highly relevant for this part of the dissertation.[441] In examining this "research economy" one encounters a cluster of questions. What motivated American government to direct its attention towards scientific research? What role did the government assign to academic institutions? In which ways did the priorities of two parties differ?

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[438] Ibid., 53.
[439] Ibid.
[440] Ibid., 55.
[441] Ibid., 56.

Roger L. Geiger, who is Professor of Higher Education, made an effort to reveal in more detail the governmental research policies during and after World War II and the practical and theoretical values that informed universities' approach to research. In his book *American Research Universities since World War II: Research & Relevant Knowledge* Geiger presented a critical overall picture of the organization of research in postwar America.[442] The "basic-applied axis" and "the disinterested-interested axis" of scientific research constituted the two major trajectories of his examination of the relationship between "federal government" and "research universities." It becomes apparent from Geiger's examination that government's concern for scientific research dated back to the World War I, at a time when the notion of national security became central to America's science policy. Scientific research contributed to the "war effort" and it was "applied-research" in nature. Wartime scientists, Geiger underlined, mainly aimed at "solving problems of production and supply, refining existing weapons, and developing countermeasures like antisubmarine warfare."[443] Wartime science policy added significance to scientists' position and made their role extend beyond the boundaries of academic institutions. Geiger highlighted the change in the status of universities due to the growing commitment of the government to the idea that "competent scientists, who alone possessed the expert knowledge to provide leadership in research" were mainly brought together in institutes of higher education.[444] Federal government offered abundant resources for university research and promoted the creation of "scientific communities" in university settings. However, the relationship between the federal government and university scientists was not an easy one. Some scientists raised criticism against the government involvement in university research arguing that this would "bring the intrusion of political considerations and a diminution of the effectiveness of science."[445]

Underlying the politicization and, to an extent, militarization of scientific research during and after World War I, Geiger further pointed out that the focus of "federally dominated

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[442] Roger L. Geiger, *American Research Universities since World War II: Research & Relevant Knowledge* (New Brunswick and London: Transaction Publishers, 2004).
[443] Ibid., 3. For a detailed examination of status of research in universities, the governmental involvement in research and science policies during and after World War I, see Roger L. Geiger, *The Growth of American Research Universities, 1900-1940: To Advance Knowledge* (New Brunswick and London: Transaction Publishers, 1986; reprint, New Brunswick and London: Transaction Publishers, 2004).
[444] Ibid., 4.
[445] Ibid.

research economy" shifted after the World War II. This was a shift from security concerns to concerns for the common good of the society. On the one hand, both the government and universities were committed to the idea that their relationship initiated during the World War I should be maintained and institutionalized.[446] On the other hand, "the civilian, largely university-based scientific community," to use Geiger's words, insisted that the primary concerns of scientific research should be reconsidered "in order to utilize the nation's scientific assets for public weal."[447] Nevertheless, both the government and universities maintained that, in the attempts to serve the demands of the public, "the autonomy of science [should] be fully protected."[448]

Geiger argued that advancement of scientific knowledge "would be dependent upon civil scientists in industry and universities for a substantial portion of basic and applied research relevant to its many interests."[449] By the late 1940s, with the continuation of federal support, university research maintained a "federal government component," but was exercised in a less centralized and more academically oriented manner.[450] Geiger defined this as a "disinterested" approach to research:

> … Ideally academics were inspired to do research by the state of knowledge in their field -- what was known, what needed to be known, and what could feasible be discovered. They endeavored to contribute to the corpus of knowledge in their discipline; their contribution would, in turn, be evaluated by the appropriate disciplinary community, and professional recognition and reward for the investigator would result. Such research was essentially disinterested: the concern of the investigator was with the vitality of the knowledge contribution, not with whatever the use might be made of it.[451]

For Geiger, however, it could hardly be stated that all research undertakings facilitated in the setting of postwar universities were "disinterested": "At the one end lay research conducted within the context of academic departments without need of supplementary organization, at

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[446] Ibid., 13.
[447] Ibid., 14.
[448] Ibid., 15.
[449] Ibid., 13.
[450] Ibid., 33. In this period, federal support was given to university research through sponsoring "large laboratories," "individual projects" or "special university centers."
[451] Ibid., 48.

the opposite extreme were the federal contract laboratories, which were entirely the creatures of their respective sponsoring agencies."[452]

The outbreak of the Cold War denoted another significant moment in the history of government involvement into the field of university research. Geiger stated "by the late 1950s the university research system was at once heavily implicated in the research economy of the Cold War and increasingly wishing to dissociate itself from those very entanglements."[453] This was a period in which conflicting conceptions of research became more and more apparent among "university-based scientific community."[454]

4.2.4.2 The Demands of Architectural Profession

Sachs narrowed down the framework of what Geiger called "federal research economy" to its influence specifically on "the enthusiastic pursuit of scientific research in architecture in the postwar period."[455] She pointed out that university-based research was seen essential for scientific advancement and such a political and economic atmosphere provided a fertile ground for a quest for a rational basis for architectural practice. As a result, the profession turned towards scientific research as the proper means to achieve this goal. Architectural profession was in search for legitimizing architectural practice with reference to research conducted in schools of architecture as part of universities. However, Sachs reassessed this search for new factual information, of architectural profession, as an "instrumental" approach to research.[456] In her view, the intention of making use of architectural research for practical concerns -- advancement of building construction methods, materials or mechanical equipment, of functions and requirements of new building types, etc… -- indicated a "relatively narrow" attitude.

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[452] Ibid.
[453] Ibid., 37.
[454] For more information on the influence of the US's science policy in the Cold War period on university research in America, See Margaret Pugh O'Mara, "Cities of Knowledge: Cold War Politics, Universities, and the Roots of the Information-Age Metropolis, 1945-1970" (PhD diss., University of Pennsylvania, 2002).
[455] Sachs, 2009, "The Postwar Legacy of Architectural Research," 53.
[456] Ibid.

Sachs made reference to the articles appeared in the first issue of the *Journal of Architectural Education*, published in Spring 1947, as they made explicit how architects looked at research in the mid-twentieth century. Under the editorship of Turpin Bannister, this issue was devoted to the theme of architectural research.[457] The significance of this issue for Sachs was the way it "advocated the introduction of the 'scientific method' into professional practice."[458] All of the articles in the first issue of the *JAE* approached to research as "a systematic exploration to yield generalizations that could be used by architects in a range of contexts," and they met on the common ground of the idea that "the products of research … would place architectural practice on a shared and proven basis from which a truly modern architecture could emerge."[459] It should be highlighted that the articles in the first issue of the *JAE* were portrayal of perspectives from the field of architectural profession. They pointed to the existing status of research and the research responsibility that the profession assigned to schools of architecture.

JAE published a special issue on September 2007, at the 60th anniversary of the ACSA's publication of the first issues of the journal. This special issue gathered the articles that were presented to a panel titled "Architectural Design as Research and Scholarship," through which the first issue published in Spring 1947 was cited in a critical manner. In considering the approach of the *JAE*'s first issue to research as "instrumental," the editors of the 2007 issue noted:

> Uncritically embracing the scientific method and advancements made in the materials and methods of building technologies developed during and since WWII, the first issue of this journal, edited by Turpin Bannister, was *the first of several issues to focus on the role and definition of architectural research in relation to academe and the profession*.[460]

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[457] Later in 1954, Bannister edited volume one of *The Architect at Mid-Twentieth Century,* which was based on the "Report of the Commission for the Survey of Education and Registration of the American Institute of Architects," prepared in 1954. See, Bellamy, 1954.

[458] Sachs, 2009, "The Postwar Legacy of Architectural Research," 54.

[459] Ibid.

[460] "Editorial: Plus Ça Change, Plus Ça Change," *Journal of Architectural Education* 61, no. 1 (September 2007): 3, emphasis added. However, it is important to mention that an interest in architectural research did not start with the publication of this issue. As it will be examined in this part of Chapter 4, *JAE*'s first issue was an example of foremost institutionalized attempts to reconsider research in architecture, but not the first one.

A brief review of the articles appeared in the 2007 special issue of the *JAE* will be made in the following part of this chapter in order to reveal how research is defined and how it is related to design in academic circles today. Nonetheless, the attention of this part of Chapter 4 is directed towards the status of architectural research in America in the mid-twentieth century. It concentrates on the articles that appeared in the first issue of the *JAE*.

The article titled "The Schools and Architectural Research" presented the results of a survey conducted in 1947 by the AIA Department of E&R on the subject of the status of research in education programs.[461] The Department of E&R sent questionnaires to 60 member schools in order to reveal the extent of institutional efforts to conduct research as part of their educational activities and the ways the Department could contribute to the efforts to initiate and enhance "organized research" in architecture.[462] As it was indicated in the introduction of the research report, it could hardly be stated that an overall picture could be delineated through the results of this survey encompassing only a limited number of schools: 33 per cent of the member schools. What is more, the circumstances in schools which did not respond to AIA's questionnaire and the ones that were not sent the questionnaire are also important. However, the responses of schools still open critical perspectives over the inadequacies of the ongoing situation and help realize different conceptions of research in the late 1940s.[463] Within the framework of this survey, the Department of E&R concluded

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[461] "The Schools and Architectural Research," *Journal of Architectural Education* 1, AIA Department of Education and Research (Spring 1947): 25-42.

[462] The questionnaire sent by the Department of E&R to schools of architecture included the following questions: "1. What should be the aims of a general program of architectural research, as contemplated by the American Institute of Architects? 2. What areas of such a general program and what specific projects would be of most immediate use in your present teaching program? 3. What specific 'contributions to architectural knowledge' have come from your school (students or staff) from 1921 to 1946? 4. What is your present program for research? 5. Describe briefly specific research projects now being carried on by the staff or students of your school. 6. What special facilities do you now have for staff and student research? 7. What special additional facilities would you like to have for staff and student research? 8. What funds are now available to staff and students in your school for architectural research? 9. What practical encouragement and assistance could the American Institute of Architects give to further architectural research in your school?"

[463] The respondents from the University of Illinois explained the lack of a research program in their school due to "the heavy overload of students, a shortage of teachers, and limited physical facilities, including our library." The response from the University of Kansas to the above question was portrayal of an idea of research not as an organized educational activity, but rather an individual project. In a similar vein, the Washington University mentioned having "no special program," but cited "graduate theses" as research activities operated in the University. Apparently, Yale University was the only institution of higher education among respondent member schools, to have systematic endeavors related to research in architecture, which aimed "to encourage research by faculty, graduate students, and special research fellows in the fields of city planning, building materials, and

that "research, as the scientist and the engineer use the term, was not taught or applied in our schools… the schools do not today have the facilities demanded by a research program."[464] For the E&R, the responsibility of a lack of "organized research" was the responsibility of both architectural profession and architectural education:

> It is not surprising that the answers to our questions revealed little accomplished or under way in the matter of architectural research. There are a number of reasons why this should be so. First, the schools reflect the profession, and *the profession has cared little and done less for research*. Second, the major function of most schools is to provide undergraduate instruction in a well-established curriculum. The chief problem of the architectural teacher has been to impress the fundamental principles of composition and of construction upon his pupils and to lead them to apply these to their projects in a convincing manner...[465]

This survey was important also because it underlined profession's growing interest in the key role that schools of architecture could play in producing and advancing architectural knowledge. Both professional agencies and schools were seen in charge of taking part in this development. As a leading professional agency, AIA was eager to take part of it. This intention manifested itself in the foundation of the Department of E&R, which aimed at the development of a research program and saw cooperation with schools of architecture indispensable.[466] It is important to note that AIA concerned architectural research before the

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architectural education." When the responses to the question "What special additional facilities would you like to have for staff and student research?" are taken into consideration, it becomes evident that the member schools were mostly in demand of more equipment and space as well as more staff to do research. University of Illinois responded to this question emphasizing "fewer students or more staff and "more capable men who would be interested in teaching as a profession," whereas in the University of Kansas there was a demand for "[a] physical laboratory for large and small scale experiments." For the University of Oregon there was a need for "additional work area," "greater funds for equipment, travel, books" and "additional staff" in order to conduct more research. Alternatively the University of Texas mentioned that development of organized research demanded "testing facilities for new materials in architecture, not so much normal testing as in an engineering laboratory, or long -- range testing, such as paints and plywood, but handling tests to familiarize students with materials and their possibilities." See, Ibid., 30-32.

[464] Ibid., 35.

[465] Ibid, emphasis added.

[466] "The increasing complexity of building and the desire of Institute members for technical and research assistance has led to the establishment of the Department of Education and Research as part of the new structure of the Institute, incorporating the former Department of Technical Services… For research and other indicated activities the function of the Department of Education and Research is a composite of listening post and reporting agency, clearing house and coordinating center, and instigator of needed activities." See, Walter A. Taylor, "The Architect Looks at Research," *Journal of Architectural Education* 1 (Spring 1947): 21.

foundation of this Department as well.[467] However, during the directorship of Walter Taylor, between the late 1940s and 1950s, AIA's research involvement and cooperation with academic institutions entered into a more systematic stage.

Taylor pointed to vast range of subject matters that the Department's program covered, including "social or functional," "physiological," "psychological" and "safety" requirements, "structural theory," "building materials," "building equipment," "construction," "educational" and "ethical" concerns of the profession and concerns of "professional registration and legislation."[468] This program also sought to encourage "cross fertilization of ideas between groups within the profession and between the profession and other groups of specialists." The Department insisted that "the success of the above proposed program of research in and for the architectural profession will depend to a considerable extent upon the interest, initiative, and cooperation of the schools of architecture."[469] It was also argued that the realization of cooperative efforts would lead to positive consequences not only for the profession, but also for the schools:

> The schools have everything to gain from active participation in such a program. It will infuse *an atmosphere of vigor and intensity that makes learning an exciting adventure*. It will promote closer relationships with the profession, and in turn win for the schools a more intelligent support from alumni than that based on nostalgia. It may be that out of this more virile program *the schools can win a share in professional responsibilities and leadership* that they have rarely enjoyed heretofore. It will certainly be true that our teaching will at last have *a firm grounding in verifiable principles…*[470]

Bannister's article titled "The Research Heritage of the Architectural Profession" appeared in the *JAE*'s first issue and addressed the research responsibility on the side of schools of

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[467] From its inception in the 1857, architectural education has been in the agenda of the AIA. The AIA took part in providing funds for research on the advancement of "science and art of building," embraced research activities in cooperation with agencies of building industry and schools of architecture. For further information on the foundation principles and goals of the AIA, see H. H. Saylor, *The First Hundred Years of the AIA; 1857-1957* (The American Institute of Architects, Washington, D. C.: The Octagon, 1957).
[468] Taylor, Spring 1947, 23 and 24.
[469] According to the AIA Department of Education, "the obvious place for the Institute to begin is to work through the schools. Despite the fact that the schools are crowded with unprecedented enrollments, lacking in sufficient staff, and ill equipped for fostering research, they are at least constituent parts of institutions where research is active in many other fields and where the principle of administering research projects are well formulated." See, "The Schools and Architectural Research," Spring 1947, 38-39.
[470] Ibid., 39, emphasis added.

architecture. For him, this was a responsibility for creating and promoting programs of research that would contribute to the development of a scientific basis for architectural practice. His ideas on the necessity of research paralleled those pointed by the AIA:

> Consider our present professional situation. We practice today as isolated individuals. We solve our specific projects as best we can in the light of limited individual experiences. Even if we attack our job with sincerity and industry, we are unable to bring to it more than what we ourselves have gleaned from our own meager trials and errors. If scientists and engineers had been content with such procedures, we would still be in the horse and buggy days. In an age of applied science, the gentlest judgment we can render is that architectural knowledge has lagged behind.[471]

For Bannister, the potential role of schools of architecture in the conduct of scientific research could not be disregarded. Taylor, in the Regional Meeting of the Southeastern Schools of Architecture convened in 1949, continued the same line of argument. He advocated the idea that research should play a considerable part in the practice of architecture in order to handle the problems facing the profession:

> The practitioner gains much of his current new knowledge by self-education, the material coming from many sources… Schools of architecture should fill a place in research analogous to the coordinating function of the practicing architect. Most research is either abstract (pure science) or fragmentary (engineering and development). The findings of research are not fully valuable unless they are correlated and tested in combinations for the total human reaction. Every carefully studied building design is of course a research project, but much more *advanced and comprehensive research can logically be done on a university campus, with the school of architecture in a coordinating and contributory role…*[472]

In Taylor's view, schools of architecture could play a critical role by bringing together research and education, coordinating educational and research activities and channeling all their resources to advance architectural profession. At the 44th Annual Meeting of the ACSA, convened in Spring 1959, he stated: "We need the assistance of the schools not to do the whole job, but to provide sometimes the locale, sometimes the faculty, sometimes the machinery of your university extension to promote and even take care of the work…"[473]

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[471] Turpin C. Bannister, "The Research Heritage of the Architectural Profession," *Journal of Architectural Education* 1 (Spring 1947): 8, emphasis added.

[472] Taylor, Winter 1949, 49, emphasis added.

[473] Walter Taylor, in "Minutes of the 44th Annual Meeting of the ACSA," *Journal of Architectural Education* 14, no. 1 (Spring 1959): 33.

Taylor remarked that the advancement of knowledge was an imperative due to continually changing conditions and emerging problems that confronted architects. In his article "A School of Architecture of the Future" he noted:

> … The architectural profession and especially the teachers of architecture must develop a body of knowledge which is *rationally ordered but not frozen*, subject to revision or to enlargement or to refinement. Architectural research and architectural education must take the responsibility of ordering and stating not only what we now know … but also contributions of other disciplines and the new knowledge of architectural research…[474]

These remarks bring me to the first of a series of specific points which I think are of critical significance in the examination of the growing concern for architectural research in the mid-twentieth century. What was the intention underneath the profession's interest in scientific research and its attempt to integrate it to architectural practice? Architectural profession saw research as essential for professional advancement and sought to develop a scientific approach to problems ahead.

The statement by a British researcher-architect William A. Allen, who was invited to the 38th Annual Convention of the ACSA in 1952 by Taylor, demonstrated that the interest in research in the field of practice went beyond "instrumental" priorities. Allen was the head of a research program at Building Research Station in England and he advocated the view that architects should be more and more involved in research for developing a scientific outlook toward architectural profession:

> …As architects we have to recognize that *the scientific way of thinking is the original source of power in science*, and the chief attribute of the scientist. *Without this way of thinking, the experimental confirmation of knowledge would not proceed and you would have reversion to a mediaeval outlook where beliefs took the place of facts.* There is nothing very remarkable about the scientific outlook when you put it down in words; it consists mainly in the cultivation of the habit of observing carefully and systematically, trying to reason from observation to hypothesis, then confirming the hypothesis experimentally, and then going back over the reasoning if you find something has gone wrong. While it sounds easy, it is difficult in practice to discipline the mind strictly to this practice…[475]

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[474] Taylor, Autumn 1959, 49, emphasis added.
[475] William A. Allen, in "Proceedings of the 38th Annual Convention of the ACSA," *Journal of Architectural Education* 8. Science and Architectural Work in Training (Autumn 1952): 30, emphasis added.

For Allen, the urgent task ahead the profession was "to make some use of the scientific method as an outlook for architects."[476] He saw "the scientific outlook" as "the best way of learning and acquiring knowledge" that would advance architects' professional competences.[477] If a scientific outlook would be practiced in professional practice, he argued, "our profession will be able to extend its own power and its own standard of authority and its own influence over the building work of the country."[478] In his view, to instill a scientific way of thinking in architects was a responsibility more of the schools than of the profession.

Allen's remarks reflected a particular viewpoint that was emerging both in the field of architectural profession and architectural education. From this point of view, there was urgent need for the development of a body of practitioners who are equipped to think scientifically. Professional education given in schools of architecture was seen as the proper setting in which such a body of practitioners could be trained.

4.2.4.3 The Educational Priorities of Schools of Architecture

The picture delineated up to this point, sets the general framework of the growing concern for research in the mid-twentieth century in America from the perspective of the architecture profession. This picture also frames the growing interest in research in the field of architectural education in the same period. The following part of Chapter 4 addresses the questions of how architectural research was conceived by academicians, why they saw the necessity to integrate research and education and in which ways these ideas found reflection in architecture programs both at undergraduate and graduate levels. Attention is called to the

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[476] Ibid., 32.
[477] Ibid., 30-31. Allen explained in detail: "I believe the role of scientific behavior to be essentially preparative. The scientific outlook is the best way of learning and acquiring knowledge. There is no question about it. It is equally true that intuition, or imagination, which is the artist's chief tool, can only function in terms of what a person's mind contains. In other words, a mind which understands things over a wide range can be used for high-grade intuitive acts and judgments, while the ill-equipped mind leads necessarily to lower-grade judgments. A good intuitive mechanism is no better than the material it has to use, and nothing can replace knowledge for that. One may learn a great deal by observation. No doubt some people learn far more than others by observation, but no matter what our powers of observation, the appreciation and understanding of something we see, and therefore its usefulness to us, depends upon our ability to explain and understand it, so that it stays in our minds as part of our experience. It is in the ability to comprehend the meaning and judge the implications of thing we see that the scientific outlook and real knowledge is of the most use to us as architects. In other words, the ability to observe well itself depends partly on having some capacity to behave scientifically and upon accurate understanding, such as only science makes possible."
[478] Ibid., 34.

priorities of academicians in responding to the emergent demands of the profession and in fulfilling evolving requisites for academic advancement.

Schools of architecture were in search for playing more influential roles in professional advancement. These roles required the development both of a knowledge basis and of a scientific approach to problems ahead architectural profession. Schools of architecture had a responsibility of training the future practitioners. They also felt a responsibility towards their students and faculty, as well as the profession. These two points frame the examination, in this part of Chapter 4, of the priorities of schools of architecture when research was concerned.

Architecture's growing concern for "total environment" and the demand for the expansion of architectural knowledge was one of the forces that encouraged schools of architecture to do more research. It should be noted that underneath this concern laid the complexity of existing conditions and the intention to respond them. A more comprehensive grasp of built environment was needed. To remain responsive to changing conditions and peculiar problems of the period was indispensable. To follow technological and programmatic advancements or advancements in building materials was a responsibility not only of the practitioners, but also of the faculty in schools of architecture.

The potential of research in helping grasp the ongoing changes and problems found particular resonance among academicians. Philip N. Youtz, the Chairman of the Committee of Research and Graduate Studies of ACSA, emphasized that, "research to be effective should center on current architectural problems... To be creative, research into past or present problems should deal with questions in which students and the profession is deeply concerned."[479]

It was also argued that in developing a more rational knowledge basis for architecture, a new conception of architecture as well as recent and prospective problems in front of the profession should be taken into consideration. Schools' approach to research was shaped by a new perspective towards architecture and the responsibilities of the architect. In his article

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[479] Philip N. Youtz, in "Minutes of the 46th Annual Meeting of the ACSA," *Journal of Architectural Education* 15, no. 3 (Autumn 1960): 19.

"The Orientation of Architectural Research" Youtz defined the scope of research task at the forefront of the "modern architect" as follows:

> The modern architect is conscious of urban and regional problems. He strives to design buildings, not as independent units, but as components of a community. To carry out this *social responsibility* we need more architectural research on planning, on city, suburban, and regional development. Most of the metropolitan centers in this country have been confronted with extremely complicated problems of transportation, slum clearance, and urban renewal. To play a constructive part in such a situation the architect needs knowledge. This background can only be acquired through continuous research.[480]

In 1960, he argued at the 46th Annual Meeting of the Association of Collegiate Schools of Architecture: "We feel research should be supported and actively engaged in by Schools… I think the position the Schools should take is that we consider this an inherent part of our basic responsibility as Schools..."[481] Perkins's words were illustrative of a concern that occupied the field of architectural education in America by the mid-twentieth century. Perkins insisted that an architect should always be responsive to the changing scope of architecture. He saw a need for "building and urban design research," and enlarged the scale of necessary research interest to "a better understanding of all the forces of nature and of man which mold our environment."[482] Having conceived the major concerns and scope of architectural research as such, he maintained that a collaborative approach to research was crucial. In his view, just like the required collaboration between practitioners from allied fields, research was a collaborative task of specialists from allied fields in which the manifold aspects of the "total environment" should be addressed. Research into the problems of the built environment, varying in scale from a regional or urban context to a single component of a building, was to be reconsidered as a collaborative project. Accordingly, Perkins believed that "the architects must welcome research specialists as fellow contributors, just as generations ago the doctors brought the biologists into their search for answers in the endless battle to improve human health."[483]

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[480] Phillip N. Youtz, "The Orientation of Architectural Research," *Journal of Architectural Education* 15, no. 4 (Winter 1961): 7, emphasis added.
[481] G. Holmes Perkins, in "Minutes of the 46th Annual Meeting of the ACSA," *Journal of Architectural Education* 15, no. 3 (Autumn 1960): 39.
[482] Perkins, September 1964, 25.
[483] Ibid., 23.

Previously, at the Annual Convention of AIA in 1958, a similar conception of research was highlighted by William Wilson Wurster, the first Dean of the College of Environmental Design of the University of California, Berkeley:

> Today the problems confronting us are only researchable in terms of other disciplines, as well as our own, involving engineering, pure science, sociology, and other behavioral sciences, economics and finance, public administration among others. *Any effective research program involves collaboration,* in some form, with other departments and graduate students in other fields. Even on the strictly aesthetic aspects of form, space and their emotional impact, *outsiders are needed*: physiologists, psychologists, historians and cultural anthropologists.[484]

In the view of academicians, for researchers from diverse disciplines to join their forces and cooperate with each other around the solution of a common problem, they have to be in dialogue with each other. This issue was addressed by Preston Andrade at the 47th Annual Meeting of the ACSA, convened in Spring 1961:

> Architecture involves the application of ideas to the construction of a physical environment. Much of the basic research to architecture will be applied to research in other areas. The architect should take a leading role in directing and in guiding architectural research. If he does not the research will not orient toward architecture; it will fall into other categories.
>
> … We must direct the research to the needs of the profession and we must understand what those needs are. The needs are changing and we have to be able to communicate our needs to researchers in other sciences. There is a tendency to think that we must encompass the world in a study in order to make it firm; that if we start with some examination of the needs of man we have got to know all about man and rebuild the whole structure of our civilization. This is a trap. It cannot be done. We cannot do it. *We cannot orient around ourselves all the information, all the personnel, and all the information of all the other disciplines, and focus away from their own work to ourselves. We must draw from them only what we need. To do this we have to be able to say what we need. We have to understand what they tell us. This is communication.* This is one of the absolutely basic problems in getting at an intelligently developed program of architectural research…[485]

At the 46th Annual Meeting of the ACSA, Youtz's response to the question of "what direction should architectural research, as distinguished from other fields of investigation, take in order to advance our profession?" was grounded in the same line of argument:

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[484] Quoted in Burchard, Autumn 1959, 25, emphasis added.
[485] Preston Andrade, in "Minutes of the 47th Annual Meeting of the ACSA," *Journal of Architectural Education* 16, no. 1 (Spring 1961): 60, emphasis added.

"Personally I would say that we should probe the whole art and science of building, and seek the help of all the academic disciplines that are in any way connected with architecture."[486] In his view, the wide spectrum of research topics that wait to be addressed should cover "an anthropological appraisal of the role of architecture in shaping and developing culture," laboratory studies into "the manufactured materials and components that go into a modern building," "the study of the functions and requirements of changing institutions," and "education."[487]

The educational value of architectural research was a significant theme of debates. A lack of enough research was recognized from the 1940s on. This drew the argumentative core of the 34th Annual Meeting of the Association of Collegiate Schools of Architecture, convened in Autumn 1948. Fitz Patrick, from the Iowa State College, delineated the status of research in the late 1940s as follows:

> Until very recently, the architectural profession, and particularly the architectural schools in the United States, have woefully neglected their responsibility in the field of research as it relates to architecture. Although it is true that there have been isolated instances where, from time to time, modest research projects in the name of architecture have been fostered, in the main these projects have not been closely allied to a school or department of architecture in a positive manner. In general, such projects have been supported by endowments or in some instances by funds from the Department of Commerce. Too often they have been so divorced from the schools that they have provided no stimulus for either the staff or the students. If we would honestly compare the collective efforts in the area of research in architecture, of our schools and our profession, with the areas of research currently fostered by the schools of science or engineering, we would be sincerely ashamed. In addition, we would find that very often architectural research is being carried on by agencies and departments in our educational institutions which of themselves are very remote from the field of architecture. *We have been remiss, not only in our duty to our profession, but to our Students in not meeting this challenge. Admittedly the past few years following the war have taxed our ingenuity to meet the problems of high enrollments, depleted teaching staffs, and the lack of adequate space and equipment. But as that situation changes, and we again approach that status which we naively call 'Normal,' we must turn our efforts to the vast area of architectural research.*[488]

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[486] Youtz, Autumn 1960, 17.
[487] Youtz, Winter 1961, 5-7.
[488] Fitz Patrick, in "Proceedings of the Thirty-Fourth Annual Meeting of the Association of Collegiate Schools of Architecture." *Journal of Architectural Education*, no. 3 (Autumn 1948): 72-73, emphasis added.

