

**United States Department of the Interior**  
National Park Service

**National Register of Historic Places**  
**Multiple Property Documentation Form**

This form is used for documenting multiple property groups relating to one or several historic contexts. See instructions in *How to Complete the Multiple Property Documentation Form* (National Register Bulletin 16B). Complete each item by entering the requested information. For additional space, use continuation sheets (Form 10-900-a). Use a typewriter, word processor, or computer to complete all items.

New Submission  Amended Submission

**A. Name of Multiple Property Listing**

School Buildings in Nevada

**B. Associated Historic Contexts**

Education in Nevada 1857-1958 (State of Nevada)  
School Architecture in Nevada 1857-1958 (State of Nevada)  
Education in Southern Nevada and the Evolution of the Fifth Supervision School District, 1861-1942  
(Clark, Lincoln, Nye, Esmeralda Counties; see 1991 MPS listing)  
Schoolhouse Architecture in Southern Nevada's Fifth Supervision School District, 1870-1942 (Clark,  
Lincoln, Nye, Esmeralda Counties; see 1991 MPS listing)

**C. Form Prepared by**

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**D. Certification**

As the designated authority under the National Historic Preservation Act of 1966, as amended, I hereby certify that this documentation form meets the National Register documentation standards and sets forth requirements for the listing of related properties consistent with the National Register criteria. This submission meets the procedural and professional requirements set forth in 36 CFR Part 60 and the Secretary of the Interior's Standards and Guidelines for Archeology and Historic Preservation. ( See continuation sheet for additional comments.)

David M. Gamm, SHPO  
Signature and title of certifying official

1-8-08  
Date

State or Federal Agency or Tribal government

I hereby certify that this multiple property documentation form has been approved by the National Register as a basis for evaluating related properties for listing in the National Register.

Signature of the Keeper

Date of Action

**United States Department of the Interior**  
National Park Service

**NATIONAL REGISTER OF HISTORIC PLACES**  
**CONTINUATION SHEET**

Section   E   Page   1  

School Buildings in Nevada  
name of multiple property listing

---

**Section E: Statement of Historic Contexts**

The large spaces between communities in Nevada, and great swings in population and economies in these communities due to mining boom and bust cycles, affected schools significantly. Many, if not most, of Nevada's communities were established first as mining camps or supply centers to the mines and workers. Some of these evolved to become incorporated communities with local government and local schools; others became urban centers with established business, maintained roads, courthouses and elaborate school buildings (Wright and Bernstein 1989:28-3). Still other communities were virtually abandoned within a few years of ore discovery.

Many schools in Nevada are eligible under Criterion A, primarily for their role in Education, but also for Community Planning and Development. School construction and funding thereof is often an obvious indication of the development of the community through time. Further, local citizens are always proud of their schools, whether it be the learning taking place there, athletic accomplishments, or the physical building itself.

***Early Settlement Education***

The state's first school was established in a settlement once called Mottsville, near the Mormon townsite of Genoa, Nevada's first permanent Euroamerican settlement. Mottsville was located in the center of Carson Valley (Douglas County), and was a crossroads for several ranching and farming families who settled early in the fertile valley at the base of the Sierra Nevada mountains. Eliza Mott and "Mrs. Allen" first taught students at Motts' home during the winter of 1853-1854, seven years prior to Nevada gaining territorial status. Carson Valley was settled by Mormons as part of their Church's attempt to expand the State of Deseret to the California state line. In 1857 Brigham Young recalled the Mormon faithful back to Salt Lake City; most of Carson Valley's residents left their settlements at that time.

Out of the early schooling efforts at Mottsville came Nevada's (pre-statehood and pre-territorial status) settlers' first attempt to form a public school system. Carson County (including Carson Valley, Eagle Valley, and Washoe Valley) was divided into four districts in 1857, and the first building to be used exclusively as a school was built soon afterward in Franktown in Washoe Valley, two valleys north of Mottsville. These valleys at the eastern base of the Sierra Nevada were the main areas of Euroamerican settlement in Nevada prior to the discovery of the Comstock Lode at Virginia City in 1859.

***Territorial Period 1861-1863***

Early in this nation's history public schools were mandated and land was designated for the development of school buildings. A Land Ordinance was passed by Congress in 1785 which designated Sections 11 and 36 in each Township as reserves for schools. Although the federal government assigned the lands to be used solely for education, it remained the local governments'—municipal, county or state—responsibility to fund the construction and operation of the facilities.

**United States Department of the Interior**  
National Park Service

**NATIONAL REGISTER OF HISTORIC PLACES**  
**CONTINUATION SHEET**

Section   E   Page   2  

School Buildings in Nevada  
name of multiple property submission

After witnessing the amazing amount of wealth generated on the Comstock, Nevada's settlers applied for territorial status and received it from the U.S. government in 1861. The newly-formed territorial legislature created the Superintendent of Public Education office and designated county superintendents (Wright and Bernstein 1989:28-5).

During Nevada's territorial period, no funds were appropriated for education; however the legislative act called for ten percent of all monies paid into county coffers to be used to pay teachers' salaries (Harvey 2005:16). This meant school buildings had to be donated or usually, built "on the cheap." In other words, the financial burden for educating Nevada's children was laid on local communities. Predictably, this system was adequate during the boom times, and not so adequate when county treasuries went bust along with the mines. Often it was too onerous for local governments to commit to its citizens' long-term educational needs (Harvey 2005:17).

***Statehood 1864–1907***

After statehood in 1864, Nevada's legislature reconsidered the state's educational system, and wrote into the state constitution provisions to elect (later, amended to appoint) the Superintendent of Public Instruction, and to levy a state school tax (Harvey 2005:17). However, financing schools still rested mainly on local shoulders.

The first report to the State Legislature by the first State Superintendent Reverend A.F. White noted that prior to statehood, Nevada had twelve school districts, eight school buildings and eighteen schools with roughly 1,000 students. By the time Nevada entered the U.S. officially as a state, there were twenty primary schools and seventeen additional schools in operation (Thompson and West 1958:227, 291, in Wright and Bernstein 1989:28-6-7).

During the mining bust of the 1870s and 1880s in Nevada, the state legislature cut the budget for county superintendents and moved that responsibility to the county District Attorneys, making them 'ex officio' county superintendents with no additional pay. Ultimately this resulted in very little local control over schools for the next twenty years, until 1907, with the state flush with revenue again after the strikes in Tonopah (1900) and Goldfield (1902), when the State Legislature decided to address education in Nevada again (Garrison et al. 1990:17).

Prosperous times in Nye and Esmeralda counties necessitated large schools for the larger boom towns. Schools built in the Goldfield/Tonopah area during the early twentieth century boom there include Goldfield High School (1907), West Crook Street School in Goldfield (1908), Silver Peak School, Esmeralda County (1912) and Manhattan School (Nye County) in 1912.

When school census takers enumerated students for the legislature, they counted Euroamerican, non-Hispanic children only. Through legislative act in 1865, Native American, African American, and learning-disabled children (deaf, blind, mute) were not to be schooled with white children, but counties could establish separate schools for "Mongolians, Indians, and Negroes" (Elliott 1987:392). In 1866, Dr. Waterman opened the first school for blacks in Virginia City and twenty-nine students enrolled. The 1865 law segregating school children wasn't followed however, due to a simple lack of funds for separate schools. In 1872 the state supreme court ruled the 1865 state law illegal (Elliott 1987:392).

**United States Department of the Interior**  
National Park Service

**NATIONAL REGISTER OF HISTORIC PLACES**  
**CONTINUATION SHEET**

Section  E  Page  3

School Buildings of Nevada  
name of multiple property listing

Schools in rural Nevada took on many forms of size and organization. In 1865 the state legislature provided for the establishment of schools for as few as five students and school maintenance for as low as three students. At times, this resulted in many small, independently-run schools with no centralization or much oversight dotting the rural landscape; other times school districts were organized solely for the purpose of educating one family's children (Wright and Bernstein 1989:28-8). By 1876, the State Superintendent saw this as a looming problem in rural Nevada (State of Nevada 1877).

Although much is written about the role of mining in Nevada's history of development, agriculture played an integral role in determining settlement patterns as well. The eastern Sierra Nevada and northern Nevada river basins were the most intensely farmed, but agricultural enterprises were also found in southern Nevada, near the scarce water sources. Many agricultural centers were established to supply mining centers, but they were more stable, with steady populations, than mining centers. This resulted in school buildings with one or two rooms in each community. In southern Nevada, the agricultural centers of Pahrump, Bunkerville, Overton, Logandale, Alamo, Caliente and Mesquite all had school buildings built between 1910 and 1925 (Osmon and Woodward 1991).

In even more remote areas in Nevada, where large ranches were established, home-schooling or a version thereof was the practical way to educate the ranchers' children and those of hired help if they also had families. Hot Creek School House (ca. 1880), Robert's Creek School House (1890), and Blue Eagle Ranch School House (1920) in Nye County are examples of ranch schools (Osmon and Woodward 1991:E-7).

As in many states in the western U.S., railroads necessitated the location of some communities along the line, due to maintenance and freighting needs of railroads. Although the size of towns along rail lines varied, the workers' families eventually needed schools (Osmon and Woodward 1991:E-8). In southern Nevada, Caliente and Las Vegas were the largest settlements along the San Pedro, Los Angeles, and Salt Lake RR (SP,LA&SL); in northern Nevada the largest railroad settlements along the Central Pacific RR (later the Southern Pacific) line were Reno, Sparks and Elko. There were many small communities along the northern and southern rail lines, established as maintenance centers or supply centers. Often the larger towns began with small single school houses, only to add schools later in their development as the communities grew in size. For instance, Las Vegas began with a solitary school house in 1905 (population in 1910: 849), and built the Westside Elementary in 1923 (population in 1920: 2,304) and Las Vegas High School in 1930 (population in 1930: 5,165) (U.S. Bureau of the Census 1910, 1920, 1930).

A serious economic downturn occurred in Nevada, beginning in the late 1880s and not ending until the 1902 gold rush to Tonopah and Goldfield. The 1892 report to the Legislature by Superintendent Orvis Ring indicated due to sharp declines in population statewide, no new schools should be built in de-populated areas. Schools in good condition, he reported, were found in Virginia City, Gold Hill, Reno, Eureka, Dayton, Belmont, Hawthorne, and Winnemucca. A total of 256 schools existed at the time of the 1892 report, seventeen identified as unfit for occupancy (Wright and Bernstein 1989:28-12).

Although many mines in northern and central Nevada had gone bust by 1880, there was a quick-lived "building boom" in school houses around the state, 1886-1890. Eighteen facilities were built during this period (including the Golconda School in 1888). Although populations declined, mining towns were vacated, and claims quit producing,

**United States Department of the Interior**  
National Park Service

**NATIONAL REGISTER OF HISTORIC PLACES**  
**CONTINUATION SHEET**

Section  E  Page  4

School Buildings of Nevada  
name of multiple property listing

---

certain communities weathered the downturn with diversified economies. Supply centers like Reno and Winnemucca, for instance, had continuous needs to educate students with their growing populations. Although mining centers were motivated to build schools and their citizens proud of their investments in education, when families moved out of town wholesale to search for the next big discovery, the schools were shuttered along with other infrastructure.

