

The English Garden and National Identity

The Competing Styles of Garden Design,
1870–1914



ANNE HELMREICH

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Introduction



During the last quarter of the nineteenth century and opening decades of the twentieth century, fiery debates about styles and forms of English gardens intersected with notions of national identity. The leading styles of garden design sought validity through recourse to the label *English*, and the garden was adopted as a symbol of national identity.

This study is grounded in the premise that gardenscapes do not communicate universal values irrespective of time or place, but that each culture endows garden forms with particular sets of meanings and, within that culture, those meanings, and therefore vehicles that express them, are contested and not fixed. The notion of “reading” the garden – treating garden features like semantic devices that can communicate to those familiar with their language – is both a historical practice and a productive mode of historical inquiry. The latter requires understanding, on the one hand, the vocabulary of the discipline and, on the other hand, the broader social, economic, and political context in which that syntax was deployed.¹ The researcher must work both diachronically and synchronically, investigating how the forms or syntax of the garden changed over time and how these changes were embedded in historical events. This study adopts such an approach, looking at changing garden styles during the period 1870–1914 as reflective of both internal debates within the discipline of garden design and broader debates within the culture at large. Briefly stated, varying garden styles can be understood, or “read,” concomitantly as expressions of the competing professional agendas of different kinds of designers (such as gardeners or architects) and articulations, through the vehicle of nature, of competing visions of the nation.

Gardens addressed here are those typically associated with what is called the

small country house. Difficult to define, this house stands between the mansion and the cottage and is closest in sensibility to the villa, which J. C. Loudon defined as “nothing more than a park with a house of smaller size than that of the *mansion* and *demesne*, surrounded by a pleasure-ground, and with the usual gardens.”² Architect Ernest Newton, reflecting in 1912 on the previous fifty years of house building, explained that interest in the “smallish house” rather than “country seats” or “noblemen’s mansions” defined modern domestic architecture as did a revival of the art of garden design (referring to ornamental or pleasure grounds, distinguished from parkland or utilitarian spaces).³

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The revival to which Newton referred encompassed a range of styles linked with nationalities – such as English, Italian, Japanese – that have been richly discussed by Brent Elliott in *Victorian Gardens* (1986) and David Ottewill in *The Edwardian Garden* (1989). The intent of this volume is not to replace these period overviews but rather to address the broader issue of the cultural context in which these styles emerged. What drove stylistic choices? How are artistic form and social, political, and economic change related? Concentrating on these questions gives rise to the issue of Englishness and garden styles that emerged to express desired perceptions of the nation.

For purposes of this study, the garden is considered not just in its physical manifestation, as a locus, but also in its represented form. This allows analysis, as W. J. T. Mitchell has advised, of how “landscape *circulates* as a medium of exchange, a site of visual appropriation, [and] a focus for the formation of identity.”⁴ During the period 1870–1914, publishing and the print media grew exponentially with the application of new industrial techniques to the business and craft of printing as well as reduced costs of raw materials. Writings about gardens, whether in horticulture or design journals, treatises, novels, literary journals, newspapers, or pamphlets, proliferated in this environment. Authors and publishers took advantage of new technologies of mass reproducing wood engravings and later, photographs, to issue relatively inexpensive, well-illustrated texts so that word and image, sometimes in concert and sometimes in opposition, constituted the meanings of gardens. Gardens thus became the concern of not just a small elite, who previously had most ready access to treatises and other print material related to gardens, but also a broad literary audience that extended into the respectable working classes.

A discourse, the garden also behaves as a myth, holding forth promises of harmony with nature. Myth is innocent, Roland Barthes claims, “not because its intentions are hidden . . . but because they are naturalized.” The garden is a perfect example: seemingly without politics, its meanings are always described by its firsthand observers as obvious and commonplace. Of course, as Rudyard Kipling stated, “our England is a garden.” But we should take heed of Barthes’s warning that “the most natural object contains a political trace.”⁵ Thus it is useful to con-

ceive of the garden as embodying a collection of ideologies, sometimes contradictory, bundled together and put to numerous uses. At the turn of the century, the latter included counterbalancing fears of change, accentuating desires for an alternative way of life, harmonizing and smoothing over differences, or accentuating them. Through these processes, the garden became constitutive of national identity.