Eleven years later, at the 44th Annual Meeting of ACSA, the need for more research in architecture was still at issue. The inquiry into its nature and procedures continued. Lawrence B. Anderson from Massachusetts Institute of Technology argued that "the whole question of research and what it means for architecture and architectural education is proving a very baffling one for us" further pointing out that "we realize the need of it but we don't know how to go about it."[489] Awareness of its necessity was essential, though not enough. Firstly, the conception of research was to be clarified. In the view of Eduard Sekler, from the Graduate School of Design, Harvard University, research was misunderstood by the majority of teachers and students:

> Too often it would seem that the architectural student acquires a completely erroneous conception of what research means in his field and he rarely finds occasion to revise it during his later career. What he remembers may well be nothing but quick trips to a library where material provided by a helpful librarian was scanned rapidly with a view to immediate usefulness for a very special purpose, with little criticism applied and even less method.
>
> Small wonder that the student (and the professional he becomes later) does not learn to value this type of work highly, feeling that it imparts no intellectual discipline nor any spiritual values. In fact dilettantism and eclecticism may be the only lasting results of such spurious research, and the lack of humility for which architects are blamed so often in our time may well be traced back in part to an education that never gave them a chance to learn how to let things alone which they were not equipped or willing to tackle seriously.[490]

What was, then, research for architectural education? In a broader sense, research indicated bringing a critical-methodological approach to an architectural problem and exercising a systematic investigation. This approach should be cultivated in students as an intellectual endeavor as part of their intellectual development. Thus, research was valued as an "educational tool" as well.[491] Administrators and instructors paid much attention to the conception of research as such. This conception found explicit expression in Youtz's words as follows:

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[489] Lawrence Anderson, in "Minutes of the 44th Annual Meeting of the ACSA," *Journal of Architectural Education* 14, no. 1 (Spring 1959): 38.

[490] Eduard Sekler, "Research and Criticism in Architecture," *Journal of Architectural Education* 12, no. 2 (Summer 1957): 31.

[491] Olindo Grossi, in "Minutes of the 46th Annual Meeting of the ACSA," *Journal of Architectural Education* 15, no. 3 (Autumn 1960): 36.

> … The great value of research in education is that it introduces the student to the adventure of testing and extending knowledge. It deals with uncertainties and unknowns. It attempts to widen our intellectual horizon. It initiates the student into the adult responsibility for doubting, probing, and checking current preconceptions. It teaches the investigator to face the unknown with confidence and to forge his own truths.[492]

After what research meant was clarified, the objective should be cultivating in students skills and attitudes that were essential for practicing research. In Wurster's view, "[w]hat you need is to teach the students to do research not write the research itself."[493] No doubt Patrick was thinking on the same plane when he said "we must instill into our students the necessity, procedures, and applications for proper research in the field of architecture."[494] He remarked that: "If we can develop in them the capacity to undertake the numerous problems confronting them as future architects, and to attack them with what I choose to call the 'research mind,' we will not be remiss in our duties."[495] Accordingly, the task ahead a school of architecture was to encourage the development of this "research mind." Architectural research could go beyond knowledge contribution to the degree that it played part in the development of intellectual competences of students. This would also be a key to constantly advance architectural knowledge.

When the debates on the topic of research as part of architectural education are under examination, one must address the concern for the relationship between design and research. The *JAE*'s aforementioned special issue, which was published in September 2007, deserves to be cited once more. In this issue, besides a criticism that was brought against the "scientifically oriented" research of the postwar period, academicians and practitioners brought forth varying perspectives on the relationship between "design, research and scholarship."[496] It becomes apparent that research is still in the thematic agenda of the *JAE* and that the place of research in professional and academic fields is still in the agenda of scholars. As it was the case sixty years before when the first issue of *JAE* was published in 1947, the ideas in the 2007 issue portrayed no unitary conception of research. Although

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[492] Youtz, Winter 1961, 4.
[493] Bill Wurster, "Proceedings of the 38th Annual Convention of the ACSA." *Journal of Architectural Education*, no. 8 (Autumn 1952): 50.
[494] Patrick, Autumn 1948, 76.
[495] Ibid.
[496] *JAE*'s special issue covered the articles that were presented in a panel titled "Architectural Design as Research and Scholarship," organized by the *JAE* and convened at the ACSA's Annual Meeting in Philadelphia in March 2007.

criticism of the "scientifically oriented" research of the postwar period constituted the common ground on which the authors from the fields of practice, research and academia met, they conceived the nature of research and design and their possible connection in different ways.[497]

As underlined by Lily Chi, three different outlooks concerning the relationship between design, research and scholarship can be discerned in the articles published in the September 2007 issue of the *JAE*: (1) the conception of "design as research," (2) the idea of research as "a complement to design work," and (3) the claim that "no intrinsic relationship [exists] between design and research."[498] At the core of these outlooks is a need to redefine the goals of design education.

In his article "Research in Design; Planning, Doing, Monitoring, Learning" Stephen Kieran emphasized that to teach "research skills" and encourage "critical reflection and learning based upon research findings" should be the main educational goals of a design studio.[499] For Kieran, the efforts to introduce research either to schools of architecture or to the field of professional practice should be concentrated on the development of a "research culture," and he saw "discipline" and "skill as the prerequisites of its development.[500] In considering research "a central part of how we reflect and learn," Kieran saw an intrinsic relationship between design and research.

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[497] *JAE*'s Executive Editor George Dodds and Design Editor Jori Erdman defined this situation as "one of the strengths of this issue," since it reflected, in their view, the potential of the Journal to provoke more discussions on the theme. George Dodds and Jori Erdman, "Introduction," *Journal of Architectural Education* 61, no. 1 (September 2007): 4. For an overview of the articles appeared in special issue of the *JAE*, September 2007, see Sachs, 2009, "The Postwar Legacy of Architectural Research," 53-64.

[498] Lily Chi, "Translations between Design Research and Scholarship," *Journal of Architectural Education* 61, no. 1, *Architectural Design as Research, Scholarship, and Inquiry* (September 2007): 7.

[499] Stephan Kieran used to teach design studio at the University of Pennsylvania and currently owns a private firm conducting architectural research and design projects. See, Stephan Kieran, "Research in Design: Planning Doing Monitoring Learning," *Journal of Architectural Education* 61, no. 1, *Architectural Design as Research, Scholarship, and Inquiry* (September 2007): 28.

[500] Kieran explained: ""The discipline is in the ceaseless inquiry about how we can do what we have just done better. The skill is in knowing how to frame questions and seek out measurable data that we can act upon to improve what we have done." See, Ibid.

Alternatively, Matt Powers, from the Florida A&M University, maintained that design and research were entirely distinct activities in epistemological terms.[501] He explained:

> The goal of research is new knowledge. Researchers are not concerned with solving problems per se, but providing others with the knowledge and information that will help them to solve problems. Providing knowledge to solve problems is the most important function of research. This means that from a research perspective, questions regarding design as research inevitably lead to epistemological questions as 'where does design knowledge come from?' and 'how does design contribute new knowledge?' The answers to these types of questions depend, of course, on how you define knowledge, a function of discipline… Knowledge, for researchers, is about ensuring that the findings or results of their research are valid, reliable, and generalizable. The researcher's methods, including the collection, measurement, and analysis of data, is highly structured and requires rigorous standards in order to make certain that the results of a study essentially qualify as truth. While this is a scientifically oriented view of research and knowledge, it nonetheless represents the most important aspiration of research -- giving us the facts.[502]

What Powers delineated as conventional research was "best defined in terms of knowledge, method, and values rather than by discipline."[503] On the other hand, when "design as research" was at issue, he argued, "tacit and experiential knowledge" specific to architectural design was to be at issue. From the perspective of design, "knowledge is also more than learning something new; it is about an understanding accumulated over time through careful observation, intuition, and reflection upon and during regular practice."[504] Powers placed special emphasis on knowledge that is generated through the design process and called this kind of knowledge "experiential knowledge," which in his view "does not necessarily carry with it the same kind of validity, reliability, or generalization" as was the case in scientific research.[505]

The *JAE*'s special issue brings into light several topics that frame the ongoing debates on the relationship between design and research. In which ways does architectural design act as a knowledge generating process? In which ways does design contribute to "expanding

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[501] Matt Powers, "Toward a Discipline-Dependent Scholarship," *Journal of Architectural Education* 61, no. 1, *Architectural Design as Research, Scholarship, and Inquiry* (September 2007): 15-18.
[502] Ibid., 17.
[503] Ibid., 18.
[504] Ibid., 17.
[505] For Powers, "the design disciplines should themselves attempt to articulate and advance the methods and values that support a discipline-dependent scholarship." Ibid., 15.

disciplinary knowledge" of architecture?[506] What is the role of "reflection" in architectural design process? This special issue also addressed research-oriented studios as significant pedagogical schemes in contemporary design education. Attention was drawn to the ways these studios were structured as learning environments and the design process was structured as a research process that would enhance learning experiences.

It is important to say that the notion of "design as research," which was the core of the *JAE*'s special issue, is not new. In this recently published issue, a thematic connection of contemporary debates to educational ideas and practices of the mid-twentieth century was drawn. This connection addressed the significance of design studio in architectural education and that of research in studio education. In his article "Is There Research in the Studio?" Kazys Varnelis, from the Columbia University, pointed out that the beginning of "research studios" dated back to the mid-twentieth century.[507] Varnelis paid particular attention to an architectural studio project conducted by Denise Scott Brown and Robert Venturi, "Learning from Las Vegas," as a remarkable example of earliest research-oriented studios in America.[508] In Varnelis's view, as a project "developed within an architecture studio and maintained a more systematic process of investigation into the city," "Learning from Las Vegas Research Studio" was considered as "a key moment in architectural research."

"Learning from Las Vegas Research Studio" was also cited by Sachs who considered that this project marked a pedagogical change in studio education of the 1960s. She underscored that this was a time when the effectiveness of positivist assumptions of the 1940s and 1950s that "the very act of conducting research would lead to universal truths which in turn would shape architectural form to meet a new, modern standard" still continued.[509] "But even in those decades," she pointed out, "the advocates of research in architecture did not expect a uniform aesthetic to emerge, but rather a set of unique solutions applicable to their specific contexts (or environments)." In their 1968 studio project, Venturi and Scott Brown

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[506] Dodds and Erdman, September 2007, 6.

[507] Kazys Varnelis, "Is there Research in the Studio?," *Journal of Architectural Education* 61, no. 1, *Architectural Design as Research, Scholarship, and Inquiry* (September 2007): 11-14.

[508] Ibid., 11-12. This studio project was taught by Venturi and Scott Brown at Yale in 1968. The project work was later published as a book by Venturi, Scott Brown, and Steven Izenour. See, Robert Venturi, Denise Scott Brown and Steven Izenour, *Learning from Las Vegas* (Cambridge, MA: The MIT Press, 1972; reprint, Cambridge, MA: The MIT Press 1977).

[509] Sachs, 2009, "Research for Architecture: Building a Discipline and Modernizing the Profession," 235.

concerned themselves with looking at the city and urban space in a new way and explored the physical and communal specificities of an urban context. In Scott Brown's own words, the aim of this project was "through open minded and nonjudgmental investigation, to come to understand this new form and to begin to evolve techniques for its handling."[510]

The ways Scott Brown and Venturi sought to achieve these goals and the principles of their pedagogical approach was made apparent earlier in Scott Brown's article "On Formal Analysis as Design Research."[511] Scott Brown started her article with a critical evaluation of the status of research in architectural and planning education in the 1960s. She argued that although schools of architecture became increasingly concerned themselves with research and received considerable funds to conduct research projects, in that period the reflections of this growing research concern could hardly be seen in architectural studios.[512] There was not enough connection between studios, other courses and research. More emphasis was placed on research in planning studios. In structuring their studio at Yale as "planning like studios for students of architecture," Scott Brown and Venturi aimed at bridging the gap between research and design.[513] Their objective was to achieve a balance between them, rather than subordinating the former to the latter or vice versa. Their major goal was structuring not "a totally research-oriented studio," but a studio that would embody "a cyclical approach" in which research and design processes would intermingle and enhance the entire learning experiences of students.[514] In the early phases of the studio project, the students were engaged in "a month-long library research phase," "a site-work phase" and "several analysis and descriptive phase, in which a brief design was interspersed."[515] These were followed with a "brief design period" in which they "structure[d] their reactions to the city," "organize[d] their findings" and started thinking about "how to use material professionally." At the end of the project, students prepared "physical descriptions of the places under study" and "analysis of the physical and symbolic requirements they fulfilled." In this way, students were encouraged to arrive at "theoretical formulations about architecture."[516] The Learning

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[510] Venturi, Scott Brown and Izenour, 1977, quoted in Sachs, 2009, 236.
[511] Denise Scott Brown, "On Formal Analysis as Design Research," *Journal of Architectural Education* 32, no. 4. *Search/Research* (May 1979): 8-11.
[512] Ibid., 9.
[513] Ibid. Scott reminded Perkins's warning: "Remember, design is their first love -- don't lead them too far away from it."
[514] Ibid.
[515] Ibid., 10.
[516] Ibid., 11.

from Las Vegas Studio made explicit the ways Scott Brown and Venturi considered research studio as "a pedagogical tool for a professional program in architecture and planning."[517]

Scott Brown defined their "formal analysis" as "applied research, suited to the professional practice of architecture, with pedagogical value -- particularly in studio, where it can be the means to rehabilitate studio education."[518] In exercising an experimental approach, she maintained several concerns of a scientifically oriented research, at the same time as she criticized a solely empirical approach. This position found an explicit expression in her ideas on "scientism in architecture":

> … In our culture, the mantle of science lends respectability- or has done so until recently. Others have noted how disciplines perceived as being at the edge of academic respectability tend to acquire a spurious scientism … to which the insecure can turn for their fields 'rigor.' Architecture and planning are no exceptions to this tendency.
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> Yet there are times in the development of knowledge when quantification is premature, and in architecture there are *intangibles* that resist measurement, but that can be well-handled all the same. It is irrational to resist the appropriate application of scientific method, even when it treads on scared artistic ground. But it is equally irrational and irresponsible -- not to say unscientific- to omit the unmeasurable and to limit one's attention solely to that which can be handled mathematically, or scientifically proven.[519]

It is important to note that Scott Brown's commitment to civic design and the possibility of achieving a synthesis between architecture and city planning were underlying concerns of her position. These concerns were manifested in the reconciliatory position she developed at the University of Pennsylvania GSFA in the late fifties and early sixties. This position deserves a special attention when the critical significance of that period at Penn is taken into consideration. That was a time of competing paradigms and of tension between "artists" and "analysts," as Scott Brown defined it.[520] This tension was examined in detail by Klemek in his doctoral dissertation titled "Urbanism as Reform: Modernist Planning and the Crisis of Urban Liberalism in Europe and North America, 1945-1975."[521] Klemek delineated a general

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[517] Ibid., 9.
[518] Ibid., 8.
[519] Ibid., 11, emphasis added.
[520] Denise Scott Brown, "With People in Mind," *Journal of Architectural Education* 35, no. 1. *With People in Mind: The Architect-Teacher at Work* (Autumn 1981): 44.
[521] See, Klemek, 2004, 199-244.

picture of the uneasy relationship between Architecture and Planning departments at GSFA in the mid-twentieth century. This relationship framed the educational atmosphere into which Scott Brown participated with the intention of studying with Kahn. Klemek reminded that "[t]he reputation of Perkins' School of Fine Arts coalesced by the mid-1950s, and began attracting students both for its *social scientific planning*, as well as for *pure design*."[522] However, he argued, by the late fifties problems started to arise in this enthusiastic educational atmosphere. "There existed in Penn's School of Fine Arts an irreducible tension," he underlined, "between those, like Kahn and Venturi, who focused on the aesthetic and those, like Mitchell and his planning department, who approached the economic and social aspects of urbanism."[523] No doubt, this was more than a personal disagreement. It denoted two different directions followed by architects and planners at Penn.

Klemek remarked that under the chairmanship of Robert Mitchell, the educational direction of the Planning Department was shaped by a commitment to social sciences. Planners at Penn saw "the architectural and physical bias of the planning profession" as the major challenge ahead planning education.[524] Klemek also underlined the presence of "a schism pitting the architects led by Kahn, who styled themselves as artists, against the analysts in planning," in the Department of Architecture in that period.[525] In her article "A Worm's Eye View of Recent Architectural History" Scott Brown remarked that in the 1958-59 academic year, when she was a graduate student the GSFA, "[t]he social planning movement engulfed Penn's planning department."[526] In the early sixties when she started teaching, she tried to position herself at an equal distance both from the "formalists" and the "analysts" and directed her efforts to bridge the widening gap between the two poles:

> I sat in the middle between architects and planners, pulled and buffeted. Each side seemed so right except when it was all wrong. How could the protagonists be so one sided? My New Brutalist background tied in equally well with Kahn and Gans. The esthetic impulse that the social planners went to lengths to negate did not seem inadmissible, or indeed deniable, to me, nor was it necessarily elitist and

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[522] Ibid., 218, emphasis added.
[523] Ibid., 218-219.
[524] Denise Scott Brown, "A Worm's Eye View of Recent Architectural History," *Architectural Record* (February 1984), 75, quoted in Klemek, 2004, 219.
[525] Klemek, 2004, 219.
[526] Scott Brown, February 1984, 75, quoted in Klemek, 2004, 220.

undemocratic. On the other hand, how could the faculty in the architecture department turn their backs on what the planners were saying? If for no other reason than to keep their esthetic eyes fresh, the architects needed their systems broken by the social reality the planners represented.[527]

In Scott Brown's view, to achieve a balance was possible. This was the underlying idea of her pedagogical approach to studio education. A further point highlighted by Klemek deserves special attention: the critical attitude of socially-oriented planners at Penn against Scott Brown's search for achieving a synthesis of physical design and research at the planning studio. This strikingly reveals that to find the middle ground for designers and socially oriented planners was not easy, even in an educational institute that initiated a reformist program taking interdisciplinary approach and collaboration between architecture, city planning and landscape architecture as its basis.

Despite the tensions between planners and architects at the GSFA, it could hardly be stated that Perkins's program failed to achieve its educational goals. The emphasis he placed on the pedagogical role of research in design education and his search for broadening students' learning experiences to include the outlook gained through research had a formative influence on the GSFA. This formative influence was embodied in the educational practices of Scott Brown, who was taught by Perkins as a graduate student in the late 1950s. As Sachs pointed out, the pedagogical principles exercised in Perkins's design studio remained with Scott Brown in her practices initially at Penn and later at Yale. Scott Brown explained the "distinct departures [of Perkins's studio] from the typical architecture studio" as follows:

> First, their subjects were unusual. . . . Second, they took up a major portion, almost all, of the students' semester credits. Third, *they were interdisciplinary in subject matter*. . . . Fourth, two *were research rather than design studio*. All included a research phase that were highly structured and that took place partly in the library and partly in the field.[528]

She reflected on the achievements of Perkins's pedagogical approach further in a ceremony convened in the memory of the 100th anniversary of Perkins's birth:

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[527] Ibid, quoted in Klemek, 2004, 221-222.
[528] Denise Scott Brown, *Urban Concepts, Architectural Design Profile* 60, no. ½ (January-February 1990), emphasis added, quoted in Sachs, "Research for Architecture: Building a Discipline and Modernizing the Profession," 2009, 236.

Fig. 4.14. Speakers at the 100th anniversary of the birth of G. Holmes Perkins, October 10, 2004, University of Pennsylvania. Left to right, up to down: Gary Hack, Dean and Paley Professor, Blanche Lemco van Ginkel, Joanne Scott, Denise Scott Brown.

> Holmes's view of the relation between studio, the theories course, and the seminar that linked the two, was key to getting good performance in studio, and when the seminars were dropped, studio performance changed. He was wrong about collaboratives; they didn't work. He was right about new cities; they were wonderful. The pedagogical basis of his studios for the first year was, I thought, brilliant. These beginning architects started with urban design and housing analyses, while they were still learning manual skills. They continued with the design of a school building, which involved organizing many small, repetitive spaces; then they proceeded to a church, where a large, high space subsumed most activities. I have not seen other schools produce as closely reasoned plans for their sequences of studio experiences…[529]

Scott Brown pointed out that Perkins sought for integrating studio work with other courses. In commitment to the unity of learning process, he saw the studio as a place where students could arrive at a synthesis. At this point, he placed special emphasis on the "seminar" course as a course that would foster such a synthesis through balancing design and research and connecting studio work with other courses. What he valued was, in essence, the cultivation of a coherent body of knowledge through seminars. Scott Brown's ideas on her experiences as a lecturer at the GSFA deserve to be mentioned:

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[529] This ceremony was convened in October 10, 2004, with the contribution of Perkins' former colleagues, faculty members, students, family and friends. For further information, see Scott Brown, in the University of Pennsylvania, "Honoring G. Holmes Perkins," *Penn Design Annual,* January 2005, http://www.design.upenn.edu/events/publications/pa/pa-vol-13-1/cover_story.pdf (accessed October 26, 2005).

He [Perkins] conceived of a cluster of courses … encircling and supporting the studio. Incoming students in a graduate programme, he argued, had well-developed verbal skills and good general knowledge but lacked manual and graphic ability and confidence. They should not be given an individual building to design but rather a neighborhood in the city. The first few weeks spent inventorying and documenting the neighborhood could employ the students' verbal skills while it accustomed them to graphics and the use of architectural techniques. Later they could move from site planning to the design of individual units.

…

But how do you help beginning architects, even experienced architects, to translate intellectual and verbal information into design? This question, which formed the nub of my teaching for the civic designers, was handled by Holmes Perkins, for architects, through the insertion, between the lecture course and the studio, of a seminar run by a young architect. This seminar helped students interpret the lecture material and relate it to their design problems, through examining, documenting and analyzing existing buildings and complexes. My task was to organize the lectures of the course and to run the seminar. I evolved work topics related to both the lectures and the studio problem, directed student to relevant examples, historical and modern, and criticized their efforts to draw them. The efficacy of this tutorial insertion was demonstrated by the drop in studio performance when it was abandoned.[530]

Perkins underlined the significance of studio as the core of an architecture program, with particular reference to the first year of the program he initiated at the GSFA:

… [A] heavy emphasis is placed upon the design aspects of the training during the first year… [i]t serves two basic purposes: first, *to develop in the students a creative way of working which is common to all arts of design; and second, to break down those inhibitions, preconceptions, and prejudices which he all often has acquired from his environment and secondary schooling, and to give him again the confidence of youth in his ability to create. It is the intent of the first and the second year to encourage the development of a creative spirit and orderly vision. These habits of thought and of vision are not to be gained through the mere accumulation of factual knowledge nor by imposition of dogma, but can only be gained through repeated personal experience.* The emphasis is placed therefore, on experimental essays in line, color, space, and structure in which they are gained as byproducts those necessary skills of drafting, descriptive geometry, and perspective…. This *experimental approach to design through repeated personal experiences* becomes deeply ingrained during this first year and opens the way to the study of architectural problems.[531]

The goals of the second year in Perkins's program were defined as follows:

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[530] Scott Brown, January-February 1990, quoted in Sachs, 2009, "Research for Architecture: Building a Discipline and Modernizing the Profession," 73-74.
[531] Perkins, July 1954, 160 and 164, emphasis added.

In the second year, the student is thrown immediately into architectural problems which combine in the most intimate fashion the work in design and in the materials of construction. These carefully and consciously intertwined courses consume nearly two thirds of the sophomore's time. In the lectures on materials and methods a first once-over is given to systems of construction, to the character and qualities of materials, to the problems of acoustics, and to heating and ventilating… In other words, *the unity of architectural concept is stated and maintained from the very start*. To be sure, a different emphasis may be given to the various parts of the successive problems, yet at all times the essential unity is preserved. The student, through three quarters of this year, studies the design and construction of simple buildings which lend themselves naturally to the use of wood… The first designs, done individually by each student, are followed by teamwork in which large models are analyzed in great detail in both structure and finish and whole bays are built at full size in the workshop. By the spring of his sophomore year, the student is therefore well aware of the indissolubility of structure, form, function and the aesthetic aspects of design. He has developed *a sense of structural discipline*… In his final problem of the year, he is introduced to the design of outdoor space and the problems of relating larger and somewhat more complex structures to a rolling landscape…[532]

Quite evidently, Perkins's idea that architecture was not merely about form making was embodied in the design studios. This was explained as the central educational objective of the third year at the GSFA:

In the third year … the interest is focused upon *the development of a neighborhood*. All problems given through the year revolve around this central theme. At this point it should be noted that it is not the custom of this school to give faculty prepared programs to the students. It is, instead, the intent wherever possible to ask the class by a breakdown of the assignments *to investigate the subject in the field and in the library. It is their research and their conclusions which make the program*. As an example, as a base for the study of the neighborhood housing, the students are asked to report upon various blocks in the city which are within walking distances of the university. these reports present in models and in graphic form, information on the size, kinds and quality of the housing, the availability of schools and recreation areas, of shopping, and something of the family composition and income range of the people living there. *Nothing evokes more a sense of the social basis of architecture than to ask the student to make such an examination of an older area. He returns fired with an enthusiasm for finding a better solution for the future*… These analyses are followed by design studies of mixed groups of row housing, walk-ups and high-rise buildings on a site which can be easily visited and for which the class has already prepared a topographic model. A similar procedure is followed in the development of the program for the neighborhood school and local shopping center… From the many designs submitted two or three are chosen for final development. It is then, on these tentative sites, that each student designs a school or a shopping center. Following these detailed designs a restudy is made in *group work*

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[532] Ibid., 164 and 168, emphasis added.

of the total neighborhood presented in model form. It should be noted that running parallel throughout the first half of this year is a course on landscape construction to develop the grading on each of the problems. In fact, on all problems from the third year on, a grading plan is required. *With the constant repetition of this requirement the architect as well as the landscape architect begins to acquire that necessary sympathy for the ground and for the relationship of his structures to it.*[533]

In the fourth year and the first half of the fifth year, students were encouraged to follow their individual interests and choose critics to study with, along this direction. Perkins saw "freedom to experiment" as "the finest assurance of individual and collective growth."[534] The students were assigned more complex design problems and their projects were evaluated through an "open jury system." Perkins pointed out that in the second half of the fifth year, "[t]his independence, fostered so assiduously in earlier years, meets its final test in a 15-week thesis based on a program written by the student."[535]

The centrality of "field survey" in Perkins's pedagogical approach deserves special attention. He saw this particular form of research to positively affect the development of students of architecture and of city planning by allowing them to have direct contact with real world situations. Students were encouraged to work on real sites, observe the problems in the built environment and have a grasp of the multifaceted forces generating them. In this way, "field survey," Perkins thought, would become an essential element of students' learning experiences. At the Thirty-Seventh Convention of the ACSA, 1951, Perkins explained the goals of the pedagogical approach he pursued in architectural studio at the University of Pennsylvania SFA as follows:

> ... We don't give the students any program; we say rather that there are a dozen to 15 kinds of things at least which must be investigated. Go out in teams and investigate. Find out what kind of houses the people are living in, how large their families are, what their incomes are, where do they work, how do they live, what is the traffic, what are the conditions of the buildings. Once the investigation is begun, one week later the students eyes are gleaming with zeal for redoing the world for they have seen conditions of living they didn't believe existed.[536]

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[533] Ibid., 168, 170 and 172, emphasis added.
[534] Ibid., 176.
[535] Ibid.
[536] Perkins, in "Proceedings of the Thirty-Seventh Convention of the Association of the Collegiate Schools of Architecture," *Journal of Architectural Education* 7, Variables in Design Training (Summer, 1951): 63-64.

Perkins commented specifically on a field survey he assigned to his students into redevelopment areas included in the program of the Philadelphia's City Planning Commission. The field survey process that students practiced did not end up visiting the site. The next step was to critically reflect on the principles of redevelopment and derive new ones from their investigation. This would give direction to the formation of their initial "site-plan" sketches. Afterward, the students were guided to go from the larger scale of site planning to the scale of building design and concentrate on "housing, schools, and shopping" as the three urgent needs of the redevelopment area. The students returned to real site to "investigate what are the shopping habits of the people? How much money can be spent? For what kind of goods?." This investigation was to be repeated for schools and housing as well. The second field experience was essential for exploring user patterns and functional requirements that would be translated into physical forms. To be "bumped into reality," as Perkins called it, would help recognize the critical role of real life concerns in generating an architectural design process. For Perkins, like Hudnut of the GSD at Harvard or Wurster of the CED at University of California, Berkeley, this was an essential principle of modern architectural pedagogy.

In Pearlman's view, the formation of Perkins's pedagogical approach rooted in his Harvard years and was influenced by the process of change initiated at Harvard in the early thirties against the traditional Beaux-Arts pedagogy. She explained that, accelerated by the influence of the Great Depression, the criticisms that architects raised against Beaux-Arts turned into a growing interest in the "technical and economic aspects of building."[537] The design problems assigned to students started to be more realistic and responsive to the existing problems and evolving needs. In those years Perkins was a young design instructor and made several experiments along the lines of modern architectural pedagogy.[538] Later, in the 1940s, as a Professor of Regional Planning and Chairman of the Department of City Planning, he put the progressive pedagogy he advocated into operation in his planning studios.