***High Schools***

Although the legislature provided for high schools in the 1865 law, the first high schools were not established until 1874 in Virginia City and Gold Hill (Mork 2006:3). In 1895 the state legislature enacted law providing for county high schools. Elko County High School was the first county high school constructed in the state, in 1895-1896. County-wide taxes were levied in order to relieve the burden of meeting this provision from local communities' revenue, spreading it across all county residents (Mork 2006:3).

In Nevada's early years, high school education was difficult to pursue. There were only three high schools in the state in 1876, not one in Reno. Private high schools became an option, especially for families wishing to further educate their daughters (sons were commonly sent out of state to private schools). Bishop O.W. Whitaker noted this lack of opportunity and opened the Whitaker School for Girls in 1876, with donations from the Reno community and the Episcopal church. The three-story building had instructional kitchens, a gymnasium, living quarters for servants, classrooms, administrative offices and a forty-two room dormitory (Wright and Bernstein 1989:28-10). Other religious schools in Nevada at the time included the Prisk Seminary in Austin and St. Mary's and St. Joseph's Catholic schools in Virginia City.

***Universities in Nevada***

The 1862 Morrill Land Act passed by U.S. Congress allowed for 30,000 acres of federal land to be donated for the establishment of state universities for each U.S. Representative that state had. Further provisions of the Morrill Act included that instruction in "agriculture, mechanic arts and mining" be available at state universities. In Nevada, not until 1873 did the burgeoning town center of Elko (population 1,000) successfully bid to be the site of the new university, outbidding other communities of Reno and Winnemucca (Wright and Bernstein 1989:28-11).

As part of their bid, the Elko community (including the Central Pacific RR) offered to donate four blocks of land in town on which to construct Nevada's first university campus. Oakland-based architect Clinton Day designed the large two-story brick building and contractors J.B. Fitch and James McBurney built it. Completed in 1874 for \$20,000, the building accommodated 100 students. Classes began in October 1874 with eight entering students, four boys and four girls. There were sixteen students the next year, and although attendance was small, three university regents proposed construction of a dormitory which was completed in January 1876, for \$7,000 (Wright and Bernstein 1989:28-11). It housed up to twenty students; most were from Elko and not in need of campus housing. Students from families in Nevada that encouraged college educations often went to the larger and well-established universities in California.

**United States Department of the Interior**  
National Park Service

**NATIONAL REGISTER OF HISTORIC PLACES**  
**CONTINUATION SHEET**

Section  E  Page  5

School Buildings of Nevada  
name of multiple property listing

After the original Principal of the Preparatory Department of the University of Nevada at Elko, D.R. Sessions, resigned in 1878, the Reno daily newspapers began criticizing the decision to locate the state university in Elko, by pointing to low enrollment and quality of education (Wright and Bernstein 1989:28-12). Several communities were interested in the income and prestige a university brings. After much debate and negotiating, the city of Reno won over the legislature with its promise to pay Elko from some lost income and funds to open a new university. The legislature required the regents to purchase ten acres for the new campus site, using the Morrill Act land grant entitlement, with “an option” on ten additional acres (Hulse 1974:24). The University was relocated in Reno in 1885 after construction of Morrill Hall and the Agricultural Experiment Station on the new twenty-acre campus site. Not until 1969 was a community college established in Elko, the first higher education facility in eastern Nevada in over eighty years.

Nationwide, as state universities were established during the 1870s and 1880s, they often faced a common dilemma. Too few students were educated beyond the elementary grades, although in more densely-populated areas of the upper Midwest and Atlantic seaboard, preparatory schools were developed for students with plans for higher education (Hulse 1974:27). By the end of the 1880s, high schools were the new and preferred tool for pre-collegiate learning.

Nevada had only seven high schools in 1886, the first year of classes at the Reno campus, so initially the regents included a preparatory curriculum. This “university high school” model was employed at University of Nevada until 1908.

In 1894 there were still only five buildings on campus—typically, the downturn in Nevada’s mines in the 1880s affected university funding for construction, among other things. By 1900, there were eleven buildings on campus, due to aggressive funding requests by university president Joseph E. Stubbs (1894-1914) and private funding sources (Hulse 1974:32). The university had also acquired a sixty-acre farm plot for the Agricultural Extension. However, student enrollment remained steadily low, at about three hundred.

A notable benefactor to the university was responsible for much of the early campus development. Clarence Mackay, son of “Comstock King” John Mackay, along with his mother, donated funds for construction of the Mackay School of Mines at the university. They also commissioned a statue commemorating Mackay’s service to the state and his extraordinary success in the Comstock mines (Doten 1924:108). Clarence Mackay also hired gardeners and engineers to design and plant the quadrangle that fronts the Mackay School. The Classical Revival building was dedicated in June 1908. Then in 1909 Mackay dedicated the university’s first stadium, complete with training quarters. Due to Mackay’s gifts, pride in the new campus rallied legislators to appropriate additional funds for other construction projects, including a greenhouse for plant-related studies and an addition to the girls’ dormitory that doubled its size. Campus-wide landscaping projects added to overall community pride, and an electrical engineering building was built in similar Classical Revival style to the Mackay School of Mines, in 1911 (Doten 1924:117).

The historic core of the University of Nevada’s Reno campus was listed in the National Register in 1987, under Criterion A for Education and C for “the quality and unity of design” architecturally, of the assemblage (Wright and Bernstein 1989:28-25). It includes thirteen contributing buildings constructed between 1886 and 1945, on forty acres.

**United States Department of the Interior**  
National Park Service

**NATIONAL REGISTER OF HISTORIC PLACES**  
**CONTINUATION SHEET**

Section  E  Page  6

School Buildings of Nevada  
name of multiple property listing

The Mackay School of Mines was listed individually in 1982, for its association with Education and early Twentieth-Century Mining (Criterion A) and Criterion C for architecture. It was designed by William Symmes Richardson of McKim, Mead and White; a 1926 addition was designed by Nevada's preeminent architect, F. J. DeLongchamps.

Max C. Fleischmann and his foundation is recognized as the most important benefactor of Nevada's universities in the mid-twentieth century. During the 1940s, Fleischmann established a gift fund for university scholarships worth approximately \$160,000 and donated a 258-acre dairy farm in the Reno vicinity (along with equipment and cows) and \$150,000 in operational funds to serve as the College of Agriculture laboratory. After his death in 1951, trustees of the Max C. Fleischmann foundation granted the university \$2,500,000 to construct new College of Agriculture and School of Home Economics buildings, to be named after Mr. and Mrs. Fleischmann. A few years later the Fleischmann Foundation paid for a life sciences addition to the agriculture building, while continuing scholarships to students, smaller grants for library books, scientific laboratory equipment, the acquisition of rare archival records, computers, etc.

Related to Fleischmann's support of expanding the university's educational opportunities is the Desert Research Institute (DRI). Established in 1959 as a branch of the university by the legislature, DRI was to "conduct and encourage research, to discover and develop research talent, and to disseminate knowledge developed in such enterprises" (Hulse 1974:89). Not much money was allocated by the legislature in the act, so most of the initial funds for development and implementation of DRI came from the Max C. Fleischmann Foundation. Today, DRI has off-campus facilities in both Reno and Las Vegas, and is considered worldwide to be a leader in desert environmental research.

The Fleischmann Foundation paid for the construction of three buildings in the northern portion of the Reno campus (Hulse 1974:234): Fleischmann Atmospherium-Planetarium, built in 1963 by Reno architect Raymond Hellman (listed in the National Register 09/22/1994), the Water Resources Building (1963) and the Judicial College Building. The Atmospherium was the first of its kind in the U.S., simulating weather patterns as well as nighttime sky projections.

The Max C. Fleischmann Foundation also gave major gifts to the budding University of Nevada-Las Vegas campus, including library book collections and partial funding for a new Center for the Performing Arts.

The first classes held at the southern extension of the University of Nevada in Las Vegas were in 1951. Then Nevada Southern College in Las Vegas was established in 1954 and in 1957, the first academic building, Maude Frazier Hall, named after "one of the most eloquent pleaders for education in all of the state's history" (Hulse 1974:63). This then became University of Nevada-Las Vegas (UNLV) in 1969. The first director of academic affairs at Southern Nevada was James Dickinson, a hand-picked English professor from the Reno campus. He had transferred to Las Vegas in 1951 as the first instructor to hold off-campus classes prior to establishment of a campus (Hulse 1974:62).

**United States Department of the Interior**  
National Park Service

**NATIONAL REGISTER OF HISTORIC PLACES**  
**CONTINUATION SHEET**

Section  E  Page  7

School Buildings of Nevada  
name of multiple property listing

---

Maude Frazier Hall, named after the preeminent (first woman) Fifth District (see below) Supervisor and Clark County Superintendent of Schools, is still extant and is the oldest building at UNLV. It is currently designated for demolition. The ten years following 1957 at the southern campus saw construction of approximately one building per annum. The original eighty acres that comprised the campus (currently it is 335 acres) were acquired through a questionable real estate venture: the seller, Estelle Wilbourn acquired the acreage at about \$100 from the U.S. government and then immediately sold it to the University for \$35,000 (raised from private donors), a reasonable price for eighty acres in 1955. The shady preliminary land deal and the state's unknowing participation in Mrs. Wilbourn's enrichment were only discovered afterward (see Hulse 1974:63-64).

The setting of the UNLV campus in a residential and commercial area gives the campus somewhat isolated feel. Most of the 20,000 students and all faculty and staff live all over Las Vegas Valley; there is no nearby residential area dominated by students and professors (residence halls are on campus for a mere 1,000 students). The campus buildings, not altogether cohesive, reflect work by local architects from the 1950s to the present, ranging in style from modern to post-modern (Nicoletta 2000:224). However, the landscape design utilizing native desert plants is an interesting way to tie the different buildings and areas of campus together.

### **Community Colleges**

First established as the "General University Extension" in 1964 to provide instruction in rural areas of Nevada, the off-campus university system became the Nevada Technical Institute in 1966. The Institute provided two-year coursework in various occupations. In 1971, the system was again re-organized when community colleges were established statewide, although Elko Community College predated the formation of the Community College Division by two years by opening with Board of Regent approval in 1969-1970 (Hulse 1974:83). In the autumn of 1971, the new campuses of Western Nevada Community College in Carson City and the Clark County Community College in Las Vegas, opened for classes. Today the Elko Community College is named Great Basin Community College.

### ***"Progressive Era" Education in Nevada 1907-1941***

In 1907, the state legislature passed the Reorganization Act, eliminating the County Superintendent position—filled by district attorneys since 1887—and created five supervisory districts each headed by salaried Deputy Superintendents. The requirement for the job included professional educator experience with set minimum qualifications (Garrison et al. 1990:16). Thus ended twenty years of little oversight of education in Nevada by county district attorneys who most likely had little experience in education or investment in the cause since they were mandated to supervise schools for no pay. No one could justifiably expect them to have excelled in improving education in the state. A state economy dependent on mining revenues may ultimately suffer, which in turn affects citizens of school age.

The Reorganization Act of 1907 enacted in Nevada shows how national progressive ideals (see Harvey 2005:17) in vogue at that time affected state education policy in Nevada. Progressivists in education argued that through consolidation of the nation's rural schools, students' learning experiences could become standardized through similar

**United States Department of the Interior**  
National Park Service

**NATIONAL REGISTER OF HISTORIC PLACES**  
**CONTINUATION SHEET**

Section  E  Page  8

School Buildings of Nevada  
name of multiple property listing

---

textbooks and schoolrooms (Garrison et al. 1990:16). President Teddy Roosevelt's formation of the Commission on Country Life in 1908 began a national debate about rural schooling that continued into the 1920s.

