NPS Form 10-900
(Rev. 10-90)

OMB No. 1024-0018

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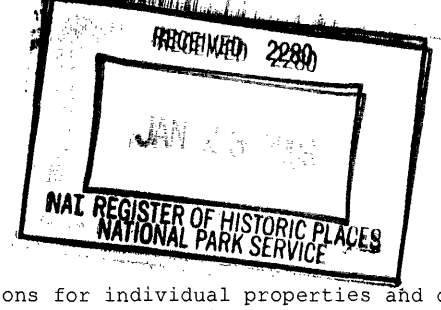

United States Department of the Interior
National Park Service

NATIONAL REGISTER OF HISTORIC PLACES
REGISTRATION FORM

This form is for use in nominating or requesting determinations for individual properties and districts. See instructions in How to Complete the National Register of Historic Places Registration Form (National Register Bulletin 16A). Complete each item by marking "x" in the appropriate box or by entering the information requested. If any item does not apply to the property being documented, enter "N/A" for "not applicable." For functions, architectural classification, materials, and areas of significance, enter only categories and subcategories from the instructions. Place additional entries and narrative items on continuation sheets (NPS Form 10-900a). Use a typewriter, word processor, or computer, to complete all items.

1. Name of Property

historic name: Manhattan School
other names/site number: Manhattan Public Library

2. Location

street & number Gold Street between Mineral St. and Dexter Ave. not for publication ___
city or town Manhattan vicinity ___
state Nevada code NV county Nye code 023 zip code 89022

3. State/Federal Agency Certification

As the designated authority under the National Historic Preservation Act of 1986, as amended, I hereby certify that this _/_ nomination ___ request for determination of eligibility, meets the documentation standards for registering properties in the National Register of Historic Places and meets the procedural and professional requirements set forth in 36 CFR Part 60. In my opinion, the property _/_ meets ___ does not meet the National Register Criteria. I recommend that this property be considered significant ___ nationally ___ statewide _X_ locally. (___ See continuation sheet for additional comments.)

Ronald M. James, SHPO 1-20-06
Signature of certifying official/Title Date

State or Federal agency and bureau

In my opinion, the property ___ meets ___ does not meet the National Register criteria. (___ See continuation sheet for additional comments.)

Signature of commenting or other official Date

State or Federal agency and bureau

4. National Park Service Certification

I hereby certify that this property is:

_/_ entered in the National Register
___ See continuation sheet.
___ determined eligible for the National Register
___ See continuation sheet.
___ determined not eligible for the National Register
___ removed from the National Register
___ other (explain):

for Edson G. Beall 3/8/06
Signature of Keeper Date of Action

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5. Classification

Ownership of Property (Check as many boxes as apply)

___ private
_X_ public-local
___ public-State
___ public-Federal

Category of Property (Check only one box)

_X_ building(s)
___ district
___ site
___ structure
___ object

Number of Resources within Property (Do not include previously listed resources in the count.)

Contributing	Noncontributing	
2		buildings
	1	sites
		structures
		objects
2	1	Total

Number of contributing resources previously listed in the National Register N/A

Name of related multiple property listing (Enter "N/A" if property is not part of a multiple property listing.)

6. Function or Use

Historic Functions (Enter categories from instructions)

Cat: Education Sub: School
Education Education-related housing

Current Functions (Enter categories from instructions)

Cat: Education Sub: Library

7. Description

Architectural Classification (Enter categories from instructions)

No Style(vernacular)

Materials (Enter categories from instructions)

foundation School: wood Outhouse: concrete
roof School: metal/tin (later stucco) Outhouse: wood
walls School: metal/tin (later stucco) Outhouse: wood
other

Narrative Description (Describe the historic and current condition of the property on one or more continuation sheets.) See continuation sheets.

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8. Statement of Significance

Applicable National Register Criteria (Mark "x" in one or more boxes for the criteria qualifying the property for National Register listing)

__X__ **A** Property is associated with events that have made a significant contribution to the broad patterns of our history.
____ **B** Property is associated with the lives of persons significant in our past.
____ **C** Property embodies the distinctive characteristics of a type, period, or method of construction or represents the work of a master, or possesses high artistic values, or represents a significant and distinguishable entity whose components lack individual distinction.
____ **D** Property has yielded, or is likely to yield information important in prehistory or history.

Criteria Considerations (Mark "X" in all the boxes that apply.)
Property is:
____ A owned by a religious institution or used for religious purposes.
____ B removed from its original location.
____ C a birthplace or a grave.
____ D a cemetery.
____ E a reconstructed building, object, or structure.
____ F a commemorative property.
____ G less than 50 years of age or achieved significance within the past 50 years.

Areas of Significance (Enter categories from instructions)
Education
Community Planning and Development

Period of Significance 1913-1955
Significant Dates 1913
Significant Person (Complete if Criterion B is marked above) _____
Cultural Affiliation _____
Architect/Builder McDonald, Angus (1913)

Narrative Statement of Significance (Explain the significance of the property on one or more continuation sheets.) See continuation sheets.

9. Major Bibliographical References

Bibliography (Cite books, articles, and other sources used in preparing this form on one or more continuation sheets

Previous documentation on file (NPS):
___ preliminary determination of individual listing (36 CFR 67) has been requested.
___ previously listed in the National Register
___ previously determined eligible by the National Register
___ designated a National Historic Landmark
___ recorded by Historic American Buildings Survey #
___ recorded by Historic American Engineering Record #

Primary location of additional data
__X__ State Historic Preservation Office
___ Other State agency
___ Federal agency
___ Local government
___ University
__X__ Other
Name of repository: Manhattan School/Library

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10. Geographical Data

Acreage of Property > 1 acre

UTM References (Place additional UTM references on a continuation sheet)

	Zone	Easting	Northing		Zone	Easting	Northing
1	11	493560	4265490	3			
2				4			

See continuation sheet.

Verbal Boundary Description (Describe the boundaries of the property on a continuation sheet.)

Boundary Justification (Explain why the boundaries were selected on a continuation sheet.)

11. Form Prepared By

name/title Elizabeth Harvey, PhD, consultant (and Terri McBride)
organization State Historic Preservation Office date November 18, 2005
street & number 100 N. Stewart St. telephone 775-684-3445
city or town Carson City state NV zip code 89701

Additional Documentation

Submit the following items with the completed form:

Continuation Sheets

Maps

A USGS map (7.5 or 15 minute series) indicating the property's location.
A sketch map for historic districts and properties having large acreage or numerous resources.

Photographs

Representative black and white photographs of the property.

Additional items (Check with the SHPO or FPO for any additional items)

Property Owner

(Complete this item at the request of the SHPO or FPO.)

name Smokey Valley Library District/ Manhattan Library
street & number P.O. Box 1428 (73 Hadley Circle) telephone 775-377-2215
city or town Round Mountain state NV zip code 89045

Narrative Description

The Manhattan School is a 2,816-square-foot, single-story building located on Dexter Avenue in Manhattan, Nevada (Woodliff 2004). Constructed in 1913 (Manhattan Post, 8 February, 1913), the schoolhouse served the Manhattan community as a focal point for its social and cultural life until it was closed due to an insufficient number of students in 1955. The structure rests between blocks H and E in Manhattan (Bryant 2004), on a bluff overlooking the town's Main Street (Woodliff 2004). The parcel also contains a sixteen square-foot wood-frame outhouse (Woodward and Garrison 1990) and a parking lot lying adjacent to the schoolhouse on its north side (Woodliff 2004). The outhouse is a contributing feature to this building's significance. The parking lot is a modern, non-contributing feature to the Manhattan School.