A successful example of Perkins's pedagogical approach was found in a 1947 project titled "The Framingham Study." In this project, the emphasis he put on field survey as an integral part of students' learning experiences became apparent. He explained: "The educational

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[537] Pearlman, 2007, 51.
[538] Ibid.

value for students of city planning derived from analyses of existing communities has long been recognized. Experience both in gathering the data from which the student must later draw conclusions and in meeting the human factors involved is considered indispensable to his education."[539] The starting point of the Framingham Project was a 1947 decision of the Survey Committee of the Town of Framingham to "obtain for the Town a Survey and Report by outside experts on the matter of town planning."[540] The Committee turned its attention to city planning students at Harvard to handle this survey project and Perkins, too, thought it would be a great opportunity for students to be involved in such a "research into community." Perkins believed, "working with citizens" would allow them to recognize the significance of "human factor" in planning processes.[541] The project was based on a schedule of "six weeks to the survey, a second six weeks period to the working out of alternate plans, and an additional two weeks to the writing of the Report."[542] The study was to be carried partly in the field and partly in the drafting room. Collaboration was a guiding principle. "Detailed plans and models for expansion of the shopping and civic centers," he remarked, "were made in collaboration with the students and faculty of architecture and landscape architecture."[543] For Perkins, the products of this project -- a final report, tentative sketches and detailed plans and models -- achieved its goals concerning both the communal context under examination and the planning students. This project could be considered as an endeavor to include the contribution of citizens who were seen as the prospective inhabitants of developed projects. It encouraged "townspeople to recognize that their combined wisdom… can produce a much healthier and happier Framingham than can chance alone."[544] Perkins saw the major achievement of the project for planning students as its offering of an experience of "welding theory and reality":

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[539] Perkins, 1949, 35.

[540] Ibid.

[541] Ibid., 36-37. Perkins explained: "Through the courtesy of the Town Survey Committee these students worked with the city officials, selectmen, leaders in business and industry, the Town Engineer, School Committee, Commissioner of Public Works, the Board of Health, and with many other individuals and organizations. Statistical data were therefore easily obtainable and as easily tabulated. But eagerness to assist was often equaled by an eagerness to inject a personal bias. Some groups pressed for their private interests and others developed a hardening resistance toward any kind of change. In short, the students experienced that human factor which plays such a major role in city planning."

[542] Ibid., 37.

[543] Ibid.

[544] Ibid., 38.

It was most salutary for those students who had already gained sufficient understanding and knowledge of the process and goals of planning to encounter the problem of an existing community and the tangle of conflicting interests and pressures. The Framingham experience was from this point of view ideal. It brought the students back to the realities of everyday life. It gave them an understanding of the aspirations, opinions, and prejudices of the citizens for whom they will work in the future. As a team job it permitted them to dig deeply in all the parts and yet retain at the same time a view of the whole. Therefore in the educational process our feeling, which was most enthusiastically concurred in by the students, was that they got more out of this particular exercise than any of the others.[545]

It is quite evident that Perkins's studio work at Harvard was a preliminary model of "research studio" in the sense Scott Brown and Venturi developed further at Yale in the late 1960s. Perkins aimed at generating environments for learning in which students were encouraged to recognize problems specific to the field and relate them to everyday life. Perkins maintained that "sufficient understanding and the knowledge of the process and goals of planning" was essential, but it had to be combined with "contact with the realities of the field work."[546]

The previous part of the Chapter 4 examined how research was conceptualized as part of architectural education, by focusing on the ideas of scholars and implementations in schools of architecture in the mid-twentieth century. At this point, emphasis should be placed on the ways research, teaching and learning were increasingly considered as interrelated activities.

One of the themes of the mid-twentieth century debates on research in relation to architectural education was the significance of instructors' competency in doing research as well as teaching. The lack of enough academicians well-qualified to teach and carry out research was seen as a problem in schools of architecture. Academicians who concerned themselves with architectural research were seen to be more competent in instilling scientific outlook in their students. As Andrade pointed out, schools of architecture were seen to have a responsibility "to perform in educating people to do this kind of work and be able to understand the scientific point of view."[547] He emphasized: "Perhaps this involves a relocation of emphasis, to attach less prestige to the role of the artist-designer, and balance it

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[545] Ibid., 39.
[546] Ibid., 39.
[547] Andrade, Spring 1961, 60.

with more prestige for the role of the investigator, the intellectual."[548] A point from the perspective of a researcher-practitioner was added by Allen. In his view, researchers who were actively engaged in professional practice should be encouraged to enter the field of architectural education. This would help to "introduce scientific thinking into architectural training as a natural habit."[549] A parallel stance was that of B. H. Evans, from Texas A & M College. Emphasizing the required interaction between the fields of architectural education and professional practice, Evans envisioned a model as "teacher-researcher and practitioner" to be engaged in architectural education:

> I think this matter of research and education all ties in very closely; that our primary interest here is a matter of *getting the profession as a whole interested in research and those things which research can bring about…*
>
> I look upon an ideal arrangement for all of us in the field of architecture as being *teacher-researcher and practitioner*. I think people should practice architecture for a while and then get into research and get into the problems he has run up against, and then go on to teaching. You may argue that some of us can be teachers or research people. I believe we have to be all three of these.[550]

Harold Bush-Brown's inquiry whether "the teacher [should] devote all his time to teaching," reveals that this discussion was at issue from the late 1940s.[551] In The Regional Meeting of the Southeastern Schools of Architecture, he noted:

> In most fields of teaching we need the stimulus of active participation in work connected with the subject, or allied with it, outside the class room. Most institutions of learning, of whatever kind, recognize this need, and approve and encourage extracurricular endeavors whether it is special study, research, writing or a job.[552]

The idea of the interrelation of professional practice, teaching and research remained consistent throughout Perkins's writings on and practices in architectural education. He always encouraged professional practitioners to participate in architectural education and instructors to devote part of their time to do research. He intended to help bridge the gap

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[548] Ibid.
[549] Allen, Autumn 1952, 33.
[550] Ben H. Evans, in "Minutes of the 46th Annual Meeting of the ACSA," *Journal of Architectural Education* 15, no. 3 (Autumn 1960): 36, emphasis added.
[551] Harold Bush-Brown, "The Teacher Practitioner," *Journal of Architectural Education* 4, The Regional Meeting of the Southeastern Schools of Architecture (Winter 1949): 35.
[552] Ibid.

between theory and practice. Perkins's ideal of "architect/authors" regarding the faculty of GSFA was explained by Leatherbarrow as follows:

> In its early years, the Ph.D. Program was closely intertwined with the professional program. Their interdependency was, however less curricular than the result of a particular vision of the type of person who should hold a faculty position in a school of architecture. Perkins appointed and retained only those faculty who were, and would remain active in both theory and practice; which is to say, all professors -- no matter what their subject area -- were expected to maintain some involvement in project making and design work. This policy set the stage for a distinguished line of architect/authors within the School: Louis I. Kahn, Aldo van Eyck, and Robert Venturi in architecture and Garret Eckbo (as a studio critic) and Ian L. McHarg in landscape architecture. The premise was that involvement in practice insured awareness of current realities. Thus, professors who taught in studio also taught in seminar and lecture rooms. This is still true at Penn. *The idea was that if students could see that their professors observed no distinction between reflection and design, a synthetic view of the discipline would arise in them quite naturally.*[553]

How people could be well-equipped to be competent researchers? In the mid-twentieth century debates, this question was addressed on several grounds. It was argued that the necessary first step was the organization of research programs into which both instructors and students could be actively engaged. In this way, research could become a process of learning both for instructors and students. When looked from this perspective, its potential of coordinating teaching and learning processes became obvious. It was also argued that for a school of architecture to be part of a university would assure the realization of all these research contributions.

In the following part of this chapter, the examination addresses the question why university was envisioned as an ideal setting for architectural education in those years. Within this connection, this part of Chapter 4 brings into view the development of graduate education in

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[553] Leatherbarrow's remarks on the problems that emerged while putting this ideal into practice should also be cited. He stated: "Over the years, however there have been some problems with this arrangement. Insofar as the architecture programs are part of a university that contains departments of art history, engineering, and other faculties that have more than a little expertise in the subjects taught in architecture, disagreements have arisen between these groups, particularly with respect to rival claims about depth of knowledge and relevance. Each of the architects listed above discussed matters of architectural history and building technology in their writings, but not exactly in the ways that these subjects were treated by art historians and engineers. This issue presented itself with some force once Perkins established Ph.D. programs in the School." See, "Squaring the Circle: or, Building the Ph.D. in Architecture Program at the University of Pennsylvania."

America in the first half of the twentieth century and the objectives of graduate programs in line with the objectives of architectural education.

The progress of architectural education from undergraduate to graduate level in America extends from the thirties to sixties. In the 1930s and 1940s, however, the state of graduate study was quite different from that of the 1950s and 1960s.[554] Graduate study was already part of "the traditional five-year undergraduate curriculum that has served the majority of Schools since about 1930."[555] This curriculum was the basis of architecture programs in which four years were devoted to professional training and one or two years to research. By the 1950s, schools of architecture shifted their emphasis towards a responsibility to conduct advanced study and research. This initiated the formation of graduate programs designed to prepare students of architecture, through studies both at master and doctoral levels, for scholarly work. However, it is important to highlight that the formation of graduate programs was gradual. More importantly, it is hard to say that there was a consensus on the objectives and scope of graduate education in architecture in the 1950s.

At the time when the discussions on the objectives and scope of graduate education in architecture were newly taking place, a session of the 38th Annual Meeting of ACSA, convened in 1952, was devoted to the subject matter of "The Second Professional Degree."[556] The ideas expressed in this session revealed that despite a shared commitment to the necessity of graduate education, participants from different schools of architecture had different orientations. For instance, William H. Brown, from the M.I.T., advocated a design-oriented graduate program the major objective of which would be excellence in architectural design:

> We have conceived of university programs in architecture as education for creative work, not as the discovery of new principles -- or the promulgation of new knowledge capable of changing the concept of professional service. The work done by even the most gifted graduate student is a manifestation of his own growing

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[554] Columbia shifted to a five-year architecture program in 1940. Illinois Institute of Technology shifted to a five-year architecture program in 1947. The beginning of graduate studies at Princeton dated back to early thirties. See, Jean Labatut, "History of Architectural Education through People," *Journal of Architectural Education* 33, no. 2 (November 1979): 22-24.
[555] "Report of Committee on Advancement of Architectural Education," *Journal of Architectural Education* 15, no. 3, Minutes of the 46th Annual Meeting of the ACSA (Autumn 1960): 13.
[556] "The Second Professional Degree," *Journal of Architectural Education* 8, Proceedings of the 38th Annual Convention of the ACSA (Autumn 1952): 35-48.

power, but it does not influence the profession except indirectly -- through the later work of the student as a practicing architect. It would be well if we could penetrate this barrier. It would be a good thing to have advanced students of superior abilities remain for a longer period in the environment of scholarship, and to have subsidized programs of research producing results of value to the art. *These programs should be design programs and not simply applied science or applied economics or sociology*. They should be of a nature to mobilize the best architectural minds, not of a purely technical appeal.[557]

Brown's ideas pointed to a position that increasingly manifested itself in the debates on graduate education; a commitment to the idea that the reason to continue architectural education at a graduate level would be some aspiration for scholarly qualifications essential for the advancement of design excellence.

Professor A. M. Richardson, an attendee of the 38th Annual Meeting of ACSA from the University of Illinois, approached the issue from a different perspective. Richardson emphasized that the major educational objective of graduate programs should be meeting the expanding demands of architectural profession for competent architects. In his view, the establishment of "balanced" graduate programs was indispensable to fulfill these demands:

> … Should we in an effort to be all-inclusive, attempt to equip the student with a fundamental background shaped to fit the general requirements of the profession? Should we provide specialist courses designed to give him certain specialized knowledge in restricted fields? Or should we concentrate on research and highly specialized design problems in an effort to augment the general knowledge of the profession? It is evident that we must attempt, at least, to do all of these things. We must suit our program to the individuals needs and we must design our products around the demands and the needs of the industry. We must assume that the architectural graduate upon initiation of work on a higher degree, is equipped with a *fundamental background required for entrance into professional practice*. In the principles of design, in the ability to demonstrate ideas, in the theory of practice, he is informed. No academic elaboration of the design education can substitute for the experience of practice, so at best we can only offer overtones in more complicated problems, a simulation of realistic and practical necessities of design, and a thorough understanding of the integration of structural, mechanical, and detail elements.
>
> It is evident, therefore, that *the graduate must be given more than a supplementation of the undergraduate design tools*. He should be thoroughly familiar with the integrated building design. He should be aware of design deterrents and assets in practice. He should have supplementary technical background in structure and equipment. He should be acquainted with the scientific methods of design analysis.

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[557] William H. Brown, in "Proceedings of the 38th Annual Convention," *Journal of Architectural Education* 8 (Autumn 1952): 39-40, emphasis added.

He should be able to think in objective terms and relate himself in the world today and attempt to project himself into the world tomorrow. He should have the opportunity to augment his general education with more specific specialized phases of the industry. But, most important, he should be equipped with the research methods, without which he is unable to prepare himself for all contingencies and variables he will be expected to meet in practice. In short, *he must be provided with a 'balanced' education.*[558]

Although their orientations varied, schools met on the common ground of a new and more comprehensive conception of architectural design, framed through a shared commitment to the unity of design process. This process was to be informed by, as Hudnut pointed out, "the science of construction" and "the important facts concerning those economic and intellectual currents in which the student lives."[559] The responsibility of a "balanced" graduate program was, therefore, the encouragement of those qualities needed to operate architectural design as a process of integration and synthesis.

A responsibility of cultivating in students a scientific outlook was another common ground for varying orientations in graduate education. This was seen essential both in conducting specialized research and in dedicating oneself to professional practice. Above all, the liberal academic tradition was to be maintained at advanced study as well. Freedom of thought and invention were to be guiding principles of scholarly inquiry. Graduate programs were to provide the students with a flexible educational atmosphere in which they would be encouraged to decide in which direction to go.

A 1954 report prepared by the Executive Committee of the ACSA, "Report of Committee to Survey Present Status of Graduate Education," deserves to be mentioned as an institutional effort pointing to the circumstances that shaped graduate study in schools of architecture in the 1950s.[560] In this report, attention was drawn to varying opinions of schools that responded the questionnaire of the Committee. The idea of graduate education they

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[558] A. M. Richardson, in "Proceedings of the 38th Annual Convention," *Journal of Architectural Education* 8 (Autumn 1952): 41 and 42, emphasis added.

[559] Hudnut, May 1931, 412.

[560] This report reflected the conclusions drawn by the Committee that was composed of Ambrose M. Richardson from the University of Illinois, William W. Wurster from the College of Environmental Design, University of California, Berkeley, CA, and William Brown from the Rice Institute. Fifty seven member schools were sent a questionnaire and from the responses of forty schools, the Committee arrived at "a reasonably valid picture of the overall problem." See, "Report of Committee on Graduate Education," *Journal of Architectural Education* 9, Proceedings of the 39th Annual Convention of the ACSA (Spring 1954): 12-19.

expressed was not homogeneous. Some schools saw "a very real need for graduate study for practice," whereas some other's concern for graduate study derived from "the need for training teachers rather than practitioners."[561] Obviously, a general conclusion about the field of architectural education as a whole could hardly be drawn from the responses of forty member schools. However, these responses allowed the Committee to explore the tendencies and diagnose the most problematic aspects of graduate programs that were in operation in this limited number of schools. The Committee concluded that:

1. The second professional degree is highly desirable for the training of teachers.
2. The second professional degree is desirable for practice for highly qualified students.
3. Advanced education is highly desirable for the training of men skilled in independent thought and research.
4. The doctorate degree is not generally considered necessary or even desirable.
5. Admission requirements are not sufficiently stringent in most cases.
6, Curricula, although apparently well-balanced individually, are at such wide variance in course content and requirements that it is impossible to draw any comparison between courses.
7. There are too many schools offering broad options to the few graduate students with the obvious result that the student is on his own overly much, which results in many cases in little more than an extra year of undergraduate study.
8. There is too little special instruction for graduate students. Although this is open to argument, it seems apparent that graduate work must be carefully planned by staff members devoting a great deal of time to the job. Obviously, this cannot be done except in those schools emphasizing graduate study. Therefore, it might be suggested that fewer schools offer graduate work and that those schools intensify their programs.
9. Physical plant facilities are obviously deficient in the light of graduate facilities in other fields, such as the sciences, law, etc.
10. Not enough encouragement is given the student for advanced work. The objectives of the educator are broad and vague and little specific inducement is apparent. Consequently, our graduate students, the potential leaders in the profession, reflect an alarmingly low percentage of architectural students.
11. Insufficient building research in our institutions is a handicap to graduate study.
12. A more thorough study of graduate education should be made with a view to raising the general level of instruction, research, and quality of the profession.[562]

The Committee underlined the disregarded dimensions of graduate education resulting from the "present graduate educational policy, five-year undergraduate programs, lack of facilities for research in connection with graduate study, and generally uncoordinated standards of

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[561] Ibid., 13 and 12.
[562] Ibid., 18-19.

graduate education."[563] In the report, it was concluded that "the results of such educational policy cannot be compared with graduate programs of research and intensive supplementary instruction."[564]

Perkins, too, participated in the discussions on the need for graduate education in architecture. His position can be examined in relation to his ideas on (1) the necessity of specialization, and (2) the significance of interdisciplinary research.

The reasons why Perkins saw specialization essential were highly dependent on his ideas on the challenges ahead the architect of the twentieth century and the call for a new outlook towards architectural education. He maintained that the architect was "to find constantly improved solutions to constantly changing problems."[565] He stated: "The great laboratories of universities and of industry are spewing forth so vast a stream of new materials, techniques and ideas that the solitary architect unaided can no longer acquire all the skills now needed to produce a modern building."[566] As aforementioned, for Perkins, the day of the master-builder architect was passed. Under the growing complexity of the field, the architect could no longer pursue an all-embracing approach. The demand for specialization and advanced design competences was growing.

Perkins remarked that:

> … *[S]pecialization should occur only after a sound, comprehensive and relatively uniform professional foundation has been laid.* Premature specialization would tend to fragmentation rather than mutual understanding among the specialists who will inevitably emerge through the vagaries of professional experience or through planned programs of a post-graduate nature.[567]

In his view, it was better to offer specialization for students of architecture in the graduate years. "[T]hose of us who wish to go on and dedicate ourselves to … specialty," he argued,

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[563] Ibid., 13.
[564] Ibid.
[565] Perkins, July 1954, 154.
[566] Perkins, September 1964, 22-23.
[567] Ibid., 25, emphasis added.

"then have the proper foundation and viewpoint and philosophy and sympathy for the nature of the problem and will make it possible for us to do this at a higher graduate level."[568]

It is important to underline that Perkins considered graduate education in relation to professional practice as well as to professional education preceding it. In his view, specialization could also contribute to professional advancement. He highlighted that "the demands of the profession are rapidly forcing a significantly greater number of men into advanced study beyond a first professional degree," and "a major challenge facing the schools is the development of programs capable of producing a significant proportion of the specialists who will be members of profession tomorrow."[569] For a graduate program to train well-equipped specialists, he argued, the realities and problems confronting architectural practice should be paid attention. A graduate program in architecture was to emphasize social responsibility and service to community. Under the growing complexity of the field of architecture, the focus of specialization would vary both in scale and subject matter:

> … As in the case of the single architect, so also in any single school of architecture it will in all probability be impossible to offer advanced work and research under inspiring direction in all aspects of the profession from engineering to urban design. Such outstanding resources are not to be found today in any one faculty. Advanced graduate study and research will therefore differ from school to school, depending upon the special resources and interests of the faculty. Such diversity is an asset to the profession.[570]

Perkins emphasized the significance of interdisciplinary approach and collaborative efforts also in relation to graduate education. The establishment of dialogue and collaboration between specialists from allied fields should be, for him, one of the goals of a graduate program in architecture. In specializing on a specific subject, graduate students should also be encouraged to participate in collaborative research projects. Perkins recognized that the growing complexity of architecture also brought about a need for encouraging specialists from allied fields to join research environments in schools of architecture. He drew an analogy between the problems facing architectural education in the mid-twentieth century

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[568] Perkins, Spring 1961, 30.
[569] Perkins, September 1964, 24 and 23.
[570] Ibid., 24. However, there were academicians who disagreed on diversifying the focus of architectural research among schools of architecture. Ben H. Evans stated: "I think this matter of research and education all ties in very closely…I don't think we should break our research down into categories as has been suggested one school do one thing and another school do another thing. Some of us are going to be stronger in certain points than we are in others…" See, Evans, Autumn 1960, 36.

and the efforts towards the development of a modern scientific medical education in America in the early twentieth century.[571] Perkins stated:

> The architect's expanded role will force specialization upon us… This specialization will require some re-examination of our concept of the architect. It will require us to recognize that if we are to be a profession there must be significant research backed by the profession and the schools. We will have to bring in engineers, economists and sociologists just as the doctors brought in the biologist to do much of the basic research as a part of the team until he was employed in the hospitals and in the medical schools as a part of the profession.[572]

Within the framework of the analogy he drew between medicine and architecture, Perkins remarked that as the twentieth century physician was to deal with "great increase in medical knowledge," the twentieth century architect was to be responsive to the continuing evolution and growing complexity in architecture. The lessons Perkins derived from the reform implemented in the field of medical education can be summarized as follows: there was need for specialists who know their subjects well; architectural education was to promote specialization and advanced research; to do so, schools of architecture were to establish graduate programs and encourage advanced research; these programs should also welcome research specialist whose contribution to the advancement of the discipline of architecture could not be disregarded.

Perkins's above mentioned ideas paralleled the debates on schools' growing concern for specialization and advanced study. A critical question that gains significance here was raised by Joseph Esherick, Sami Hassid and Charles Moore, who contributed to the establishment of the Graduate Program at the University of California, Berkeley. Given that "an architect does not need a graduate education to practice as an architect" they inquired, "what then motivates the holder of a Bachelor degree in architecture who seeks further education in a graduate program?" and "what should the objectives of such a program be to satisfy the expectations of applicants and the needs of the profession?"[573] Their answer to these questions was as follows:

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[571] The analogy Perkins drew between the changes he envisioned for architectural education and the reform realized in medical education is examined in more detail in the following parts of this chapter.
[572] Perkins, November 1962, 95.
[573] Esherick, Hassid and Moore, September 1963, 21.

One is inclined to say that the objectives of a graduate program in architecture should not differ from those of graduate programs in other fields; that they should encourage *scholarship, methodical investigation* and *research undertakings*, all of which may lead to original contributions; that they should encourage the development of *independent thought* and the formation of *future leaders for the profession*. These may indeed be the objectives of a full graduate program such as is normally crowned by a doctorate degree of some sort.

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A legitimate objective of a graduate program may be to develop the student's creativity above the minimal expressive and productive levels of current undergraduate education in architecture. *Invention* and *innovation* are encouraged through development of better tools and new approaches to solutions. Fundamental understanding is sought through investigations into the roots of problems. This kind of objective requires *a balanced program integrating the generalist approach based on comprehensive and diversified education, and the specialized techniques suitable for generating new knowledge. Research is of paramount importance in this kind of a curriculum which is interested in process as much as, if not more than, it is interested in content.*[574]

The emphasis Esherick, Hassid and Moore placed on the significance of graduate education both for scholarly and professional advancement was shared by many academicians in that period. They increasingly emphasized the interdependence of architectural profession and the development of architecture as a discipline and they saw the cultivation of certain habits of thought and attitudes as the necessary first step to be taken in order to achieve success in advancement of architecture as a whole. This outlook added emphasis on the educational value of research. Scholarly research was seen to advance students' intellectual development, as much as it contributed to advancement of knowledge. It could be through graduate education and specialized training that the educational value of research could be better recognized and internalized by students of architecture.

This part of Chapter 4 focuses on the initiatives fostered by Gaylord Probasco Harnwell, the President of the University of Pennsylvania, as an example of the growing concern for graduate studies within the context of American universities in the mid-twentieth century. The relevance of this example to the discussion can be explained as follows. Perkins's Deanship at the University of Pennsylvania GSFA continued in the period of Harnwell's presidency. The University's growing concern for graduate education and research constituted the broader educational framework of Perkins's administrative and educational practices.

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[574] Ibid., 22, emphasis added.

Harnwell's presidency (1953-1970) was recognized due to the systematic efforts directed towards the "improvement in all areas of University study, including undergraduate education, graduate and professional education, and research" and the "increased funding for the betterment of quality, equipment, and facilities in graduate and professional programs, and in research."[575] As soon as Harnwell was recruited as the president of the University, he initiated the "Educational Survey." At the end of this survey, a report titled "Assaying a University" was prepared. The emphasis was placed on the idea that "a unique responsibility of a university is in the graduate and professional areas including those of research and clinical services."[576] The "Integrated Development Plan" that was prepared two years later, in 1962, revealed a continuing influence of the Survey on the prospective educational policies of the University. In this report it was highlighted that "[t]he reputation of the University in the scholarly world depends largely on the calibre of the faculty, of the graduate students, and of the graduate programs, whether in the arts and sciences of in the graduate professional fields."[577] It was argued that research by faculty and graduate students was to be encouraged and graduate education was the proper phase of the educational process in which a creative attitude toward the expansion of disciplinary knowledge could be developed.

Penn's was a notable institutional effort concerning graduate education. However, there were also some personal efforts to advance graduate education before the 1950s. Hudnut and the inception of Harvard GSD deserve to be mentioned. In his book *The Struggle for Modernism: Architecture, Landscape Architecture and City Planning at Harvard*, Anthony Alofsin remarked that, in 1935, "as soon as Hudnut assume[d] the role as dean of Faculty of Architecture, he proposed to integrate three schools into the Graduate School of Design."[578] A year later, in 1936, "the Harvard overseers approved a plan to unite the schools of

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[575] For an overview of Harnwell's presidency at the University of Pennsylvania, see "History of Institutional Planning at the University of Pennsylvania: Gaylord Probasco Harnwell, President (1953-1970)," The University of Pennsylvania, University Archives and Records Center, http://www.archives.upenn.edu/histy/features/uplans/harnwell.html (accessed February 1, 2010).

[576] Gaylord P. Harnwell, "Assaying a University," The University of Pennsylvania, (June 1960), 12, http://www.archives.upenn.edu/primdocs/uplan/edsurvey1959.pdf. (accessed February 2, 2010).

[577] "Integrated Development Plan," The University of Pennsylvania, (1962), 14, http://www.archives.upenn.edu/primdocs/uplan/intdev1962.pdf (accessed February 2, 2010).

[578] Anthony Alofsin, *The Struggle For Modernism: Architecture, Landscape Architecture and City Planning at Harvard* (New York and London: W. W. Norton & Company, 2002), 302.

architecture, landscape architecture and city and regional planning into the graduate school of design."[579]

However, Harvard GSD remained as a singular example till the 1950s. The opening of separate graduate programs was accelerated by the mid-twentieth century. The inception of the GSFA at the University of Pennsylvania was another noteworthy example. As remarked by Leatherbarrow, "[i]n 1958 Penn's programs in design were renamed the Graduate School of Fine Arts."[580] 1958 was also the year when the approval of doctoral programs was obtained and the school became a graduate division.[581] In the same year a graduate program leading to the degree of Master of Architecture was started at the University of California, Berkeley.[582] In Sach's view, this program was "the first graduate program based on research rather than design."[583]

It should be underlined, however, that graduate study was already established in schools of architecture before graduate programs were put into practice. Several schools of architecture facilitated graduate study as part of their professional programs since the 1930s under the scheme of the traditional five-year curriculum. The foundation of graduate programs pointed to a reorganization of graduate study in American higher education. This meant moving away from the traditional scheme to a new one informed by principles of free inquiry and experimentation -- a scheme that encouraged advanced study and scholarly research. The inception of doctoral programs had a special place in the development of this kind of graduate study.

In his doctoral dissertation titled "Models for Educating Architects in This and the Next Century" Michael A. Jones aligned the origin of a Ph.D. degree in architecture in America to

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[579] Ibid.

[580] Leatherbarrow, "Squaring the Circle: or, Building the Ph.D. in Architecture Program at the University of Pennsylvania."

[581] For further information, see Perkins, September 1964, 22-25.

[582] For more information, see Esherick, Hassid and Moore, September 1963, 21-24.

[583] Sachs pointed to a 1956 draft for the program in which a research orientation was made explicit: "The graduate program and the research activity will be very closely related although not synonymous. Graduate students and faculty in all options will be encouraged to participate in research connected with their main effort." The Graduate Program in Architecture: A Report to the Faculty of the College of Architecture by the Graduate Program Committee. Environmental Design Archives, University of California, Berkeley. Records of the College of Environmental Design, Office of the Dean William W. Wurster Collection, Berkeley, CA., quoted in Sachs, 2009, "The Postwar Legacy of Architectural Research," 62.