Still, it was difficult to consolidate rural schools in Nevada, partially due to the expansive space in the seventh largest state in the U.S. It was not feasible for students at ranches or in other remote areas to travel to schools in the nearest town until roads were improved. When the state legislature first created education mandates, they allowed for schools to be established for five or more students; this law remained in place until statewide district consolidation in 1956. Finally, some small communities resisted school consolidation because they saw losing the local school to be the same as losing the local character or identity (Garrison et al. 1990:17).

***The Great Depression in Nevada and the Rise of Federalism 1925–1944***

This period, identified by historians Dorothy Wright and Rick Bernstein (1989), includes the second major “bust” cycle in Nevada, and the federal work programs initiated by F.D. Roosevelt in 1933 to combat economic hardship in this country produced by the stock market crash in October, 1929. Beginning in 1925, Nevada's rural areas actually lost residents, a phenomenon that still exists in the state. Even the twentieth-century boom towns of Goldfield and Tonopah saw their school districts diminished and consolidated into single schools (Wright and Bernstein 1989:28-14). Only Reno and then-nascent Las Vegas experienced continued growth in the 1920s and 1930s, due in no small part to the huge federal works project of constructing Hoover [Boulder] Dam), and the loose residency requirements for divorce in Nevada, shortened by the state legislature first in 1927 to three months and again in 1931 to six weeks. Also in 1931, the legislature legalized gambling as a way to energize Nevada's economy during the Depression.

Nevada received a large amount of federal money during the Depression, vis á vis the size of its population. Established in 1935, the Works Progress Administration (WPA) oversaw construction and renovation of public buildings, among other projects, such as employing writers for published brief histories and artists for public art works. The WPA in Nevada paved 142 miles of new roads, repaired and upgraded another 900 miles of existing roads, built 133 public buildings and fifty bridges, in addition to renovating and/or modernizing schools, courthouses and community halls across the state. The Civilian Conservation Corps (CCC), a jobs program known for employing young men to work on conservation and natural resource-related infrastructure, had a vocational unit at the Stewart Indian School in Carson City. The “Indian CCC” also gave work to young Native American men in similar projects.

After passage of the Boulder Canyon Project Act in 1928, federal dollars began pouring into southern Nevada, although the act pre-dated the Depression and federal aid programs. Due to the remote location of the proposed hydroelectric dam that would be built and maintained by thousands of workers, the Bureau of Reclamation determined a new town site should be planned and built at the dam. This became Boulder City, an entirely government-planned and paid-for community. Because it was located on a “federal reservation” (Osmon and Woodward 1991:E-8) Boulder City was tax-exempt and had no way to raise revenues for schools. Congress appropriated \$70,000 for construction and operation of Boulder City Elementary (opened in 1932).

**United States Department of the Interior**  
National Park Service

**NATIONAL REGISTER OF HISTORIC PLACES**  
**CONTINUATION SHEET**

Section  E  Page  9

School Buildings of Nevada  
name of multiple property listing

---

Las Vegas also profited from the project at Boulder City, becoming its supply center of sorts, after 1930 (Osmon and Woodward 1991). World War II spawned more growth, especially in and around Las Vegas where the new Las Vegas Army Air Field (later Nellis AFB) and the Basic Magnesium plant brought more residents to the area. Although the WPA no longer functioned and there were budgetary restrictions during war time, the federal government continued funding the construction of schools because of its ties to the Las Vegas area through national defense-related programs.

Indeed, the Works Progress Administration (WPA) was the driving force behind school construction throughout Nevada, pushing the state's educational infrastructure toward the modern era. The WPA updated sanitation facilities for Nevada's rural population: nearly 1,100 "fly proof privies" were built with WPA labor throughout Nevada. Set on concrete slabs instead of dirt pits, the improved privies had tongue-and-groove siding and regular locks. Only three of these were built in southern Nevada; the remainder of the 1,100 were located in the north (Harvey 2005:20-21), and many were installed at rural schools.

In 1907 when the state legislature formed five supervision districts, enrollments were low, even given the expansive space covered by each. The largest district, the Fifth Supervision District, covered 40,000 square miles in Nye, Esmeralda, Lincoln and Clark counties. With post-WWII burgeoning populations especially in the south, the district was unwieldy, funding and rural district issues were raised and by the 1950s, the school system required reorganization.

***Post WWII: Tourism and Reforms in the Modern Era 1945–1958***

After WWII tourism became the pull factor for new residents moving to Nevada. With Nevada being the only state in the union with legalized gaming, Americans feeling secure again, and the modernization of technology and infrastructure happening nationwide, the gaming industry once again drew tourists and employees in the tourism industry to Nevada, especially Las Vegas. The post-war population tripled in Las Vegas and increased Reno's by fifty percent (Wright and Bernstein 1989:28-15). To meet education needs, Las Vegas passed large bond measures in order to accelerate the construction of school facilities.

By the mid-1950s Nevada's population had doubled in twenty years, thanks to tourism and defense industry growth in the southern part of the state. Rapid growth always adds pressure to public schools and other infrastructure, but added to approximately 200 school districts and growing needs for technical training in new jobs (Hulse 1991:282), schools in Nevada faced a looming crisis.

In January 1954, Governor Charles Russell called a special session of the legislature, in which officials approved "the most thorough analysis of the Nevada public education system ever conducted" (Hulse 1991:282). They hired Peabody College in Tennessee to analyze the state of schools and the way Nevada evaluates and funds those schools.

**United States Department of the Interior**  
National Park Service

**NATIONAL REGISTER OF HISTORIC PLACES**  
**CONTINUATION SHEET**

Section  E  Page  10

School Buildings of Nevada   
name of multiple property listing

Their conclusions consisted of the following:

- Too many districts, with many of those lacking resources to provide a full educational experience; 150 of 196 districts were deemed 'too small to provide a rich and varied instructional program' (Hulse 1991:283);
- out of 36 high schools, 22 were too small to offer vocational courses, music, art, adequate health service, libraries; further, the physical facilities were in poor condition; and
- the tax base was inadequate and unfair, since poor districts did not receive enough funding from the state, or any other source (Hulse 1991:283).

The report was difficult for Nevadans to accept. While they enjoyed the highest per capita income in the Far West, their schools received the lowest funding. Nevada schools actually declined in quality of education since the 1930s (Hulse 1991:283). Finally, citizens themselves demanded an overhaul of taxation and public schools. This resulted in Nevada's first state sales tax in its history: two percent retail sales tax on goods and services. Also approved in 1955 was the consolidation of the school districts into seventeen, one for each county. The added revenues were a welcome and tremendous boost to public education in Nevada.

***Indian Education and Schools***

Another aspect of education in Nevada that deserves discussion is the education of Native American youth. Various models were employed, and they changed through time as the Euroamerican settlers' perspectives of Nevada's Indians changed. This is seen in changes in education policy enacted in Nevada from its territorial period (1860s) through the modern era.

The first federal Indian school established in Nevada was at Nixon on the Pyramid Lake (Northern Paiute) Reservation in 1878, as a day school. The second to be established was in 1881 at the other reservation created through treaty in Nevada, Walker Lake (Northern Paiute). Both schools pre-date the creation of the Indian School Superintendent position in 1882 at the Indian Services' Education Division in Washington D.C. (Wall 1952:12). In that same year a day school was established for Western Shoshones in Nevada at Carlin Farms (outside Elko); a fourth was established at McDermitt near the Idaho border in 1886. In a 1885 report by the Commissioner of Indian Affairs, the need to centralize isolated, rural schools was cited, and in 1890 the Commissioner sent textbooks and directives to Nevada to educate Native American youth at one of four school types:

- Reservation day schools
- Reservation boarding schools for primary students
- Reservation boarding schools for secondary students
- Industrial training schools

**United States Department of the Interior**  
National Park Service

**NATIONAL REGISTER OF HISTORIC PLACES**  
**CONTINUATION SHEET**

Section  E  Page  11

School Buildings of Nevada   
name of multiple property listing

In the 1890s there were two day schools (Wadsworth and Walker Lake), two boarding schools (Pyramid Lake became a boarding school, and Carlin Farms), and the Carson Industrial School (later Stewart Indian School), were in operation. In about 1895, the day school at Carlin Farms was changed to a boarding school and a two-story building to accommodate fifty boarders/students was built (Wall 1952:24).

The Nevada State Legislature established the Stewart Institute in 1887 as a non-reservation boarding school for Native American children. The school facility, originally a large two-story, wood-frame building, opened in 1890 for classes approximately three miles south of Carson City. First named the Clear Creek Indian School, then Carson Industrial School, the school was renamed Stewart Indian School, after U.S. Senator William Stewart, who introduced legislation in the Senate requiring the federal government to provide funding for the school that was established by state law.

During the 1900-1925 period in Nevada, there were three boarding schools (Stewart, Pyramid Lake, Carlin Farms) and eight day schools (Walker River, Wadsworth, McDermitt, Moapa, Las Vegas, Reno and Fallon).

In 1900, the Carson Training School (Stewart) consisted of two main buildings that provided dorms, classrooms, a kitchen, dining hall, bathrooms, dressing rooms, a recreation room and matron's quarters. Other campus buildings included a laundry house, engine house, light plant, shop, warehouses, a barn, sheds, and three cottages for employees (Wall 1952:50). By 1911 the campus was expanded to 400 acres, 160 of which was irrigated. In 1913 a hospital for students far from home was added. The attendance jumped at Stewart from 192 students in 1920 to 435 in 1925 (Wall 1952:52).

The following list gives a snapshot of Native American education in Nevada in the early twentieth century (Wall 1952:54-61):

Pyramid Lake Boarding School (reservation)	On 25 acres, 12 irrigated, with instruction in farming, animal husbandry, blacksmithing
Walker River Day School (reservation)	2 teachers through 1925; well attended, center of reservation life
Wadsworth Day School (non-reservation)	In operation 1909-1921
Fallon Day School (reservation)	Mostly primary grades enrolled; older students attended Fallon public schools
Moapa Day School (reservation)	Opened 1904; pre-fabricated portable school shipped from New York City. New school built in 1918
Reno Day School (non-reservation)	Opened 1922 with capacity for 150 students. In 1924 older students transferred to Reno public schools; in late 1920s remodeled by Reno high school students

In the early 1900s, militaristic aspects were added to the Indian education curriculum, giving boarding schools "a semblance" of army life (Wall 1952:38) until the 1930s. But in 1916, the Indian Service re-organized the education

**United States Department of the Interior**  
National Park Service

**NATIONAL REGISTER OF HISTORIC PLACES**  
**CONTINUATION SHEET**

Section  E  Page  12

School Buildings of Nevada   
name of multiple property listing

model to include three tiers: primary (grades 1-3), prevocational (grades 4-6), and vocational, a four-year course of study beyond sixth grade. Notably, the 1916 directive established vocational guidance committees for prevocational students to help them determine their future work life (Wall 1952:42), a progressive program for any student in 1916.

