NPS Form 10-900-b (Rev. 01/2009) OMB No. 1024-0018 (Expires 5/31/2012)

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



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Cover

# National Register of Historic PlacesMultiple Property Documentation Form

This form is used for documenting property groups relating to one or several historic contexts. See instructions in National Register Bulletin *How to Complete the Multiple Property Documentation Form* (formerly 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 X Amended Submission

## A. Name of Multiple Property Listing

Early XXth Century Schools in Puerto Rico

## B. Associated Historic Contexts

(Name each associated historic context, identifying theme, geographical area, and chronoligical period for each.)

Early XXth Century Schools in Puerto Rico, 1900-1930

## C. Form Prepared by

name/title Jorge Rigau,Architect, FAIA

organization Jorge Rigau Arquitectos date June 14, 2012

street & number #67 calle los baños, 1er piso telephone (787) 982-0002

city or town San Juan state Puerto Rico zip code 00911

e-mail rigau@jorgerigau.com

## 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 60 and the Secretary of the Interior's Standards and Guidelines for Archeology and Historic Preservation.

(____ See continuation sheet for additional comments.)

Carlos A.Rubio Cancela, State Historic Preservation Officer — June 18, 2012

Signature and title of certifying official | 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 — 8/2/2012

Date of Action

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## Table of Contents for Written Narrative

Provide the following information on continuation sheets. Cite the letter and title before each section of the narrative. Assign page numbers according to the instructions for continuation sheets in National Register Bulletin *How to Complete the Multiple Property Documentation Form* (formerly 16B). Fill inpage numbers for each section in the space below.

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

## National Register of Historic Places Continuation Sheet

Early XXth Century Schools in Puerto Rico, 1900-1930

Puerto Rico

Name of multiple property listing (if applicable)
Early XXth Century Schools in Puerto Rico

Section number E Page 1

E. Statement of Historic Contexts

This thematic nomination for Early 20th Century Schools in Puerto Rico addresses the buildings that best represent the Island's public school building efforts from 1900 to 1930. Even if chronological brackets are always to be understood as boundaries with inherent flexibility, during these three (3) decades, abundant architectural work of significance was produced in diverse localities, impacting the country's urban profile and, most importantly, society at large. These schools – most of them still in use - introduced in the Island many of the United States' stylistic, formal and technical concerns regarding educational facilities, as well as climatically and health-oriented building criteria. Inherent siting considerations, innovative building techniques, volumetric and typological variations, and also intrinsic cultural associations have all been considered for the selection of the schools included in this nomination.

After the Spanish American War by which Puerto Rico became a territory of the United States – by the time William Hunt took office as governor in 1900 - there were just over five hundred schoolrooms on the island, as inherited from Spain. The illiteracy rate was 79.6%. By 1930, Puerto Rico boasted 3,273 schools and, according to available records, only 41% of its population could not read or write. A dramatic increase in population during the period underlined the urgent need for educational facilities. During the last two decades of Spanish domination, the population had risen by 140,000 inhabitants and would continue to grow in the following years.[1] Upon taking charge of Puerto Rico at the dawn of the 20th century, the United States immediately understood the potential of education as a vehicle for effectively transmitting knowledge, as well as political and social ideas and ideals.

Government programs fostered a changed urban profile in most of the Island's cities and towns. In the early years of the 20th century, localities such as Ponce, Mayagüez, Arecibo, Yauco, and San Germán were bustling places, greatly enhanced by public works that included paved streets and sidewalks, landscaped areas, street furniture (lampposts, kiosks, stands), and dignified public and private buildings. Emulation of nineteenth century urban ideals still prevailed. Theaters had multiplied; Ponce had more than ten of them. New churches of different denominations complemented Catholicism's ample built legacy since long time evident. Methodist, Presbyterian, and Evangelical temples appeared all over. Not only did alternate places of worship flourished, but also they proudly claimed prominent locations within town for their places of adoration.[2] Of all efforts related to this

[1] José Luis Vivas Maldonado, *Historia de Puerto Rico*, (New York: Las Américas, 1962), 203.
[2] Episcopal churches were built at Comercio and Luna streets, in Ponce and San Germán, respectively. In Mayagüez, the Presbiterian church was located at the intersection of Post and Méndez Vigo streets.

building boom, none had the extended impact of an urban component that now made its presence felt: the schoolhouse.