1945 when singular Ph.D. degrees were granted at Harvard GSD.[584] This was followed by Ph.D. degrees offered at Princeton. In his article "History of Architectural Education through People" Jean Labatut, who was the first director of Graduate Studies in Architecture at Princeton, remarked that Princeton began awarding Ph.D. degree in architecture by the 1949.[585] His words give a clue to the research orientation of graduate studies at Princeton in that period:

> The Ph.D. Degree in Architecture required a candidate to be not only an architect of quality but also an *architect-scholar*. Their qualifications were based on the quality of their thesis for the professional degree (MFA), and on their achievements during the period since receiving that degree.[586]

According to Jones, the Ph.D. Program in Architecture at the University of Pennsylvania that started in 1964, six years after the establishment of a graduate program, was "the first doctoral degree program in an American school of architecture."[587] In agreement with Jones, Gary T. Moore remarked that Penn's Ph.D. program was "the oldest continually operating doctoral program in architecture," but he also argued that "the first non-history architectural Ph.D. was awarded by Harvard in 1956."[588]

The foundation of these programs was essential because they fostered a disciplined research approach, and, in this way, contributed to the development of, what Jones called "a formal research tradition."[589] In Jones's view, "to improve the design quality of architecture" was a major impetus underneath the attempts to establish Ph.D. programs. Jones's viewpoint might

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[584] Michael A. Jones, "Models for Educating Architects in This and the Next Century" (PhD diss., Georgia Institute of Technology, College of Architecture, 1989), 305. Jones pointed out that Bannister was the first to receive this degree. Before 1945, he underlined, there were programs in architectural history and a Ph.D. program in landscape architecture at the University of Michigan.
[585] Labatut, November 1979, 24.
[586] Ibid.,emphasis added.
[587] Jones, 1989, 305. The program description in the official web site of the University of Pennsylvania paralleled Jones's argument. It is noted: "The Ph.D. Program in Architecture, created in 1964, is the oldest in the country and is widely regarded as preeminent in the fields of theory, technology and representation…" See "Doctoral program (Ph.D. in Architecture)," The University of Pennsylvania GSFA, http://www.design.upenn.edu/architecture/doctoral-program-phd-architecture (accessed February 8, 2010).
[588] Moore also pointed to the subsequent disbanding of this Ph.D. program at Harvard and its eventual opening over again. See, Garry T. Moore, "Pedagogic Structures of Doctoral Programs in Architecture," in *Doctoral Education in Architecture Schools: The Challenge of the 21st Century*, ed. J. Wineman (Atlanta, GA: Georgia Institute of Technology, 1998), 59-65.
[589] Jones, 1989, 305.

shed light on the discussion about the differences in Gropius's and Perkins's conceptions of the relationship between scholarly research and the training of architects as creative designers. Leatherbarrow writes the following about these differences:

> G. Holmes Perkins, the founder of Penn's program, was educated at Harvard, under Walter Gropius. After leaving the Bauhaus, Gropius found Harvard – and all universities for that matter -- to be far *too bookish for architectural education*. For this and other reasons he resigned in 1952. As far as he was concerned, *architectural knowledge was to be advanced through architectural practice -- in the office, not the library*. Perkins, despite his awareness and acceptance of Gropius' position, established a Ph.D. program at Penn a couple of years after his arrival as the school's new dean. The paradox of coupling these divergent orientations cannot be avoided, for questions concerning the relationship between practical and scholarly work were there from the start: *what kind of research and study would help advance architectural creativity? What sort of reflection is internal to action in this field? How can critical thought, disciplined by theoretical and historical study, contribute to design while challenging it? More simply, and finally: in what ways does architecture as a productive activity benefit from scholarly inquiry?*[590]

Obviously, the questions raised by Leatherbarrow are of critical significance for this part of Chapter 4. Indeed the theme of "design as scholarship" also frames the current discussions on graduate education. But at this point, a further clarification of Gropius's and Perkins's positions is needed. Accordingly, effort is made to reveal, in more detail, the convergence as well as the divergence between the conceptions of architectural design and research advocated by these two prominent figures.

To say that Gropius opposed the idea of scholarly research may be a misinterpretation of his position. His criticisms were raised less against scholarly research and graduate education than the place given to practical experience in architectural curricula. He saw this as the main problem of academic education in general. His critical assessment of the status of architectural education in the 1950s presented at the 36th Annual Convention of ACSA may be revealing.[591] Gropius criticized the "shift of emphasis from *learning by doing* to *intellectual training*" in architectural education.[592] In his view, this shift pointed to a widespread educational approach in which "practical experience" and "academic learning" were seen as disconnected subject matters. For Gropius, architectural education of the period

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[590] Leatherbarrow, "Squaring the Circle: or, Building the Ph.D. in Architecture Program at the University of Pennsylvania," emphasis added.
[591] "Address by Walter Gropius," Spring 1951, 78-87.
[592] Ibid., 83, emphasis added.

encouraged such a disconnection. That was the reason why he identified it as "bookish." Alternatively, he advocated "*the unity of the entire training*."[593] Thus, graduate education, as part of this process, was to maintain a balance between "intellectual training" and "learning by doing." Gropius stated:

> When we look around, we often find a widespread belief that, if we only tap that stock of knowledge stored up in our universities, museums and libraries, absorbing it through intellectual processes, we shall then become well educated. True education, however, is certainly more than information and learning. One cannot reach this goal through intellectual processes alone…[594]

Gropius narrowed down his critical evaluations from education, in general, to education of creative arts and design education, in particular. He placed special emphasis on the development of "the inventive creative qualities" of students.[595] However, he saw the "bookish" orientation in education as an impediment to the development of these qualities. He pointed to a need to develop "an attitude which would encourage, support and promote the men of vision, the poet, the artist, and would give them the rank they deserve within the body of our society."[596] For him, design education was to be a continuous process. He stated: "The integration of the whole range of knowledge and experience seems to be of the greatest importance right from the start; only then will the totality of aspect make sense in the student's mind."[597] In his view, "practical experience" was of prime importance to this continuous process as it was "the best means of performing a synthesis of the emotional and intellectual factors in the student's mind."[598] He concluded his speech at the 36th Annual Convention of ACSA by expressing a discontent with on hand approaches to research:

> All in all, the emphasis of my arguments is on the creative factor. That is, that *a program of search rather than research makes the creative architect*. Such a program, I believe, would lead the potential architect from observation to the delight of *discovery and invention*, and finally to an intuitive shaping of the American scene.[599]

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[593] Ibid., 84, emphasis added.
[594] Ibid., 79.
[595] Ibid., 80.
[596] Ibid.
[597] Ibid.
[598] Ibid., 80-81.
[599] Ibid., 87, emphasis added.

When considered in the context of Perkins's practices both at Harvard GSD and at the University of Pennsylvania GSFA, it becomes obvious that Perkins agreed with Gropius on many of the objectives he saw of prime significance for architectural education. His efforts to establish the faculty from people who were actively engaged in architectural practice, to assign students design problems that would allow them to study in the field and to establish connection between "practical experience" and "intellectual training," to use Gropius's words, were informed by the same educational principles advocated by Gropius. Gropius and Perkins agreed on the necessity to foster methods of education that would help bridge the gap between theory and practice. Perkins continued the same line of argument at the 37th Annual Convention of ACSA, summer 1951, when he reflected on the status of design education:

> The problem we face is one of a process of working and of developing certain habits of working in students by his own experience, not by something which we give him or that he can read about in a book, but *something that he must get by doing*. In other words, reality… To understand all that he must not stay in a drafting room.[600]

Gropius and Perkins promoted parallel approaches with the aim of cultivating in students these "habits of working." Like Gropius, Perkins's grasp of architectural education as a continuous process was clear and this conception of unity constituted the rationale of the new vision of architectural education he advocated. Unlike Gropius, however, Perkins put emphasis on the academic aspects of architectural education. He paid attention to, what Leatherbarrow called, "architecture's historical and scholarly traditions" and saw them not irrelevant to training of students as creative designers.[601] The Ph.D. program he started at the University of Pennsylvania GSFA was shaped through all these principles:

> Penn's Ph.D. in Architecture thus came to life in a school that had a number of unique characteristics; it was a school comprised of a faculty capable of showing connections between theory and practice, who were not only dedicated to the modern tradition along 'humanist' lines, but also aligned with colleagues in related disciplines (city planning, landscape architecture, and the fine arts), and were *deeply aware of architecture's historical and scholarly traditions*. One other factor distinguished the early Ph.D. Program from those at other universities. The

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[600] Perkins, in "Proceedings of the Thirty-Seventh Convention of the Association of the Collegiate Schools of Architecture," *Journal of Architectural* Education 7, Variables in Design Training (Summer 1951): 63.
[601] Leatherbarrow, "Squaring the Circle: or, Building the Ph.D. in Architecture Program at the University of Pennsylvania."

University of Pennsylvania had by the time of the architecture program's founding established a fairly unusual framework for doctoral education: graduate groups. These are clusters of faculty from many departments whose scholarship bears upon the discipline in question. In the graduate group in architecture, for example, there are architecture faculty, obviously, but also colleagues from the history of art, archaeology, the history and sociology of science, folklore, religious studies, and so on -- all faculty who investigate buildings, cities, and landscapes in their own scholarly work. *This means doctoral students have direct contact with faculty in and outside the discipline. This framework allows for both focus and amplitude in Ph.D. research.*[602]

Martin Meyerson, who was a former student and colleague of Perkins, argued that Perkins's commitment to the value of collaborative learning made the first move during his Harvard GSD years. Meyerson remarked, "the visions of interdepartmental collaboration Perkins had absorbed at Harvard under Hudnut and Gropius was carried out more fully at the University of Pennsylvania than at Harvard."[603] Alofsin reiterated the same line of thought when he pointed out that "Perkins had witnessed the formulation of the principles, took part in their testing, and then actualized them in a less rancorous atmosphere."[604] Perkins emphasized the decisive influence a unified design education and collaborative learning that it promoted on students' development as creative designers. This pedagogical approach would encourage students to recognize their roles in design processes and, to borrow his phrase, in the "making of cities." In this way, prospective architects, city planners, urban designers, and landscape architects would develop awareness of their unique collaboration for the shaping of the built environment. They would be equipped with the principles and procedures essential for achieving such collaboration. Perkins saw scholarly research not as competing with but as complementing a unified design education. In his view, scholarly research would contribute to the professional and disciplinary advancement of architecture.

4.3 Architectural Education in the University Context

At this point, it will be revealing to cite, once more, Perkins's following statement:

> All architects deserve a solid liberal education. Each must possess the professional knowledge needed to serve his client and to understand his own place in the complex

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[602] Leatherbarrow, "Squaring the Circle: or, Building the Ph.D. in Architecture Program at the University of Pennsylvania," emphasis added.
[603] Martin Meyerson, "Interview with Alofsin," 21 August 1986, quoted in Alofsin, 2002, 230.
[604] Alofsin, 2002, 230.

team producing the modern city. Some will have the talent and the desire to become the specialist-expert. Some will devote themselves to research. Only in the university, with its vast and varied resources, are all these educational opportunities available.[605]

In the previous parts of Chapter 4, the dissertation focused on the themes related to a new vision of architectural education in America in the mid-twentieth century and tried to portray the broader education background of Perkins's ideas on extending liberal education into professional education, developing interdisciplinary teaching and learning environments, and conducting research as an integral part of architectural education. This part of Chapter 4 addresses the question why university was envisioned as an ideal setting for architectural education, as a central theme of debates in the mid-twentieth century. What would a university setting offer schools of architecture to achieve their goals? In which ways would the "vast and varied resources" of a university, to use Perkins's words, enhance architectural education? Would being part of a university assign a school of architecture further responsibilities as well as offering opportunities? In the following pages, I bring into view the pedagogical and communal significance of schools of architecture as part of institutions of higher education. I re-situate the objectives of architectural education into the broader framework of the ideals of university education. This may help reveal thematic connections between the fields of architectural education and higher education. It shed light on the influence of progressive changes realized in higher education on the attempts to re-define the objectives of architectural education.

In an attempt to reconsider the objectives of architectural education in accordance with the ideals of university education, a reference should be made to the reform implemented in the field of medical education in the US by the beginning of the twentieth century, which was seen as a model of change for architectural education. The changes in medical education and their relevance to the problems ahead architectural education in the 1950s was a persistent theme throughout Perkins's writings and discussions. He explained:

> Some fifty or more years ago the medical profession had reached a point comparable to that of the architect today. Now, fifty years later, the complex, frightening, yet comforting services of the modern hospital are available to assist in diagnosis and treatment. There is some evidence that this analogy has relevance to the problem of

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[605] Perkins, September 1964, 23.

the profession and the education of the architect. Two basic changes occurred. The first of these was the *development of organized research* in the great medical institutions of the world, spearheaded in many cases by non-medical men drawn from biology or physics who entered the medical arena as partners of the doctors. This new alliance created new careers for the scientist undreamed of in the early years of the nineteenth century and opened new laboratories to these researchers. *The interdependence of research and practice became firmly established in this country at the start of this century through the pioneering efforts of Osler and the support of the great medical foundations*. In the wake of this great increase in medical knowledge, the general practitioner began to disappear. In his place there emerged the specialist, group practices, vast hospitals and institutions which could provide comprehensive services under a single roof. This medical history bears a striking resemblance to the future we foresee for the architect.[606]

Perkins underlined the strands of a new form of medical education. He remarked that "the doctors recognized that scientific medicine became the objective; specialization, the dominant pattern; and the university medical center, the preferred instrument."[607] These were obviously radical changes for the early twentieth century. Transformative developments took place not only in medical education, but in medical practices as well. Their relevance and significance for the field of architectural education, as Perkins envisioned, may be better understood when the challenges facing medical education and the educational responses are examined. This part of Chapter 4 focuses briefly on the changes realized in the field of medical education in that particular context. Special emphasis is placed on Abraham Flexner's 1910 report titled "Medical Education in the United States and Canada," which is cited as a cornerstone in the improvement of medical education in modern lines in the early twentieth century. Flexner headed a medical survey project developed by the Rockefeller Institute for Medical Research, founded in 1901. The objectives of this survey were to examine the present status of schools of medical training, reveal the problems in their organizations, resourses and training facilities, and formulate some criteria for their appropriateness to teach medicine. At the end of this survey, Abraham Flexner prepared his well-known report.[608]

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[606] Ibid, emphasis added.
[607] Perkins, November 1962, 95.
[608] For a detailed examination of the background of this survey, Flexner's involvement and the proposals he presented, see Ronald Frank Movrich, "Before the Gates of Excellence: Abraham Flexner and Education, 1866-1918," (PhD diss., University of California Berkeley, 1981), 76-133. For more information on the reform envisioned by Flexner in the lines of a modern medical education, see Ellen Corwin Cangi, "Principles before Practice: The Reform of Medical Education in Cincinnati before and after the Flexner Report, 1870-1930" (PhD diss., University of Cincinnati, 1983), 135-180.

In his report, Flexner pointed to a lack of standards in medical training that resulted in "un-educated and ill trained medical practitioners."[609] He saw this as the main problem at the forefront of medical education and searched for developing standards needed for entry into medical schools as an initial first step toward achieving standardization in medical education. The prospective policies he developed were based on his historical and general evaluations of medical education and his observations in medical schools that were operating in 40 different States. In his view, the conditions of medical schools should be improved and the quality of student body was to be elevated in the meanwhile. The "fitness of the applicant" for medical schools was to be determined in terms of their learning competences.[610] "Scientific discipline" was to be central to a modern pedagogy of medical education.[611] Medical education was to be based on the study of "fundamental sciences" -- biology, chemistry and physics -- which should be combined with the study of "laboratory sciences" -- such as anatomy, physiology and physiological chemistry.[612] Flexner was confident that research should be an integral part of medical education. This brought about the need for articulating medical training in the institutional setting of a university. "A hospital under complete educational control" was seen as necessary as the existence of "a laboratory of chemistry or pathology."[613] Their establishment as part of a university would facilitate medical schools' production of new knowledge and testing its validity through clinical studies. In Flexner's view, "investigation and practice are thus one in spirit, method and object."[614] A concise synopsis of Flexner's contribution to the development of scientific medical education was made by Lawrence J. Friedman:

> He [Flexner] insisted that medical schools … had to belong to larger university
> educational and research communities; medicine was to be one of several learned
> academic disciplines. The education and research within fundable medical schools

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[609] Abraham Flexner, "Medical Education in the United States and Canada: A Report to the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching," in The Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching, 1910 (reprint, 1972), x, http://www.carnegiefoundation.org/sites/default/files/elibrary/Carnegie_Flexner_Report.pdf (accessed February 4, 2010).
[610] Ibid., 22.
[611] Ibid., 20.
[612] Ibid., 24-25.
[613] Ibid., xi.
[614] Ibid., 56.

was to be conducted by clinical departments which deployed university hospitals and laboratories for their activities.[615]

The concurrence Flexner saw between the ideals of a modern university and those of a modern medical education were true for the objectives of modern architectural education. The ideals of university education, which covered a commitment to the unity of learning, the integration of education and research and of general and specialized training were also central themes of debates in the field of architectural education in the mid-twentieth century.

4.3.1 Liberal, Professional, and Graduate Education

The relationship between liberal education, professional education and graduate education was a major aspect of debates on the subject of architectural education in the university context. A key advantage of this institutional setting was seen to be the opportunities it presents for professional specialization. This would help, it was emphasized, cultivate in students a depth of understanding and vision needed to adequately respond to the challenges ahead.

In 1945, as the acting director of the Urban Development Division of the National Housing Agency, in Washington D.C., Perkins prepared "A Memorandum on Urban Planning: Report of the Postwar Committee." This document included important statements that help reveal his conception of the objectives of "urban planning" education in the postwar period. These later became the principles through which he positioned himself in the field of architectural education both as an administrator and educator. In this Memorandum Perkins stated:

> Urban planning requires the participation of the whole community; the technical studies require the highest professional skills of the economists, sociologists, architects, engineers, bankers, public administrators and others; and based upon the research studies there must be built the overall plan, which requires *the coordination of the efforts of professionals in the design of the city.*
>
> Effective cooperation is possible only when each professional understands the relationship of his particular contribution to the whole fabric. *The greater the specialization, the greater becomes the need for a sympathetic understanding of the*

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[615] Lawrence J. Friedman, "Review: The Medical World that Flexner Built," *Reviews in American History* 17, no. 3 (September 1989): 434, http://www.jstor.org/stable/2702845 Retrieved (accessed May 25, 2009).

problems which others are attempting to solve. In an age of specialists, it is impossible for any individual to attain professional competence in all fields. Although the technical phases of urban planning are professional problems, planning ultimately becomes an expression of the wishes of the community through the ballot box or through the decisions of the people's elected representatives.

The education of the planner must therefore consist of highly specialized professional training in some phases of the work of planning and yet to be sufficiently broad that each may gain a sympathy and understanding of the problems of his collaborative. *It is probably only in the universities that it is possible to give this combination of specialized training and broad understanding.* Up to now, there has been no systematic organization in any university of training for training men in all the various phases of urban planning. Certain specialties have been well handled in some universities, but the habits of thought gained only through long training and the habit of cooperating as an equal member of a team in making plans has not yet been worked out. Perhaps as a beginning, in those universities which are fully equipped to give training in all the diverse fields, a committee should be formed or representatives from the faculties dealing with the various phases of planning. This committee might give an orientation towards urban planning to the student and to the individual courses. It might ultimately lead to the creation of an independent, adequately endowed school or faculty of planning. In such a school, *a bureau of research in urban problems could be advantageously combined with the training of planners. It is recommended that in a few key universities such an organization be immediately attempted where men with diverse experience and professional training may learn to pool their resources for the attainment of a single goal; the planning of a better environment.*[616]

The model Perkins envisioned for "the coordination of the efforts of professionals in the design of the city" also framed his ideas on the relationship between architects and other professionals who have a role in the creation of urban environment. Architecture programs were to be designed in a way to encourage the development of a dialogue between architects, planners, landscape architects, sociologists, etc. To build up professional specialization on a broader and liberally oriented basis was seen as a precondition for the development of such a dialogue. An intellectual atmosphere that would enhance broadly based educational experiences was urgent. This atmosphere could be created as long as liberal education was extended into professional education and that was possible only in the setting of, what Perkins called, "universities which are fully equipped to give training in all the diverse fields."

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[616] G. Holmes Perkins, "A Memorandum on Urban Planning: Report of the Postwar Committee," Chapter of the American Institute of Architects. Washington D.C., January 1945, quoted in Scott, 2004, 22-23, emphasis added.

Combining "specialized training" and a "broad understanding" was of great value because it would help cultivate in students certain habits of thought and attitudes needed not only to adequately respond to the existing problems but also to adjust oneself to constantly changing situations and emerging needs. It was seen as strength of professional education to foster a fertile ground for the development of what Perkins called "mutual understanding" and interdisciplinary and collaborative efforts.[617] Evidently, by encouraging exchange of ideas within and between academic departments, the organizational structure and the educational environment of a university would offer an ideal intellectual atmosphere for the purposes of architectural education to which Perkins dedicated himself.

It is important to note that these objectives were the concern of a substantial number of practitioners and academicians in that period. The AIA-ACSA Seminar convened at the Cranbrook Academy of Art, 1962, was illustrative of the situation. Numerous architects and educators were gathered to reflect on the ongoing changes in the fields of architecture and education. The argumentative core of the seminar was the responsibilities and opportunities laying ahead the architect who was expected to take part in the creation of the built environment. It was argued that the future role and responsibilities of the profession "called for increased capacity to meet new demands through the broadening of liberal education, intensification of professional training, increased specialization, and an extensive program of research."[618]

Above mentioned principles pointed to, in essence, the distinguishing qualities of formal education of architecture in a university setting. These qualities can be better understood when reconsidered from the perspective of the changing aims and scope of professional education in the early twentieth century higher education. In their article "The Shaping of Higher Education: The Formative Years in the United States, 1890 to 1940" Claudia Goldin and Lawrence F. Katz pointed to the important strands of transformation in professional education in the twentieth century and argued that "increased specialization and greater need

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[617] The research responsibilities and opportunities of a school of architecture as part of a university are examined in detail in the following part of this chapter of the dissertation.
[618] Norman Day, "Introduction," *Journal of Architectural Education* 17, no. 2. The 1962 AIA-ACSA Seminar Papers Presented at the Cranbrook Academy of Art. Part I. (November 1962): 93.

for rigorous scientific training enhanced the returns to formal schooling."[619] Goldin and Katz remarked that as a result of "the shift from informal apprenticeships to formal education in specialized schools… [p]rofessional education was eventually deemed to require undergraduate education."[620] Lee S. Shulman's account of a growing concern for "foundations" in professional education within the history of university in America also deserves to be mentioned.[621] University education was emphasized, Shulman noted, because it offered "an academic foundation for practice."[622] In the field of architectural education, the academic foundation underlined by Shulman was emphasized both for advancement of architectural profession and for advancement of architecture as a discipline. The contribution of liberal education to the development of such an "academic foundation" for professional education was of prime significance when educating the future architects was at issue.

A review of the objectives of the University of Pennsylvania in the mid-twentieth century made apparent how these educational ideals gave direction to its educational facilities. The University was defined as "a multi–purpose university" that had assigned the functions of "(1) A center for undergraduate education; (2) A center for graduate education in the arts and sciences; and (3) A center for professional education."[623] In the Educational Survey headed by Harnwell, undergraduate, graduate and professional education was evaluated in connection with each other. A university was considered as "a concentrated academic community where undergraduate, graduate and professional schools form a single institutional entity."[624] In Harnwell's view, "a university can act as a nucleus, bringing together people who wish to direct or inform change and making them aware of needs and responsive to them."[625] This idea of university constituted the grounding rationale of his identification of the University of Pennsylvania as "an environment for learning." That was an environment that combined liberal education with professional specialization. The scheme Harnwell pursued was a widespread scheme in higher education: "the undergraduate years

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[619] Claudia Goldin and Lawrence F. Katz, "The Shaping of Higher Education: The Formative Years in the United States, 1890 to 1940," *The Journal of Economic Perspectives* 13, no. 1 (Winter 1999): 47.
[620] Ibid.
[621] Lee S. Shulman, "Reconnecting Foundations to the Substance of Teacher Education," *Teachers College Record* 91, no. 3 (Spring 1990): 301.
[622] Ibid.
[623] Harnwell, June 1960, 6.
[624] Gaylord P. Harnwell, "An Environment for Learning," *Proceedings of the American Philosophical Society* 115, no. 3 (1971): 170.
[625] Ibid., 171.

be devoted to general education, with most professional training being postponed to the graduate level."[626] According to this scheme, in the entire educational process, liberal education was to precede disciplinary division. In the Educational Survey it was recommended that "there should be a strong college at the center of the University with a bold and imaginative liberal arts curriculum."[627] However, this was not to be understood that Harnwell's idea was to limit liberal education only to college level. Students would enroll in liberal arts courses in their "pre-professional education."[628] Nevertheless, the "[d]evelopment of disciplined intellectual power rather than the acquisition and regurgitation of information" would be the goal of professional education.[629] This was a key educational policy carried into the pages of the report titled "Assaying a University":

> Liberal education is a responsibility of all our undergraduate schools and faculties, not the sole responsibility of the College. A liberal education does not mean solely a knowledge of literature and the arts, but *an attitude towards knowledge* and *a discipline that allows of continued intellectual growth and self-education…*[630]

Emphasis was placed on the significance of liberal education in the formation of a sound professional training. The Educational Survey concluded on the following policies in relation to professional education programs at the University of Pennsylvania:

> 1. *Liberal education and professional education in the University need to be examined as one whole, devoted to the training of men for the professions and for the life they are to lead.*
> 2. The store of knowledge now is so immense, the expansion of knowledge so rapid, and the rate of obsolescence so swift that much of the knowledge acquired in a university may be quickly outmoded. *Professional men must be prepared, therefore, to adapt to novel circumstances from the beginning to the end of their careers and to acquire early an attitude of seeking new knowledge throughout life.*

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[626] Harnwell, in "The Best Years are Just Ahead," *The Pennsylvania Gazette; Alumni Magazine of the University of Pennsylvania* (January 1965): 9, http://www.archives.upenn.edu/primdocs/uplan/gazette1965jan.pdf (accessed February 2, 2010).

[627] Harnwell, June 1960, 9.

[628] The University of Pennsylvania, "Report of the Task Force on University Governance," 1970, 37, http://www.archives.upenn.edu/primdocs/uplan/1970taskforce.pdf (accessed February 2, 2010).

[629] Harnwell, June 1960, 12.

[630] "Integrated Development Plan," 1962, 12, emphasis added. This concept of undergraduate education was favored in Engineering faculties which "have been moving since 1955 toward the inclusion of more work in the natural and social sciences and the humanities." In the report it was remarked that "[t]here is increasing evidence that the new engineering curricula represent a prototype toward which other schools are reacting with similar programs." For more information, see Harnwell, June 1960, 10.

3. A single university should specialize, concentrating its efforts in limited areas if it hopes to achieve high quality. A division of labor at advanced levels among universities should be conscientiously sought.

4. To be accepted as a proper subject for professional education a field should possess or give convincing promise of acquiring *a body of established and communicable knowledge*; *significant research opportunities and capacities*; opportunities for *formal advanced training in basic as well as in applied areas*; *a dedication to the public service* that may be expressed in a formal code or may only be in process of emerging as approved practice; and the requisite public sanctions.

5. *It is the proper business of a university to aid and press its schools on toward ever more mature professional status, so that truly professional education rather than mere technicianship shall be achieved.*[631]

The Survey Committee's recommendations made apparent the emphasis placed on the establishment of a common ground for undergraduate, professional and graduate education. It is quite evident that the goals of professional education were re-examined within the framework of the entire process of higher education and, in the entirety of this process, the significance of graduate education for achieving professional advancement could not be disregarded.

Reference has already been made to Survey's promotion of a professional training facilitated at an advanced level of education. Preparation for professional specialization through graduate programs was also recommended. Emphasis was placed on "full-time enrollment in the Graduate School and the provision of headquarters and other facilities to bring graduate students together."[632] As has been noted, during his deanship Perkins sought to transform the School of Fine Arts at Penn into a graduate school, and develop architecture, city planning, and landscape architecture as graduate studies.[633]

A point highlighted in the 1960 report was "the need for strengthening our graduate effort and for integrating it with the activities of the professional schools."[634] Apparently, for the University of Pennsylvania, graduate education should aim not only the training of future teachers and production of knowledge but also facilitating intellectual growth of students. The Survey Committee recommended:

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[631] Harnwell, June 1960, 20-21, emphasis added.
[632] Harnwell, January 1965, 9.
[633] As mentioned before, in 1958, SFA became a graduate division and was renamed as the Graduate School of Fine Arts.
[634] Harnwell, June 1960, 12.