There were competing theories on how to best educate Native American children within the Indian Service Education Division. Early policy suggested boarding children full-time, away from traditional and family influences, would help them assimilate into the dominant culture quickly. But by the late 1920s, perhaps due to the national Progressivist ideals being implemented in education, this policy shifted. In the late 1920s, the Indian Service tried to place as many Native American students in local school districts (Wall 1952:65) presumably as another method—not quite as isolatory—to assimilate the Native American children into “the mainstream.” In 1928, there were 35,000 Native Americans enrolled in public schools in the U.S. (the Indian Service reimbursed the local districts for their expense). Since there was still a need for additional facilities, however, 204 Indian Service schools still remained; in order to stay open, many boarding schools had to provide specialized training not available elsewhere. During the years of 1928-1934, the Carson Indian School (Stewart) added ninth through twelfth grades (Wall 1952:66).

This new policy of placing Native American children in public schools appeared to help in terms of enrollment. In 1913, out of 1,361 eligible Native American school children in Nevada, only 232 of those were enrolled in any school. In 1927, only nineteen eligible Native American school children (out of an unknown total) were not enrolled in school (Wall 1952:72).

Ultimately, the idea that the Native American students could assist in the assimilation of their parents through their education, led to a push away from boarding schools and a pull toward public or at least day schooling, giving students the chance to go home daily and share what they learned with family members (Wall 1952:94-99). This was in keeping with the theory behind the Indian Reorganization Act (IRA) of 1934, also known as the “Indian New Deal.” The educational reforms put in action after 1934 in some ways, made the Indian schools in Nevada more progressive than the state’s public schools.

Education policy under the IRA promoted day schools over boarding schools (by 1939, only eighteen non-reservation boarding schools remained in the U.S.). It also recognized the benefits of additional training, but this time recognizing the role of “Indian history, Indian customs, and Indian arts and crafts” (Wall 1952:98) as part of a Native American child’s development. This is when the militaristic drills on school grounds and military uniforms ceased being used. With the IRA in place, educators felt that reading, writing, arithmetic, and even speaking English were not necessarily critical tools for Native Americans, unless they became practical for a productive life. “The new ideals of Indian schools were to equip boys and girls to take up life as constructive citizens in their own communities” (Wall 1952:94). This was a radical departure from the nineteenth-century notions of removing Native American children from traditional home life in order to divorce them of Native American knowledge so they could then become “good Americans.”

The IRA eventually placed responsibility for educating Native American youth onto the states. The move was complete in 1947 in Nevada, when the Nevada Indian Education Division, under Bureau of Indian Affairs, was placed within the State Department of Education. All the day schools in Nevada became public schools for all children to

**United States Department of the Interior**  
National Park Service

**NATIONAL REGISTER OF HISTORIC PLACES**  
**CONTINUATION SHEET**

Section  E  Page  13

School Buildings of Nevada   
name of multiple property listing

---

attend by 1956 (Elliott 1987:397). The only remaining boarding school, Stewart, closed its doors for good in 1980. The campus is owned by the state and several buildings are used for offices today.

**Schoolhouse Architecture in Nevada, 1857-1958**

Note: This architectural context has been adapted from the context submitted with "Historic Buildings in the Evolution of the Fifth Supervision School District, Nevada" Multiple Property Document written by Patricia Osmon and James Woodward and listed in the National Register of Historic Places in 1991.

The history of education in Nevada is well illustrated by its schoolhouse architecture. These buildings exemplify the evolution of educational architecture in Nevada, and parallel the historic trends in schoolhouse designs and styles found throughout the Western United States. The range of schoolhouse architecture in Nevada is representative of the regional history of a mostly-rural educational system that evolved in purpose and sophistication in much the same manner as other similar systems nationwide. Nevada school buildings are also representative of the evolution of one of the most uniquely American architectural types, and accurately demonstrate the pattern of architectural development of schoolhouses nationwide.

The architectural history of schoolhouses in the United States can be differentiated using a classification system developed by education historian, Fred E. H. Schroeder. These classifications are applicable to the historical schoolhouses of Nevada. The system divides the architecture of schoolhouses into four types, including Folk Vernacular, Mass Vernacular, Plan Book Designs, and Custom Architectural Designs. The four types generally, although not always, represent the chronological development of schoolhouse architecture in any particular locale, with Folk Vernacular schools representing the first generation of schoolhouse construction, Mass Vernacular the second generation, and so forth.

In addition, each of the different classifications of schoolhouse architecture is divided into two major functional types. The first and most common is Schoolhouses, with various classrooms and office arrangements. The second is School Support Buildings consisting of gymnasiums, auditoriums and teacherages. Smaller support features, including storage buildings, toilet buildings, and associated landscape features, should be evaluated as a part of the primary structural resource being nominated.

Folk Vernacular schoolhouses represent buildings that were constructed with local materials using traditional hand methods. As defined by Schroeder, they are "traditional and native down to the very materials used such as sod, logs, hand-hewn planks, adobe or fieldstone... The design of a Folk Vernacular schoolhouse is more likely to resemble an agricultural outbuilding or primitive dwelling...(Schroeder 1978:128)."

Folk Vernacular Schoolhouses represent the earliest form of school architecture not only in Nevada, but in all areas of the American western frontier in the nineteenth century. As families moved westward across the United States, they used whatever resources were locally available to erect their initial schools. Additionally, the designs of these Folk Vernacular schoolhouses were as eclectic as the materials used to build them. In general, builders of these

**United States Department of the Interior**  
National Park Service

**NATIONAL REGISTER OF HISTORIC PLACES**  
**CONTINUATION SHEET**

Section   E   Page  14 

  School Buildings of Nevada    
name of multiple property listing

---

schoolhouses constructed them to resemble what they remembered schools looked like and what the current method of building construction happened to be. In effect, early school house design was “transmitted westward by the process of cultural diffusion” (Schroeder 1978:129). Many examples typify the “traditional” country school plan—consisting of a single-room building with a steeply pitched gable-front roof and windows on both side elevations.

Perhaps the best remaining example of a Folk Vernacular schoolhouse is the 1865 Dayton School located at the junction of Shady Lane and Logan Alley in the old portion of Dayton in Lyon County. It exhibits all of the locally crafted materials, in this case rough-hewn stone construction, and simplicity of design associated with this architectural classification.

The 1991 southern Nevada school survey identified only four examples of Folk Vernacular schoolhouse. One is constructed of stone, three are of log construction, and all are associated with ranches in Nye County, namely the Eden Creek, the Berdoni, the Uhalde, and the Hot Creek ranches. All of these southern Nevada Folk Vernacular examples have lost some integrity but because they represent the earliest examples of schoolhouse architecture in the region, they are all rare examples of a once common type. According to Schroeder (1978:131), “The Mass Vernacular Schoolhouse is identifiable primarily by the use of commercial machine-made materials such as dimension lumber, standard-size bricks, concrete blocks, asphalt shingles, and commercial siding. They may have ornamental details or even fairly sophisticated architectural additions, but these will tend to be provincialized.”

Therefore, the main difference between Folk Vernacular and Mass Vernacular schoolhouse architecture centers on the materials of construction. In most communities on the western frontier, the transition between these two types occurred when conditions allowed for the transportation of commercial man-made materials from the nearest distribution centers. In northern Nevada mass manufactured materials were locally produced or transported in from California by wagon beginning in the early 1860s. The volume of goods increased exponentially with the completion of the Central Pacific Railroad to Reno in 1868. In southern Nevada, commercially made construction materials began to arrive via the railroad beginning as early as the 1880s and expanding with the central Nevada gold rush and development of the southern Nevada rail network following the turn of the twentieth century.

While materials of construction differentiate Folk Vernacular schoolhouse architecture from Mass Vernacular schoolhouse architecture, these two types are similar in that their designs are primarily determined by the vision and abilities of the local builder. However, the architectural styling of the Mass Vernacular schoolhouse is more pronounced because they were intended as permanent replacements of the “temporary” Folk Vernacular buildings and therefore, more symbolic of civic buildings.

The earliest known remaining Mass Vernacular schoolhouse in Nevada is the 1864 Glendale School currently located on Victorian Avenue in downtown Sparks. The community of Glendale was located in what is now the eastern portion of the City of Sparks. The building served its community until 1958 and was moved several times before being placed in downtown Sparks in 1993.

The Glendale School typifies the Mass Vernacular building type. It is constructed of dimensional lumber and consists of an entry vestibule leading to a simple gable front structure containing a single classroom. The only distinguishing

**United States Department of the Interior**  
National Park Service

**NATIONAL REGISTER OF HISTORIC PLACES**  
**CONTINUATION SHEET**

Section  E  Page  15

School Buildings of Nevada   
name of multiple property listing

features are simple window surrounds, heavy eaves with gable-returns and a modest bell tower located at the peak of the main gable.

Eleven examples of Mass Vernacular schoolhouses were identified in the 1991 southern Nevada school survey. Of the eleven, eight are of frame construction with various types of siding materials, one is an unusual example of stone construction, one is of brick construction, and one is an unusual example of wood-sheathed adobe. In all of the examples, architectural details and stylistic characteristics have been simplified and/or modified by local customs or abilities. The integrity level of these examples also varies widely.

Key early examples of the Mass Vernacular schoolhouses include the brick schoolhouse at Tybo and the frame schoolhouse at Warm Springs. Representing the best example of a once common type, the schoolhouse at Pahrum is a well-preserved frame Mass Vernacular schoolhouse. By far the most unusual example from this category is the Gothic Revival influence schoolhouse at Barkley in Clover Valley. The unique use of adobe sheathed with board and batten siding, along with its one-of-a-kind bell tower, make it the most significant southern Nevada resource in this category.

Plan Book schoolhouses are identifiable in that they are derived from the application of certain design principles (or stylistic ideas), or the application of uniform education or state mandated design standards. These design principles or standards focus on both the exterior and interior of a school structure, and include references to building size, the direction and type of lighting, ventilation, and sanitation of schools.

The history of standard schoolhouse design in the United States began in 1832 when William A. Alcott published his essay entitled "Essay on the Construction of School Houses." While Alcott's initial design theories were followed by a number of other commercial schoolhouse design guidelines which were published in the nineteenth century, the advent of the progressive movement in the early twentieth century resulted in the institutionalization of "Plan Book" schoolhouse designs by both federal and state government agencies. This came in the form of government sponsored standard school design guidelines. For example, the U. S. Office of Education issued school design bulletins written by Fletcher B. Dresslar in 1914 and 1930. The result of this governmental involvement was that by the 1920s, vernacular school architecture had all but been replaced by Plan Book schoolhouse designs throughout the United States.

In Nevada, the official movement toward standard school design started in 1917 when the Nevada legislature passed legislation which provided for standard blue prints for a model school. This plan addressed the size, lighting, ventilation, and sanitation of rural schools. Additionally, in 1924 the state department of education published the *Nevada Rural School Standards*. These standards gave specific recommendations concerning buildings. For example, at a minimum a school should provide fifteen square feet of floor space per pupil, and in an effort to provide the best light, windows should be placed on the left side of the building.

Consequently, Plan Book schoolhouses are identified not by the application of particular architectural styles or construction materials, but rather the use of specific design elements. In fact, the architectural style and construction materials will vary greatly based on local tastes. However, within these different styles common standard design

**United States Department of the Interior**  
National Park Service

**NATIONAL REGISTER OF HISTORIC PLACES**  
**CONTINUATION SHEET**

Section   E   Page  16 

  School Buildings of Nevada    
name of multiple property listing

---

elements will exist which identify the schoolhouse as Plan Book.