The schoolhouse is rectangular in shape with an eight-foot-by-twenty-five-foot entry foyer projecting south. The foyer is centered across the building's south side. The structure supports a hipped roof with an intersecting gable over its entry (Woodliff 2004), and it also boasts double-hung windows. Additionally, the foyer features a bell tower, and a flagstaff standing on the roof ridge (Woodward and Garrison 1990). The building's rectangular shape, its symmetrically centered entry foyer, its hipped roof, and its double-hung windows indicate its builder, Angus McDonald, conceptualized its design by drawing on a variety of architectural motifs and created a truly vernacular composition.

One of the building's most prominent features is not typical of that movement of any specific architectural style: the metal panels adorning the schoolhouse's interior and (at one time) exterior surfaces. When the schoolhouse was originally constructed in 1913, it was entirely covered with pressed metal panels that were decorated in various patterns corresponding to the function and location of the surfaces that they adorned. On the building's exterior, ashlar stone-patterned panels adorned its walls, and shingle- and cornice-patterned panels bedecked its roof. In the building's interior, wainscoting, wall, frieze, and ceiling patterns prevailed on the panels (Woodward and Garrison 1990).

The Manhattan School's appearance has changed over the decades because its exterior metal panels were covered with metal lath, paper, and exterior stucco. It is still possible, however, to see what the building's appearance was when it was new, since the gable over the foyer still displays the schoolhouse's original panels (Woodliff 2004). Although the stucco applied to most of the school's exterior has altered the materials aspect of integrity, the aspects of location, design, setting, workmanship, feeling and association

remain. It still stands singularly on a small rise above Dexter and Main Streets, just as it has for over ninety years.

The contract for building the schoolhouse was awarded to Angus McDonald, a local builder and contractor. The building originally consisted of three large classrooms, an office, and a hallway (Manhattan Post, 3 February, 1913). The classrooms were approximately 744 square feet each. Their walls and ceilings were covered, like the building's exterior, with decorative tin panels. The floor was covered with 1" x 4" wood planks, most likely of Douglas Fir. The ceilings were approximately twelve feet high, and the interior doors were panel style with a wide wood trim (Woodliff 2004). As time progressed, several modifications were made to the building: a restroom and a storage room were cut out of the entry foyer, and the building's entry was moved to its north side. In addition, stairs and a small ramp were added to the new entrance, connecting it to the adjacent parking lot.

An architect who recently evaluated the building found it to be structurally sound. The pressed tin panels adorning its interior and exterior walls are mounted on wood frames. The exterior walls are 2" x 6", and the interior ones are 2" x 4". The walls are supported by a wood foundation consisting of 4" x 6" posts on four-foot centers around the perimeter and 4"x 4" posts on four- to six-foot centers. The posts stand on the ground or on stone bases or on wood bases. The floor is constructed of joists and girders: the joists are 2" x 6", and the girders are 4" x 4" (Woodliff 2004).

The building served the community of Manhattan as its schoolhouse from 1913 until 1955. In 2002, the Nye County Board of Commissioners deeded the building to the Smoky Valley Library District, and in 2003, a long time resident of Manhattan, Robert Bottom, deeded the land around the building and its easements to the District. The District has already converted one of the Manhattan School's classrooms into a library, and it is currently rehabilitating the entire structure. After the building is rehabilitated, the citizens of Manhattan and the Smoky Valley Library District plan to continue using one of the schoolhouse's rooms as a library and to use the other two rooms as a museum and a community meeting room (Smoky Valley Library District, Commission for Cultural Affairs Grant Application 1997).

During the 1930s, the school's facilities were also improved by the introduction of a Works Project Administration's (WPA) "fly proof privy." Manhattan's schoolhouse

privy is remarkable because it was one of three erected in southern Nevada, the others being erected in the northern part of the state (a total of 1,100 were built in Nevada). The WPA privy remains standing next to the Manhattan School today, and is a contributing feature to this nominated property.

Statement of Significance

The Manhattan Schoolhouse is eligible for listing in the National Register of Historic Places under Criterion A, due to its long association with the social, educational, and community development history of one of Nevada's key twentieth-century mining camps. Manhattan was founded in 1905, when several local prospectors discovered a rich vein of gold along the Belmont- to-Cloverdale wagon road in Nye County's Smoky Mountains. The strike at Manhattan, along with a series of mineral discoveries occurring at the dawn of the twentieth century, helped renew Nevada's social, political, and economic life. The series of mineral discoveries rejuvenating Nevada at this time is often referred to as "Nevada's twentieth-century mining boom" (Elliott 1966). This boom, occurring roughly forty years after the discovery of gold on Mount Davidson (outside Virginia City, designated a National Historic Landmark October 15, 1966), is widely regarded as one of the most significant events to occur in the state's history.

Manhattan not only participated in Nevada's second great mining boom, but benefited as well from the dramatic increase in gold prices instituted by the Roosevelt Administration during the 1930s, which revitalized the town. During that same decade, one of the world's largest floating dredges (machine that removes ore with buckets or scoops on an endless chain) was introduced into the community, and it operated in Manhattan until the mid 1940s. After that time, Manhattan entered a period of decline. During the 1960s and the early 1970s, many believed, in fact, that the community was destined to become a ghost town.

The Manhattan School, which opened in 1913, remained at the center of Manhattan's social life for forty-two years, before it was closed in 1955 due to an insufficient number of students. When Manhattan revived again during the mining boom of the late 1970s and the early 1980s, however, the Manhattan School was reopened by the community as the Manhattan Library. It remained open, in fact, until July 2005, when it was closed

once more, though its closure this time was understood by all to be a temporary one. Currently, the Smoky Valley Library District is restoring the venerable old building and when it reopens it will function, once again, as a library and as a community cultural center.

Historical Background and Significance:

The History of Manhattan, Nevada:

"Manhattan, Nye County, Nevada is at latitude 38° 28' N., about 29 miles north-northeast of Tonopah and about 13 miles southwest of the old silver camp, Belmont." Situated on the "western slope of the low group of hills locally known as the Smoky Mountains, the town of Manhattan has an altitude of about 7,250 feet above sea level." The Smoky Mountains "connect the Toquima Range on their north" to the San Antonio Mountains on their south, thus separating the Big Smoky Valley lying to their west, from the "northern arm" of the Ralston Valley that lies to their east (Emmons and Garrey 1983:84 [1907]). Running along an east-west axis, the narrow valley sheltering the town of Manhattan extends well into the Smoky Mountains, providing a natural passageway through the low-lying hills. In the 1860s, the Belmont to Cloverdale wagon road followed this route through the mountains. Linking eastern and western Nevada, it was one of the desert's principal highways during the last half of the nineteenth century (Emmons and Garrey 1983:84 [1907]).

Nestled in "the forks of two gulches" in the Smoky Mountains, Manhattan inhabits one of Nevada's most picturesque town sites (Keeler 1913:971). In 1907, the town was three miles long and one thousand feet wide (Emerson 1983:120 [1907]). Flanked by rounded hills rising from 200 to 500 feet above the valley floor, the area possesses abundant vegetation, at least by Nevada standards. The surrounding hills are dotted with piñon pines and juniper (Emmons and Garrey 1983:84 [1907]), and the Smoky Valley boasts a breath-taking display of wild flowers each spring (Stewart 1992:63). Emphasizing the piñon-juniper plant community common to the region, Nevada's miners sometimes referred to Manhattan as the "Pine Tree Camp" (Keeler 1913:971).