1. Continuance of the M.A. and M.S. degrees as terminal degrees for professional advancement in various fields, and as appropriate intermediate degrees for many students who can devote only part-time to continuing advanced study.
2. A sustained concept of the Ph.D. as a degree demonstrating not only that an individual has achieved a mature understanding of a field of knowledge but also that he has a broad understanding of other fields so as to assure him *a sense of the unity of learning*. Further, that he has, through his research, acquired the methods of science and scholarship.
3. Possible creation of a special advanced degree for persons who demonstrate the necessary scholarly qualifications for teaching at college level, but who do not necessarily fulfill the research requirement expected for the Ph.D. degree. This would represent an effective response to the insistent need for more persons in college teaching and preserve the true purpose of the Ph.D. degree.[635]

Graduate programs were also valued owing to the opportunities they offer for academic achievements through advanced research and scholarship. As it was underlined in the 1962 report, in a university, the quality of teaching, students and faculty was highly related with the quality of scholarly work and research offered in its graduate programs.[636] Further attention was paid on graduate programs' focus on specialized areas and their requirements for expertise.

The ideals emphasized for graduate education paralleled the ideals of a university that would develop as "a community of scholars," allow inter-departmental dialogue and collaboration and base all of its professional and graduate efforts on the advancement of the potentials of both its faculty and students.

4.3.2 Research

Goldin and Katz underlined, "[t]he American research university was to become a melding of all the components of higher education, serving a multitude of functions simultaneously."[637] The idea that research, teaching and learning were three interdependent components of the educational mission of a university was central to postwar research universities in America.

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[635] Ibid., 13, emphasis added.
[636] "Integrated Development Plan," 1962, 57.
[637] Goldin and Katz, Winter 1999, 45.

When official documents and reports are re-examined on this fundamental plane, it can be revealed that the objectives of the University of Pennsylvania were portrayal of the principles regarding the missions of a research university. "[T]he promotion of the learning process through the instruction of students and the conduct of research and scholarly pursuits by the faculty" and "the advancement of knowledge by scientific exploration" were defined as guiding principles of the educational programs.[638]

During his presidency (1948-1953) Stassen put emphasis on the research responsibility of the University. In his report titled "Four Years at Penn" he maintained that the initiatives started under his administration in the area of research continued after his departure. He stated that "[t]he encouragement of research in all departments of the University, to be carried on in conjunction with the conduct of teaching responsibilities, enriching that teaching as well as adding to knowledge, has been a conspicuous policy of the University."[639] Harnwell aimed at enhancing University's educational policy in the direction envisioned by Stassen.[640] The "Educational Survey" headed by him aimed at "improvement in all areas of University study, including undergraduate education, graduate and professional education, and research" and the "increased funding for the betterment of quality, equipment, and facilities in graduate and professional programs, and in research."[641] The discernible results were more a projection of the objectives needed for future development than an assessment of the existing situation. The research responsibility of the University as it was envisioned in this survey found an explicit expression in a 1963 report as follows:

> In his final report, the Survey Director deals at some length with the University as *a center for research and scholarly inquiry,* the 'cutting edge' of the University. In brief, he suggests that they should be viewed not only as handmaidens to teaching but as ends in themselves; and that *teaching and research are not competitive, but*

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[638] "Integrated Development Plan," 1962, 3.

[639] Harold E. Stassen, "Four Years at Penn," *The Pennsylvania Gazette* (March 1953): 12, http://www.archives.upenn.edu/primdocs/uplan/gazettemar1953.pdf (accessed February 2, 2010).

[640] Harnwell started "The Educational Survey," which later was considered as "the most searching appraisal ever made of a large university's performance and mission." For more information, see "From Here to 1970; A Digest of the Integrated Development Plan," The University of Pennsylvania, March 1963, 2, http://www.archives.upenn.edu/primdocs/uplan/digest1963.pdf (accessed February 2, 2010).

[641] For a detailed account on Harnwell's presidency at the University of Pennsylvania, see "History of Institutional Planning at the University of Pennsylvania: Gaylord Probasco Harnwell, President (1953-1970)," 2 February 2010.

mutually dependent if the spirit of men be right, for research without teaching often lacks stimulus, and teaching without research tends to dry up.[642]

The growing concern for research and its contribution to excellence in teaching was evident in the "Integrated Development Plan" of the 1962:

> The communication of knowledge and the discovery of new knowledge are different facets of a continuous process. *The university faculty member is both a teacher and a student.* A university without scholarship or research is not titled to its name. The opportunities for scholarly work and research offered by the institution affect not only the quality of its teaching and the quality of students but especially the quality of the faculty itself. Much of the integrated development plan is concerned with research -- as in the sections on the libraries, the laboratories, the computer center and the graduate schools…[643]

In 1963, the Office of the President published another report titled "From Here to 1970," in which the concern for the interdependence of teaching and research became more apparent. Through its educational facilities, the University was responsible to "furnish the best in laboratories, libraries, museums, and linguistic and computational facilities for the promotion of the programs of instruction and research in which the faculty and students are engaged."[644]

A concrete step toward coordinating teaching and research responsibilities of the University was taken in 1960 through the establishment of "University Council on Research as an advisory body to the administration upon policy matters."[645] This Council concerned itself primarily with "attitudes among the faculty conducive to the furtherance of research" as well as "the nature of the administrative structure which can most effectively promote research objectives within the University."[646] The 1963 report revealed the ongoing influence of the Council's policies on the educational program. The aim was "to continue strengthening the faculty by offering to outstanding scientists and scholars opportunities for teaching,

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[642] "From here to 1970; A Digest of the Integrated Development Plan," March 1963, 6-7, emphasis added.
[643] "Integrated Development Plan," 1962, 57, emphasis added. It is striking to see that in the 1960s the University of Pennsylvania was an institution of higher education that accommodated computer facilities in support of academic activities. To make computer usage "an integral part of teaching and research programs" and encourage both faculty and graduate students for "the application of electronic computers to complex information systems" in conducting research were emphasized as educational goals of the University. For more information, see Ibid., 61-63.
[644] "From here to 1970; A Digest of the Integrated Development Plan," March 1963, 6-7.
[645] "Assaying a University," June 1960, 16.
[646] Ibid.

professional growth, and research with adequate salaries and supporting facilities and, most of all, a spirit of both freedom and responsibility."[647]

Thus, "strengthening" of the research potential of the faculty was essential for bringing teaching and research together and fostering the development of "teacher-researchers." In the model of a "teacher-researcher," the emphasis was placed on competences of teachers in conducting research as much as their professional competences. Furthermore, in accordance with the mission of "great university to advance knowledge as well as to disseminate it," competency in conducting research was considered as an essential criterion through which teachers should be appointed.[648] As much as teachers were expected to contribute to research projects besides their teaching facilities, students were encouraged to take part in research projects. The aim was the development of research environments in which exchange of ideas would be fostered and both parties would learn from each other. In Harnwell's words, the University of Pennsylvania was an institution of higher learning that promoted "the kind of education that comes of the intimate interplay of personalities, interests, and ideas."[649]

It is clear from Harnwell's remarks that an educational program taking a liberal academic tradition as its basis was considered to encourage and sustain the principles of democratic education. The efforts should be directed more toward the development of "an attitude of seeking new knowledge throughout life" than storing knowledge.[650] The University of Pennsylvania's claim for "a long and cherished tradition of freedom of thought, exploration, association, and expression" was to be embodied in the training of its students as open-minded human individuals:

> Universities are aggregates of individuals drawn together by a common concern for a better understanding of that knowledge bequeathed us by our forbears and for a questing exploration into the unknown that lies presently beyond our grasp. They are also the catalytic filter beds through which pass successive generations of the most promising and gifted leaders of thought and action for the future of our kind. Their role is so vital to our welfare that we must earnestly employ our best abilities to

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[647] "From here to 1970; A Digest of the Integrated Development Plan," March 1963, 6-7.

[648] In the 1970 report, it was underlined that "[I]n such an environment faculty members chosen for teaching popularity and without research aptitudes soon lose touch with their fields, and, given an able and perceptive student body, are left without usefulness as teachers or as researchers." See, "Report of the Task Force on University Governance," August 1970, 59-60.

[649] Harnwell, January 1965, 8.

[650] "Assaying a University," June 1960, 20.

ensure that they constantly improve in the performance of their essential functions. We are not, however, wise enough to set a detailed course for our successors, and our chief concern must be that they inherit from us unimpaired a ranging freedom and a supple flexibility in order that they may use their own best judgments for the evolution of these institutions, untrammeled by our ignorance and prejudices, and plan for them in turn for what we hope will be the greater knowledge and insights they will have won.[651]

In the previous parts of Chapter 4, references have already been made to the debates on the contribution of research to the advancement of professional and scholarly competences of teachers and students as well as to the advancement of knowledge in the field of architectural education. A further dimension of the documents addressed was their emphasis on the need to conduct architectural research in a systematic and collaborative manner. In order to respond to the constant change that characterized architecture both as a profession and a discipline, architectural research should be open to change. It should be designed as a continuously evolving process. Scholars from diverse disciplines with diverse outlooks should be welcomed to approach problems through their conceptual and methodological tools and join their efforts to those of the architect-researchers. It was argued that architectural research should be conducted in a well-defined and well-established institutional setting. The advantages of a university setting for the coordination of research, teaching and learning became the center of attention.

Perkins positioned himself in the debates on the significance of being part of a university through several means. In his view, the resources of a university would allow interdisciplinary collaboration between different departments, which he saw essential for the advancement of architectural education. It was the institutional setting of a university that encouraged him, as Chairman of the Planning Department at Harvard GSD, to initiate the education programs in Architecture, Planning and Landscape Architecture Departments with a common curriculum. His endeavors, as Dean of the GSFA, to bring disciplinary programs together under "the umbrella of a single faculty dedicated to design of total environment," too, was a consequence of this outlook. He explained the underlying principles of the formation of graduate programs at GSFA as follows:

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[651] "Integrated Development Plan," 1962, 1-2, emphasis added.

The essentials of our program are conceived to be the close contact and sympathetic understanding of the *three professional faculties of architecture (including architectural engineering), city planning and landscape architecture* that are housed within a single school; the effective tapping of university-wide resources in such joint programs as city planning and regional sciences, urban design, regional planning and the doctorates in architecture and city planning; curricula capable of simple adjustment to the needs of the individual at both master's and doctoral levels which make research an inseparable part of professional education; and the creation of well-financed research institutes both in urban studies and in architecture in which the teaching faculty plays the major role.[652]

Both as an administrator and educator, Perkins emphasized to "tap the rich educational resources outside the departments of architecture which can be found only in a university."[653] The "resources" under consideration were essential also for research institutes and centers that would operate in coordination with departments of architecture. This was underlined by Professor Andrade, the Director of the Institute of Architectural Research at the University of Pennsylvania. At the 47th Annual Meeting of the ACSA, 1961, Andrade commented on "university-conducted research" as a kind of research that "utilizes the facilities available in the schools of architecture and the universities."[654] He also emphasized the relevance of architectural research conducted in a university setting to "the present demands and future needs of the profession."

Andrade's remarks shared a common ground with the profession's search for a rational basis and the role it assigned to schools of architecture.[655] At this point, Taylor's ideas on the responsibilities and opportunities ahead a school of architecture as part of a university are worthy mentioning as they reflect a perspective from within architectural profession. An expected research contribution of a school of architecture, in his view, would be combining advancement of knowledge with cultivation of methods for critical and methodological inquiry. For Taylor the two did not stand apart from professional advancement. He commented on the qualities through which "an ideal university architectural education" could be distinguished from "trades schools":

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[652] Perkins, September1964, 23, emphasis added.
[653] Ibid., 24.
[654] Andrade, Spring 1961, 59.
[655] A balanced and insightful overview of the significance of research for architectural profession and discipline of architecture in the mid-twentieth century is presented in Sachs, 2009, "The Postwar Legacy of Architectural Research," 53-64; Sachs, 2009, "Research for Architecture: Building a Discipline and Modernizing the Profession."

… The university is a place where scholars and researchers are advancing the frontiers of knowledge. The students are privileged to be there to learn what they can and participate in the quest. I believe that in an ideal university architectural education as it now typically exists will not be tolerated. The university is not the proper location for trades schools or for an atelier for handing on tricks of the trade now called 'design.' The architectural profession and especially the teachers of architecture must develop a body of knowledge which is rationally ordered but not frozen, subject to revision or to enlargement or to refinement. Architectural research and architectural education must take the responsibility of ordering and stating not only what we now know (called practice theory by the sociologists) but also contributions of other disciplines and the new knowledge of architectural research.

…

As appropriate for a unit of a university the architectural faculty and advanced students will be engaged in research which is distinctly architectural. This will involve related disciplines from the social and behavioral sciences and physiology. This research will to a limited extent involve the development of new materials of construction, but essentially it will be human-focused… The architectural school will be serving better the profession as well as society and will exercise real creative leadership in making the profession more knowledgeable and more competent.[656]

In Taylor's view, in a university scholars were "pioneers" in knowledge and "the university research worker" was someone who had "a broader and better background of fundamentals," dissimilar to "the industrial research worker."[657] Taylor argued that "schools of architecture should seek every possible kind of cross-campus collaboration in research and in course offerings, for the benefit of all concerned."[658]

The establishment of research centers and institutes in coordination with academic departments was a concrete manifestation of the emphasis placed on the development of systematic research as part of education programs. Within this framework, the roles assigned to research institutes and centers established in universities in the mid-twentieth century deserve a special attention. There were, however, several differences in the objectives and quality of research conducted in these "organized research units," as Geiger defined them, from research conducted within the context of academic departments in a university. The following part of this chapter brings into view the objectives and interests of these organizations and their roles in a university setting.

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[656] Taylor, Autumn 1959, 49-50.
[657] Taylor, Spring 1947, 15.
[658] Taylor, Winter 1949, 51.

What were the distinguishing qualities of institutes and centers as important research establishments of the mid-twentieth century universities? This question was addressed by President Harnwell in his article "An Environment for Learning."[659] Harnwell pointed out that academic institutions were seen as responsible for producing knowledge through scientific research, but they were also expected to channel new knowledge to "problem-solving" activities. Universities were faced with growing pressures from the governmental or professional agencies, he argued, for contributing to "applied-problem-solving" initiatives.[660] The critical status of research centers and institutes in universities became apparent at this point. They were assigned the role of a mediator between universities and the public sector and were expected to achieve balance between "scientific problem-solving" and "applied problem-solving."[661]

Geiger seems to have continued the discussion of varied forms of university research. He focused his attention to the emergence of research institutes and centers as two leading "institutional structures" that contributed to the development of "organized research" in the postwar period:

> … Separately organized, separately financed research has been a feature of American universities since their emergence in the nineteenth century … Not until the 1930s funding for specific research projects became common. By World War II, American universities were somewhat accustomed to the phenomenon of separately organized research and had already shown remarkable flexibility in devising *appropriate institutional structures*. Afterward, such a context would provide fertile for further proliferation of organized research.[662]

Like Harnwell's earlier study, Geiger's book related the status of these "separately organized" research units to the polar tension between the planes of "scientific problem-solving" and "applied problem-solving." This was Geiger's point of departure to set a framework for distinguishing qualities of centers and institutes. He described the characteristics of a center as follows:

> [T]he distinguishing features of centers were that their participants largely remained rooted in established departments; the research undertaken was, like departmental

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[659] Harnwell, 1971, 170-186.
[660] Ibid., 179.
[661] Ibid.
[662] Geiger, 2004, 47, emphasis added.

research, predominantly academic in nature; but the enterprise was sponsored by outside agencies out of nonacademic or practical interests in these 'complex fields of investigation.' Centers essentially conducted academic research that was supported for ulterior motives. The tensions inherent in this dual orientation were evident in their operations.[663]

In Geiger's view, scholarly concerns remained at the forefront of research conducted at centers and the degree of intervention (governmental or private) was minimized. On the other hand, institutes were of different character:

> The salient feature of a university institute, viewed as an ideal type, is the close nexus between the nature of research performed and its utility for sponsors… Given the importance of the research results to the sponsor (as opposed to research for academic recognition), institutes were often led to employ non-faculty professionals as full-time researchers. More than any other characteristic, the presence of professional researchers distinguished institutes from centers…[664]

In institutes, the relation of research to academic departments, Geiger underlined, was not as close as that in centers. The "inescapable applied character of their work" was due to the impact of "federally dominated research economy" on institutes.[665] For him, despite their differences, centers and institutes had much in common when their position on the "disinterested-interested continuum" of externally funded research in universities in postwar decades was at issue:

> … At one end lay research conducted within the context of academic departments without need of supplementary organization. Such a situation approximated the academic model outlined above in that the research topics emanated from disciplinary paradigms. At the opposite extreme were the federal contract laboratories, which were entirely the creatures of their irrespective sponsoring agency. In between these two extremes were the various centers, institutes, programs, or bureaus -- there was no standard nomenclature -- that comingled the academic aspirations of university faculty with the utilitarian interests of funders.[666]

The above mentioned perspectives delineate a larger framework of reference for the debates about research centers and institutes that were established together with departments of architecture and focused on architectural and urban studies. The status of these research units

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[663] "President's Report; 1962-63," Harvard University, 8, quoted in Geiger, 2004, 50.
[664] Geiger, 2004, 52-53.
[665] Ibid., 53-56.
[666] Ibid., 49.

in the broader context of universities becomes more apparent. No doubt, their foundation was a consequence of the growing interest in research in schools of architecture.

In the following part of Chapter 4, several research units that were established in coordination with schools of architecture in leading American universities in the mid-twentieth century are briefly cited. These units are cited because of their contributions to the development of "organized research" in the field of architecture. In the period under examination, the growing involvement of universities in the affairs of their surrounding community and society influenced the choice of research topics and the formulation of research programs.

The Bureau of Urban Research (1941) and the Architectural Laboratory (1950) established at Princeton deserve to be cited as two earliest examples of organized research units in a university setting. Dean Labatut, who played a key role in their establishment, explained the objectives of the Bureau of Urban Research as follows:

> The Bureau of Urban Research was the manifestation of an interdisciplinary organism in the field of surroundings or physical environment. Under the sponsorship of the School of Architecture, the Department of Economics and Sociology, the School of Engineering, and the Department of Politics, the Bureau of Urban Research provided a mechanism for the coordination of information, research and development in the field of Urban Planning. It led to the present School of Architecture and Urban Planning.[667]

The aim of connecting education and research was evident in the creation of the Architectural Laboratory, which was designed as part of to the School of Architecture at Princeton. Labatut defined the presence of "a workshop with indoor and outdoor observation areas" as "an important step in the development of architectural education."[668]

For Perkins, "the creation of well-financed research institutes both in urban studies and in architecture in which the teaching faculty plays the major role" was one of the goals of the GSFA at Penn.[669] The Institute for Urban Studies too was established in 1951 with the aim of combining teaching and research. As underlined by Scott Cohen, it served as "the research

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[667] Labatut, November 1979, 24.
[668] Ibid.
[669] Perkins, September 1964, 23.

arm of the Graduate School of Fine Arts Department of City Planning."[670] The Institute was founded by Robert B. Mitchell, Head of the newly established Department of City Planning.[671] Perkins played a key role both in the appointment of Mitchell and the foundation of the Institute. Scott underlined that this institute was envisioned as a model of "research center to study planning problems of all scale -- from dwelling units and transportation studies, to regional land-use issues."[672] The claim of Perkins's GSFA for the reintegration of the planning and design disciplines -- architecture, city and regional planning and landscape architecture -- under a single faculty was the guiding principle of Institute's foundation. By gathering scholars from diverse disciplines, it was aimed to create an interdisciplinary research environment. Urban problems were at the center of attention of a group of scholars who focused on diverse aspects of this complex field of investigation. The "socially scientific planners" including Meyerson, Chester Rapkin, Britton Harris, John Dyckman, William Grigsby and Herbert Gans, economists Rexford Tugwell and William Grigsby, and social scientist William Wheaton joined the Institute, whose research interests matched well with the envisioned research orientation.[673]

Both the Department of City Planning and the Institute for Urban Studies were put into operation in the same year, and were headed by Mitchell. It is no surprise, then, that the program of the Institute continued the educational direction of the Department. The emphasis on the relationship between planning and social sciences set the theoretical and methodological framework of research projects conducted in the Institute. As Klemek examined in detail in his doctoral dissertation, these projects were in their nature "social scientific analysis of urban issues."[674] The influence of the aforementioned tension between, what Scott Brown called, "social-scientist planners" and "architect-planers" on the research orientation of the Institute was underlined.[675]

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[670] Scott Cohen, "Urban Renewal in West Philadelphia: An Examination of the University of Pennsylvania's Planning, Expansion, and Community Role from the Mid-1940s to the Mid-1970s" (Senior thesis, 1998), 51.
[671] Mitchell was the Head of the Urban Section of the National Resources Planning Board in the wartime. Before his arrival to Penn, Mitchell served as the Executive Director of City Planning Commission of Philadelphia. For further information on his professional and academic background, see Klemek, 2004, 202-234.
[672] Scott, 2004, 32.
[673] For background information on the members of the Institute, see Scott, 2004; Klemek, 2004.
[674] Klemek, 2004, 217.
[675] It is important to underline that Perkins aimed to achieve balance between the two poles. He did not negate a social science-oriented planning approach, but also argued that "balancing the available

Later, in 1968, Mitchell played role in the establishment of the Center for Urban Research and Experiment (CURE) at the University of Pennsylvania and became its first director. The focus of CURE was on urban problems and it was designed primarily "to centralize information about the urban related research and teaching already in progress on the campus."[676] CURE was in close relationship with academic departments and welcomed scholars and researchers from varied fields. In announcing the establishment of the Center in the *University of Pennsylvania Almanac*, November 1968, it was remarked that "[t]he Center will be equipped to assist, on request, all campus department and institute research teams in setting up, funding and publishing results of their research."[677] The educational value of research was at the forefront of its program. The CURE also aimed at bringing together research and teaching by helping "create educational programs in urban affairs for undergraduate and graduate-level departments in the University." It not only provided a setting for research projects but also aimed to generate an interdisciplinary learning environment for students. Besides the educational activities it aimed to support, the Center was planned to be attractive to funding agencies and industry sponsors. As underlined by Perkins, to be "well-financed" was an obligation for the operation of a research center or institute. The university fund was not enough and signing contracts with external agencies was to be favored in order to obtain more funds.[678]

What Perkins called "the larger picture" was an essential point of reference for the Center for Urban and Regional Studies that was established at MIT in 1958. Edwin S. Burdell played a key role in its establishment.[679] In 1956, as the head of the Committee on Educational

data using social sciences with creative design and form making" was necessary. In Scott's view, this was an essential feature of his contribution to "planning pedagogy" in America in the 1950s. She explained: "To create a skillful design foil for the social scientists Mitchell had hired for the Institute, Perkins brought in David Crane, Gerry Carrothers and David Wallece… These men were strong designers and originally trained as architects. They were extremely important leaders in the planning program's foundation design studios." See, Scott, 2004, 33.
[676] "New Center Will Coordinate Urban Research and Teaching," *University of Pennsylvania Almanac* 15, no. 3 (November, 1968): 1.
[677] Ibid.
[678] It was remarked that "CURE's resources will be available to agencies throughout the state of Pennsylvania and those of the three-state Delaware Valley Region Professor, both for short-term consulting as a public service, and for longer-range studies on a contract basis." See, Ibid.
[679] Burdell's administrative position at METU should be mentioned. In January 1960, he was appointed by UNESCO as the "Interim and Consulting President" to METU and he arrived to Ankara in March 1960. It is important to underline that there is not much information about Burdell's implementations at METU. See Payaslıoğlu, 1996, 94-98; Reed, Summer 1975, 225-226. Burdell served as the president of the "Cooper Union for the Advancement of Science and Arts" in New York

Survey, Burdell "recommended the establishment at MIT of a multidisciplinary center for research on urban and regional problems."[680] His proposal was actualized two years later at a time when the Department of City and Regional Planning initiated "a Ph.D. program in city and regional planning." The first director of the Center for Urban and Regional Studies was Lloyd Rodwin.[681] Parallel to Penn's Institute for Urban Studies, the Center at MIT focused on:

> … [T]he physical environment of cities and regions, the forces that shape them, and the interrelations between urbanization and society. The key areas of interest included the form and the structure of the city, transportation, technology, controls, the planning process, the urban landscape, and the physical planning problems of developing countries. *The center greatly enhanced the research potential for students and faculty* of the DCRP.[682]

In 1959, Rodwin collaborated with Meyerson, who was Professor of City Planning and Urban Research at Harvard at that time,[683] to establish a research center, known as the Joint

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for 22 years before he was appointed to METU. Founded in 1859 by Peter Cook, the Cooper Union was one of the oldest and well-known private educational institutions in America that facilitated education in the areas of architecture, arts and engineering. See, "Cooper Union for the Advancement of Science and Arts," http://www.cooper.edu/administration/about/history.html (accessed April 18, 2006). Burdell's reputation was due to his studies in the areas of "urban sociology, town and city planning, European theories of adult education, housing conditions and projects, and problems of youth and unemployment," as well as his administrative implementations. He endeavoured to integrate technical education and humanities. He was one of the principle authors of the report entitled "General Education in Engineering," 1956, that is known as one of the key reports guiding the attempts to re-shape engineering education in America in the mid-twentieth century. See, Edwin S. Burdell and G. L. Gulette, "General Education in Engineering," *Journal of Engineering Education* 46, no. 8 (April 1956): 619-750. For more information on Burdell's personal, administrative and academic backgrounds, see, "Edwin Sharp Burdell," *Current Bibliography* 13, no. 2 (February 1952): 4. "Edwin S. Burdell, 1898-1978," *At Cooper Union* 12, no. 3 (Fall 1978): 2.

[680] See, "History of the Department of Urban Studies and Planning," 5 May 2006.

[681] The reputation of Rodwin in the fields of housing, planning and urbanization in the mid-twentieth century was due to his efforts to enhance the dialogue between planning and social sciences. For further information on his ideas on planning and urbanization, see Rodwin, Lloyd, ed., *Housing and Economic Progress* (Cambridge, Massachusetts: Harvard University Press & the Technology Press, 1969); Lloyd Rodwin, *Nations and Cities; A Comparison of Strategies for Urban Growth* (Boston: Houghton-Mifflin, 1970). Rodwin was a former student of Abrams. For more information on the relationship between Abrams and Rodwin, see Henderson, 2000, 86-87.

[682] See, "History of the Department of Urban Studies and Planning," 5 May 2006, emphasis added.

[683] Meyerson had remarkable experience in the field of urban planning both as an official and academician. In the early 1950s he worked with the Planning Commissions of Philadelphia and Chicago. In1957, he was named the first Frank Backus Williams Professor of City Planning and Urban Research at Harvard. He served as Professor of City and Regional Planning at the University's Graduate School of Fine Arts from 1956 to 1957. On 28 January 1970 he was elected as president for the University of Pennsylvania, succeeding Gaylord Harnwell. His presidency lasted till 1981. For more information, see The University of Pennsylvania, "History of Institutional Planning at the

Center for Urban Studies. While Meyerson became its first director, Rodwin assumed the chair of its Faculty Committee. The focus of the Joint Center's program was on "urban and regional problems in a variety of disciplines," and its methodological approach fitted the mold of "basic research and policy applications of that research."[684] It is important to note that Meyerson also taught at the planning program of the GSFA. Meyerson's concern for social issues in urban contexts and his support for the application of methods of social sciences to urban problems remained with him in directing the Joint Center for Urban Studies. Klemek remarked that "[a]t the Joint Center, together with Rodwin, he [Meyerson] promulgated a vision of planning as an interdisciplinary endeavor that was moving from its utopian origins toward social scientific maturity."[685] Both Rodwin and Meyerson, he argued, conceived urbanism "as a field of progressive, interdisciplinary study." The Joint Center accommodated a vast amount of research and was acknowledged as "a main center of scholarly literature on urban studies in the 1960s and 1970s, publishing books from the MIT and Harvard University Presses."[686]

The above mentioned research centers and institutes participated in the development of "organized research" in architecture and urbanism in America in the mid-twentieth century. Concern for the problems of the built environment in varied scales and a "scientific problem-solving" approach toward their solution was at the core of these organizations. They aimed generating new knowledge and disseminating it through various means. They fostered interdisciplinary research by encouraging participation of scholars from diverse disciplines. Their research activities hold a claim for education as well. Active participation of both the faculty and the students was encouraged. Research was seen to foster exchange of ideas and enhance their learning experiences. Research centers and institutes with their focus on architectural and urban studies were financially supported by external foundations or agencies. However, to maintain a balance between academic aspirations of the university and the pragmatic concerns of external agencies was seen indispensable. On the one hand, their organization was centralized in nature, on the other they were not detached from the

University of Pennsylvania: Gaylord Probasco Harnwell, President (1953-1970)," University Archives and Records Center. http://www.archives.upenn.edu/histy/features/uplans/harnwell.html (accessed February 1, 2010).
[684] See, Rodwin, 1969.
[685] Klemek, 2004, 109.
[686] Massachusetts Institute of Technology, "Lloyd Rodwin, 80, MIT urban studies professor, extended the field of planning to social sciences and the Third World," http://web.mit.edu/newsoffice/nr/1999/rodwin.html (accessed February 1, 2006).

academic community of a university. While academic concerns were not subordinated to pragmatic ones, some of them accommodated public service as an essential component of their mission. Through all these qualities, research centers and institutions under examination stood in between the "disinterested" and "interested" directions of postwar university research.