One of the best known and largest examples of a Plan Book schoolhouse in the state is the imposing 1876 Fourth Ward School in Virginia City. Built to house 1,000 students, this four story Second-Empire building was directly based on a design from 1869 by Architect Theodore S. Ladue for the Central School in Lincoln, Illinois. Ladue's drawings were illustrated and available for sale by A.J. Bicknell in his standardized plan book *Bicknell's Village Builder* originally published in 1870. The Fourth Ward School is a slightly simplified version of Ladue's original plan rendered in wood rather than the original brick.

A later variation of the plan book approach to architecture was pre-fabrication. Beginning at the turn of the twentieth century mail order companies such as Sears, Montgomery Ward and Aladdin offered pre-cut frame buildings at modest prices. Lumber would be pre-cut at a central factory and then shipped for final assembly via rail. Several of these companies offered more than just dwellings for sale. Indeed, the 1904 Moapa School is referred to as a "portable" structure that was pre-cut and shipped west from New York.

The 1991 survey of southern Nevada Schools shows the most commonly applied standard element found in Plan Book schoolhouses centered on the placement of windows exclusively on the left side of the building. In fact, by 1920 the Fifth Supervision District, which covered the southern portion of the state, required that light come from the left. Ideally these windows would be placed close together "producing the effect of one huge window." The common belief was that light from the left would eliminate shadows for right-handed writers, therefore reducing eyestrain.

A number of additional standard design elements as described in the 1924 regulations are also found in schools located in southern Nevada. These include a rectangular building shape, bathrooms (separate for boys and girls) attached to the main school building or located 75 feet from the building, satisfactory living accommodations for a teacher (i.e. a teacherage), interior walls constructed of beaver board or plaster board with wainscoting next to the floor, and cloakrooms. While the Nevada regulations only specified that the location of the cloakrooms be visible to the teacher, school cloakrooms were often placed along the front of the school building.

The largest number of historic schoolhouses identified in the 1991 southern Nevada School survey are representative of the Plan Book category. Of the nineteen identified examples, five were constructed before the production of the first state standard plan in 1917, nine were influenced by the first standard plan being constructed between 1917 and 1922, and five reflect the 1924 regulations being constructed between 1926 and 1942. Construction materials, architectural styles, and size vary the most within this classification. Three schoolhouses are constructed of stone, twelve have frame construction, two utilized early concrete block, one is cast-in-place concrete, one is constructed of brick with stucco, and one is constructed of late concrete block. Stylistically, eight schools have strong characteristics or at least influences of the Neo-Colonial style, six are reflective of the Craftsman style, two carry on local vernacular traditions, one represents Spanish Colonial Revival influences, and two have Minimal Traditional characteristics. Size varies from tiny one-room examples to the multi-roomed Caliente Elementary School.

An example within this classification includes the Crook Street School in Goldfield. It represents the earliest remaining Plan Book School in southern Nevada. The high school at Eagle Valley is unique as the only rural high

**United States Department of the Interior**  
National Park Service

**NATIONAL REGISTER OF HISTORIC PLACES**  
**CONTINUATION SHEET**

Section   E   Page   17  

  School Buildings of Nevada    
name of multiple property listing

---

school remaining in the southern portion of the state. Other unique examples within the category are the metal clad school at Manhattan, the oldest continuously used school in Clark County at Goodsprings, and the earliest concrete block school at Alamo. The best remaining examples representing the influence of the 1917 state standard plan are the 1919 Eagle Valley Schoolhouse, the Crystal Springs Ranch Schoolhouse of concrete, and the Elgin Schoolhouse. Post-1924 schools of importance include the intact Bristol Silver Schoolhouse and the Beatty Schoolhouse.

Custom Architecturally designed schoolhouses combine stylistic, educational, and functional criteria into a unified architectural statement. They tend to be the schools in larger communities having the need for multiple classrooms and unique architectural distinction. Initially very few if and “true” architects practiced in Nevada. Those builders who did advertise themselves as architects rarely possessed any specific architectural training. As the century waned however architectural practice in Nevada, as in the rest of the nation, became more specialized and professionalized.

From the 1880s through to the 1950s Reno became the focus for architectural practice in the state. While the market for architectural services in Nevada was never large enough to allow for complete specialization, several local architects developed a steady trade in school design. In the period before 1910 J.M. Curtis and George Holesworth both appear regularly as school architects. Morrill Hall, the original and oldest surviving building at the University of Nevada-Reno was designed by Curtis in 1885. Morrill Hall may well be the oldest remaining Custom Architecturally designed school building in Nevada.

By 1910, however, both Curtis and Holesworth were reaching the end of their careers. In that year two new young architects emerged who would come to dominate architectural practice in both the Reno area and across the state for the next four decades. Each derived a significant portion of their business from school commissions. Frederick J. DeLongchamps, a Reno native trained as an engineer, received his first significant commission to design the Washoe County Courthouse in Reno which was completed in 1911. DeLongchamps went on to practice architecture in Reno until the early 1960s and designed innumerable public structures during his career. Some of his more noteworthy school commissions include thirty buildings at the University of Nevada-Reno, the 1915 Douglas County High School in Gardnerville and the 1914 Oats Park School in Fallon.

Also in 1910, George Ashmead Ferris relocated his architectural practice from California to Reno. This move was made due to Ferris receiving a commission to build four new grammar schools in Reno. Based on a single Mission Revival design, these buildings were both stylistically and functionally well ahead of any other school buildings in the state when completed in 1912. Of the four, known colloquially as the “Spanish Quartet,” both the 1910 McKinley Park School and the 1912 Mount Rose School remain. Over the following decades, Ferris, who eventually went into partnership with his son Lehman “Monk” Ferris, developed a considerable practice with many school commissions. One of their most significant commissions is the 1930 Las Vegas High School complex.

School design for the rural part of the state often depended on out of state architects. Miles Miller and Richard Watkins were both architects based in Salt Lake City who specialized in school design and who both received commissions in Nevada. Watkins designed the 1928 Winnemucca Grammar School while Miller designed the 1935 Logandale School and its 1938 gymnasium addition. In Las Vegas, the prominent Los Angeles firm of Allison & Allison designed the 1922 Westside School.

**United States Department of the Interior**  
National Park Service

**NATIONAL REGISTER OF HISTORIC PLACES**  
**CONTINUATION SHEET**

Section   E   Page   18  

  School Buildings of Nevada    
name of multiple property listing

---

The New Deal programs instituted to combat the effects of the Great Depression included a large influx of federal funds for school construction to Nevada in the 1930s. As part of the requirements for federal funding design work done on New Deal buildings was done by qualified architects. The art moderne style 1938 Robert Mitchell School in Sparks, designed by Frederick DeLongchamps of Reno, is a fine example of the type of professional design work required of New Deal projects.

Following the conclusion of World War II Nevada experienced unprecedented urban growth—particularly in Reno and Las Vegas. As such the need for school buildings rose dramatically. In addition, the growing professionalization of architectural practice in Nevada, exemplified by the institution of the state mandated architectural licensing requirements in 1948, combined with more rigorous and complex programmatic and infrastructural needs for a “modern” school building to dramatically increase the proportion of school design work that included architect participation. By the late 1940s the days of the builder-designed school were essentially over.

Initially post-war school buildings bore architectural similarities to their pre-war antecedents. The 1949 Veterans Memorial School in Reno is a typical example. Designed by Russell Mills of Reno, Veterans Memorial is rendered in an art moderne style quite reminiscent New Deal schools from the 1930s. More typical of changes in post-war school design is the 1949 Paradise School in Las Vegas. It incorporates use of new materials such as cinder block and a one-story open modular approach to school planning that represents a significant change from previous examples. Paradise is also indicative of the type of school building which would come to dominate the rapidly growing areas of the state in the 1950s. This type of design also is typical of that adopted across Nevada in the wake of the 1956 Peabody Report which recommended a contemporary design approach to both new school construction and to the replacement or renovation of inadequate existing school buildings statewide.

Besides the historic core of the UNR campus that is listed in the National Register in 1987, most of the campus buildings in Nevada post-date WWII, so many are built in the art moderne or International style. Several buildings on the UNR campus were designed by Reno architect Raymond Hellman, including the Fleischmann Atmospherium-Planterium (1963), the Water Resources Building (1963), the Desert Research Institute Greenhouse (1966), the Cllege of Agriculture’s Renewable Resources Building (1967), and the Nevada Historical Society building (1968), along with other later campus building projects (UNR Special Collections, n.d.).

The architecturally designed schools identified in the 1991 southern Nevada School survey are all located in established communities, seven out of twelve in Las Vegas. Eight of the examples are elementary schools, while four are high schools. Stylistically, one school is Neo-Colonial (Georgian Revival), two schools are of Mission Revival design, two are of Spanish Colonial Revival design, one is of Art Moderne design, and six are of Minimal Traditional design. Four are constructed of cast-in-place concrete, three are constructed of brick, three concrete block, one stone, and one wood frame. The plans of these examples evolve from very compact designs to open and extended designs using courtyards and porticos. In 1991 five of these examples remained in use as schools, while six had found adaptive uses. None were abandoned.

**United States Department of the Interior**  
National Park Service

**NATIONAL REGISTER OF HISTORIC PLACES**  
**CONTINUATION SHEET**

Section  E  Page  19

School Buildings of Nevada   
name of multiple property listing

A key resource is the Pioche Elementary School; the oldest architect designed grade school in the 1991 southern Nevada School survey area, as well as the oldest continuously used schoolhouse in the district, and the oldest example of Mission Revival architecture remaining in southern Nevada. Other examples are the 1930 Las Vegas High School, the largest and most unique example of Art Moderne architecture in southern Nevada; the Goldfield High School, the only stone school in this category, and although the architect is unknown, is the oldest "designed" high school in southern Nevada; and the Fifth Street School in Las Vegas, the best example of Spanish Colonial Revival architecture in southern Nevada. In addition to their stylistic design and high level of craftsmanship, the Boulder City Elementary and High Schools are significant for their role in the development of this unique federally funded town.

School Support buildings are facilities constructed to expand the educational role or amenities of the school or university. The most significant of these that are primarily associated with high schools, are free standing gymnasiums and/or auditoriums. Nevada's university campuses have many free-standing buildings that are indirectly associated with education (housing, facilities plants, athletic facilities, etc.). The recreational and presentation functions of these buildings require large open spaces, and therefore large architectural manifestations. Because of the scale of these buildings and the general public's interaction with the events in these buildings, many times gymnasium/auditorium buildings have taken on the role of community focal points where community events and meetings beyond the scope of their educational roles have taken place. In many communities these facilities are the largest indoor gathering places and have become identified with the community as a whole, as well as the school. In many cases, these building have had to serve multiple functions leading to gymnasiums having a stage attached to one end to allow for auditorium functions.

Six discrete gymnasium/auditorium buildings, all designed by architects, were identified in the 1991 southern Nevada survey. Five of these examples no longer have their associated historic school standing next to them. The Panaca High School gymnasium and separate auditorium are the oldest remaining example of this type in southern Nevada. Constructed in 1930, they are almost identical in their design and size. The Overton, Mesquite, and Bunkerville Gymnasiums were all designed by Miles E. Miller in 1938-1939 under the federal PWA program. The Overton Gym is discrete with Romanesque influences in its Minimal Traditional design. The Mesquite and Bunkerville structures are identical, more reserved designs. All include the rare use of terra cotta for decorative entry surrounds and cornices, and the unusual use of brick-sized tinted concrete blocks.