Manhattan's location—indeed, the location of all of central Nevada, lying, as it does, midway between the Great Salt Lake and California—was vital to the region's early

development. While archaeological evidence suggests Native Americans have hunted the lands of central Nevada for about ten thousand years (Elston 1986:138; McCracken 1990: 7-8), the area did not attract the interest of Euro-Americans until the third decade of the nineteenth century. At that time, the siren call of California lured them into Nevada's "desert wastes." The first group of Euro-Americans to explore the region was a party of Rocky Mountain Fur Company trappers. After being evicted from California by its Mexican governor, the group, under the leadership of Jedediah Strong Smith, traversed the lower regions of the Big Smoky Valley from west to east in 1827 on its way to Smith's headquarters in Utah (Elliott 1987:34-36). Since the journal and map documenting this crossing have been lost, it is uncertain how near Smith's party actually came to the site of present day Manhattan.[1]

The next group of Euro-Americans to travel through the region was John C. Frémont's 1845 U. S. Corps of Topographical Engineers expedition. Although notorious for the role it played in fermenting California's "Bear Flag Revolt," the expedition explored a substantial portion of central Nevada before it crossed over the Sierras and became involved in California's political life. In fact, Frémont's 1843-1844 expedition for the Topographical Engineers across Nevada and the Great Basin documented a substantial amount of unknown territory. According to the 1845 expedition's records, Frémont split his party into two groups at Whitten Springs (Simpson 1983:21 [1876]). The larger party, under the command of Theodore Talbot, then followed the Humboldt River route through Nevada, while the smaller party, under Frémont's command (Goetzmann 1959: 119-120), crossed the Ruby Mountains, and headed southwest toward Walker Lake, where they rejoined the larger party. This route took them through Smoky Valley (McCracken 1990:21-22). They must have passed within just a few miles of Manhattan's future town site.

In 1848, the territory that would one day become Nevada, along with much of the American Southwest, California, and Utah, was acquired by the United States from Mexico with the Treaty of Guadalupe-Hidalgo. These lands were then incorporated into the Territory of Utah in 1850. Hoping to establish a military road across the newly acquired territory, a U. S. Army expedition under the general command of Lieutenant NPS

[1] Gloria Griffen Cline believes the Smith Party passed through the vicinity of Manhattan (Cline 1963: 158). Elliott suggests, however, that Smith's group passed through the area of present-day Tonopah. (Elliott YEAR: 34-36).

Colonel Edward J. Steptoe ventured into the region in 1854. This expedition, led by John Reese, one of Nevada's early Mormon settlers, explored the Reese River Valley before turning west and pioneering "a new, shorter, and straighter route between Salt Lake City and Carson [V]alley" than the heavily-trafficked emigrant trail that followed along the Humboldt River (Bancroft 1981:75 [1890]; McCracken 1990:21).

Building on the work of the Reese River expedition, in 1859 Captain James H. Simpson, another member of the U.S. Topographical Engineers, explored central Nevada. Intending to establish a wagon route through Nevada that did not follow the circuitous Humboldt River route, Simpson led his party of sixty-four men directly across the Great Basin (Simpson 1983: 41 [1876]). The trail Simpson charted through Nevada was over 250 miles shorter than the Humboldt River route. Since it saved westward-moving emigrants about two weeks of travel time, it quickly became one of Nevada's most popular overland trails (Zink 1983:6c). Simpson's direct route through Nevada was utilized by the Pony Express when it began its service in 1860, and, a year later, by the transcontinental telegraph and by the Overland Stage. Simpson's route still shepherds travelers through Nevada along U.S. Highway 50. In the early twentieth century, in fact, U.S. Highway 50 was built along "much of the trail Simpson blazed" (Zink 1983:6c).

As luck would have it, the Pony Express, the transcontinental telegraph, and the Overland Stage were established at the very moment a group of prospectors in the western-most expanse of the Utah Territory were about to make a discovery that transformed the Great Basin's social, political, and economic life. In 1859, gold and silver were discovered on Mount Davidson in the shadow of the Sierra Nevada range (the gateway to California), and, by 1860 the epic "Rush to Washoe" had begun. The western portion of the Utah Territory was transformed virtually overnight, centered on the newly discovered Comstock Mining District. Its population increased dramatically. Mining camps, quickly evolving into towns and cities, began to dot its once barren mountainsides, and a stream of gold and silver, one of the largest the world had ever seen, began to pour forth from its mines. In short order, this tract of rolling hills, sage, alkali, and piñon pines was transformed into the Nevada Territory, and in 1864, Nevada became a state (James 1998: 6-9, 41-42, 62-66).

The trail Simpson charted through central Nevada contributed to these developments, since it was one of the primary arteries running through the state to its boomtowns and mining camps on the eastern slopes of the Sierras. It not only contributed to the rise of Virginia City, Gold Hill, the capital Carson City, and the other towns of western Nevada,

but it also "played an indirect but decisive part in a discovery" (Lewis 1986:7) that was pivotal to central Nevada's early development. In May 1862, William Talcott, a former Pony Express rider quartered at Jacob's Station, was seeking stray horses along the Pony Express trail when he noticed "an outcropping of greenish-colored rock that stirred his interest." Bearing a resemblance to ore-bearing outcroppings he had seen on the Comstock, he took some samples "and sent them to Virginia City to be assayed." He also alerted his friends of the discovery. They took some more samples, and, soon news of the strike at "Pony Ledge" was out and the rush to Reese River had begun (Lewis 1986:7-10).

By July 1863, the population of the Reese River area had risen from a handful of Euro-Americans and small bands of Native Americans to four thousand fortune seekers of various stripes—miners, hotel keepers, merchants, bartenders, laundresses, lawyers, and diverse craftsmen. Two mining camps, Austin and Clifton had been established (Lewis 1986:10-12), and from these bases prospectors fanned out across central Nevada, exploring the canyons of the Toiyabe, Toquima, and Shoshone Mountain Ranges for precious minerals. Many of these men had learned their trade in California's goldfields and on the slopes of Mount Davidson, and they were skilled in their work. They discovered numerous promising ledges throughout central Nevada, and new mining camps were established to develop these sites (McCracken 1997:126-128). While money was made at many of these sites, and some even developed into full-fledged towns boasting bars, churches, stores, and the like, few harbored enough precious ore to sustain them for more than a few years. Hence, communities rose and fell in central Nevada throughout the 1860s and the 1870s, and by 1880, only a few such as the town of Austin, remained (Hulse 1991:101, 108-109).

One of the ledges discovered at this time was near the future site of the town of Manhattan. In 1866, George Nicholl was prospecting in a canyon in the Smoky Mountains about ten miles southwest of the newly established mining town of Belmont, when he discovered a pocket of silver ore (Tonopah Times—Bonanza and Goldfield News 13 May, 1977a).[2] The Irish-born Nicholl seems to have been in the employ of the Manhattan Mining Company when he made the discovery. A year later, when he established the claim, he named the area the Manhattan Mining District (Angel

[2] Angel claimed the ore was "base, containing copper and iron, but no trace of gold." He also stated that when the ore was milled at Belmont, it averaged about $100 per ton (Angel 1958: 518 [1881]).