Background history

During Puerto Rico's Spanish rule, schools were not imposing or merely an assertive institutional presence. Up to 1898, schools were scarce and teaching took place mostly in rented wooden houses **(FIG. 1).** This contrasted sharply with schoolhouse construction in the United States at that time, as established in 1832 with the publication of a brief treatise on school architecture by William A. Alcott. As Fred E.H. Schroeder points out:

> "*Stressing the importance of fresh air, space and light, he prescribed large windows, a classroom providing separate desks for each pupil and open surroundings for recreation* **(FIG. 2)**. *For the next 130 years the basic classroom size of about 25 by 35 feet, expansive windows, high ceilings and an open setting, usually with adjacent playgrounds or athletic fields, distinguished both one-room country schools and large urban schools from other buildings*".[3]

Most of these notions were to find their way into many local schoolhouses, if not all. The main catalyst for their implementation in Puerto Rico proved to be a series of public schools erected from 1900 to 1930. The following table shows how the number of government-owned schoolrooms and teaching personnel increased from 1910 to 1940, particularly underlining the commitment to build that prevailed from 1910 to 1930:

[3] Fred E. H. Schroeder, "The Little Red School-house", in Ray B. Browne and Marshall Fishwick, eds., *Icons of America* (Bowling Green, Ohio: Popular Press, Bowling Green State University, 1978), 145.

*Table 1: Public schoolrooms, teachers, and enrollment from 1910 to 1940*

Source:Juan José Osuna, *A History of Education of Puerto Rico* (Río Piedras: Editorial de la Universidad de Puerto Rico, 1949), 628.

| *Year* | *Government owned schoolrooms* | *Number of teachers* | *Public school enrollment* | *Increase in public schoolrooms* |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| **1910** | 522 | 1,623 | 95,342 | - |
| **1920** | 1,422 | 3,220 | 176,617 | 172.41 |
| **1930** | 3,273 | 4,451 | 221,189 | 130.17 |
| **1940** | 4,048 | 6,294 | 286,098 | 23.68 |

As evidenced, construction of schoolroom facilities reached unparalleled numbers. This increase mirrored rising demographics. By 1899 Census data, Puerto Rico's population reached 958,248.[4] For 1930, the agency reported 1,543,915, that is, a 38% increase.[5]

Within this extended 30-year span, different styles nurtured their construction along the years. Eclecticism characterized the period and, as such, it constitutes the key common denominator of the schools' building process in Puerto Rico, one in which architectural vocabularies combined and contaminated – when not melted into – one another. It would take the 1930's Art Deco obsession to substantially "erase" most eclectic obsessions, as evidenced by the consistency in style evidenced in schoolhouses from then on. However, in spite of the all-inclusiveness that characteristically pervades most eclectic manifestations, the process by which public schools were built in Puerto Rico at the beginning of the 20th century comprise three phases that roughly coincide with each decade: 1900-1910, 1910-1920, and 1920-1930. Many properties built within this period deserve to be nominated to *The National Register of Historic Places* as resources of historical significance, architectural merit, and urban relevance.

As has been documented, before and during the time of the Spanish American War of 1898, the United States had myriad objectives regarding Puerto Rico. Advocacy of progress and freedom was

[4] United States War Dept., Porto Rico Census Office, Joseph Prentiss Sanger, Henry Gannett , Walter Francis Willcox, Frank L . Joannin. *Informe sobre el Censo de Puerto Rico, 1899* (Imprenta del Gobierno, 1899).
[5] Comisión Estatal de Elecciones, *Estadísticas de población de Puerto Rico: 1930-2000*: http://209.68.12.238/censo2000/1930-2000.html

fueled by expansionism, naval power, "Manifest Destiny" ideals and, of course, long range economic interests. The war was brief, the outcome one of the key milestones in Caribbean history: Cuba was granted independence under the supervision of the USA (as prescribed by the Platt Ammendment) and Puerto Rico became a non-incorporated U.S. territory, the latter still is. American soldiers were, in general, more than welcome in the Island; most people rejoiced at their sight. Opposition was nil; support was granted by a large segment of the population.[6]

1900-1910

Before the conflict, the Island operated under the terms of the *Carta Autonómica* of 1897, an agreement by which Spain granted some political rights long requested by local leaders. Once war was over, however, a short-lived military government paved the way for immediate political change in the Island. Enacted April 12, 1900, the Foraker Act - also known as the Organic Act of 1900 - established civilian (albeit limited popular) government on the Island.Signed by president William McKinley, it became known as the Foraker Act after its sponsor Joseph B. Foraker, Senator from Ohio.[7] The newly appointed American citizens would feel the influence of predominant ideas and ideals in the Mainland. The time was ripe for change: political, economic, and educational. From the 1890's to the 1920's, the United States experienced a period of social activism and political reform known as the Progressive Era. "Progressives" led efforts to reform local government, public education and schooling, finance, insurance, industry, railroads, churches, and other areas. They felt that old-fashioned ways meant waste and inefficiency, and eagerly sought out the "one best system".[8]

During the progressive period American business and industry expanded at a fast pace. The increase in commerce, trade and production, fostered a large influx of immigrants to the United States. Friedrich Winslow Taylor (1856-1915) helped the expansion of industry, being an adherent to the"Efficiency Movement", through which it was argued that all aspects of the economy, society and government were riddled with waste and inefficiency. This movement - basically concerned with making the factories more efficient in producing more with less cost, effort and material – would

[6]Fernando Picó, *1898: La guerra después de la guerra*(Río Piedras, Puerto Rico: Ediciones Huracán, Segunda Edición, 1998).