4.3.3 Engagement in Community Service

In the mid-twentieth century, the relation of the university to the community was the center of attention in the field of higher education. The concepts of "urban university" and "university city" became touchstones for the discussions on this topic. It was emphasized that institutions of higher education should not be "ivory towers," but should be in contact with the society. They had communal as well as educational responsibilities. As a consequence of the growing interest of American universities in serving the community, schools of architecture that were part of a university growingly concerned themselves with the problems of the surrounding community.[687]

As mentioned earlier, to be responsive to the social, physical and spiritual needs of people was defined as one of the major responsibilities of the twentieth century architect. Perkins was a proponent of this idea. He always sought to define a set of principles and values for responsible practice. As underlined by Scott, Perkins "believed in the power of [design disciplines] to change and improve the state of society. He believed great art and great architecture could redeem man."[688] It becomes apparent that Perkins's approach was informed by a university tradition having aims and interests with regard to communal responsibilities.

To be located in an urban context was the primary quality of an urban university. This meant being involved in the problems and needs of that context and having the opportunity to take part in its development. In the words of Harnwell, "urban environment provides peculiar advantages which contribute significantly to the strengths of all schools."[689] As it was

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[687] See, Charles Colbert, "Ivory Tower and Outlook Tower: The Architectural School in its Community," *Journal of Architectural Education* 20, no. ¾ (Feb. -1 May 1966): 33-37.
[688] Scott, 2004, 13.
[689] "Integrated Development Plan," 1962, 8.

mentioned in the 1963 report, the University of Pennsylvania defined as its responsibility to "capitalize on the educational advantages of its Philadelphia location by making the most of the City's great resources -- while developing a green and congenial campus within a hospitable University City."[690] The university administration sought to include in its educational programs the physical, intellectual, social or institutional potentials of the urban context.

The debates on the concept of urban university also stressed the uneasy relationship between academic and communal interests. The issue was whether educational and societal objectives were competing or in which ways a balance between the two could be achieved and maintained. This issue was in the agenda of the University of Pennsylvania under the presidency of Harnwell. Continuous efforts were made to establish stronger connections between the University and urban community. Emphasis was added to research programs as they could play part in the establishment and enhancement of such a contact. In his article "The Modern Urban University" James A. Bessin commented on the "urban community-based research" orientation of the University of Pennsylvania.[691] He remarked that "the University has at times recognized its mutual dependency with the community and conducted research in an attempt to service both the University and the community." What Bessin called "urban community-based research" became a reference point not only for "service activity of the University" but also for its research and teaching activities.[692] In this educational orientation, the city itself was seen as a field of experimentation for the parallel programs of teaching and research. To be involved in the city would allow teachers, students and researchers to get into direct contact with the realities of everyday life and test the validity of ideas through action.

It is apparent when considering research and teaching on the plane of community relations that, the University's claim for acting in response to the changing demands of society did not compete with its academic objectives. Advancement of knowledge and learning did not stand apart from the University's potential contribution to the improvement of the community. However, the principles guiding the role of the University as an institution of higher education were to be well-defined. These were the principles Perkins espoused as Dean of

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[690] "From here to 1970; A Digest of the Integrated Development Plan," March 1963, 6-7.
[691] Bessin, 1990, 53.
[692] Ibid., 53 and 55.

the GSFA. Perkins insisted that "if we are to become more influential in the community, we must know the community itself."[693] A sense of social responsibility and a concern for the human element in design were the guiding principles of his conception of architecture, which in turn informed his educational practices.

As Dean of the GSFA, Perkins carried his agenda into the pages of the *JAE*:

> Across the country the specializations being offered in the graduate years are increasing in number and, despite their variety, appear to share one common characteristic. All seek to tap the rich educational resources outside the departments of architecture which can be found only in a university. *Architects have been slow in recognizing and slower still in tapping the almost infinite resources of the large university. And too seldom have they had the imagination and the energy to use the city as a laboratory or industry as a teaching tool.* From the university and from the large city, where the maximum opportunities for study and research are most readily at hand, we should demand and expect leadership in developing programs for advanced study and research.[694]

For Perkins, the GSFA should be a school that concerned itself with the well-being of the community. In their unpublished manuscript Mimi Lobell and John Lobell commented on the reasons why the GSFA headed by Perkins was called "The Philadelphia School." They argued that this was due to "a unique convergence of city, practice, and education, each in a period of renewal, and all serving as a backdrop for the growth of maturing personalities and the evolution of a philosophy of architecture."[695]

Perkins's contribution to the University's communal service can be related to his search for addressing urban problems in teaching and research programs of the GSFA and fostering an awareness and excitement for urban affairs. As it has been already examined in detail in the previous part of this chapter, Perkins encouraged and played a key role in the creation of research institutes and centers in which the focus was on urban problems. The "urban involvement" of the GSFA headed by Perkins was recognized and appreciated by Harnwell as well. He explained:

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[693] G. Holmes Perkins, "Education for Housing Design: A Dim View," *Journal of Architectural Education* 10, no. 1, Panel Discussions of the Annual Meeting in Cambridge, Massachusetts, June 12 & 13, 1954 (Spring 1955): 36.

[694] Perkins, September 1964, 24, emphasis added.

[695] Mimi Lobell and John Lobell, "The Philadelphia School: 1955-1965, A Synergy of City, Profession, and Education," 1980, http://johnlobell.com/Books/PhilSchShrt.htm (accessed September 23, 2005).

> The Gradute School of Fine Arts has taken a particular lead at Pennsyivania in the area of urban involvement under the leadership of its dean, G. Holmes Perkins, who served as chairman of the Philadelphia City Planning Commission from 1958 to 1968...[696]

Drawing from his teaching experiences at the School in the late 1950s, Romaldo Giurgola reflected on the growing concern for urban affairs at the GSFA:

> ...The school, under the direction of Dean Holmes G. Perkins, was deeply involved in the affairs of the city. It seemed to many of us as if an intellectual bridge could be formed between the dynamic of an undiscriminated growth of the city and the school; in other words, that *the gloriously experimental American school of architecture could become a forum of activities, with architecture as a stepping stone for the development of the city and the region*. At that time, architecture was still defined as a 'social art.' Clarence Stein, Louis Mumford, G. C. Argan, Robert Le Ricolais and Aldo van Eyck were seen and heard periodically at the School, together with other professionals and teachers. It was significant that the composition of the permanent faculty had a ratio of one to ten of critics to *practicing architect-teachers*...[697]

Within this framework, the GSFA also took part in urban renewal projects for the West Philadelphia. It should be underlined that during his Deanship, Perkins was also chairman of the Philadelphia Planning Commission (1958-68) and of the Executive Planning Committee on the Physical Plant (1962-1965). At a time when the relationship between the University and community was in progress, he combined his administrative and educational status with his professional affiliations. Mimi and John Lobell explained:

> The energetic physical and political reformation of Philadelphia took place during a strong interaction between the school and the city. Bacon was on the Penn faculty, the Dean of the school, G. Holmes Perkins, served as the Chairman of the City Planning Commission, and various Penn faculty did research and design projects for the city. The master plan for Penn's Landing was done by Geddes, Brecher, Qualls, and Cunningham, and the early plans for Market Street East were done by Kahn and later by Mitchell/Giurgola.[698]

The most notable urban project that illustrated the involvement of the University of Pennsylvania in community affairs was "Physical Plant Growth" project, which aimed the

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[696] Harnwell, 1971, 171.
[697] Romaldo Giurgola, "An Open Letter to Students and Colleagues" *Journal of Architectural Education* 35, no. 1 (Autumn 1981): 13-17, emphasis added.
[698] Lobell and Lobell, 1980.

expansion of the university campus. The fact that the campus area was "designated by the City as one for rehabilitation" added communal significance to this project and made the relation between related parties -- city officials, university administrators and citizens -- an uneasy one.[699]

4.4 The Lasting Validity of Perkins's Outlook

Throughout Chapter 4 of the dissertation, Perkins's position in the field of architectural education in America in the mid-twentieth century is examined by focusing on his ideas and practices as an architect, administrator and academician. It is on the basis of this background that the underlying principles of his METU project are delineated.

Perkins envisioned METU as an institution of higher education in which the academic and professional aspects of architectural education would be balanced. The foundation of a school of architecture and community planning and research institutes was seen as a first step towards the creation of a technical university. Enhancement of the quality of the built environment was seen as an essential goal. Perkins emphasized the significance of establishing contact between research institutes and industrial and governmental agencies. Community involvement was regarded as an essential component of the educational and research activities of METU. From the inception of the University, emphasis was placed on academic achievement in teaching and research programs along with professional and communal objectives. It was underlined that the development of advanced study and research would make a vital contribution to the academic advancement of the University. A vision of education as an overall process of learning that combine professional and intellectual development made manifest itself in Perkins's recommendation for the establishment of graduate programs. The contribution of advanced study leading to the M.A., M.Sc., and Ph.D. degrees to this process was emphasized. Graduate education would also enhance the competences of the teaching faculty and ensure the quality of education

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[699] For more information on the scope and objectives of the "Physical Plant Growth" project, see "Report of the Trustees' Committee for the Physical Development of the University of Pennsylvania submitted to President of the University," Stated Meeting of the Trustees, October 25, 1948, 97d, http://www.archives.upenn.edu/primdocs/uplan/trusteesmin25oct1948.pdf (accessed February 2, 2010). For a critical detailed examination of the significance of this project for the city officials, university administrators and citizen of the area and their parallel and conflicting interests, see Cohen, 1998; Klemek, 2004; Scott, 2004.

programs. Faculty members were expected to contribute to the formation of an academic community of scholars at METU Faculty of Architecture. It is important to mention that at a time when "organized research" was not yet established in the majority of schools of architecture in America, a claim for fulfilling the requisites of a research university of an international character was evident in Perkins's METU project.

Perkins was aware of the diversity of functions that the twentieth century architect was to perform. For him, the architect should employ a set of principles and a sense of responsibility in order to fulfill the widening responsibilities and emerging opportunities ahead. Making "good designs" was to be the ultimate task of an architect. Endowed with social responsibility, an architect was to respect and respond to human needs and aspirations. There was a set of proficiencies that Perkins considered an architect should posses. The architect should be well-equipped, both in professional and intellectual terms, in order to be able to approach real life problems in a critical and reflective manner, connect theory to practice, and respond to constantly changing situations. For schools of architecture to train future architects as such, the educational aim should be more than transmitting knowledge. Perkins insisted that schools of architecture were responsible for the development of more integrated and interdisciplinary teaching and learning environments that would initiate and foster collaboration between students from related areas of specialization. To endow students of architecture with a cultural background and a breadth of understanding was another responsibility of schools of architecture, which Perkins related to the necessity of "a firmer and longer liberal education."[700] Above all, students of architecture were to be developed as "creative designers." He saw "the sincere and undivided dedication to creative design" that manifested itself in the "ability to invest each structure and space with qualities that stimulate new and unforeseen responses" as a precondition of the development of future architects.[701]

Chapter 4 called attention to the persistence of these educational ideals in the METU project envisioned by Perkins. It re-situated these ideals into the broader framework of the changing educational trajectories in America in the 1950s. It is underlined that Perkins was a prominent member of an educational context that was shaped by a new vision of the architect

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[700] G. Holmes Perkins, "The Architect and the City," *Papers from the AIA-ACSA Teacher Seminar*. Cranbrook Academy of Arts, 1962, 7.
[701] Perkins, November 1962, 94.

and of architectural education. Chapter 4 concludes with an attempt to reveal several thematic connections between the mid-twentieth century debates and contemporary debates ongoing in the field of architectural education today. The aim is to make explicit the lasting validity of the themes that were persistent in Perkins's educational approach.

No doubt, there are fundamental differences between these two time periods -- the 1950s and 2000s. Societal structure or the changing demands of architectural profession that places pressure upon the field of architectural education today, and those of the mid-twentieth century, are not the same. However, today the changing role and responsibilities of an architect are still on the agenda of practitioners and academicians. The objectives, content and methods of architectural education are still under discussion in academic spheres. Therefore, a thematic connection between the 1950s and 2000s can be drawn firstly on the basis of a commitment to the need for change in architectural education.

A brief review of several projects recently conducted in the field of architectural education helps grasp recurrent themes in architectural discourse and the fact that particular educational ideals preserve their significance for educational thinking and practices at present.

A 2009 project by ENHSA-EAAE Architectural Design Teachers' and Construction Teachers' Networks entitled "Architectural Design and Construction Education: Experimentation towards Integration" deserves to be cited. The focus of this project was on design education and the aim was to define "a new profile of architect" for the 21th century.[702] Scholars from numerous schools of architecture met on the common ground of the idea that the primary task of architectural education was to be the cultivation of creative ways of thinking and doing in order to respond to changing and widening responsibilities of the architect. Constantin Spiridonidis and Maria Voyatzaki remarked that the contemporary architect has a responsibility "to experiment and to create innovative architectural forms by using new materials, by implementing new construction techniques" and "to collaborate in

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[702] Constantin Spiridonidis and Maria Voyatzaki, "Experimentations towards Integration: An Attempt to Gather Good-Practice Examples," in *Architectural Design and Construction Education: Experimentation towards Integration*, ed. Constantin Spiridonidis and Maria Voyatzaki (*Transactions on Architectural Education No 45*, Thessaloniki, Greece: EAAE, 2009) http://www.enhsa.net/con9Proceedings.pdf (accessed May 3, 2010).

interdisciplinary teams."[703] The central theme of the discussion was "integration." Emphasis was particularly given on "the coherence of the education offered and the integrity of competences to be fulfilled."[704]

The debates on the need for a new design pedagogy also touched upon the relationship between architectural design and urban design. In an EAAE project entitled "Ideas and Reflections on Architectural and Urban Design Education in Europe: A Workshop Synthesis," 2005, a point raised for consideration was the need to equip students of architecture as creative designers who could be competent in urban design as well.[705] Schools of architecture were seen responsible for addressing interdisciplinary fields of knowledge and making their students realize the relation of architecture to the whole structure of the built environment. Vital questions raised in this workshop also concerned teaching methods and the need to reconsider teaching as "scholarship." The related remarks of Marvin J. Malecha, from North Caroline State University, College of Design, are noteworthy:

> The teacher must look beyond the carefully crafted course outline to the intentions of the course experience. It is therefore the impact on a student's behavior as a designer that I believe is most important to serve a lifetime in the profession of architecture. To this end I expect to influence students and to inspire them to test ideas through action, cause them to operate in continual reflection, provoke them to value critical thought, insist that they become centers of influence.[706]

The vision of architectural education that Perkins advocated in the mid-twentieth century is very much with us today in debates over how to define the goals of architectural education.

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[703] Ibid., 10.
[704] Ibid.
[705] A collection of papers prepared by a number of schools of architecture in Europe on the subject of teaching architectural design and urban design was published in two volumes: "Monitoring Architectural Design Education in European Schools of Architecture" and "Monitoring Urban Design Education in European Schools of Architecture." These volumes constituted the starting point of a workshop under the title "Ideas and Reflections on Architectural and Urban Design Education in Europe: a follow up forum." This workshop was convened in Hania Crete on 1-3 September 2005. See, Constantin Spiridonidis, ed., *Ideas and Reflections on Architectural and Urban Design Education in Europe* (*EAAE Transactions on Architectural Education no 28*. Thessaloniki, Greece: EAAE, 2005), 67-78, http://www.enhsa.net/downloads/publi/urde2005/05chapter1debate.pdf (accessed May 3, 2010).
[706] Marvin J. Malecha, in *Ideas and Reflections on Architectural and Urban Design Education in Europe,* ed. Constantin Spiridonidis. *EAAE Transactions on Architectural Education no 28* (Thessaloniki, Greece: EAAE, 2005), 99, http://www.enhsa.net/downloads/publi/urde2005/16malecha.pdf (accessed May 3, 2010).

As it has been examined in detail throughout Chapter 4, underneath Perkins's conception of "total architecture" laid an awareness of the critical role the architect was to play in the creation of urban environment. Perkins maintained that the modern architect was to be a socially responsible and professionally competent member of a team composed of scholars / researchers who could make their unique, yet interdependent, contributions to "the total social and physical organization of the city."[707] In his view, it was the responsibility of schools of architecture to establish interdisciplinary teaching and learning environments that would be the initial first step toward the development of professional collaboration in the future. His integration of the planning and design disciplines under "the umbrella of a single faculty dedicated to the design of a total environment" formerly at Harvard GSD and later at the University of Pennsylvania GSFA demonstrated that this ideal could be realized. He had already noticed in the 1950s the importance of social and civic concerns in architectural design. He made his argument clear when he said "In any scheme of architectural education it would, therefore, seem that there is first of all a need to understand with some precision the habits, thoughts, and feelings of one's own citizens."[708] He noted:

> It is, therefore, evident that the acquisition of facts no matter how well learned and no matter how necessary is not the major problem in the education of the architect. Instead the most pressing need is *the development of an imagination* capable of welding into creative form a concept of space possessing real beauty, an efficiently functioning plan and a structural idea with today's technical and material and means. *The creative act* which permits the architect to conceive a building which grows out of so many diverse needs, restrictions and opportunities is the special skill which deserves the most assiduous cultivation in the school.[709]

Perkins's criticism against the prevailing epistemological models of the early twentieth century was at the center of his educational stance. He asserted that, "facts learned at the school" inescapably become obsolete. For that reason, students should be acquainted with the means to acquire knowledge and learn from their experiences. The development of "the habit of experiment and invention," in his words, was essential.

Throughout Chapter 4, the themes in the course of American architectural education in the mid-twentieth are addressed with reference to numerous seminars and symposiums held by

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[707] Perkins, Autumn 1961, 100.
[708] Perkins, July 1954, 154.
[709] Ibid., 158, emphasis added.

ACSA, into which Perkins was a regular attendee. Looking at the proceedings of ACSA seminars more than a half century later, it is obvious that many of the themes still remain at the center of academic interest.

At the 96th Annual Meeting of the ACSA, held in Houston in 2008, the focus was on studio pedagogy and the new models of design studio identified as "community design studio," "design build studio," "community engaged design studio model," "community design/build model" and "community residency model."[710] D. Allen Watters underlined that in these "alternative schemes," the emphasis is placed more on the "process" than the "product," and the objective is to provide more integrated learning experiences for students of architecture.[711] The establishment of a "dialogue" between the teacher and the students in this process was seen essential.[712] What Watters defined as "self-informed experiences" indicated an approach that attributes more responsibility to students and encourages them to be actively involved in the learning process.[713] For Ronit Eisenbach, from the University of Maryland, the ultimate educational goal should be "students' development as thoughtful and able designers."[714] In Stanley Russell's view, from the University of South Florida, "abstraction as a means of communication" can be a barrier for students of architecture to recognize the "physical reality of architecture."[715] He maintained that this barrier can be surpassed to the degree that students' encounter with the social, physical, and economic realities of architecture are encouraged in the design studio. Phoebe Crisman, from the University of Virginia, insisted that to foster a sense of "social responsibility" and a commitment to "community involvement" is indispensable in design education.[716] At this

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[710] See, Ronit Eisenbach, "Placing Movement, Shaping Place," and Stanley Russell, "Community Stewardship and the Hidden Curriculum: Transforming Architectural Education Through Involvement," in *Papers from the 96th Annual Meeting in Houston of the Association of Collegiate Schools of Architecture: Emerging Pedagogy: New Approaches to Architecture and Design Education*, ed. Dietmar Froehlich and Michaela Pride (Washington, DC: ACSA, 2008), https://www.acsa-arch.org/conferences/Annual2008_Proceedings.aspx (accessed May 3, 2010).
[711] D. Allen Watters, "The Reggio Emilia Approach and an Architectural Education: A Dialogue," in *Papers from the 96th Annual Meeting in Houston of the Association of Collegiate Schools of Architecture: Emerging Pedagogy: New Approaches to Architecture and Design Education*, ed. Dietmar Froehlich and Michaela Pride (Washington, DC: ACSA, 2008), 345-349, https://www.acsa-arch.org/conferences/Annual2008_Proceedings.aspx (accessed May 3, 2010).
[712] Ibid., 348.
[713] Ibid., 346.
[714] Eisenbach, 2008, 322.
[715] Russell, 2008.
[716] Phoebe Crisman. "Making Connections: Environmental + Social Action Through Design," in *Papers from the 96th Annual Meeting in Houston of the Association of Collegiate Schools of*

point, "stewardship" became a recurring theme in the debates. For Russell, "it is time for architecture schools to re-evaluate their positions on community engagement and, in a broader sense, community stewardship, to become active players in the transition towards sustainable communities."[717] A concern for stewardship made manifest itself in the relationship sought between design and research. Crisman commented that with the aim of establishing a contact between academy, profession and community, design education should address "methods for a more civically engaged form of research, including participatory action research, collaborative inquiry and practitioner research."[718]

The above mentioned models of design studios that are defined as "new" have much in common with the models that Perkins designed and implemented at Harvard GSD and the University of Pennsylvania GSFA, in the late 1940s and 1950s. A primary concern in these models was real-world problems and awareness of the currents of the period. As underlined by Scott Brown, interdisciplinarity and research-orientation were two distinguishing qualities of Perkins's design studios. Perkins placed special emphasis on the continuity of the learning process. He asserted that theoretical studies should be combined with practical studies in the field. In his view, "repeated personal experience" would foster the development of "a creative spirit and orderly vision."[719]

At this point he shared the same ideals with his contemporaries like Walter Gropius who advocated the encouragement of more practical experience as the urgent task of architectural education in the mid-twentieth century. However, he disagreed with Gropius regarding the significance of research in the educational process. Perkins saw "an active program of research" as "indispensable to the promotion of an atmosphere of learning whose prime purpose is the discovery of natural laws, of human reactions to space, color, form, and technical innovation, and the creation of a more humane environment."[720]

Architecture: Emerging Pedagogy: New Approaches to Architecture and Design Education, ed. Dietmar Froehlich and Michaela Pride (Washington, DC: ACSA, 2008), 306-314, https://www.acsa-arch.org/conferences/Annual2008_Proceedings.aspx (accessed May 3, 2010).
[717] Russell, 2008, 340.
[718] Crisman, 2008, 307.
[719] Perkins, July 1954, 158.
[720] Perkins, 1962, 10.

Chapter 4 also addressed the relevance of Perkins's ideas on architectural education to the broader field of education in the mid-twentieth century. In this concluding part of this chapter, attention is also directed to recurring themes in the field of higher education in the contemporary scene. When ongoing debates in the field of higher education in America are reconsidered, it becomes evident that the major problems in architectural education are not irrelevant to the problems that are at the center of higher education in general.

A National Panel Report by the Association of American Colleges and Universities (AAC&U), titled "Greater Expectations: A New Vision for Learning as a Nation Goes to College," 2002, underlined the need for a reform in higher education. This report focused on students as "learners" who should be "empowered through the mastery of intellectual and practical skills," "informed by knowledge about the natural and social worlds and about forms of inquiry basic to these studies" and were "responsible for their personal actions and for civic values."[721] This report made apparent a growing interest in the notion of "integrative learning." It was argued that a change in educational practices in schools, colleges and universities was indispensable in order to develop students as "integrative thinkers and doers."[722]

The concept of "integrative learning" was reconsidered in greater detail in a more recent joint project titled "Integrative Learning: Opportunities to Connect" undertaken by the AAC&U and The Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching in 2004. The focus was particularly on "the value of liberal education" in today's higher education.[723] The findings of this three-year project were exposed in a paper entitled "Integrative Learning: Mapping the Terrain" which attempted to re-situate the notion of "integrative learning" within the larger field of liberal education. It was remarked that "integrative learning," a

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[721] Association of American Colleges and Universities, 2002.

[722] Marry T. Huber and Pat Hutchings, "Integrative Learning: Mapping the Terrain," The Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching, 2004, http://www.carnegiefoundation.org/sites/default/files/publications/elibrary_pdf_636.pdf (accessed May 10, 2010).

[723] "Through the Integrative Learning Project: Opportunities to Connect, the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching and the Association of American Colleges and Universities worked with the following campuses to develop and assess advanced models and strategies to help students pursue learning in more intentional, connected ways: Carleton College, College of San Mateo, LaGuardia Community College CUNY, Massachusetts College of Liberal Arts, Michigan State University, Philadelphia University, Portland State University, Salve Regina University, State University of New York College at Oswego, and University of Charleston." For more information on the scope and findings of the project, see Ibid.

promise of liberal education, was a key issue in the attempts to combine the academic aspects of education with its practical aspects. Attention was paid to the critical role that the teacher should play in activating "integrative learning," which gained more and more significance at a time when students were confronted a continuously changing body of knowledge and blurring disciplinary boundaries. The paper pointed to the demand for "scholarship" in teaching.[724]

The discussions on redefining the goals of doctoral education for the 21st century can be considered as the indications of the growing significance of scholarship in teaching. A recently completed research project is worth mentioning: "The Carnegie Initiative on the Doctorate," known as "CID."[725] Numerous institutions of higher education in North America, which contributed to this project, defined the main educational goal of their doctoral programs as "to better prepare their graduates as stewards of the discipline."[726] Reflecting on the findings of this research project, a collection of essays entitled "Envisioning the Future of Doctoral Education: Preparing Stewards of the Discipline -- Carnegie Essays on the Doctorate" addressed the concept of "stewardship" as follows:

> We propose that the purpose of doctoral education, taken broadly, is to educate and prepare those to whom we can entrust the vigor, quality and integrity of the field. This person is a scholar first and foremost, in the fullest sense of the term -- someone who will creatively generate new knowledge, critically conserves valuable and useful ideas, and responsibly transforms those understandings through writing, teaching and application. We call such a person a 'steward of the discipline.'[727]

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[724] "What is needed in teaching for integration … is similar to what is needed in learning: an intentional approach. For faculty, this means systematic reflection on and inquiry into the specific challenges and dilemmas faculty face in the classroom; it means bringing the habits, skills, and values of scholarship to their work as teachers. 'Intentional teaching' thus entails what many today are calling 'the scholarship of teaching and learning.' This form of scholarship requires a kind of 'going meta,' in which faculty frame and systematically investigate questions related to student learning -- the conditions under which it occurs, what it looks like, how to deepen it, and so forth -- and do so with an eye not only to improving their own classroom but to advancing practice beyond it." See, Ibid.

[725] This project was carried out cooperatively by the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching and The Atlantic Philanthropies, from 2001 to 2005.

[726] See, Chris Golde and George Walker, eds., "Highlights from: *Envisioning the Future of Doctoral Education: Preparing Stewards of the Discipline - Carnegie Essays on the Doctorate*" in The Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching, 2006, 5, http://media.wiley.com/product_data/excerpt/50/07879823/0787982350.pdf (accessed May 3, 2010).

[727] Ibid.

Two reports prepared by Ernest L. Boyer in the 1990s, in the support of The Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching, should also be cited as they constituted an important background upon which the above cited studies on undergraduate and graduate education were developed. "[T]o define, in more creative ways, what it means to be a scholar," was the objective of Boyer's report entitled "Scholarship Reconsidered: Priorities of the Professoriate." Boyer explained:

> We believe the time has come to move beyond the tired old 'teaching versus research' debate and give the familiar and honorable term 'scholarship' a broader, more capacious meaning, one that brings legitimacy to the full scope of academic work. Surely, scholarship means engaging in original research. But the work of the scholar also means stepping back from one's investigation, looking for connections and building bridges between theory and practice, and communicating one's knowledge effectively to students. Specifically, we conclude that the work of the professoriate might be thought of as having four separate, yet overlapping, functions. These are: the scholarship of discovery; the scholarship of integration; the scholarship of application; and the scholarship of teaching.[728]

In their paper titled "Building Community: A New Future for Architecture Education and Practice. A Special Report," Boyer and Lee D. Mitgang envisioned a model for "reform in architecture education":

> A model of architecture education based on seven separate but interlocking priorities was proposed: (1) an enriched mission; (2) a more inclusive institutional context based on the principle of diversity with dignity; (3) a goal of standards without standardization; (4) an architecture curriculum that is better integrated with knowledge both within and outside the architecture discipline; (5) establishment of a supportive climate for learning; (6) a more unified profession based on partnership between schools and the profession; and (7) preparation of architects for lives of civic engagement.[729]

The precedents of concepts such as "integrative learning," "stewardship" and "teaching as scholarship" that are persistent themes in contemporary educational debates can be found in the mid-twenties. Today, notable institutional efforts to reconsider the virtues of liberal education for higher education are ongoing. Emphasis is placed on developing methods and

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[728] Quoted in Ernest L. Boyer, "Scholarship Reconsidered: Priorities of the Professoriate," Education Resources Information Center (ERIC), December, 1990, http://www.eric.ed.gov/ERICWebPortal/contentdelivery/servlet/ERICServlet?accno=ED326149 (accessed May 3, 2010).
[729] Ernest L. Boyer and Lee D. Mitgang, "Building Community: A New Future for Architecture Education and Practice. A Special Report," Education Resources Information Center (ERIC), 1996.

procedures to guide students' learning of how to think and act creatively and reflectively, regardless of their professional specialization. This was what Perkins assumed when he advocated the extension of liberal education into professional education of an architect. The aim of the establishment of a broader educational basis upon which professional specialization could be developed was the same. He sought to broaden students' horizons by fostering a cultural background for their intellectual and professional development.