1958:518 [1881]). Although fifty mining claims were ultimately located within the Manhattan District, the district's two principal nineteenth-century mines were the Mohawk and the Black Hawk. Little work was done in the district after 1869 (Angel 1958:518 [1881]). Nicholl remained in the area, nonetheless, serving for a time as Nye County's District Court Clerk and, then, as the County's Superintendent of Schools (Tonopah Times—Bonanza and Goldfield News May 13, 1977a).

A flurry of interest in the Manhattan area broke out again with the discovery of silver ore near Manhattan Spring in 1877. The Eagle Mining District was organized, and a small town, Old Manhattan, was established (McCracken 1997:173). The strike was not rich enough, however, to sustain the town through the decline in silver prices resulting from the 1873 devaluation of silver and the resumption of the gold standard in 1879. Manhattan Gulch was "strangled by the slump of the 1880s and the 1890s," as was much of Nevada. Even the mighty Comstock, the pride of Nevada's mining frontier, wasted and waned in the last decades of the nineteenth century. Yet, as one of the community's historians once claimed, Manhattan was "a spunky old gal," and she would rise again from Nevada's desert wastes (Murbarger 1956:51).

The Manhattan Mining District got a new lease on life when gold was discovered in the district by John C. Humphrey and his partners "in April, 1905, near the southern base of April Fool Hill, about 100 feet from the Belmont [to] Cloverdale wagon road." While the first assays were not promising, by July "specimens of high-grade ore showing an abundance of free gold" were obtained and a small rush to Manhattan ensued (Garrey and Emmons 1983:85 [1907]). Although this first rush to Manhattan was ephemeral, since the area's miners were soon drawn away by the allure of other strikes, "a shipment of rich ore in January, 1906, created a new rush" (Keeler 1913:960). By March 1906, about 3,000 people lived in Manhattan and in its immediate vicinity. Two observers associated with the U. S. Geological Survey, W. H. Emmons and G. H. Garrey, reported at this time that the community was "agreeably located, well laid out, and ha[d] many wooden buildings, while some of stone" in the process of being constructed. They also noted that Manhattan was already equipped with a post office, numerous stores, banks, newspapers, assay offices, telegraph and telephone services, and stage and automobile lines (Garrey and Emmons 1983:85 [1907]). Supporting these diverse stores and services were "thirty working properties...producing a tremendous output of high-grade milling ore" (Emmerson 1907:120).

By the close of its first year, then, Manhattan had become a thriving little community in the Smoky Mountains. Lawyers, geologists, surveyors, doctors, restaurateurs, saloon keepers, and newspaper men (Manhattan Post, 13 May, 1977) converged at the town that grew up around the April Fool Mine, the site of the original discovery. Other mines established at this time include the Manhattan Consolidated Mine, the Stray Dog Mine, and the Union No. 9 Mine (Garrey and Emmons 1983:90-92 [1907]). The ore at Manhattan was primarily contained in sedimentary rock, and the ore bodies were narrow, tabular lode deposits (Garrey and Emmons 1983:85-83 [1907]). Early in 1906, Manhattan attracted the attention of capitalists in San Francisco, and they began investing in the community. The San Francisco earthquake ruined many of those who had been invested in Manhattan, however, and for a time the camp's development was put on hold (Keeler 1913:968).

Nonetheless, Manhattan re-energized as she had done so many times before. Hardrock mining had originally prevailed in Manhattan, but, in 1908, a placer miner from California, William McDonald (some say his name was actually William Alexander), started working the gravel on the Nellie Grey Claim. After he cleared several thousand dollars, others took interest in Manhattan's placers (McCracken 1997:209-212). The man who was primarily responsible for establishing placer mining in Manhattan, however, was Thomas "Dry Wash" Wilson. Wilson installed placer mining equipment in the community that could handle large quantities of water and gravel, and he began turning a tidy profit. In 1912 the value of Manhattan's gravel ranged "from $8 to $30 per yard, and many large nuggets ha[d] been found." Due in part, to Manhattan's placers, in 1912, the Pine Tree Camp "probably attracted more attention and recorded greater progress" than any other district in Nevada (Keeler 1913:967-969). Manhattan's history was now dovetailing with the general history of Nevada, and the small community had become an important mining town in the state.

The last decades of the nineteenth century had been rough on the Silver State, as depleted mines, declining silver prices, and increasing production costs conspired to decimate the state's mining industry. For a quarter of a century it appeared as though nothing would stem Nevada's decline. Livestock production replaced mining as the state's leading industry, and even that encountered problems as harsh winters and low cattle prices plunged the industry into crises during the 1880s and the 1890s. It was even suggested that Nevada be "deprived of its statehood since it had so few people and so little economic reason to keep it in the Union" (Elliott 1966:4). Then, in the spring of 1900, a

rancher and part-time prospector, James L. Butler, discovered gold at Tonopah, Nevada, and a new era of bonanza rekindled the state's economy and revived its social and cultural life. More strikes at nearby Goldfield beginning in 1903 (listed as a National Register District in 1982) only solidified the economic upswing.

In scope and in significance, Nevada's second mining boom was almost as critical to the state's history as the events associated with the discovery of the legendary Comstock Lode. Like the rush to the Comstock, it attracted thousands of people to Nevada, encouraged further mineral exploration and discovery, increased the general prosperity of the state, stimulated the development of new railroad lines, and led to the establishment of a plethora of new towns and mining camps. Further, while it did not create Nevada as a social and a political entity—that was the work of the Comstock—it did revitalize the state's economy and elevate it, once again, into the "mining limelight" (Elliott 1966:299-306). Finally, in certain parts of the state, the strikes of this era proved to be longer-lived than those of Nevada's nineteenth-century mining boom. The sustainability of these strikes was most evident in White Pine County's copper industry, which survived for three-quarters of the twentieth century in eastern Nevada. While not as large or prosperous a community as those associated with the copper industry in White Pine County, Manhattan also persevered for much of the twentieth century.

One bonanza followed another during the first decade of the twentieth century, as "an army of newly-inspired prospectors" spread over the regions surrounding Tonopah, "hammering and chipping at every likely ledge" (Murbarger 1956:51). While discoveries of gold and silver at such places as Goldfield and Rhyolite continued to excite the imaginations and buoy the spirits of Nevada's prospectors, the discovery of copper—a base metal essential to the modern electrical industry—at Ely in eastern Nevada also contributed to the revival of Nevada's economic life. A network of mining camps and boomtowns spread throughout southern and central Nevada, and the windswept mountains and desert wastes of these regions began to boast small enclaves of human life. Almost overnight schools, churches, and stock exchanges materialized and oases of refinement and culture dotted the Nevada wilderness. Manhattan was one of these oases (Elliott 1966:300).

Manhattan's hardrock mines were at their peak in 1911 when they produced just over 20,000 ounces of gold. And, Manhattan's placer production peaked in 1912 and 1913, contributing 8,000 ounces of gold annually to the community's total production (McCracken 1997:21). During these years, Manhattan prospered economically, and its

prosperity was reflected in the community's standard of living. By 1907, the fledgling community Emmons and Garrey had described a year earlier had grown to include two hospitals (the Nye County hospital and the Miners Union hospital), a "good water system," a stock exchange, a school, a blacksmith shop, and a corral (Tonopah Times—Bonanza and Goldfield News 13 May, 1977a). In 1909, the California-Nevada Power Company extended a line into Manhattan. This event sparked a community celebration because the town had been without electricity since its first electric light company had failed a few years earlier (Earl 1980). Thus, the number of businesses in Manhattan had increased since Emmons and Garrey had first seen the town, and more hotels, saloons, cafes, and restaurants had been added to the rich mix they had seen in 1906.