The question of what constitutes a nation is not answered easily, yet scholars make frequent recourse to the notion of a collective form of identity. Ernest Renan, in his essay “What Is a Nation” (1882), argued that “to have common glories in the past, a common will in the present; to have accomplished great things together, to wish to do so again, that is the essential condition of being a nation.”⁶ Max Weber rested the definition of the nation on the concept of shared values, sentiments, and “memories of a common political destiny.”⁷ Walker Connor has pointed out that “the nation is a self-defined rather than an other-defined grouping,” to which one could add that in self-defining, the nation often sets itself apart from what are identified as Others.⁸ John Hutchinson and Anthony D. Smith insist that nationalism is best understood as an ideological movement with both “political and cultural dimensions” that emerges out of a collective, unified drive for independence and depends on identification of a shared, distinctive culture and territory.⁹

The revolutions of the late eighteenth century, stemming out of philosophies of the Enlightenment, are therefore often argued to be the founding moments of nationalism. Nationalism burgeoned in nineteenth-century Europe, with its reaction against the forced internationalism of the Napoleonic Empire, revolutions for greater political equality, wars of territory, and colonial expansion. Nationalism is, in short, a specifically modern movement. Ernest Gellner situates the rise of nationalism at the point of transition from an agrarian to an industrial age, pointing out that industrialization – with its implicit demand for and reward of stabilization and standardization, and its ability to shrink distances metaphorically – concomitantly required and produced a cultural homogeneity bound up in nationalism.¹⁰

These definitions of national identity that point inexorably to the role of culture have been cited here intentionally. Although national identity has long been conceived as the result of political acts and pronouncements, Gellner and other scholars, such as Benedict Anderson and Eric Hobsbawm, have demonstrated that cultural practices are crucial in defining and shaping national identity. Gellner, for example, argued that “nationalism is a political principle which maintains that similarity of culture is the basic social bond” so that national communities, generally speaking, are defined “in terms of shared culture.”¹¹ According to Anderson, nationalism or nation-ness are “cultural artefacts of a particular kind” emanating from the condition of the nation as “an imagined political commu-

nity.”¹² He points to how cultural expressions, in particular print language, which possesses an inherent capacity for “generating imagined communities, building in effect *particular solidarities*,” create ties that bind communities. He has also called attention to how institutions – such as the map, the census, and the museum, which “profoundly shaped the way in which the colonial state imagined its domain” – also produce national identity.¹³ To this list can be added images, specifically landscape images that imagine the topography and scope of the nation and represent it back to itself.¹⁴ As a category of landscape imagery, the garden had particular resonance as a means of imagining nation-ness. An enclosed space devoted to cultivation and display of plants, the garden mirrored the notion of nationhood as a bounded territory designated for a particular set of peoples.

The garden, in the period considered by this account, also functioned as an invented tradition: “a set of practices, normally governed by overtly or tacitly accepted rules and of a ritual or symbolic nature, which seek to inculcate certain values and norms of behaviour by repetition, which automatically implies continuity with the past” and include such symbols as the national flag or anthem that signified membership in the exclusive club of nationhood. Invented traditions thus create a sense of community, as well as to “establish or legitimize institutions, status or relations of authority” and to instill “beliefs, value systems and conventions of behaviour.”¹⁵ The garden implied continuity with the past as well as membership within the exclusive club of Englishness, and it set in place value systems with significant ideological importance. Like many invented traditions, the garden and the act of gardening also served as means by which to manage the transitions and stresses inherent in modernity as well as establishing a community based on shared interests.