The Las Vegas High School Gymnasium is an integral part of the Las Vegas High School complex. Although it has suffered some loss of integrity, through insensitive additions, its unique Modern design and elaborate detailing, especially on the northeast façade, make this a highly significant building. It is also the only support building associated with a standing school. Although the Boulder City High School building has been discussed under Architect Designed schools, in reality it is primarily a gymnasium with attached classrooms and should be viewed as a combined facility. In southern Nevada, the only support spaces associated with elementary schools are integrated into or physically attached to the schools themselves. These include the remodeling of the original Logandale School into an auditorium, and the gymnasium with state that is attached to the Fifth Street School in Las Vegas.

**United States Department of the Interior**  
National Park Service

**NATIONAL REGISTER OF HISTORIC PLACES**  
**CONTINUATION SHEET**

Section   E   Page  20 

  School Buildings of Nevada    
name of multiple property listing

---

In remote areas it often found that a school-supported or -owned residence was built and maintained by the school district as an inducement for teachers to take isolated rural postings. Such dwellings are referred to as teacherages and were most often constructed on school property. The 1991 southern Nevada survey identified no stand alone teacherages. In all instances when a dwelling for a teacher was provided by the school it was actually incorporated into the school building. An example of a "Stand Alone" teacherage may be found at the 1917 Stillwater School in rural Churchill County. It is a very modest, almost astylistic structure, as might be expected in a remote and financially limited rural school district. It is expected that as further inventory of schools are made statewide more examples of this property type will be documented.

**United States Department of the Interior**  
National Park Service

**NATIONAL REGISTER OF HISTORIC PLACES**  
**CONTINUATION SHEET**

Section   F   Page   1  

  School Buildings of Nevada    
name of multiple property listing

---

**F. Associated Property Types**

I. Name of Property Type: Schoolhouse: Folk Vernacular

II. Description:

The physical characteristics of this property type embody two major elements. The first is the use of native or indigenous building materials. The second is the basic form and design reflected in simple single room structures with little or no ornamentation.

Since the general historical purpose of this property type was as temporary pioneer buildings to be abandoned as soon as a more formal schoolhouse could be built, the design of the Folk Vernacular schoolhouse resembled simple dwellings or agricultural buildings.

Materials used included logs, hand-hewn planks, fieldstone, adobe, and tamped earth. Partially dug out structures were not uncommon. Because of the limitations of such native materials, and considering the relatively few pupils the school initially needed to serve, the Folk Vernacular schoolhouse was a small structure, typically 8 feet by 10 feet to 12 feet by 16 feet.

The Folk Vernacular property type was almost exclusively a one-room schoolhouse, with a single entrance and windows on at least one, but usually two sides. Architectural details were handmade, including window and door frames. Handmade window sashes and plank doors were often replaced by milled elements if the building continued to serve school functions for any length of time.

Fireplaces were not uncommon and usually located opposite the doorway wall. An interior wall finish of muslin or paper was common. Floors were earthen or wood planks lain directly on the ground.

III. Significance:

The Folk Vernacular schoolhouse is significant for its association with the early development of education in Nevada. Since the property type represents schoolhouse development from as early as the 1860s to about 1910, and because the buildings were at times intended to be temporary, they are regarded as rare examples of a once common type.

The property type has particular historic connections to the development of agriculture, particularly ranching. Folk Vernacular schoolhouses were often integral parts of ranch building complexes as the ranches were usually the centers of population of large surrounding areas. Children of ranch owners and employees attended the schools, and teachers lived on the ranches as well.

The short lived use of Folk Vernacular schoolhouses depended upon shifting or growing school age population in the area. Many were abandoned as other school structures took their place. Others were recycled as storage or agricultural buildings.

**United States Department of the Interior**  
National Park Service

**NATIONAL REGISTER OF HISTORIC PLACES**  
**CONTINUATION SHEET**

Section   F   Page   2  

  School Buildings of Nevada    
name of multiple property listing

---

IV. Registration Requirements:

The architectural integrity that should be present as a requirement for listing in the National Register includes original indigenous materials, workmanship in terms of the expression of their handmade quality, design in relationship to evidence of the simple one room plan, location, and feeling. Retention of the characteristics of materials and handmade workmanship are important, although the building may be classified as a ruin and still meet registration requirements.

F. Associated Property Types

I. Name of Property Type: Schoolhouse: Mass Vernacular

II. Description:

Two primary characteristics of this property type are the use of commercial or machine-made building materials, and the one-room floor plan. Another important characteristic of the Mass Vernacular schoolhouse is its design reference to some stylistic image.

Construction materials are the most evident elements that distinguish this property type from Folk Vernacular schoolhouses. Dimensioned lumber, standard size bricks, concrete blocks, shingles, and commercial siding are typical building elements. The most common wall sheathing is weatherboard or board and batten. Roofs were framed with dimensioned lumber and finished with wood shingles or metal sheeting. Prefabricated millwork was standard including window sash, paneled doors, wood casings, and trim. Floor systems were almost always wood plank or tongue in groove strips. Additionally, built in features were common. Typical examples included chalkboards and chalk rails, bookcases, and storage cabinets or closets.

The broad common link between this property type and the Folk Vernacular was the design of the schoolhouse as a one room structure. The one-room schoolhouse, especially in rural school systems, continued to be practical prior to the influence of the schools consolidation movement. The basic design was rectangular in plan, and sometimes reflected the forms used for other buildings in the neighboring area or community.

Attention to design is always present in Mass Vernacular schoolhouses, even if simplified or subdued. The property type is likely to look more like a schoolhouse, resembling in design other rural civic structures. Design emphasis may be as simple as symmetry achieved with a formal central entry on a gable wall, porches or porticos, a dormer, and a bell tower or a roof ridge or gable-attached flag pole. Adherence to popular architectural styles is evident, but usually extremely simplified or provincialized. In Nevada schools, the stylistic basis for the Mass Vernacular included the Greek Revival, Gothic Revival, and Colonial Revival. Most allusion to style was in overall form and proportion, roof type, location and pattern of fenestrations, and details.

**United States Department of the Interior**  
National Park Service

**NATIONAL REGISTER OF HISTORIC PLACES**  
**CONTINUATION SHEET**

Section   F   Page   3  

School Buildings of Nevada  
name of multiple property listing

---

Design elements may include pitched or hipped roofs with enclosed soffits or boxed cornices, or fascias with crown molding. Horizontal clapboard shiplap siding detailed with corner boards or cantons on vertical board and batten sheathing were common wall treatments. Porches or overhangs, symmetrically placed on the principal facade were often used with any detailing or reference to classical architecture kept very simple such as square columns, perhaps routed at the corners, or flat board pilasters with bead molding at the crown. Windows and doors may have pedimented casings, but usually had bead or crown molding or no articulation at all. Window sash typically had multiple lights and doors were stile and rail with four or five panels.

III. Significance:

The Mass Vernacular schoolhouse is significant for its association with the development of education in Nevada. The period when the property type was most common was from the 1860s to circa 1920. Found primarily in rural locations, the property type is associated with the growth of the mining, ranching, and railroad industries in Nevada. Although the Mass Vernacular schoolhouse tended to be the preferred model for school structures in rural areas after the turn of the century, the property type was eventually superseded by architect-designed schoolhouses and by the movement toward the ideas of school consolidation. The result is that the Mass Vernacular one-room schoolhouse is now a rare survivor of a once common type.

Its distinguishing characteristic of using commercial or machine-made building materials is directly associated with the advent of significant local industry or a substantial transportation infrastructure, which made such materials available, economical, and preferable.

The palate of materials combined with a vernacular form or plan treatment is the basis for the architectural significance of the Mass Vernacular schoolhouse. The importance of these buildings is that they are traditional, not architect designed, but at the same time were in the national mainstream reflecting both trends in American education, and simplified attempts to copy architectural designs. These schoolhouses are an important link in the evolution of schoolhouse architecture because they were shaped by local traditions, but influenced by current styles that were imported from other places resulting in an architectural image that was uniquely American. No matter how sparsely populated the location it served, the Mass Vernacular Schoolhouse became an important architectural and cultural focus of the community, not only as a place for holding school, but also as a gathering place for other civic and social activities.

IV. Registration Requirements:

The kinds of architectural integrity that should be present as a requirement for listing on the National Register is materials, design, and to a certain extent, workmanship. Important kinds of associative integrity are location and setting.

Commercial or machine-made building products must be present and largely intact. These should included wall and roof sheathing and elements of the doors and windows. Retention of overall original form is important since much of the buildings' stylistic reference is related to scale, proportion, size, symmetry, and roof form. Architectural details, usually limited to molding and trim, should be evident.

**United States Department of the Interior**  
National Park Service

**NATIONAL REGISTER OF HISTORIC PLACES**  
**CONTINUATION SHEET**

Section   F   Page   4  

  School Buildings of Nevada    
name of multiple property listing

---

The property type's integrity of location is important but not critical if other aspects of integrity are present. Integrity of setting is also somewhat important, especially for those examples that were part of ranch complexes.

I. Name of Property Type: Schoolhouse: Plan Book

II. Description:

The physical characteristics of this property type are identified from the application of certain design principles (or stylistic ideas) derived from uniform educational or state mandated design standards. These design principles or standards focus on both the exterior and interior of a school structure and include references to the building size, floor plan, and the direction and type of natural lighting in relationship to window placement. The construction materials and architectural styles will vary considerably within the classification. The most common are the Second-Empire, Queen Anne, Colonial or Classical Revival, Craftsman, Mission Revival, and Spanish Colonial Revival styles.

III. Significance:

The Plan Book schoolhouse property type is significant for its association with the development of education in Nevada as early as the 1870s and particularly between 1907 and 1942. The property type often embodies the ideals of the Progressive Movement as they relate to the standardization of school buildings. In Nevada, official school building standardization took the form of a "Standard Plan" for school buildings passed by the Nevada Legislature in 1917, and the publishing of *Nevada Rural School Standards* by the Department of Education in 1924. The school buildings associated with this property type are important illustrations of this critical period in the history of education in Nevada.

IV. Registration Requirements:

The elements of architectural integrity for the Plan Book Schoolhouse property type that should be retained in order for it to convey its historic identity related to design, workmanship, construction materials, and where possible, location. Design is the crucial integrity factor, specifically, the retention of standardized elements in plan as well as architectural details and materials.

I. Name of Property Type: Schoolhouse: Custom Architectural Design

II. Description:

The defining factor of the school buildings of this property type is that they were designed by architects. Consequently, the stylistic, educational, and functional design criteria will be combined to form a unified architectural statement. The property type tends to include schools in larger communities having the need for multiple classrooms and unique architectural distinction. Architectural styles and construction materials will vary. The most dominant styles are Italianate, Classical Revival, Colonial Revival, Mission Revival, Spanish Eclectic, Art-Moderne, Minimal Traditional and Modern.

III. Significance:

The Custom Architectural Design property type is significant for its overall association with an architectural statement placed within the contexts of stylistic and design theory and educational reform. The property type is

**United States Department of the Interior**  
National Park Service

**NATIONAL REGISTER OF HISTORIC PLACES**  
**CONTINUATION SHEET**

Section   F   Page   5  

  School Buildings of Nevada    
name of multiple property listing

---

associated with the development of education in Nevada between c. 1885 and 1958, and is exemplary of the movement toward specialized treatment of educational buildings. Custom architecturally-designed schools are significant as representative of the complexity and diversity of educational ideals in Nevada's larger twentieth century communities and the growth in the importance of educational buildings as statements of a community's identity. These buildings exemplify the transformation of the schoolhouse as simply a place for learning to an integral cultural component of the built environment.