Another sign of the area's growth and prosperity was reflected in the fact that other mining camps were springing up in the lands adjacent to Manhattan. East Manhattan, Palo Alto, and Centralia, for example, were established within five miles of Manhattan in 1905-1906. The quality of life in these communities, as in Manhattan, was being augmented at this time by the ranchers of the Smoky Valley, who were providing "a plentiful supply of fresh fruit and vegetables in season" to their residents (McCracken 1997:200-202), as well as offering them "home raised and home killed" beef at the Union meat market (Manhattan Post, 22 March, 1913b). In addition, in 1912, a dairy opened in Manhattan. This event was regarded with such enthusiasm by the town's residents that it even received coverage in the local newspaper (Manhattan Post, 17 August, 1912). Finally, in 1912, the community passed a bond supporting the construction of a new school for Manhattan's children. The structure, which opened in 1913, would become the hub of the town's social and cultural life, serving as the site of local dances, basket socials, and masquerade parties (Tonopah Times—Bonanza and Goldfield News, 13 May, 1977b), as well as entertaining the community with stage plays, variety shows, and musical entertainment, featuring the school's faculty and students (Manhattan Post, 15 November, 1913). In sum, between 1906 and 1913, Manhattan had ceased to be simply a mining camp. It had become a full-fledged town boasting all the amenities.

The town of Manhattan developed a lively communal life between 1906 and 1913. At the center of Manhattan society were its fraternal organizations and its voluntary associations. Chief among these were the Miners Union, the Toquima Aerie of the Eagles Club, the Manhattan Athletic Club, a town band, the Manhattan Gun Club, the Volunteer Fire Department, a town baseball team (Manhattan Post, 26 April, 1913), and the Toiyabe Literary Club, a "ladies organization" affiliated with the National

Association of Women's Clubs. These organizations and voluntary associations sponsored a round of annual festivals and charitable events that set the temporal rhythms of Manhattan's social life. Key among these annual events were a New Year's Eve Masquerade Ball (Tonopah Times—Bonanza and Goldfield News, 13 May, 1977a), a Fireman's Ball in April (Tonopah Times—Bonanza and Goldfield News, 13 May, 1977a), a Fourth of July Celebration (Manhattan Post, 28 June, 1913; Vander Meer 1980), and a Labor Day festival in September (Manhattan Post, 10 August, 1912).

The parades, dances, games, sporting competitions, and banquets normally accompanying these events also testify to the vitality of the community. For example, in 1912, the Miners Union sponsored a Labor Day Celebration that began at 8:00 AM with a barbeque hosted by Manhattan's local Native American community. A parade, set for nine o'clock, followed the barbeque. According to the *Manhattan Post*, the parade was "gorgeous and won the admiration of residents and visitors alike." The Miners' Union led the parade, followed by the Firemen, and then the Eagles. The Eagles contribution was especially notable, featuring a float filled with children and an "escort" accompanying the float that marched both ahead of it and behind it (Manhattan Post, 7 September, 1912a). An "industrial float" sponsored by W. M. Veith, a local merchant, came next, followed by Clark James's bare-boned exhibition of "old and new" consisting of a new automobile pulling an old wagon. Finally, local Native Americans riding on their horses and ponies closed the parade. Athletic competitions and contests of various sorts followed the parade. Included among these events were races of assorted types (foot, horse, cart, and motorcycle), pie-eating competitions, greased pole climbing contests, and a double-handed drilling contest. A water fight (which was ruled a draw) helped to cool everyone down in the afternoon and prepare them for the grand ball to be held that evening (Manhattan Post, 7 September, 1912a).

While Manhattan prospered during the years immediately preceding the outbreak of World War I, by 1915 there were signs of decline. In that year Manhattan's hardrock ores produced less than 8,000 ounces of gold, and its placer production was also slowing (McCracken 1997:213). Many of those who had moved to Manhattan during the boom years of 1906 and 1907 left in 1914 or 1915 (Vander Meer 1980:11-13). Yet others remained. Those who chose to "stick it out" supported themselves and their families primarily by working the placers in Manhattan Gulch (McCracken 1997:203-206) or by getting a job at one of the area's lode mines or mills (Humphrey 1987:85). Symbolic, perhaps, of the community's malaise, the decade of the 1920s opened with a couple of

fires that devastated much of the town (Fallon Standard, 31 May, 1922). The community's misfortune continued throughout the decade, due in part to the fact that during the 1920s the price of gold was arbitrarily set at $20 per ounce.

Nonetheless, the Manhattan Consolidated and the White Caps mines continued to operate—albeit with starts and stops—into the 1930s (McCracken 1997:203-206; Stewart 1992:20), so the community survived. Its stalwart mining families, although diminished in number, continued to enjoy active social lives. During the 1920s, community members celebrated the Fourth of July at Darrough's Hot Springs in Smoky Valley, arranged community dances, picnics, and card parties, and even sponsored a men's and ladies' basketball team. The venerable Toiyabe Literary Club, established during the camp's first years, continued to play an important role in the community's cultural life, hosting dances for the community at its clubhouse and arranging to have motion pictures shown at its facilities (Humphrey 1987:85-87). And, finally, the Manhattan School remained a focus of the community. Despite "a few stormy times," the local P.T.A. sponsored successful fundraisers for the school, and the citizens of Manhattan continued to "dig into their pockets" to help support it (Tonopah Times—Bonanza and Goldfield News, 13 May, 1977b).

While Manhattan struggled during the 1920s, better days were ahead when Franklin Delano Roosevelt became president in 1933. The Roosevelt administration raised the price of gold to $35 per ounce, and this price increase rejuvenated Manhattan. Placer mining resumed on small claims in the Manhattan Gulch; the White Cap Mine, which had been shut down for a short time, resumed operating, and a new mine, the Reliance, opened up in the mid-1930s (McCracken 1997:204-207, 221). Given the stark economic realities of the early Depression, life in Manhattan was looking relatively good to the region's miners and their families. The town's population was "close to three hundred, the highest it ha[d] been in a good many years," and the tight-knit little community had sustained its vibrant social life (Stewart 1992:20-21). Dances, wedding parties with their attendant Shivarees, Thanksgiving feasts celebrated with neighbors and family (Stewart 1992:40-42), and locally staged theatrical performances sponsored jointly by the Toiyabe Club and the teachers and students of the Manhattan School brightened the community's social and cultural life (Roberts 1987:119; Tonopah Times—Bonanza and Goldfield News, 13 May, 1977b).

In 1938, a major technological innovation restructured the productive lives of many of Manhattan's placer miners. After an intensive study of Manhattan's placers, a

"combination of capital and experienced engineers" introduced an "ultra-modern bucket line floating dredge" into the Manhattan Gulch. This dredge, one of the largest that the world had ever seen, was capable of processing thirty-seven "10-cubic-foot" buckets per minute, or about 6,580 yards of auriferous gravel per eight-hour shift (The Goldfield New and Weekly Tribune, 4 January, 1946). The enormous dredge, which was "said to have dimensions of 180 feet by 60 feet," was expensive to install, costing approximately $1 million, but it was inexpensive to run, since only six men were needed per shift to operate it (The Goldfield News, 18 December, 1939). Thus, while the gigantic machine allowed fewer miners to process more gold ore per day than had ever been processed in Manhattan, the machine's very productivity threatened the livelihood of many in the community. Some of the placer miners did, in fact, leave the community at this point in time (Stewart 1992:149). Others, however, found employment working on the dredge, so the community, while diminished, limped on.