Boyer's vision of scholarship seems to have references to an educational outlook that was emerging in the field of higher education in the mid-twenties. This approach was examined in Chapter 4 within the framework of the official reports prepared by the University of Pennsylvania.[730] The active involvement of teachers in professional practice was encouraged and the interdependence of teaching and learning processes was emphasized. Research was given emphasis as a necessary component of education. This outlook was evident in Perkins's approach to the recruitment of faculty at the GSFA on the basis of the model of "teacher-researcher-practitioner."

As it has been documented throughout Chapter 4, Perkins was a prominent figure in an organized and fertile ground of debates ongoing in the field of architectural education in America in the mid-twentieth century. Numerous academicians actively contributed to these debates, contemplated on the problems in architectural education and agreed on a need for change. They tried to delineate a new approach to architectural education and they all contributed, in varying ways and degrees, to the formation of new ways in educating the twentieth-century architects. Perkins's contribution stemmed from his success in translating the educational ideas that he advocated to formative educational practices. He implemented reforms in the institutions where he served as an administrator and a professor. Professional education envisioned by Perkins was a process that should aim to facilitate students' development both as individuals and competent professionals. He aimed at establishing architecture programs and teaching and learning environments that would initiate and sustain such an educational process. Within this framework, it deserves to be stated that Perkins was a defender of a progressive architectural pedagogy. His pedagogical approach was informed

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[730] See, "Assaying a University," 1960; "Integrated Development Plan," 1962; "From Here to 1970; A Digest of the Integrated Development Plan," 1963.

by modern theories of education that were influential in the first half of the twentieth century and created an impact also on the emerging approaches to architectural education.

A brief review of the contemporary themes of the debates in the fields of higher education, in general, and architectural education, in particular, makes apparent that the legacy of modern theories of education of the early twentieth century remains valid for today's architectural discourse.

CHAPTER 5

CONCLUSION

This dissertation has aimed to contribute to the literature on the history of METU Faculty of Architecture by re-constructing the political and educational contexts of the METU projects envisioned by UN experts Charles Abrams and G. Holmes Perkins. The purpose of the dissertation was to underscore the educational ideas and ideals that informed these projects and to draw their thematic connections to the changing political and educational trajectories in America in the mid-twentieth century. The picture developed in this dissertation portrays the complexity of the situation and makes apparent the manifold strands of the background of the educational ideas and ideals pursued by Abrams and Perkins.

In Chapter 2, the purpose of the overview of different interpretations of democracy in the political trajectories of the mid-twentieth century and their reflections on technical assistance projects for developing countries was to understand the underlying motives of the implementation of METU as a UN project. Attention was called to John Dewey as a leading intellectual figure behind the influential theories of education in America in the same period. Chapter 3 examined Abrams's professional and academic position as "reflective practitioner," in the light of John Dewey's concepts of democracy, democratic education and "reflective thinking." In Chapter 4, the focus of the dissertation turned from the broader contexts of the political and educational trajectories toward new orientations in architectural education in America in the mid-twentieth century. Perkins was the center of attention of the overview of scholarly debates on the changing role of the architect and the growing demands upon architectural education. Reappraisal of liberal education as part of architectural education, the virtues of interdisciplinary and collaborative learning environments for students of architecture and the connection sought between research, teaching and learning were the main themes of Chapter 4. It also pointed to the ideals of university education in the mid-twentieth century as the broader framework of the goals and responsibilities of schools of architecture.

In this last part of the dissertation, general conclusions concerning the political and educational contexts of the METU project(s) were discussed and thematic connections were drawn between mid-twentieth century and contemporary debates. The intention was to underline the relevance of the themes addressed in the dissertation for contemporary scholarship of architectural education and higher education.

5.1 General Conclusions and Discussions

No doubt, the establishment of a new school provides a fertile ground for putting ideals into practice. However, when the issue is to realize change in the field of education, one should not disregard the fact that this does not happen at once and the consequences of the attempts to implement change can be observed in time. It could hardly be stated that Abrams's and Perkins's ideals could be realized as soon as METU Faculty of Architecture was founded. It should be underlined that understanding how these ideals were put into practice and whether they were preserved, transformed or evolved over time is not an easy task. By delineating a comprehensive picture of the background of the foundation of METU Faculty of Architecture, the ultimate goal of this dissertation has been to point to the possibility of new interpretations on the topic, open new avenues to pursue and, thus, provide a coherent basis for future studies.

This dissertation made apparent that Abrams and Perkins opened the way for progressive educational principles and values of their time to enter into the foundation of a technical university in Ankara and for the inauguration of a modern approach to architectural education in Turkey. As it has been emphasized, Abrams's and Perkins's contributions could be understood within the framework of the critical scholarly positions they established in America in the 1950s. They were both authorities in their own fields.

In this dissertation the converging and diverging dimensions of Abrams's and Perkins's projects were examined. The technical assistance policies of the UN TAA concerning the improvement of education in technical and professional fields as part of human resource development in developing countries were the driving forces of Abrams's approach. He underlined the significance of establishing an independent technical university that would be leading in the advancement of technical and professional education in Turkey. The graduates

of this technical university were expected to be creative and socially responsible practitioners. For Perkins, the inauguration and enhancement of professional, graduate and research programs in architecture and city and regional planning were necessary steps to be taken in order to develop "a newer, more practical and modern approach to architecture and urban planning" in Turkey.[731] To establish strong connections between the academy, the profession and the community was seen indispensable for Turkey in which "the physical patterns being created will have a lasting influence upon the country's future regions, cities, and villages."[732]

It should be underscored that Abrams and Perkins primarily developed a vision for the future. They saw a necessity to build an institution the graduates of which would be agents of change in Turkey. It was this vision that guided the instructors and students in working with excitement as members of a newly emerging intellectual community and helped create an enthusiastic educational environment in the founding years. It appears that, the success of METU Faculty of Architecture was far beyond the scope of what Abrams and Perkins could have been imagined. This should be why they both placed special emphasis on the foundation of METU Faculty of Architecture among the projects they realized throughout their careers. The distinguished position and international recognition METU attained both in national and international spheres of higher education today as a modern research university is beyond what they imagined. However, Abrams and Perkins did lay the foundation for further progress of METU Department of Architecture. They instilled educational principles and values that framed a flexible educational structure open to change and development.

While shedding light on the roles played by Abrams and Perkins in the foundation of METU Faculty of Architecture, this dissertation also brings into view the educational ideals that informed the foundation process. The examination of the foundation of METU Faculty of Architecture through the perspectives of Abrams and Perkins also mirrored the influential approaches in the political and educational trajectories in America in the mid-twentieth century. This focus on their METU projects provided frames of reference through which this dissertation drew attention to the central themes of the changing directions of higher

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[731] Perkins, Loschetter, and von Moltke, 5.
[732] Ibid., 4.

education and of architectural education in America in that period. From the perspective of this dissertation, Abrams's and Perkins's aim was not to transplant a specific educational model, but to introduce the values and principles of emerging educational approaches in architecture. It is considered that an overall and comprehensive evaluation of the status of architectural education in the 1950s could hardly be made unless it is examined as part of the ongoing change process in higher education. Starting from this consideration, this dissertation attempted to understand new directions in architectural education in America in the light of the changes implemented in higher education in the same period.

Framing the discussion through the political and educational contexts of the METU project provided a useful context for this dissertation for addressing the distinctiveness of the period under examination. The examination of Abrams's and Perkins's professional and academic standpoints made apparent the reflections of the ideals specific to their time. In "an age fascinated by industrial technology and rationality," in Scott's words, the progress of science created a profound impact on the fields of politics and education. The emphasis placed on the notions of change and growth was a major aspect of the philosophy of Progressivism in emerging political and educational orientations. At the center of these orientations were new conceptions of individuality and society. The political and educational debates that are addressed in this dissertation pointed to the ideals of individuality and community propounded by the leading theorists of the period. These ideals not only informed the goals of national educational policies of developed countries, but also their international educational activities, specifically the technical assistance policies they pursued for developing countries. Education was seen as a key to development and modernization.

This dissertation drew attention to Dewey's theory of education that was based on democratic principles and his conception of "reflective" human individual, which continued to be influential in educational thinking and practices of the mid-twentieth century. Dewey argued that the major educational task was to develop open-minded and socially responsive individuals who would be well-equipped and eager to act as members of a democratic society. In his view, education was to encourage experimentation and invention and cultivate habits of reflective thinking and acting in students. The spirit of a Deweyan conception of democracy in higher education found an explicit expression in the words of Butts:

> … There will be little profit to the United States or to the world if we train vast numbers of professional workers, engineers, technical experts, and teachers who have not a deep-seated desire and ability to make their skills contribute to the creation and maintenance of a free and democratic society. To enable them to become liberally educated persons with high professional and vocational competence and an urgent sense of social responsibility for democracy should be the goal of higher education in the United States.[733]

These discussions had profound implications for architectural education as well. In the mid-twentieth century, architectural education was in process of experiencing significant changes in response to a new world in the process of formation. The literature on the history of architectural education in this period points to a shift from the Beax-Arts system to modern architectural pedagogy. Bauhaus pedagogy is usually cited as the driving force of this pedogical shift. However, as underlined by Sachs, there are "alternative" histories of the mid-twentieth century architectural education, which draw attention to the internal dynamics of the intellectual context in America. These dynamics had implications for both architectural curriculum and pedagogy and played profound roles in the reforms implemented in the most influential schools of architecture in America. It is striking that the leading figures of initiatives for making modern pedagogy the grounding rationale of architectural education was architects, including Hudnut and Perkins, who were educated in the Beaux-Arts tradition but later called for its abandonment.

For this dissertation, the ideas and accomplishments of Perkins became a starting point for an overview of the emerging new directions in architectural education in the mid-twentieth century. By re-contextualizing these new directions into a broader context of the ongoing change processes in the field of higher education, this dissertation has aimed to contribute, in essence, to "alternative" histories of architectural education highlighted by Sachs. In this dissertation it is underscored that the political and educational contexts of the METU project are, and should be grasped as, part of such an alternative history of architectural education in America in the mid-twentieth century.

The manifold strands of change realized in architectural education in America in that period were the themes of Chapter 3. This investigation highlighted the ideologies, epistemologies

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[733] Butts, 1955, 563.

and educational policies that were influential in America in the postwar period, and on the ways the aims, content and methods of architectural education were redefined.

In accordance with Dewey's theories of education and the pursuit for democratic education, the shift from Beaux-Arts tradition to modern architectural pedagogy was, in essence, a shift toward a democratic educational system in which students' personal development was encouraged and creative capacities were enhanced. An architectural education based on democratic principles was in the process of formation.[734] The influx of Bauhaus ideas into America by the late 1930s and the influence of Bauhaus pedagogy in design and architecture programs in leading American schools contributed to the inauguration of a democratic educational model, but this was not the only impetus.

A growing concern for the intellectual development of students of architecture, indispensable to their professional development, was framing the context of the debates generated in academic circles. Architecture was defined as "a creative and imaginative art, a thing of the mind," to use Hudnut's words, and the educational emphasis was placed on improving students' intellectual potentials and creative capacities.[735] This was defined as "an educational reflection of the ever-increasing philosophical tendency towards self-realization."[736] The attempts to redefine the objectives of architecture programs were informed by "the basic philosophy of freedom of individual expression combined with high discipline."[737]

Learning was considered as an integrative process. It was argued that students' learning from their own experiences was an essential part of their personal development, as it was important for the development of their creative capacities. This dissertation underlined that Hudnut, Gropius and Perkins were foremost proponents of architectural education that combined "learning by doing" and "intellectual training."[738]

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[734] See, Pearlman, Dec., 1997; Pearlman, 2007.
[735] "Education of the Architect: The Architects' Committee Reports on Columbia's School of Architecture," *Architectural Forum* 52, no. 2 (June 30, 1934): 164.
[736] William, Dec. 1964, 38.
[737] Ibid.
[738] "Address by Walter Gropius," Spring 1951, 83.

In a 1934 report he prepared as the new Dean of the Columbia University School of Architecture, Hudnut noted:

> ... [T]he successful practice of architecture in the future will demand a more scientific attitude on the part of its practitioners than has hitherto obtained; that therefore the preparation for practice, which includes the curricula of architectural schools, must comprise a wider experience with the scientific method and a more thorough discipline in the scientific habits of thought.[739]

Hudnut's words were portrayal of an increased emphasis given to disciplining the architects' minds by cultivating a scientific outlook. This was considered as a key to approach the problems facing architects in professional practice through a methodical and rational manner. It is important to clarify, however, that this was not to say that architectural design was seen merely a matter of problem-solving. It was emphasized that methodological inquiry and invention would complete imaginative processes and enhance the capacity to learn. "Stimulation of creative instinct and logical thought" was seen as constituent of a cohesive educational goal.[740]

The changing role and growing responsibilities of the architect as a consequence of "changing social demands," "technical inventions" and "the changing scope of professional knowledge," placed new demands upon architectural education. "Concern for total environment," as Perkins defined it, became an important issue in discussions on architectural education.[741] Academicians as well as professionals increasingly admitted that in a world characterized by constant change and growing complexity, problems could hardly be solved without an understanding of the larger contexts framing them. An interdisciplinary and collaborative approach was indispensable. This was a guiding principle of the design of broadly based education programs connecting architecture, urban design and city planning, through which collaboration of students from diverse design disciplines with different ways of thinking and working would be encouraged. This would help make students far more cognizant of the architect's role not merely as the designer of individual buildings, but as a competent member of a team of professionals concerned with the creation of the built

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[739] Hudnut, June 1934, 166.
[740] "Education of the Architect: The Architects' Committee Reports on Columbia's School of Architecture," June 1934, 165.
[741] Perkins, Nov., 1962, 95.

environment. The aim was to develop "a common basis of thought and habit" that would "assure their concentrated effort."[742]

Interdisciplinary study and collaborative efforts would achieve success provided that each member was well-qualified in taking into account the possible consequences of their thoughts and actions for broader contexts. This qualification can be related, in essence, with the essential goal of higher education to develop open-minded and socially responsible individuals. It was underlined that the development of a sense of individuality did not stand apart from the recognition that individuals are members of a social community. Socially responsible architects, it was pointed out, would be competent and willing to affect change in the creation of a more livable built environment. In this perspective, the mid-twentieth century architect was also regarded as "community architect," a term that reflects a growing acknowledgment of the civic purposes of architecture.[743] Architecture was to fulfill the emerging needs of the society as much as the demands of the profession. The major task of a school of architecture, thus, was to equip its students "not as narrowly trained technicians isolated from the growth of their time, but as citizens conscious of their communal responsibility and able to use their special knowledge and skill in its discharge."[744]

It is important to mention that the mid-twentieth century orientations in architectural education marked a constant search for balance. A balanced architectural curriculum was considered as a key in achieving the envisioned goals delineated above. As underlined by Hudnut, the issue was to establish "a true relation between the various branches of study -- design and construction, construction and mathematics, drawing and design, design and history."[745] This dissertation has also addressed the discussions about integrating liberal education into architectural education and including liberal arts courses in architectural curricula. It has been emphasized that academicians saw the necessity of architecture programs well-grounded in humanities and social sciences for advancing students' intellectual growth.

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[742] Joseph Hudnut, "Architecture's Place in City Planning," *Architectural Record* 97, no. 3 (March 1945): 71.

[743] Clarence S. Stein, "Communities for the Good Life," *The Journal of the American Institute of Architects* 35, no.3 (March 1961): 31.

[744] Hudnut, June 1934, 163.

[745] "Education of the Architect: The Architects' Committee Reports on Columbia's School of Architecture," June 1934, 165.

Within this framework, the place of history and theory courses in architectural curricula in the mid-twentieth century was a critical issue, which was not addressed in the dissertation but deserves to be mentioned here. A re-emphasis placed on architectural history in the education of an architect was pointed out in a 1957 issue of *Journal of Architectural Education*: "Architectural history, ignored during the past two decades as part of the process of learning and doing architecture, is again assuming its place in architectural education."[746] What was valued was the virtue of architectural history for the development of "a fuller understanding of the experience of the past [that] can enrich our architectural sensitivity."[747] In Hudnut's view, "the modest task of the professor of the history of architecture" was to "court them [students of architecture] into aesthetic experiences, startle them into observation and new impressions, awaken them to the splendor of the art they have so fortuitously embraced."[748] In his article "History's History" Lawrence B. Anderson underscored that earlier, in the late 1930s, criticism raised by the modernists was that history courses encouraged students to copy the "historical styles."[749] They were seen as an impediment to the development of students' creative capacities. Anderson remarked that as architecture programs became embedded in universities, architectural history courses regained emphasis under the umbrella of "historical studies."[750]

In the last part of Chapter 4, an attempt was made to discover the opportunities and constraints facing architectural education carried out in the university context. Architectural education was under the influence of the uneasy relationship between liberal education and progressive education and of the liberal tradition of American higher education on

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[746] Minoru Yamasaki, "History and Emotional Expression," *Journal of Architectural Education* 12, no.2 (Summer 1957): 8.

[747] Ibid.

[748] Joseph Hudnut, "On Teaching the History of Architecture," *Journal of Architectural Education* 12, no.2 (Summer 1957): 6.

[749] Lawrence B. Anderson, "History's History," in *The Education of an Architect: Historiography, Urbanism, and the Growth of Architectural Knowledge*, ed. Martha Pollak (Cambridge Mass. and London, England: The MIT Press, 1997), 441. In a similar vein, Standford Anderson points to the criticisms raised against architectural history and gives a concise overview of the place of history courses in architectural education facilitated in leading American research universities, including Cornell, MIT, University of California Berkeley, University of Pennsylvania, Princeton, Virginia and Harvard. See Standford Anderson, "Architectural History in Schools of Architecture," *The Journal of the Society of Architectural Historians* 58, no. 3 (Sep., 1999): 282-290.

[750] See, Anderson, 1997, 440. Anderson remarked that in the post World War II period, there was a growing academic interest in the "world situation" and "national concerns," which also fostered a growing interest among architect-academicians in historical studies. History and theory of architecture gained significance as areas of specialization. He mentioned Wurster, Venturi and Scott Brown as leading figures who contributed to scholarship in these areas in the 1960s.

professional programs embedded in research universities. It was emphasized that, narrow specialization would be avoided and a broad educational basis would be created by integrating liberal arts studies to professional programs. Liberal education would help cultivate a mental discipline in students, which was essential for their development as open-minded individuals, professionals and citizens.

As underlined by Geiger, O'Mara and Sachs, research policies of the federal government in the postwar period was informed by Cold War politics.[751] Domination of "technical rationality" and the quest for scientific research framed the broader intellectual context of the institutionalization of research in shools of architecture positioned in the university context.[752]

Architectural education in the university context assumed a role in the creation of a body of knowledge specific to architecture. In pursuit of new knowledge, schools of architecture were seen to provide a ground for researchers and scholars to carry out architectural research and to encourage scholars from other fields related to architecture to participate in architectural research in research institutes or centers. The mission of these newly emerging units in the universities was not limited to help advance architectural knowledge. They also aimed to coordinate research and teaching activities and enhance the learning experiences of both teachers and students.

A key issue addressed in architectural education was to encourage academicians to be actively involved in both research and professional practice. The experiences derived from the processes of methodological investigation and architectural practice were seen to contribute to achieving excellence in teaching. As underlined by Leatherbarrow, Perkins recruited the faculty at the University of Pennsylvania GSFA on the basis of such a profile of instructors.

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[751] The progress of science could not escape the political impetus of the Cold War period in the US. Considering scientific progress as a key to achieve political authority and national security, the federal government turned its attention to the critical role universities could play in scientific innovation and provided funds for universities to carry out basic research projects. For a detailed examination of the research partnership between federal government and American universities in that period, see O'Mara, 2002; Geiger, 2004.

[752] For Schön's critical discussions on technical rationality and what he called an "epistemological battle" in modern research universities, see Donald A. Schön, *The Reflective Practitioner (*New York: Basic Books, 1983); Schön, 1992, 119-139.

What is more, in accordance with the universities' mission to serve the public, schools of architecture as part of universities increasingly concerned themselves with urban and communal affairs. The city and the urban community became an experimental setting for teaching, learning and research activities and help academics, student and researchers get in touch with the realities of everyday life.

5.2 Recurrent Themes in the 21st Century Educational Discourse

The general picture delineated throughout this dissertation on the emerging new directions in architectural education in the mid-twentieth century has an integrative role. This role lies in its significance in the development of a broader perspective in which these directions can be understood in the light of today's scholarship of architectural education, in particular, and higher education, in general. Such a wider perspective opens the way to draw thematic connections between the mid-twentieth century and the 21st century. It helps re-situate ongoing institutional efforts on the subject of educational reform into a historical context. It sheds light on the historical references of concepts addressed in today's scholarly discussions. In this way, recurrent educational themes can be distinguished and their transformation over time can be traced. It is apparent that certain problem areas, both in architectural education and higher education, continue to exist while transforming in present day circumstances. All these help better understand that implementation of educational change necessitates a long period of time. However, during this long period of time, we may observe enduring principles and values that guide the endeavors to respond to emerging demands and growing complexities of the era.

The mid-twentieth century debates pointed to manifold dimensions of newly emerging approaches to architectural education, which were not institutionalized yet. It is hard to say that the concepts that constituted the core of these debates were clearly defined. Neither the definitions made were univocal. This point was on the agenda of the September 2007 issue of the *JAE* devoted to recent conceptions of the relationship between design and research in architectural education, in which it was underlined that there was no shared definition of research in the 1950s. It can hardly be stated that there were coordinated institutional efforts to implement change in architectural education. Nevertheless, there was a consensus among leading scholars of the day, some of whom also served as administrators in influential

schools of architecture in America in that period, on the idea that change in attitudes towards educating architects was an imperative, not a preference.

The mid-twentieth century pointed to the essential qualifications that the students of architecture were to attain in order to respond to the changing role and widening responsibilities of the architect. It can be argued that these debates had much in common with the ongoing debates in the global, European and local contexts framed through the concept of "competences" -- distinguished as "generic" and "subject specific" (or discipline specific). The idea that architectural education was to foster intellectual as well as professional development of students was a focus also of mid-twentieth century debates. It was increasingly admitted that intellectual and personal development of students should not be conceived independently from their development as competent professionals. In this last part of the dissertation, it has been argued that this outlook shares some essential principles with the new focus on students' "learning outcomes" in defining the goals of architectural education today.

This is a period in which contemporary debates in the field of architectural education need to be evaluated in relation to the ongoing transformation in higher education. The initiatives to realize change in architectural education can be better understood within the wider perspective of the attempts to redefine the overarching goals of higher education. The necessity of designing and developing higher education programs capable to respond to growing complexity and changing needs of today's society is an underlying motive.

In this context, the profound transformation in European higher education that was accelerated with the Bologna Declaration of 1999 for "the development of a coherent and cohesive European Higher Education Area by 2010" and the articulation of "an overarching framework of qualifications for the European Higher Education Area" deserves to be mentioned.[753] These developments constitute a general framework for evaluating ongoing initiatives in architectural education in European countries including Turkey who participated into the Bologna Process in 2001. Bologna Process also frames the broader

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[753] See, "Realising the European Higher Education Area" (Communiqué of the Conference of Ministers responsible for Higher Education, Berlin, Germany, September 19, 2003), http://www.bologna-berlin2003.de/pdf/Communique1.pdf (accessed August 10, 2010), 1 and 4.

context of ongoing legislative, institutional and scholarly efforts in Turkey to develop a National Qualifications Framework for Architectural Education.[754]

In his book *The Challenge of Bologna* Paul L. Gaston underlined that the higher education reforms of the Bologna Process marked "a critical shift in the educational paradigm from a focus on what is taught to what is learned."[755] This shift was based on a perspective directed toward a "student-centered" or "learner-centered" approach. In the educational process, the center of attention is the student as learner, and thus, emphasis is placed more on learning than on teaching. "Learning outcomes" and "competences" frame the conceptual basis of proposals concerning curriculum and pedagogy.[756] This perspective is based on a definition of learning as "a cumulative process where individual gradually assimilate increasingly complex and abstract entities (concepts, categories, and patterns of behavior or models) and/or acquire skills and wider competences."[757] The enduring legacy of constructivist learning theory is obvious.[758]

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[754] Two research projects conducted at METU Faculty of Architecture, Research and Implementation Center for Built Environment and Design (RICBED) deserve to be mentioned as part of the institutional efforts partaking in the initiatives for the development of National Qualifications Framework for Architectural Education in Turkey as a member country: "A Strategy for Developing a National Qualifications Framework for Architectural Education – Preliminary Project" (July-December 2007) and a recently completed project titled "Planning and Design in Action for a National Qualifications Framework for Architectural Education and Competence-Based / Learner-Centered Curricula for the Bachelor, Master, Doctorate Cycles" (July 2008-March 2010). These two projects were developed and proposed by Assoc. Prof. Dr. Aközer, Assist. Prof. Dr. Mine Özkâr, Assoc. Prof. Dr. Selahattin Önür, and Assoc. Prof. Dr. Ercan Kiraz as an initiative of the research unit "Strategy Development in Education and Research" of the RICBED. The projects were funded by The Scientific and Technological Research Council of Turkey (TUBITAK), the Social Sciences & Humanities Research Grant Committee (SOBAG).

[755] Paul L. Gaston, *The Challenge of Bologna* (Sterling, Virginia: Stylus Publishing, 2010), 175.

[756] Learning outcomes is defined as "the set of knowledge, skills and/or competences an individual has acquired and/or is able to demonstrate after completion of a learning process" and competence as "the ability of individuals to combine -- in a self-directed way, tacitly or explicitly and in a particular context -- the different elements of knowledge and skills they possess." It is remarked that "[a]cquiring a certain level of competence can be seen as the ability of an individual to use and combine his or her knowledge, skills and wider competences according to the varying requirements posed by a particular context, a situation or a problem." See, Commission of the European Communities, "Commission Staff Working Document Towards a European Qualifications Framework For Lifelong Learning" (report published by Commission of the European Communities, Brussels, July 8, 2005, SEC (2005) 957), http://ec.europa.eu/education/policies/2010/doc/consultation_eqf_en.pdf (accessed August 10, 2010), 11.

[757] Ibid., 10.

[758] Catherine Twomey Fosnot, and Randall Stewart Perry remarked that "[constructivist] theory of learning and development is the basis of current reform movement." Elaborating on how learning is defined according to this theory, Ernst von Glaserfield stated: "learning is a constructive activity that

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In her preface to *The University and its Disciplines* Carolin Kreber noted:

> … There is now a growing awareness that in a world characterized by rapid change, complexity and uncertainty, problems do not present themselves as distinct subjects but increasingly within trans-disciplinary contexts, thereby calling for graduate outcomes that go beyond specialized knowledge and skills. Moreover, notions such as 'employability' and 'personal development planning' feature prominently in higher education policy documents in the UK and elsewhere, many countries now perceive a need for higher education to play a profound role in contributing to a socially responsible (in the sense of critically aware rather than just complaint) citizenry. For these reasons it was an equally important goal to situate discussions of academic learning … within the wider perspective of complex graduate outcomes.[759]

The above mentioned observations pointed to the driving forces of the Bologna Process in which the four major responsibilities of higher education are defined: "preparation for the labour market," "preparation for life as active citizens in a democratic society," "personal development" and "the development and maintenance of a broad, advanced knowledge base."[760] From this viewpoint, the central question that should be addressed is "how academic learning within a particular disciplinary setting can help students acquire the skills, abilities and dispositions they need to succeed academically, and also in their professional, civic and personal lives."[761]

The answer to this question points to a conception of learning as both "context-specific" and "context-transcendent."[762] It underlines the significance of acquiring a balance between

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the students themselves have to carry out. From this point of view, then, the task of educator is not to dispense knowledge but to provide students with opportunities and incentives to build it up." See, Catherine Twomey Fosnot, and Randall Stewart Perry, "Constructivism: A Psychological Theory of Learning" in *Constructivism; Theory, Perspective and Practice*, ed. Catherine Twomey Fosnot (New York and London: Teacher's College, Columbia University, 2005), 8; Ernst von Glaserfield, "Introduction: Aspects of Constructivism" in *Constructivism; Theory, Perspective and Practice*, ed. Catherine Twomey Fosnot (New York and London: Teacher's College, Columbia University, 2005), 7.

[759] Carolin Kreber, Preface to *The University and its Disciplines: Teaching and Learning Within and Beyond Disciplinary Boundaries* (New York and London: Routledge, 2009), xvii.