**IV. Registration Requirements:**

The architectural integrity that should be present as a requirement for listing in the National Register include design, location, materials, feeling, and workmanship. Since all examples will have been designed by an architect, integrity of design is the most crucial factor. Examples of high artistic merit, skilled craftsmanship, or unusual use of materials should all be evaluated in determining eligibility. In addition, integrity of the functional design of the schools, including classroom arrangement and other specialized amenities, is important to retain.

**I. Name of Property Type: School Support Buildings: Teacherage**

**II. Description:**

The important physical characteristic of the School Support Building: Teacherage is its readily distinguishable location. Free-standing teacherages are generally small unprepossessing dwellings built in close proximity to a schoolhouse. Architectural styles for this building type are typically minimal—often exhibiting no traces of any discernable style.

**III. Significance:**

These buildings are facilities constructed to provide an additional incentive for teachers to take up positions in isolated and rural districts. A very modest dwelling would be constructed by the school district on school grounds and provided for use by the teacher when other accommodation was unavailable or inconvenient. As rural districts were generally poor, teacherages were generally small dwellings with minimal amenities and with little or no discernable architectural character. This property type is associated with the development of education in the Nevada between ca. 1870 and ca. 1925. Both the 1917 and 1924 standards for schoolhouses in Nevada express a preference for teacher habitations to be incorporated in to the schoolhouse itself. As such it is expected that free standing teacherages will be temporally confined to the period before 1925.

**IV. Registration Requirements:**

The architectural integrity that should be present as a requirement for listing in the National Register includes design, location, construction materials, and workmanship. Given that a teacherage derives primary significance from its proximity to a schoolhouse, integrity of location and setting are the most critical.

**I. Name of Property Type: School Support Buildings: Gymnasium/Auditorium**

**United States Department of the Interior**  
National Park Service

**NATIONAL REGISTER OF HISTORIC PLACES**  
**CONTINUATION SHEET**

Section   F   Page   6  

  School Buildings of Nevada    
name of multiple property listing

---

**II. Description:**

The important physical characteristic of the School Support Building: Gymnasium/Auditorium is its readily distinguishable location. Free standing Gymnasium/Auditoriums are generally built in close proximity to a schoolhouse. Architectural styles for this building type range from the purely functional minimal box—often exhibiting no traces of any discernable style—to simple examples of styles typical of the first half of the twentieth century. These include Classical Revival, Mission/Spanish and Craftsman styles.

**III. Significance:**

These buildings are facilities constructed to provide an additional space for indoor athletic activities, the performing arts and other activities requiring a large assembly area. This property type is associated with the development of high school education in the Nevada between ca. 1870 and ca. 1941. Examples are generally associated with high school campuses and generally date from the early part of the twentieth century, particularly from the period between 1919 and 1941.

**IV. Registration Requirements:**

The architectural integrity that should be present as a requirement for listing in the National Register includes design, location, construction materials, and workmanship. Given that a Gymnasium/Auditorium derives primary significance from its proximity to a schoolhouse, integrity of location and setting are the most critical.

**I. Name of Property Type: School Support Buildings: Gymnasium/Auditorium**

**II. Description:**

The important physical characteristic of the School Support Building: Gymnasium/Auditorium is its readily distinguishable location. Free standing Gymnasium/Auditoriums are generally built in close proximity to a schoolhouse. Architectural styles for this building type range from the purely functional minimal box—often exhibiting no traces of any discernable style—to simple examples of styles typical of the first half of the twentieth century. These include Classical Revival, Mission/Spanish and Craftsman styles.

**III. Significance:**

These buildings are facilities constructed to provide an additional space for indoor athletic activities, the performing arts and other activities requiring a large assembly area. This property type is associated with the development of high school education in the Nevada between ca. 1870 and ca. 1941. Examples are generally associated with high school campuses and typically date from the early part of the twentieth century, particularly from the period between 1919 and 1941.

**IV. Registration Requirements:**

The architectural integrity that should be present as a requirement for listing in the National Register includes design, location, construction materials, and workmanship. Given that a Gymnasium/Auditorium derives primary significance from its proximity to a schoolhouse, integrity of location and setting are the most critical.

**United States Department of the Interior**  
National Park Service

**NATIONAL REGISTER OF HISTORIC PLACES**  
**CONTINUATION SHEET**

Section   F   Page   7  

  School Buildings of Nevada    
name of multiple property listing

---

I. Name of Property Type: School Support Building: Other

II. Description:

The important physical characteristic of the School Support Building: Other is its specialized role in support of and educational institution. Free standing examples can include any specialized structure associated with and built in close proximity to a schoolhouse other than teacherages and gymnasiums/auditoriums. Dormitories, libraries, utility buildings, outdoor sports facilities, are some of the properties which can be included in the category. Many specialized buildings found on college and university campuses may be included in this property type. Architectural styles for this building type range from the purely functional minimal box—often exhibiting no traces of any discernable style—to examples of styles typical of high style architecture in Nevada. Common styles include Classical Revival, Mission/Spanish, Modern, and Craftsman styles. Examples are often architect designed.

III. Significance:

These buildings are facilities constructed to provide any specialized space not covered by any of the preceding property types. This property type is associated with the development of diversified secondary and collegiate education in the Nevada between ca. 1885 and ca. 1941. Examples are generally associated with high school and college/university campuses.

IV. Registration Requirements:

The architectural integrity that should be present as a requirement for listing in the National Register includes design, location, construction materials, and workmanship. Given that a School Support Building: Other derives primary significance from its proximity to a schoolhouse, integrity of location and setting are the most critical.

**United States Department of the Interior**  
National Park Service

**NATIONAL REGISTER OF HISTORIC PLACES  
CONTINUATION SHEET**

Section   G   Page   1  

  School Buildings of Nevada    
name of multiple property listing

---

**Section G: Geographical Data**

This MPS applies to all school-related buildings in the State of Nevada.

**United States Department of the Interior**  
National Park Service

**NATIONAL REGISTER OF HISTORIC PLACES**  
**CONTINUATION SHEET**

Section   H   Page   1  

  School Buildings of Nevada    
name of multiple property listing

---

**Section H: Summary of Identification and Evaluation**

The multiple property listing for schools in Nevada was mainly derived from available contexts, surveys, and registration documentation of schools at the Nevada State Historic Preservation Office. These include the statewide historical context of education in Nevada (Wright and Bernstein 1989), a survey of all schools in southern Nevada (Garrison et al. 1990), the multiple property submission for schools in southern Nevada (Osmon and Woodward 1991), and various National Register nominations of individual schools and small architectural surveys that feature school buildings throughout the state. Also consulted were some primary sources relating to school construction, education policy, etc. A master's thesis that discussed the history of Native American education in Nevada (Wall 1952) was also useful.

The property types listed in this document were derived from the 1991 multiple property submission for southern Nevada schools, and expanded to include chronological periods and architectural styles that were used in other areas of Nevada. The geographic boundaries were expanded to include the entire state. The integrity requirements for listing were based on knowledge of the condition of existing properties. The property types were classified primarily by design, and to a lesser extent, chronology.

United States Department of the Interior  
National Park Service

NATIONAL REGISTER OF HISTORIC PLACES  
CONTINUATION SHEET

Section   1   Page   1  

School Buildings of Nevada  
name of multiple property listing

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**United States Department of the Interior**  
National Park Service

**NATIONAL REGISTER OF HISTORIC PLACES**  
**CONTINUATION SHEET**

Section   1   Page   2  

School Buildings of Nevada  
name of multiple property listing

---

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**United States Department of the Interior**  
National Park Service

**NATIONAL REGISTER OF HISTORIC PLACES**  
**CONTINUATION SHEET**

Section   1   Page   3  

School Buildings of Nevada  
name of multiple property listing

---

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United States Department of the Interior  
National Park Service

**NATIONAL REGISTER OF HISTORIC PLACES  
CONTINUATION SHEET**

Attachments Page 1

School Buildings in Nevada  
name of multiple property listing



*Cold Creek School, c. 1905. Nevada*

Figure 1. Hand-hewn log cabin schoolhouse, Cold Creek, Nevada (from Rankin 1981).

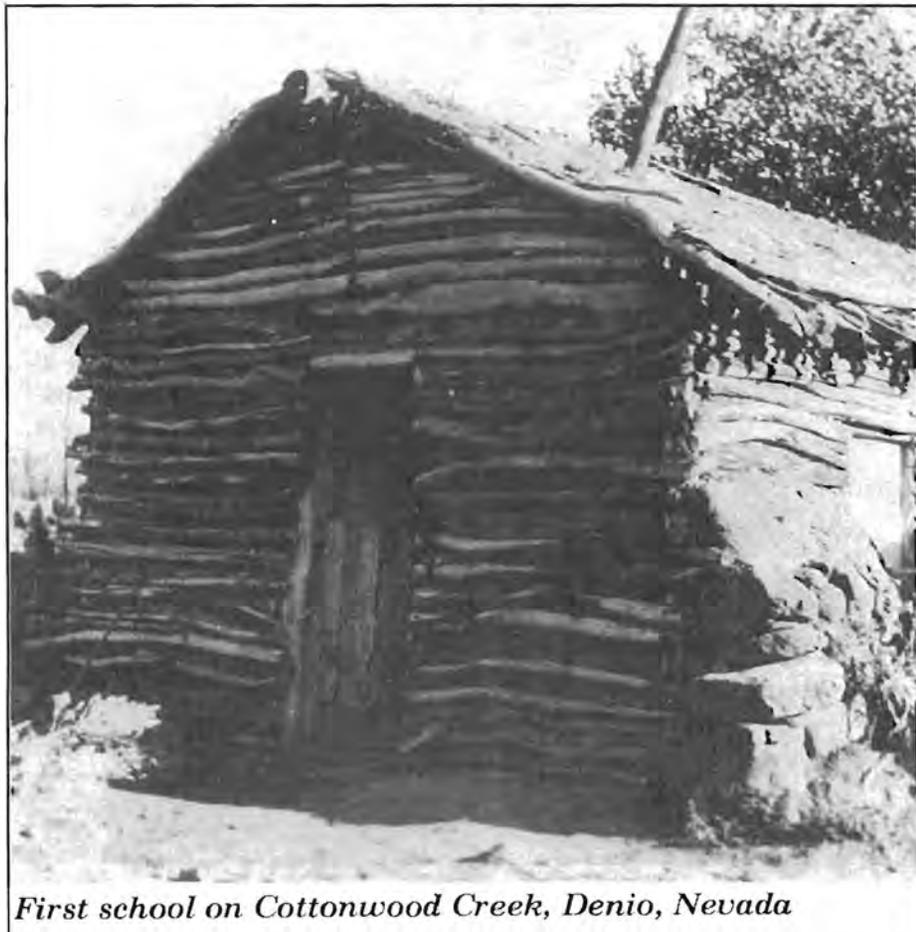
United States Department of the Interior  
National Park Service

**NATIONAL REGISTER OF HISTORIC PLACES  
CONTINUATION SHEET**

Attachments Page 2

School Buildings in Nevada  
name of multiple property listing

---



*First school on Cottonwood Creek, Denio, Nevada*

Figure 2. Log and mud schoolhouse, Denio, Nevada (from Rankin 1981).