It was not the dredge, therefore, that caused Manhattan's near demise in the 1940s (McCracken 1997:232), but the outbreak of World War II (Robert 1987:121). Believing the war effort would be better served if gold miners were employed in nonferrous metal mines, in 1942 the War Production Board (WPB) decided to halt all gold mining in the United States (New York Times, 7 October, 1942). Although Senator Pat McCarran managed to persuade the WPB to approve a request on the part of the Manhattan Gold Dredging Company to continue work on "a one-shift daily scope" with employees that were deemed by the War Manpower Commission as not "vital to the war effort" (Tonopah Times—Bonanza, 6 August, 1943), the small community of Manhattan remained in a downward spiral during the early 1940s.

The situation went from bad to worse in 1946 when the Manhattan Gold Dredging Company terminated its operations and later moved the dredge to Cooper Canyon, 170 miles north of Manhattan. "When the dredge and its subsequent payroll [were] removed" the town "was finished....Every business house closed up shop....Even the Catholic Church closed its door[s]," and several of the town's buildings were moved "to Round Mountain where placer operations were in full swing" (Cerveri 1965). The town's school remained open, however, and a few intrepid families remained.

In 1955, the Manhattan School, the pride of the community, was finally forced to close its

doors--its student body had diminished to only three students (Tonopah Times—Bonanza and Goldfield News, 13 May, 1977b). During the mid-1950s, Manhattan was assuming the appearance of a ghost town. Nell Murbarger, a Nevada writer who visited the community at this time, reported that the "old stone post office" and the Toiyabe Club were now closed. The town was not entirely dead, however, for one of its bars was still open, and aged prospectors still reminisced with its bartender about the strikes (or near strikes) of their youth. There was little life elsewhere, however, in Manhattan (Murbarger 1956:51-55).

Murbarger had not been surprised by the town's silence. The 1950 census enumerators had only managed to count 95 people "in all the 36 miles of the Manhattan township," and, "no matter how optimistic and charitable one may choose to be, 95 citizens is a far leap from the frontier metropolis that filled" the Manhattan ravine when Teddy Roosevelt was still president (Murbarger 1956:51-55). By the time Doris Cerveri visited Manhattan in 1965, only one store—a food and dry goods establishment—remained. A few prospectors, "living in weatherbeaten houses," were still managing to "eke out a modest living reworking the old slag piles," and periodically bottle hunters in search of historic amethyst-colored glass would visit the area (Cerveri 1965:3). At that moment, however, even the most determined among Manhattan's remaining residents was about to abandon hope and admit the Pine Tree Camp had become a ghost town (Reno Evening Gazette, 8 November, 1979).

In the late 1970s, however, the price of gold shot up to more than $400 per ounce and Manhattan—like many of Nevada's other ghost towns—revived once again. The turnaround in the late 1970s was so great, in fact, that Governor Robert List referred to this reversal of the state's mining fortunes as the "third renaissance of mining in Nevada" (Reno Evening Gazette, 8 November, 1979). Due in part to the fact that during the last half of the twentieth century Nevada's economy was no longer dependent on its extractive industries, the state's third mining boom was not as significant as its first two had been. Nevada's third wave of miners still played a crucial role, however, in revitalizing the state's nearly moribund mining communities.

Nevada's "third mining renaissance" was key, in fact, to the survival of Manhattan. In 1978, "there were only 28 people" in the entire town. Yet, within two years, forty new families had moved into the community, and Manhattan came back to life. Drawn by the high gold prices of the era, Houston Oil and Minerals Corporation bought "a stack of

mining claims from Howard Hughes' Summa Corporation" and then moved into Manhattan. The Corporation set up a new mill south of the town, and it began opening a "series of small open pit mines" (Reno Gazette-Journal, 5 October,1980). Symbolic, perhaps, of the community's renewal during the 1980s, the Manhattan School, functioning now as the Manhattan Library, opened it doors once more.

Although the 1980s mining boom subsided during the 1990s, mining is still occurring in the region around Manhattan. In 2004, Manhattan claimed a population of 128 souls (Nevada State Demographer 2004), and good news is sweeping through the community's mining families once again. On November 3, 2005, Royal Standard Minerals, Inc. announced it had entered into a five-year purchase option with a private individual allowing it to secure more than 700 mining claims in the Manhattan Mining District. This "land package" totaled around 1600 acres, and it included a number of "exploration targets" that were "of interest to the company" (Royal Standard Minerals 2005). Manhattan may be on the rise, once again.

The History of Manhattan School:

Recognizing the pivotal role a nation's schools play in establishing and sustaining representative forms of government, in 1785 Congress passed a Land Ordinance decreeing a section of land in each territorial township be set aside for the support of education (U. S. Congress 1785). In conformity with this ordinance, when Nevada became a territory in 1861, its first territorial legislature "established the offices of Superintendent of Public Instruction and County Superintendent" (Garrison et. al. 1990: 15), and it enacted a procedure for establishing and funding public schools in each territorial county. Although the legislature set aside land in each township for the support of education, financial responsibility for these schools was assigned primarily to the local level of government (Elliott 1973:73). Ten percent of all monies paid into the country treasury were to be held in reserve for the hiring of school teachers. When Nevada became a state, the Nevada Constitution refined these procedures. It provided for "the election (later amended to the appointment) of the Superintendent of Public Instruction and levied a State School Tax." Despite these provisions, the "financial burden for education still remained with the local communities" (Garrison et. al. 1990:15).

While Nevada's mines prospered, this system worked well. The economic vagaries of the

mining industry made it difficult, however, for local communities to sustain their long-term financial commitments to their schools, when the industry was in a downward spiral. In an attempt to economize during the mining slump of the late nineteenth century, the Nevada Legislature made the county District Attorneys the "exofficio county superintendents" of schools at no extra pay. Since the District Attorneys were already overworked, this legislation "effectively removed all local supervision of schools for the next twenty years" (Garrison et. al. 1990:17). In 1907, the Nevada Legislature, "responding to the pleas of educators" and inspired, in part, by the progressive spirit of the early twentieth century, "reorganized the state's school system. It divided the state into five supervisory districts, and it mandated that each district be governed by a deputy superintendent, who was required to be a professional educator with minimum qualifications" (Garrison et. al. 1990:16). This move placed the oversight of Nevada's schools in the hands of educational professionals, and it is likely that it improved the state's educational institutions. Under the provisions of this legislation, the schools at Manhattan were under the general direction of the Fifth Supervision District (Garrison et. al. 1990:17).

The primary responsibility for funding the schools, and, hence, ultimately for their quality, still remained, however, in local hands. While entrusting the quality of Nevada's schools to local communities might have presented a problem in some areas of Nevada, this was not true of its mining communities. At least since the days of the Comstock, Nevada's miners and their families took pride in their schools and were willing to invest the capital, labor, and time necessary for them to flourish. Manhattan was no exception in this regard. Interest in the town's schools and a willingness to support them was, in fact, one of this community's most outstanding characteristics.