[760] Bologna Working Group on Qualifications Frameworks, "A Framework for Qualifications of the European Higher Education Area," (report published by Ministry of Science, Technology and Innovation, Copenhagen, February 2005), http://www.bologna-bergen2005.no/Docs/00-Main_doc/050218_QF_EHEA.pdf (accessed August 10, 2010), 23

[761] Kreber, 2009, xviii.

[762] Carolin Kreber, "Supporting Student Learning in the Context Of Diversity, Complexity and Uncertainty," in *The University and its Disciplines: Teaching and Learning Within and Beyond Disciplinary Boundaries* (New York and London: Routledge, 2009), 4.

"generic" and "discipline-specific" competences in higher education. It is argued that education programs designed for a specific discipline should aim "introducing students to the ways of thinking, the concepts, procedures and practices characteristics of disciplinary communities," at the same time endowing them with "skills, abilities and dispositions that help them make informed decisions, self-manage their affairs -- including their learning -- and act in a socially responsible ways to work as well as in wider society."[763]

The main argument of Gaston's recently published book is that there are several lessons that American educators and educational administrators can draw from the Bologna Process, at a time when the need for "a comprehensive higher education reform in the United States" is at issue. In her foreword to Gaston's book, Carol Geary Schneider, who is the President of AAC&U, remarked that the ongoing initiatives in Europe and US met on the common ground of the same problematic issue; that is "how to move … toward a more contemporary focus on educational purposes, enabling practices and actual learning outcomes as the new standard for educational quality in the 21st century."[764] Paralleled by the guiding principles of the Bologna Process, colleges and universities in the US have seen an increasing demand for "a far reaching probe for the connections between disciplinary and cross-disciplinary study" in order to respond to the rise in problem complexity today.[765] Within this framework, emphasis in higher education is placed on "building graduates' capacities to work in real-world settings and to make effective judgments in contexts of uncertainty" and "the creation of a productive connection between knowledge and practice."[766]

It is apparent that Dewey's educational philosophy and progressive pedagogy and the principles of democratic education continue to be influential in defining the goals of higher education. Intellectual, personal and professional development of students and the cultivation of a sense of social responsibility are still on the agenda of administrators and academicians involved in the Bologna Process in Europe and in the American initiatives for reform in higher education. Facilitating the development of students as "integrative thinkers and doers" is seen indispensable for addressing central problems in professional education.[767] Liberal

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[763] Ibid., 3 and 7.
[764] Carol Geary Schneider, foreword to *The Challenge of Bologna*, by Paul L. Gaston (Sterling, Virginia: Stylus Publishing, 2010), xiv.
[765] Ibid., xvi.
[766] Ibid.
[767] Huber and Hutchings, 2004.

education is valued as a prerequisite for professional learning, as it was the case more than half a century ago. Shulman argued that "[t]he recurrent challenge of all professional learning is negotiating the inescapable tension between theory and practice."[768] Today, there is an increased emphasis on the importance of practical experiences in initiating and enhancing active and effective learning. In the field of architectural education, the notion of "research by design" frames the ongoing discussions on the relationship between design and research, which are carried on an epistemological basis. The opportunities and constraints facing architectural education that stem from its position in the context of modern research university are still important issues.

What Abrams and Perkins envisioned was undoubtedly progressive for the 1950s Turkey. Their projects reflected the concerns of ongoing developments in higher education, in general, and architectural education, in particular, in America in that period. The foundation of a school of architecture and community planning that would constitute the core of a technical university was seen to offer the ideal institutional conditions to implement their educational ideals and to instill the principles and values that underlie them. It is these principles and values that set the basis of METU Department of Architecture's stance in the ongoing change processes in architectural education. These principles and values became reference points for the Department in its continuous attempt to acquire and maintain high quality in academic and professional learning and to develop responsible and responsive undergraduate and graduate programs. In *Graduate Catalog of Middle East Technical University Department of Architecture, 2008 / 2010*, Dean Pamir stated: "I believe the future is somehow embedded in our academic values we shared and consistently developed among ourselves and the universal mind, throughout the last 52 years."[769]

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[768] Lee S. Shulman, "Theory, Practice, and the Education of Professionals," in *The Wisdom of Practice: Essays on Teaching, Learning and Learning to Teach*, ed. Suzanne M. Wilson (San Francisco: Jossey-Bass, 2004), 531.

[769] Haluk Pamir, "Dean's Letter: Continuing Academic Values into the Future" *Graduate Catalog of the Middle East Technical University Department of Architecture, 2008 / 2010*, Middle East Technical University, Department of Architecture, http://www.archweb.metu.edu.tr/extras/downloads/catalog-17aralik2008-lowres.pdf (accessed November 2, 2009)

Almost 40 years earlier, Abrams noted: "Training is a long and tedious process, but there are no shortcuts. Ventures like METU are indispensable and, it is hoped will continue to find a prime place among Turkey's interests…"[770]

From the day of its foundation, METU Faculty of Architecture achieved a distinguished place in the history of higher education and of architectural education in Turkey. This institution witnessed the educational consequences of the fundamental changes in political, social and cultural histories of the country. Maintaining its formative educational ideals, METU Faculty of Architecture acted in response to the changing dynamics of architectural education, within and outside Turkey.

This dissertation proposed that to know more about the Faculty's foundation period help better grasp its position within the process of change in architectural education, both in national and international contexts. It shed light on the formative educational ideals of METU Faculty of Architecture, which continue to characterize its ongoing practices. It underlined the fact that, in its founding period, the architecture program inaugurated at METU Faculty of Architecture became a locus of the paradigm shift in higher education.

Looking at the reports Abrams and Perkins prepared for the Turkish Government from a critical distance of almost six subsequent decades, we can appreciate the foresight of the projects they envisioned. It becomes possible to recognize the value of the ideals pursued by these two UN experts for the formation of the educational direction of METU Faculty of Architecture in its founding years, and the maintenance of this direction in the Faculty's continuing progress.

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[770] Abrams, 1969, 208.

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APPENDIX A

THE FOUNDATION OF METU FACULTY OF ARCHITECTURE IN THE TURKISH PRESS

Bir mimarî okulu tesis için 3 yabancı profesör geliyor

Associated Press

Birleşmiş Milletler (New York) 12 — Birleşmiş Milletlerden bildirildiğine göre, Ankarada kurulacak olan mimarlık mektebinin plânlarını hazırlamak üzere üç Amerikan mütehassısı çarşamba günü Türkiyeye hareket edeceklerdir. Türkiye hükûmeti, Birleşmiş Milletler teknik yardım idaresi vasıtasile bu mütehassısların yardımını istemiştir. Türkiye hükûmeti, Birleşmiş Milletler teknik yardım idaresi vasıtasile bu mütehassısların yardımını istemiştir.

Türkiyeye giden mütehassıslar şunlardır: Pennsylvania üniversitesi güzel sanatlar mektebi dekanı G. Holmes Perkins ve aynı mektebin profesörlerinden George Howe ve Leon Loschetter. Howe, Paristeki Ecole des Beaux Arts'dan mezundur. Loschetter aslen Lüksemburgludur. Heyete Perkins başkanlık edecektir.

Fig. A.1. "Bir Mimari Okulu Tesis İçin 3 Yabancı Profesör Geliyor (3 Foreign Professors are coming for the Establishment of an Architectural School)."*Vatan*, April 13, 1955: 3.

Üç Amerika'lı profesör geliyor

Birleşmiş Milletler (Nevyork) 12 a.a. — Pensilvanya Üniversitesi Güzel Sanatlar Okulundan üç profesör, Birleşmiş Milletlerin teknik yardım programı çerçevesinde Ankara'ya giderek bir mimari ve şehircilik okulunun kurulması hususunda tetkiklerde bulunacaktır. Bu mütehassıslardan biri güzel Sanatlar Okulu Dekanı Holmes Perkins'tir. Perkins 13 Nisan'da Türkiye'ye hareket edecektir. Diğeri Yale Üniversitesi mimari kısmının eski şefi George Hewe ve üçüncüsü de Leon Loschetter adında Lüksemburglu bir mütehassıstır.

Heyetin başlıca vazifesi şehircilik meselelerinde yetkili bir personel teşkil etmek ve bunu müteakip mühendisler ve diğer teknisyenleri yetiştirmek olacaktır.

Fig. A.2. "Üç Amerikalı Profesör Geliyor (Three American Professors are Coming)." *Halkçı*, April 13, 1955: 3.

Şehrimizde tesis edilecek şehir ve köy akademisi

[Zafer İstihbaratı]

Maarif Vekâletince Ankara'da kurulmasına karar verilen şehir ve köy Mimarisi Akademisinin tesis hazırlıklarına başlamak üzere Amerikan Pensilvanya Üniversitesi Şehir ve Köy Mimarisi Fakültesi Dekanı Holmes Berkin, bir kaç gün evvel şehrimize gelmiş ve Vekâletle temaslarına başlamıştır.

26 Nisan Salı günü saat 10 da Maarif Vekâletinde yapılacak toplantıya hazırlık olmak üzere, Holmes Berkin, evvelki gün, şehir ve köylerimizdeki inşaatı görmek maksadiyle otomobille İstanbul'a gitmiştir.

Mr Holmes Berkin, İstanbul'da, Teknik Üniversite Fen Fakültesi ile temaslara başlıyacaktır. Bu arada, Mr. Berkin, İstanbul'a gelecek olan diğer bir mütehassısla da görüşmelerde bulunacaktır.

Şehir ve Köy Mimarisi Akademisinin kuruluşu ile ilgili olarak üçüncü mütehassıs bu ayın sonlarına doğru şehrimize gelmiş olacaktır. Şehrimizde yapılacak olan toplantılara katılacak Türk Komitesi seçilmiş bulunmaktadır.

Fig. A.3. "Şehrimizde Tesis Edilecek Şehir ve Köy Akademisi (An Academy of Village and Town that Will Be Established in Our City)." *Zafer*, April 22, 1955: 3.

Ankara'da

Mimarî ve şehircilik
mektebi kurulacak

Mektebin plânlarını hazırlamak üzere üç Amerikalı mütehassıs
memleketimize geliyor

Birleşmiş Milletler, New-York, 12. (A.P.) — Birleşmiş Milletlerden bildirildiğine göre, Ankarada kurulacak olan mimarlık mektebinin plân-larını hazırlamak üzere üç Amerikan mütehassısı. Çarşamba günü Türkiyeye hareket edeceklerdir.

Türkiye hükûmeti, Birleşmiş Milletler teknik yardım idaresi vasıtasiyle bu mütehassısların yardımını istemiştir.

Mütehassıslar Türkiyede üç ay kalacaklardır. Mektepte evvelâ mimarî ve şehircilik tedris edilecektir. Fakat Türkiye hükûmeti ileride mühendislik ve diğer teknik tetkikler şubelerini de ilâve etmek ümidindedir.

Fig. A.4. "Ankara'da Mimari ve Şehircilik Mektebi Kurulacak (A School of Architecture and City Planning will be Founded in Ankara)." *Yeni Sabah*, April 13, 1955: 3.

Ankara'da bir Teknik
Üniversite Kuruluyor

Ankara'da kurulacak Mimarî Akademi, Teknik Üniversite için bir başlangıç olacak

[Nedret Selçuker - Hususi Muhabirimiz]

ANKARA, 29 — Bir kaç yıl içinde Ankara'da da bir Teknik Üniversitenin faaliyete geçmesi mümkündür. Bazı kimseler yakında tesis edilecek Bölge Mimari Akademisinin bir Teknik Üniversite için nüve vazifesi göreceğini belirtmektedirler.

Maarif Vekâletinde, Vekilin başkanlığında bugün de toplantılarına devam eden komite, hâlen bu akademiye bir şekil vermekle meşguldür. 3 - 4 ay evvel de böyle bir toplantı yapılmış ve ilk tasarı hazırlanmıştı.

Memleketin toplu kalkınma faaliyeti için lüzumlu teknik elemanlar bu akademide yetiştirilecektir. Ancak bazı maarifciler bunun sadece mimarî tedrisat yapmasına muarızdır. Bu itibarla okulun va-sat derecede mimar ve mühendis yetiştirici evsafta bir teknik okul ve ileride teşkilâtlandırılmak suretiyle bir teknik üniversite haline ifrağı arzu edilmektedir. Komitede bu cihet, münakaşalara yol açmıştır. Okula Bölge Teknoloji Enstitüsü adı verilmesi de muhtemeldir. Okulun tedrisatı bilhassa şehir ve köy mimarisi üzerinde teksif edilecektir. Okulun kuruluşu ile Birleşmiş Milletler Kültür Teşkilâtı da meşgul olmaktadır. Malî imkânlar bu kanaldan temin edilecektir.

Amerikan Pensilvanya Üniversitesi Mimarî Fakültesi dekanı Prof. G. Holmes Perkins, Bölge Plâncılığı başkanı Von Wilhelm V. Moltkl, Pensilvanya Üniversitesi Güzel Sanatlar Akademisi Mimari doçenti Leon Loschetter de toplantılara iştirak etmektedir.

Fig. A.5. "Ankara'da bir Teknik Üniversite Kuruluyor (A Technical University is Being Founded in Ankara)." *Milliyet*, April 30, 1955: 3.

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Maarif Vekâletinde dün yapılan toplantıdan bir görünüş

Mimarî Akademisinin kuruiuş hazırlıkları

Dün, Maarif Vekâletinde Türk ve Amerikalı mütehassısların iştirakiyle ilk toplantı yapıldı

[ZAFER İstihbaratı]

Maarif Vekâletinin memleketimizde kurulması kararlaştırılan Şehir ve Köy Mimarisi Aka- | demisi ile ilgili çalışmalar dün başlamıştır.

Bu münasebetle, dün saat 10
(Sonu Sa: 7, Sü: 8 de)

Mimarî Akademinin kuruluş yıldönümü

(Baştarafı 1 inci sayfada)
da, Maarif Vekâletinde, Müsteşar Osman Faruk Verimer'in riyasetinde, Türk ve Amerikalı mütehassıslardan müteşekkil' komite ilk toplantısını yapmıştır.

Bu komitede, yabancı uzmanlardan, Pensilvanya : Üniversitesi Mimari Fakültesi Dekanı Profesör G. Holmes Perkins, Bölge Plâncılığı Başkanı Von Wilhelm V. Molfke, Pensilvanya Üniversitesi, Güzel Sanatlar Akademisi Mimari Doçenti Leon Loscheiter hazır bulunmuşlardır.

Toplantılara, bugün saat 16 dan itibaren, Maarif Vekili Celal Yardımcı'nın riyasetinde devam edilecektir.

Fig. A.6. "Mimari Akademisinin Kuruluş Hazırlıkları (The Founding Preparations of the Academy of Architecture)." *Zafer*, April 27, 1955: 1 and 7.

Orta Doğu Teknik Üniversitesine dair lâyiha verilecek

Hususi Muhabirimizden

Ankara 15 — Ortadoğu Teknik Üniversitesinin kurulması husu sunda Maarif Vekâleti tarafından hazırlanan kararname sureti Ve killer Heyeti tarafından tasvip olunmuş ve bu hayırlı iş bu su

Orta Doğu Teknik Üniversitesi

retle kuvveden fiile çıkmıştır. Or tadoğu Teknik Üniversitesi di ğer üniversitelerimizden farklı yeni bir teşekkül olduğu için hü kûmet bu mevzuda Meclise bir kanun lâyihası sunacaktır.

Ortadoğu Teknik Üniversitesi önümüzdeki tedris yılından iti baren faaliyete geçecektir. İlk tedrisatına kiralayacağı binalarda başlıyacak ve talebe adedi 200 250 arasında olacaktır. Profesör lerin çoğu Amerikadan temin e dilecek, lisan ingilizce olacak ve Maarif Vekâletinin mürakabesi altında bulunacaktır. Üniversi tenin malî portesi Birleşmiş Mil letlerden Amerikanın yabancı memleketlere ayırdığı yardım dan ve hükûmetimiz tarafından temin edilecektir. Bütün Ortadö ğu devletleri talebelerinin tahsi line açık bulunacak olan Üniver sitede Amerikada olduğu gibi ta lebeler ücrete tâbi tutulacaklar dır. Üniversite tamamlandıktan sonra en az 10 bin talebeyi ted ris etmeğe müsait bulunacaktır. Bu sebeple Üniversite sitesi için şehrimizde 2000 dönümlük arazi nin temini ile meşgul olunmakta dır.

Fig. A.7. "Orta Doğu Teknik Üniversitesine Dair Layiha Verilecek (A Motion on Middle East Technical University will be Submitted)." *Vatan*, May 16, 1955: 1 and 7.

Yeni tip tören: Orta-Doğu Teknik Üniversitesinin temeli dün kazıldı

Ankara'daki merasimde Bayar, Koraltan ve Menderes ile diğer davetliler temel kazıcı makineyi kullandılar

265 milyona çıkacak üniversiteye ilk 10 yılda 6 bin talebe alınacak

Ankara 2 (Hususi) — Türkiye'de ilk defa "temel atma yerine, bir temel kazma,, töreni bugün Ankara'nın 20 kilometre dışında, yüksekçe bir tepe üzerinde inşa edilecek Orta-Doğu Teknik Üniversitesi için yapılmıştır.

Bu törende temel kazılırken, devlet büyükleri ve elçiler davetlilerin huzurunda temel kazan makineyi kullanmak bakımından bir de imtihan geçirmişlerdir.

Temel kazan "ekskavatör,, makinesini ilk defa Reisicumhur Celâl Bayar kullanmıştır. Teknisyenler kendisine nasıl temel kazacağını tarif etmişler, o da buna muvaffakıyetle yapmıştır. Sonra B.M.M. Reisi Refik Koraltan makineyi çalıştırmak üzere Ekskavatörün makinist yerine oturmuştur. Koraltan, temeli kazmış fakat kazılan yerden çıkan toprağı bırakırken bu hareketi çok âni yapmış, makinenin ırgatındaki telleri birden boşaltmıştır. Daha sonra aynı şekilde temel kazıcı makineyi kullanan Menderes, Amerikan Sefiri, Birleşmiş Milletler temsilcisi ve İngiliz Maslahatgüzarı iyi not almışlardır. En sonunda sıra Ürdün Sefirine gelmiş, birinci hareketi doğru yapan Ürdün Büyük Elçisi, son harekette yanlış bir kolu kullanmak suretiyle makineyi yerinden hareket ettirmiş, o esnada feci bir kaza olmasını hemen yetişen teknisyenler güçlükle önleyebilmişlerdir.

HUSUSİYETLERİ

Temel kazma merasiminde bir konuşma yapan Maarif Vekili Tevfik İleri'nin vurduğu izahata göre, bu Teknik Üniversitenin ilk 10 senede 6000 talebesi olacaktır. Üniversite için hazırlanan 10 senelik plâna göre, ceman 265 milyon lira sarfedilecektir. Peyderpey devam edilecek inşaatın büyük bir kısmı 1959 senesinde tamamlanacak, şimdi tedrisata devam eden Mimarî, Şehircilik, Makine mühendisliği, Atom fiziği, İnşaat mühendisliği, Amme idaresi, İş endüstrisi bölümleri 1959 da yeni binaya taşınacaktır. Bu Üniversitede bütün Orta-Doğu memleketlerinden gelecek talebeler de okuyabileceklerdir.

Fig. A.8. "Yeni Tip Tören: Orta-Doğu Teknik Üniversitesinin Temeli Dün Kazıldı (The Foundations of Middle East Technical University has been Laid Yesterday)." *Hürriyet*, October 3, 1957: 1.

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Orta-Doğu Üniversitesi temeli atıldı

Törende Bayar ve Menderes hazır bulundu. Başvekil bir ekskavatörü kullandı

ANKARA, HUSUSİ

Ortadoğu Teknik Üniversitesinin temeli, dün saat 16 da Ankara'dan 15 kilometre kadar mesafede bulunan yeni sahasında yapılan merasimle atılmıştır.

Merasime katılan Cumhurreisi Celâl Bayar, B.M.M. Reisi Refik Koraltan ve Başvekil Adnan Menderes, temel atma töreninde kullanılan bir ekskavatörü bizzat kullanmışlardır.

Törende, Adliye Vekili Hüseyin Avni Göktürk, Maarif Vekili Tevfik İleri, meb'uslar, Üniversite Rektör ve profesörleri, Vali ve Belediye Reisi, İl Genel Meclisi üyeleri, diğer sivil ve askeri erkân hazır bulunmuşlardır. Ayrıca Birleşmiş Milletler temsilcisi Mr. Weltz, Amerika, İngiltere ve Ortadoğu memleketlerinin elçileri de merasime katılmışlardır.

ÜNİVERSİTENİN VASFI

Bu üniversite, gelişmekte olan Ortadoğu'nun ihtiyaçlarının karşılanmasına hizmet edebilecek bir milletlerarası üniversitenin eksikliğini gidermek maksadiyle kurulmaktadır. Bir makine mühendisliği kısmını ihtivâ eden Mühendislik Fakültesi, geçen ilkbaharda açılmıştı.

Üniversite nihayete erdiği zaman, 6 fakülte, 12 den fazla kısmı ve sınaî ve zıraî problemler sahasında bir geliştirme ve tatbiki araştırma programıyle her fakülte ve kısmın akademik faaliyetini destekleyecek tam teçhizatlı bir araştırma merkezi hâlini alacaktır. Birleşmiş Milletlerin yardımıyle kurulan üniversiteye İngiltere 25.000 sterlin yardımda bulunmuştur. Üniversite tedrisatı İngilizce olarak yapılacaktır.

Yapılan merasime İstiklâl Marşı ile başlanmış ve müteakiben söz alan Maarif Vekili Tevfik İleri, kurulan üniversitenin ehemmiyetini belirten bir konuşma yapmıştır.

Fig. A.9. "Orta-Doğu Üniversitesi Temeli Atıldı (The Foundation of Middle East University has been Laid Out)." *Milliyet*, October 3, 1957: 1.

Türkiye'nin 5. Üniversitesi bu sabah Ankara'da açılıyor

"Orta-Doğu Üniversitesi" nde dersler İngilizce olarak verilecek

Üniversite masraflarının yüzde 20 sini 5 sene müddetle Birleşmiş Milletler ödeyecek

Ankara, 14 (Hususî) — Maarif Vekili Ahmet Özel bu akşam saat 18 de Ankara Gazeteciler Cemiyetinde yaptığı basın toplantısında Türkiye'nin beşinci üniversiteye kavuşacağını ve yarın sabah açılış merasimi yapılacağını bildirmiştir.

Vekilin verdiği izahata göre "Ankara - Orta-Doğu Üniversitesi" adıyla faaliyete geçecek olan bu üniversitede tedrisat İngilizce yapılacaktır. Yabancı profesörlerden ikisi memleketimize gelmiş bulunmaktadır. Yarından itibaren "Orta Doğu Teknoloji Enstitüsü" adı ile faaliyete geçecek olan bu müessese, B.M.M. sinde bulunan kanun tasarısının tasdikinden sonra "Ankara - Orta-Doğu Üniversitesi" unvanını alacaktır.

Masraflarının yüzde 20 si beş sene müddetle Birleşmiş Milletlerce ödenecek olan üniversiteye 300 talebe müracaat etmiştir. Yarın ancak 50 talebe ile tedrisata başlıyacak olan müessesenin Türk profesörleri de peyderpey temin edilmektedir. Bu üniversite şimdilik "Mimarî" ve "Şehircilik" branşlarında faaliyete geçecektir.

Fig. A.10. "Türkiyenin 5. Büyük Üniversitesi Bu Sabah Ankara'da Açılıyor (The Fifth Biggest University of Turkey is Opening This Morning)." *Hürriyet*, November 15, 1956: 3.

ORTA-DOĞU TEKNOLOJI ENSTITÜSÜ AÇILIYOR

[HUSUSÎ MUHABİRİMİZDEN]

ANKARA, 14 — Birleşmiş Milletler Teşkilâtının yardımı ile tesis edilen Orta Doğu Teknoloji Enstitüsü yarın saat 10.30 da törenle açılacaktır.

Bu münasebetle bu akşam Ankara Gazeteciler Cemiyeti salonunda bir basın toplantısı tertip eden Maarif Vekili Ahmet Özel, yeni Enstitünün kısa bir zaman sonra -Orta Doğu Teknik Üniversitesi- hüviyetini alacağını ifade etmiş ve demiştir ki:

-Büyük Millet Meclisine sunulan bir tasarının kanunlaşması sonunda Enstitü, Orta Doğunun en büyük Teknik Üniversitesi haline getirilecektir.-

Üniversitenin tedrisata başlaması dolayısiyle daha evvel açılmış bulunan lisan imtihanına 300 kişi girmiş, fakat sadece 50 kişi muvaffak olabilmiştir. Yeni Enstitüde tedrisat İngilizce olarak yapılacaktır.

Fig. A. 11. "Orta-Doğu Teknoloji Enstitüsü Açılıyor (Middle East Institute of Technology is Opening)." *Milliyet*, November 15, 1956: 3.

Ortadoğu Üniversitesi Ankara'da açılıyor

Bu husustaki kanun lâyihası Mcclise gönderildi. Üniversite yüksek vasıfla teknik eleman yetiştirecek

Maarif Vekâleti tarafından tanzim edilmiş olan istatistiklere nazaran, memleketimizdeki okul adedinin 19.122 ye çıkarılmış olduğu bildirilmektedir.

Buna muvazi olarak son senelerdeki talebe adedinde de büyük bir ilerleme kaydedilmiş ve hâlen mevcut talebe adedi 2 milyon 116 bine baliğ olmuştur.

«Ankara Orta Doğu Teknik Üniversitesi» nin ilk hazırlıklarının süratle ikmal edilerek bir ân evvel faaliyete geçirilmesi için girişilen çalışmalar da tamamlanmıştır. Bu mevzu ile ilgili olarak hazırlanan bir kanun lâyihası Büyük Millet Meclisine sevkedilmiş bulunmaktadır.

Ankara Orta Doğu Yüksek Teknoloji Okulu adı altında bu günlerde faaliyete geçirilecek olan bu yeni müessese, lâyihanın kanunlaşmasını müteakıp Üniversite haline girecek ve mevcut şubeleri de fakülte olarak taazzuv edecektir.

Ankara Orta Doğu Teknik Üniversitesi, memleketimizin içerisinde bulunduğu sanayileşme ve imar devrinin muhtaç olduğu yüksek vasıfta teknik eleman teminine büyük ölçüde hizmet etmiş olacaktır.

Fig. A. 12. "Orta Doğu Üniversitesi Ankara'da Açılıyor (Middle East University is Opening in Ankara)." *Akşam*, November 14, 1956: 3.

Orta Doğu Teknik Üniversitesi : Ankara'da kurulan Orta Doğu Teknik Üniversitesi düp törenle açılmıştır. Törende B. M. M. reis Koraltan ve Bakanlar hazır bulunmuşlardır. Resimde Koraltan açılış töreninde görülüyor. (Foto Muammer Taylak)

Fig. A. 13. "Orta Doğu Teknik Üniversitesi (Middle East Technical University)." *Akşam*, November 16, 1956: 1.

DRAFT FOR ARCHITECTURAL, AND CITY AND REGIONAL PLANNING
CURRICULA FOR METU FACULTY OF ARCHITECTURE, PREPARED
BY PERKINS, LOSCHETTER AND VON MOLTKE

Fig. A.14.

CURRICULUM VITAE

PERSONAL INFORMATION
Surname, Name: Yorgancıoğlu, Derya
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EDUCATION
Degree	Institution	Year of Graduation
M.Arch	METU Architecture	2004
B.Arch	YTU Architecture	2000
High School	Famagusta College, TRNC	1996

WORK EXPERIENCE
Year	Place	Enrollment
2006-2010	METU-RICBED, Ankara	Research Fellow
2000-2002	PEMA LTD.CO. Istanbul	Architect

FOREIGN LANGUAGES
Turkish (mother tongue), English (fluent), German (beginner)

PUBLICATIONS
1. Yorgancıoğlu, Derya. "Steven Holl: A Translation of Phenomenological Philosophy into the Realm of Architecture." In *Invitation to ArchiPhen; Some Approaches and Interpretations of Phenomenology in Architecture*, eds. Iris Aravot and Eran Neuman (The Center for Architectural Research and Development, Technion, I.I.T. Haifa, Israel, 2007), 25-27.
2. Yorgancıoğlu, Derya. "Yirminci Yüzyılın İlk Yarısında Bauhaus Fikirlerinin Amerika'daki Yolculuğu (The Travel of Bauhaus Ideas in America in the First Half of the Twentieth Century)." In *Bauhaus: Modernleşmenin Tasarımı* (Bauhaus: The Design of Modernization), eds. Ali Artun and Esra Aliçavuşoğlu (Istanbul: Iletişim Publications), 153-168.

INTERESTS
Year	Interest
2005-2006	AFSAD photography seminars
1999	Watercolor drawing atelier of Prof. Dr. Bülent Çetinor, YTU.
1998	Free hand and sketch atelier of Prof. Dr. Necati İnceoğlu, YTU.