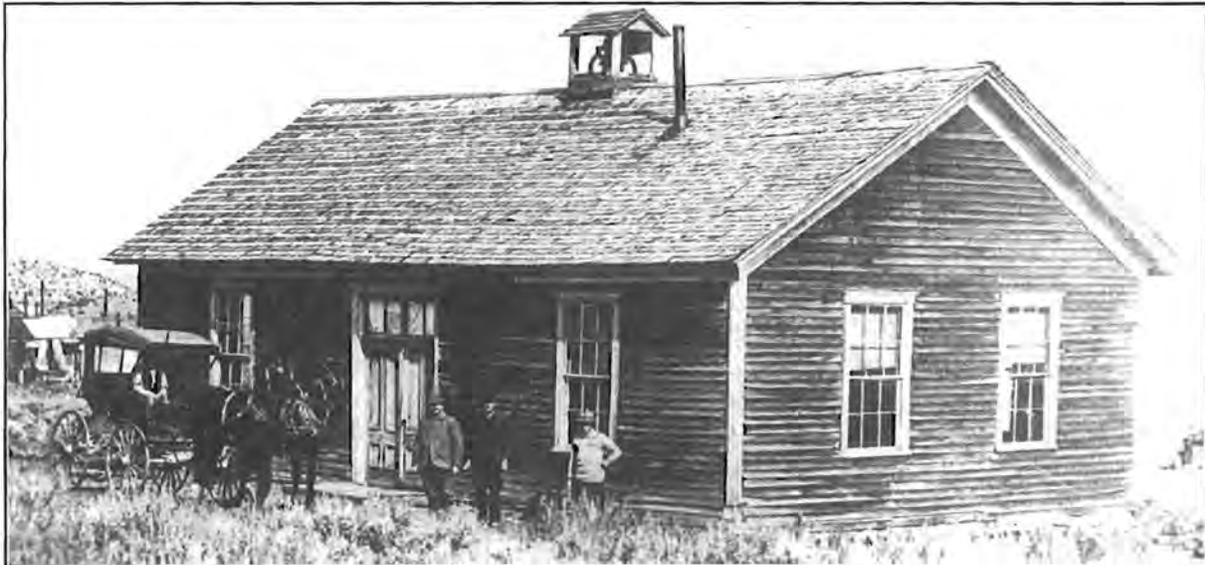
United States Department of the Interior  
National Park Service

**NATIONAL REGISTER OF HISTORIC PLACES  
CONTINUATION SHEET**

Attachments Page 3

School Buildings in Nevada  
name of multiple property listing

---



*Hamilton, White Pine County, Nev. (Richard Dean, center, teacher)*

Figure 3. Frame construction schoolhouse, Hamilton, Nevada, ca. 1880 (from Rankin 1981).

United States Department of the Interior  
National Park Service

**NATIONAL REGISTER OF HISTORIC PLACES  
CONTINUATION SHEET**

Attachments Page 4

School Buildings in Nevada  
name of multiple property listing



Figure 4. Folk vernacular schoolhouse, Dayton, Nevada (from Tri-County Times 1979).  
Now serves as a community center.

United States Department of the Interior  
National Park Service

**NATIONAL REGISTER OF HISTORIC PLACES  
CONTINUATION SHEET**

Attachments Page 5

School Buildings in Nevada  
name of multiple property listing



*Manhattan, Nev. c. 1910*

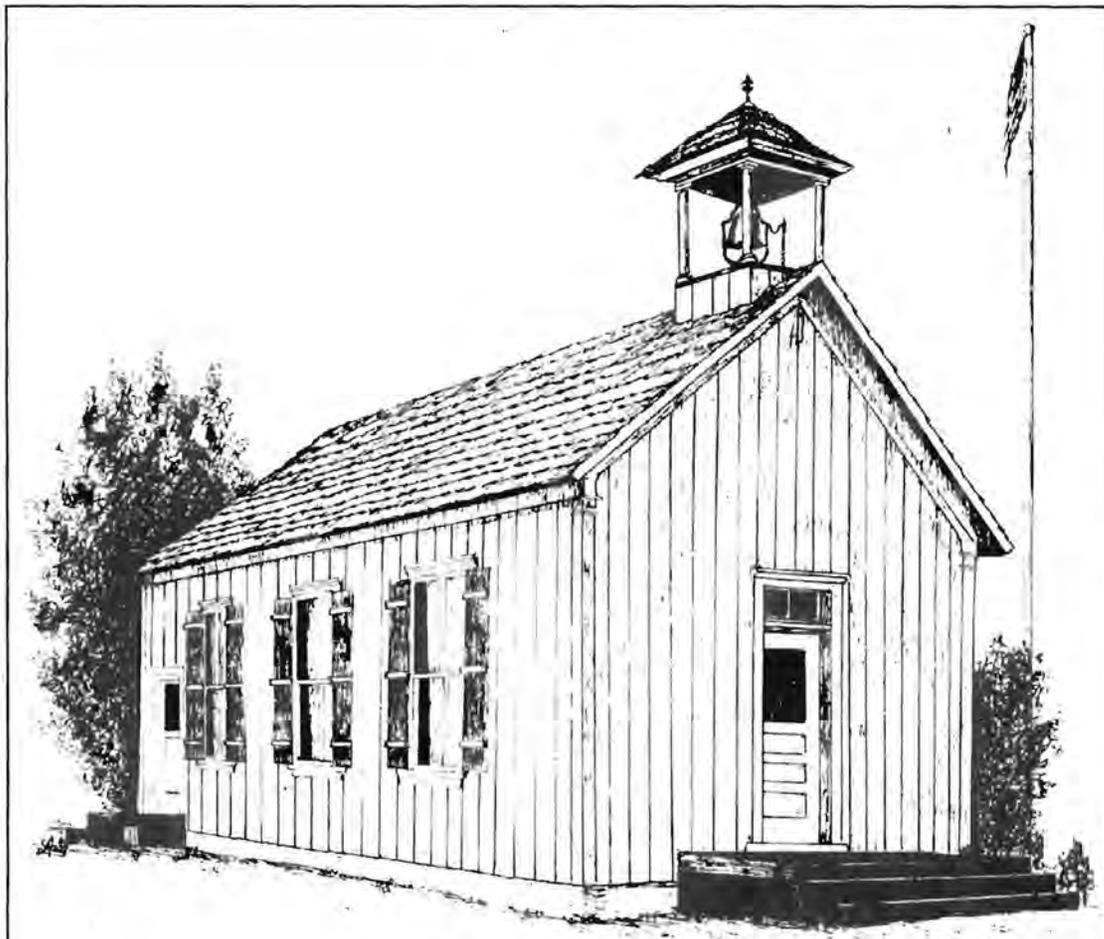
Figure 5. Former plan book schoolhouse, Manhattan, Nevada (from Rankin 1981). Current 1913 Manhattan School listed in National Register 03/08/2006.

United States Department of the Interior  
National Park Service

**NATIONAL REGISTER OF HISTORIC PLACES  
CONTINUATION SHEET**

Attachments Page 6

School Buildings in Nevada  
name of multiple property listing



**SMITH VALLEY**

Early interest in education for Smith Valley children began on ranches in the 1870's, in the Smith District in the 1880's and in the Wellington District in 1892. The last Wellington Grammar School was moved in 1972 to Wellington Station Resort in Wellington, Nevada. This building was restored and opened to the public in June of 1976 with the Bicentennial theme, and is presently being utilized as a well recognized museum.

Figure 6. Plan book schoolhouse, ca. 1890, Smith Valley, NV (from Tri-County Times 1979).

United States Department of the Interior  
National Park Service

**NATIONAL REGISTER OF HISTORIC PLACES  
CONTINUATION SHEET**

Attachments Page 7

School Buildings in Nevada  
name of multiple property listing



Figure 7. Tent platform schoolhouse in mining boomtown of Lida, Nevada, ca. 1905 (from Rankin 1981). Construction typical of fast-growing mining communities.

United States Department of the Interior  
National Park Service

**NATIONAL REGISTER OF HISTORIC PLACES  
CONTINUATION SHEET**

**Attachments Page 8**

School Buildings in Nevada  
name of multiple property listing

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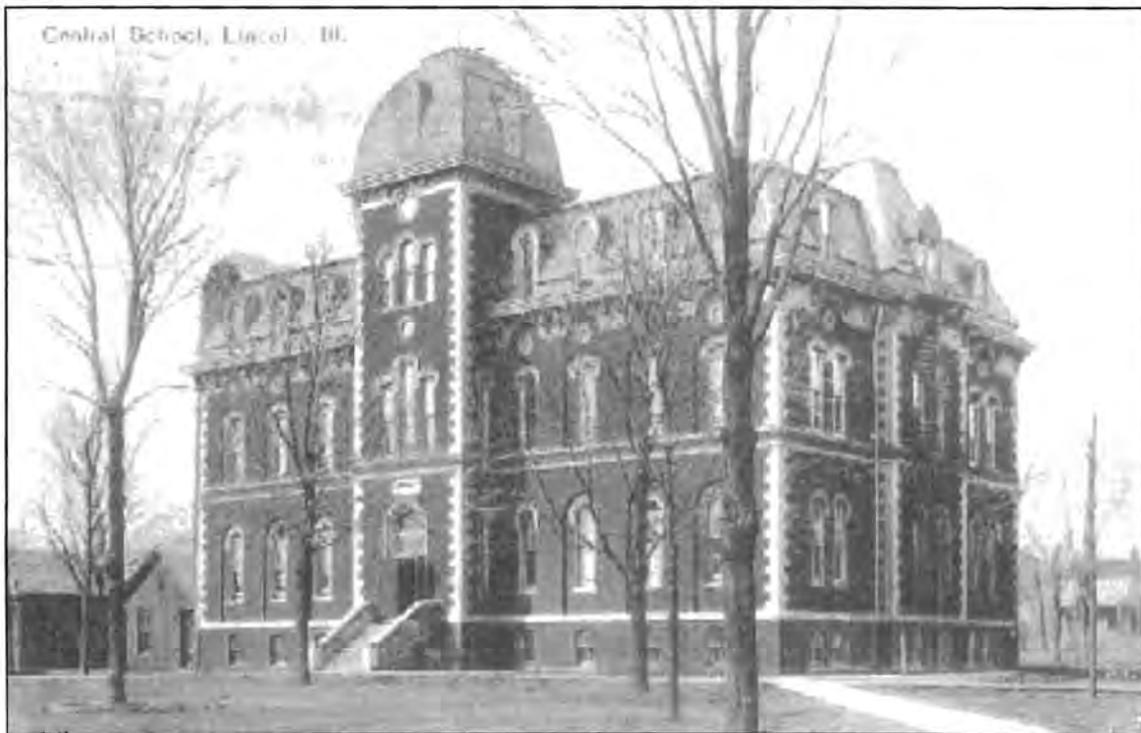


Figure 8. Postcard of Second Empire custom architect designed school in Lincoln, Illinois, that became an elaborate plan book design in *The Village Builder* (Bicknell 1870). Replicated in design of 1876 Fourth Ward School, Virginia City, NV.

United States Department of the Interior  
National Park Service

**NATIONAL REGISTER OF HISTORIC PLACES  
CONTINUATION SHEET**

Attachments Page 9

School Buildings in Nevada  
name of multiple property listing



Figure 9. Current photo of Second Empire plan book schoolhouse, Fourth Ward School, Virginia City, Nevada (photo by T. McBride May 2003). Within the Virginia City NHL, listed 10/15/1966.