Unlike many mining camps, from its outset Manhattan could boast the presence of children. The community's founding family, the Humphreys, had school-age children. Soon after the famous April Fool's Day strike giving rise to Manhattan was made, founder John Humphries brought his children to the site of Manhattan (Tonopah Times—Bonanza and Goldfield News, 13 May, 1977a). To the Humphreys' children were soon added the children of other mining families. In 1906, the community established its first school on upper Main Street. Laura Grace Dillon was the teacher. As a memento of the school's first year, she gave a booklet to each of her pupils. It indicates that she taught thirty-three pupils that year in Manhattan (Tonopah Times—Bonanza and Goldfield News, 13 May, 1977b).

Manhattan's second school was established in 1908. Its teacher was Miss Veronica Leehy, and it was located on Erie Street. The Erie Street School may have replaced the one on Main Street, or it may have simply augmented it (Tonopah Times—Bonanza and Goldfield News, 13 May, 1977b; McCracken 1997:262). In 1909, Ida J. Fischer began teaching in Manhattan. She taught in the community until 1924 and was fondly regarded by her students. Effie Mona Mack, one of Nevada's best known educators, also taught Manhattan's children in 1909. After graduating from the University of Nevada, she came to Manhattan to serve as its school principal. While she was in the community she lived with the Humphrey family and remained close to them throughout her distinguished career (Tonopah Times—Bonanza and Goldfield News, 13 May, 1977b). She only remained in Manhattan for one year, however, before resuming her studies at Smith College. It is possible, nonetheless, that the time she spent in this lively mining town influenced her intellectual development, since her major works, "The Life and Letters of William Morris Stewart" (1930--a doctoral dissertation) and *Mark Twain in Nevada* (1947; Nevada State Journal, 2 February, 1964), focused on subjects relating to the state's nineteenth-century mining history.

By 1911, the number of children enrolled in Manhattan's schools had grown to sixty-five, and they were attending school in the Palace Building, one of the community's largest structures. Instructor R. S. McGinnis, from Goldfield, was now teaching the higher grades in Manhattan, while Miss Fischer continued to teach the town's younger students (Tonopah Times—Bonanza and Goldfield News, 13 May, 1977b). In 1912, the local school board decided it was time to build a new school house, and it asked the citizens of Manhattan to support its decision in a special election, centering on bond funding for the construction and furnishing of a new school (Manhattan Post, 8 June, 1912).

The *Manhattan Post* enthusiastically supported this proposal, noting that the community had been in existence for more than six years, and that the number of school age children living in Manhattan had never been "as great as at this moment." Hence, it urged "every voter in Manhattan [to] turn out on election day and cast a ballot for...the school children." It also noted voting for the measure was "an act of justice" for the community's students (Manhattan Post, 8 June, 1912). On Monday, June 17, 1912, the voters of Manhattan unanimously passed the school board's bond proposal. The *Manhattan Post*, pleased with the election's outcome, announced the vote was "137 to nothing" and noted the election was "the most decisive...ever held in Nye county"

(Manhattan Post, 22 June, 1912).

Having received an overwhelming endorsement for its proposal, the school board moved forward and, by the middle of August 1912, it was running notices in the *Post* announcing that it was receiving bids for the school bonds (Manhattan Post, 10 August, 1912; Manhattan Post, 17 August, 1912). On September 7, 1912, the *Manhattan Post* declared the First National Bank of Plainville, Ohio had purchased the bonds at their premium value, paying $5,026 for them (Manhattan Post, 7 September, 1912). Hence, in February 1913, the school board awarded the construction contract for the new school to Angus McDonald, a local contractor and builder (Manhattan Post, 7 September, 1912).

The *Manhattan Post* reported the plans for the structure called "for three school rooms, an office and hallway." The school rooms were to be finished in pressed steel, as was the structure's exterior, and the building, which was to open in time for the 1913 fall term, was to be erected on Chipmunk Hill (Manhattan Post, 8 February, 1913). In July the *Post* announced "Manhattan's fine new school house" was nearing completion, and it also noted that interest had been expressed in holding a "house-warming" at the school (Manhattan Post, 12 July, 1913).

Although the School Board had originally planned to use its bond funds to pay both for constructing the school building and furnishing it, the construction costs had eaten up most of these funds. Money was still needed, therefore, to purchase additional school furniture (Manhattan Post, 12 July, 1913). The citizens of Manhattan rallied, once again, to support the school. Plans were made for a "school benefit dance and card party" to be held on August 19, 1913. The proceeds from the event were to be used to purchase a new piano for the school as well as additional classroom furniture (Manhattan Post, 2 August, 1913).

Another benefit for the school was scheduled for November 13, 1913. This time the event was held at the Bronx Theatre, and it featured "a program of fourteen numbers," including "selections by the Manhattan orchestra, several songs by the Manhattan male quartette, a delightful little sketch entitled 'Taming a Husband,' ...four animated songs, each with a different young lady in the pose, [and] vocal solos" (Manhattan Post, 15 November, 1913). The benefit was conceptualized, organized, and carried out entirely by Manhattanites, and the local paper urged others in the community to let the participants

know how much they enjoyed their performances. These two events established a tradition in Manhattan. The town was proud of its school, and it was determined to support it, despite the hardships that it would later face.

The new school house opened its doors on September 2, 1913, with Professor Berryessa and Miss Ida Fischer as its first teachers (Manhattan Post, 30 August, 1913). Situated on Dexter Avenue, overlooking Manhattan's Main Street, the handsome structure reflected the optimism and confidence of the community.

When Manhattanites' faith in their community was tested during the 1920s, they honored their commitments to their school. Despite the miners' economic woes, community fundraisers continued to be scheduled, the Toiyabe Literary Club continued to work with Manhattan's school teachers to plan cultural events for the community's children (Tonopah Times—Bonanza and Goldfield News, 13 May, 1977b), and the school board continued to hire excellent teachers and pay them respectable salaries (Humphrey 1987: 81-84). Nonetheless, during these years, the number of school children in Manhattan, like the number of residents in the community, continued to decline. Jim Boni, a student at the Manhattan School during the 1920s and the early 1930s remembered that when he started school in the 1920s there were thirty or forty children attending its classes. When he graduated in the 1930s, however, there were merely three or four other students in his class (Boni 1990:7-8; McCracken 1997:263).

Despite the decline in its numbers, the Manhattan School remained a vital part of Manhattan life during the 1930s. Elizabeth Roberts, who taught at the school during these years, recalled its "rooms were always warm and clean," she had all the supplies she needed, and community spirit was high among Manhattan's residents. She also recalled that the children put on three to four theatrical performances a year during that era (Roberts 1997:119). Evidence of the continuing vitality of the Manhattan School during the 1930s is also found in the fact that the students of the high school were publishing a school annual at this time, *The Pine Tree Annual*, and the Manhattan School also boasted its own school newspaper, *Toiyabe* (11 November, 1937).

During the 1930s, the school's facilities were also improved by the introduction of a Works Project Administration's (WPA) "fly proof privy." The WPA built nearly 1,100 outdoor privies in Nevada during this decade. They were considered by those who used them as a remarkable advance over the pit privies that had dominated in the state prior to this time, since they were set on concrete slabs, were covered with horizontal tongue-and-

groove boards, and "featured a regular door lock, replacing the old nail and string" (Las Vegas Review Journal, 3 March, 2000). Manhattan's schoolhouse privy is remarkable because it was one of three erected in southern Nevada, the others being erected in the northern part of the state. The WPA privy remains standing next to the Manhattan School today, and is a contributing feature to this nominated property. Being an outhouse that still stands in the twenty-first century, it is fundamentally unaltered and retains historic integrity in terms of location, design, setting, materials, workmanship, feeling and association.