The role of invented traditions is like that of cultural nationalism as defined by John Hutchinson. Cultural nationalism denotes how society defines the nation through “its distinctive civilization, which is the product of its unique history, culture and geographical profile”; the activities of cultural nationalists include “naming rituals, the celebration of cultural uniqueness and the rejection of foreign practices,” which create a sense of unity. Hutchinson concludes,

cultural nationalists should be seen . . . as moral innovators who see, by “reviving” an ethnic historicist vision of the nation, to redirect traditionalists and modernists away from conflict and instead to unite them in the task of constructing an integrated distinctive and autonomous community, capable of competing in the modern world.¹⁶

Gerald Newman asserts that the eighteenth century proved the ideal breeding ground for English nationalism, given the existing bonds of people to the

land and to an increasingly unified culture and Protestant religion, the growth of the middle classes, the existence of a threatening enemy, the desire for order in a period of extreme change, and fear of imminent decline.¹⁷ Yet some of these same factors, in particular the long-standing antagonism between France and Britain (the latter formed by the union of England and Scotland in 1707), created a sense of Britishness, according to Linda Colley, who argues that Great Britain “was an invention forged above all by war. Time and time again, war with France brought Britons, whether they hailed from Wales or Scotland or England, into confrontation with an obviously hostile Other and encouraged them to define themselves collectively against it.” Patriotism was fueled by the rhetoric required to assemble, bind together, and activate a fighting force. Colley goes on to observe that Britishness existed as a sort of veneer, “superimposed over an array of internal differences”; and its presence waxed and waned as forces binding the different nations of England, Wales, and Scotland together appeared and disappeared.¹⁸ Throughout the history of the United Kingdom, created in 1801 by the forced joining of Ireland to Britain, what Hugh Kearney has described as “ethnic politics” has been at work.¹⁹ The tearing at the bonds linking the four nations of Britain continued apace into the nineteenth century, fueling the discourse that linked gardens and Englishness.

In the following discussion, Chapter 1 sets forth the historical context and considers the conflicting tropes – workshop of the world or green and pleasant land – by which England was characterized over the second half of the nineteenth century. Succeeding chapters address key episodes in the history of garden design from 1870 to the Great War, which put an end to a certain kind of garden making with the rising costs of labor and other economic reconfigurations. The period 1870–1914 was characterized by intense debates about garden design, which, at their most polarized, pitched informal against formal, peasant styles against aristocratic styles, and nature against architect. This book argues that these debates, and the design principles at stake, were indelibly shaped by the quest for a powerful English national identity.

The beginning of the controversy can be located in 1870, when William Robinson first published his treatise on the wild garden. Chapter 2 investigates Robinson’s approach to garden design and how it was embedded in contemporary scientific and aesthetic practices as well as social concerns. To legitimize his aesthetic, Robinson turned to cottage gardens, considered in Chapter 3. The studied informality of cottage gardens, with their connotations of the amateur, are in marked contrast to formal gardens, yet both were promoted as essentially English and became ingredients in turn-of-the-century designs. Chapter 4 addresses the formal garden, a mode of design largely advocated by architects who cast aspersions on Robinson and his fellow landscape gardeners.

The tension between formalists and naturalists erupted into a battle of the styles, analyzed in Chapter 5 not just as a function of conflicting design principles but also as a product of history and its writing. This fiery debate signifies the high stakes faced by garden designers at the end of the nineteenth century. Yet certain critics at the time questioned the validity of the stylistic debate, because they believed a paradigmatic style had emerged, one that fused the formal and natural and thus acknowledged both existing modes of garden designs while rising above the brawl. To support their assertion, these critics pointed to the work of Gertrude Jekyll and Edwin Lutyens. Chapter 6 examines Jekyll's relationship to English rural culture as evidenced in her writings and garden design and analyzes how her work offered readers a national aesthetic based on local practices. Chapter 7 examines a selection of sites designed by Jekyll and Lutyens and establishes how the team drew on motifs already in circulation while also providing innovative solutions to design problems. This book demonstrates that in a period when artists, writers, musicians, politicians, and numerous others embarked on a search for English identity, the garden was an essential vessel for this voyage of discovery.