The Manhattan School continued to educate Manhattan's children during the 1940s, its student body being enhanced at this time by the attendance of several Native American children (State Department of Education 1947). Nonetheless, after the Manhattan Gulch dredge was relocated, the number of children attending school declined. By 1955, that number had fallen to three students and the school was forced to close its doors. It began to appear as though the Manhattan School was at the end of its distinguished career. In 1968 Virginia Stewart, one of Manhattan's residents during the 1930s, reported that when she revisited the town the school house had "boarded up windows" and was "fast falling into decay" (Stewart 1992:149).

The old schoolhouse, like the town of Manhattan, would then be given a second lease on life during the mining boom of the 1980s, when Nye County reopened the structure and began to use it as a community library. And, in the guise now of the Manhattan Library, the old schoolhouse continued to be a focal point of the community. It was the site of meetings by the "Chit Chat Club," housed the community's annual fundraising event for its volunteer fire department, and—due primarily to the efforts of Linda Hansen, the librarian during much of this era—it offered a "story time" for the community's children.

The role of the Manhattan Schoolhouse continues into the twenty-first century. In 2002, Nye County transferred ownership of the schoolhouse and much of the surrounding land to the Smoky Valley Library District. At present, the District is restoring the old school house and plans to turn it into a museum and a community cultural center, as well as continue to use one of its rooms as a library.

Although the stucco applied to most of the school's exterior has altered the materials aspect of integrity, the aspects of location, design, setting, workmanship, feeling and association remain. It is still stands as the solitary building on a small rise above Dexter

and Main Streets, just as it has for over ninety years, and the townsite of Manhattan has changed minimally since the later years of the school's operation.

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Section 10. Geographical Data

Boundary Description

The Manhattan School site is identified as APN 4-201-11 (Nye County Assessor's Office, 2005), and it is situated in Section 20, T. 8 N, R. 44 E, on the *Manhattan, Nevada* 7.5 minute USGS quadrangle.

The total acreage for the property is less than one acre, and is located on Gold Street between Mineral St. and Dexter Ave., in Manhattan, Nevada. The property consists of the Manhattan School building itself, an outhouse, and a (non-contributing) gravel parking lot.

Boundary Justification

Resource boundaries include all land commonly associated with the lot identified as Nye County, Nevada APN 4-201-11.

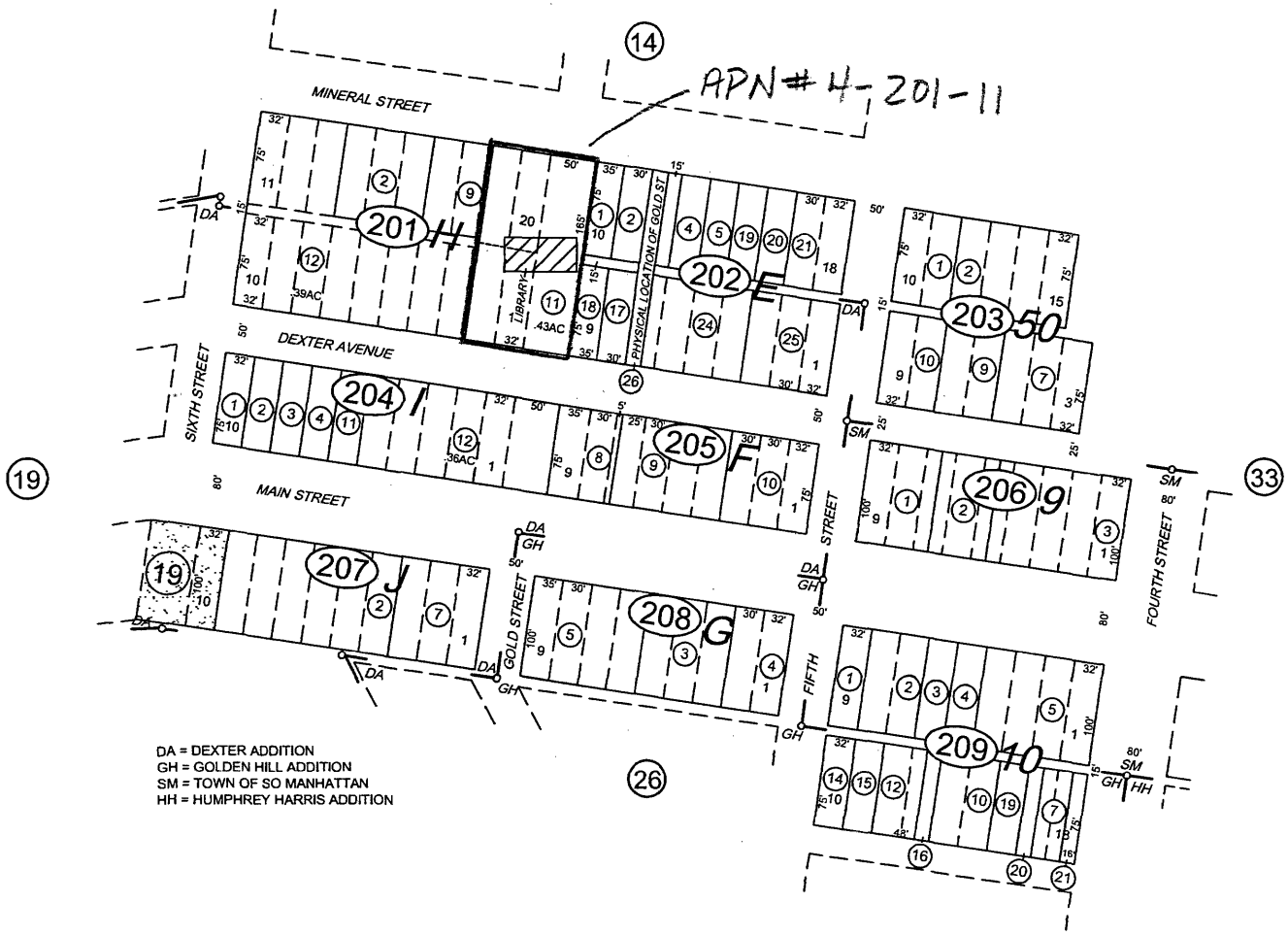
Photo Log (digital images on file at the NV State Historic Preservation Office)

Photo Number	Description	Date/Photographer
1	Exterior, southern elevation; facing northeast. Note contributing feature (WPA privy) in foreground, along western wall of school.	March 2004/Tom Perkins; B/W negatives in possession of photographer
2	Exterior, southern elevation from Dexter Street. Facing north.	November 2005/Jeanne Bleecker
3	WPA privy, contributing feature. Facing south/southeast.	July 2005/Elizabeth Harvey
4	Interior, main classroom.	August 2005/Frank Woodliff
5	Interior, main classroom. Detail of ornate tin ceiling pan.	August 2005/Frank Woodliff

T 8 N, R 44 E
POR OF SEC 20

04-20

NYE COUNTY



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JULY 80/KGD
CAD FILE 06-04-02/KH
NYE COUNTY ASSESSOR

NOTE: THIS PLAT IS FOR ASSESSMENT USE ONLY AND DOES NOT REPRESENT A SURVEY. NO LIABILITY IS ASSUMED AS TO THE ACCURACY OF THE DATA DELINEATED HEREON.

MANHATTAN