[7] The law provided for a governor and an executive council appointed by the President of the United States, a House of Representatives with 35 elected members, a judicial system with a Supreme Court and a United States District Court, and a non-voting resident Commissioner in Congress. All federal laws of the United States were to be in effect on the island.

[8] For expanded information, see Lewis L. Gould , *America in the Progressive Era, 1890–1914* (New York and Harlow: Pearson Education Limited, 2001), and David B. Tyack, *The One Best System: A History of American Urban Education* (Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press, 1974).

emphasize the value of an educated population as an asset for production.[9]

Education was influenced by the aspirations of the *Efficiency Movement*. By mid-19th century, Horace Mann **(FIG. 3),** member of the State Board of Education of Massachusetts from 1837 to 1848, had argued strongly that everyone had a right to an education, regardless the race, creed, origin, or class. Understood to be most important component of a democratic society, education had to be organized and controlled by the State, on whom all related responsibilities befall, particularly providing an apt environment for learning. In his *First Annual Report of the Board of Education*, Mann is already arguing: "*the comfort and progress of children at school depend, to a considerable degree, on the proper and commodious construction of schoolhouses*"[10], underlining as a priority "*the construction of schoolhouses, which experience and reason show to be of great practical importance in carrying on the business of education*."[11]

Mann appealed to the self-interest of the people and to the cupidity of industrialists and decision makers for support of his cause on the grounds that education could properly prepare the youth for agricultural, clerical or commercial work and would thus increase the value of labor. "*Education has a market value; that it is so far an article of merchandise, that it can be turned to pecuniary account; it may be minted, and will yield a larger amount of statutable coin than common bullion*," he said.[12] However, other objectives accompanied these seemingly pragmatic ones, as Allan Orstein comments:

> "*Mann also established a stewardship theory, aimed at the upper class, that the public good would be enhanced by public education. Schools for all children would create a stable society in which people would obey the laws and add up to the nation's political and economic well being.*"[13]

[9] <a href="http://education.stateuniversity.com/pages/1794/Bobbitt-Franklin-1876-1956.html">Franklin Bobbitt (1876–1956) - Social Efficiency Movement, Bobbitt's Contribution</a>

[10] Horace Mann, "First Annual Report of the Board of Education" in *Lectures, and Annual Reports on Education*, Cambridge, Published for the Editor, 1867), 374.

[11] Ibid, 375.

[12] As quoted in W. F. Warde (George Novak) in *John Dewey's Theories of Education*.Written: 1960 Source:*International Socialist Review*, Vol. 21, No. 1, Winter 1960. Transcription/Editing: 2005 by Daniel Gaido HTML Markup: 2005 by David Walters Public Domain: George Novak Internet Archive 2005.

[13] Allan Ornstein, *Class counts: Education, inequality, and the shrinking middle class* (United States: Rowman and Littlefield Publishers, Inc., 2007), 117-18.

It should not come up as a surprise that Progressives linked the government's duty to the citizens' obligations to contribute to society through labor. From said point of view, school was viewed primarily as a workplace and learning was esteemed in terms of productivity. The amount of children immigrating to the USA along with their families kept increasing and their provenances kept diversifying. "Education, then, beyond all other devices of human origin, is the great equalizer of the conditions of men - the balance-wheel of the social machinery.", claimed Horace Mann. [14]

School would become the common denominator for all, particularly because Friedrich Winslow Taylor was not alone in his understanding of education as a venue for harvesting productive individuals. Writing *Changing Concepts of Education* in 1909, Ellwood Cubberly (1868-1941) **(FIG. 4)**, laid the foundation for public schooling in America. Universal education, he advocated, was indispensable to democracy. Cubberly endorsed revamped school policies to include not just teaching the young, but also strategies to advance public welfare and the endorsement of democratic institutions. He supported giving power to technically trained educators and urged improved teacher training.[15]

In his landmark text *Public School Administration*,[16] Cubberly called for increased social efficiency in schools and scientific accuracy in education. For him, the educational process and industrial production were analogous in terms of a common goal: to maximize efficiency and product. In short, for Cubberly, schools should be like factories. Teachers are the factory workers and students constitute the raw material to be turned into a product suitable to the needs of the 20th century. These ideas, however, reached much further. For Cubberly, public schools had an important mission: to assimilate the new immigrants into a nation determined to remain an English speaking one. Public schooling would instill "*the Anglo-Saxon conceptions of righteousness, law and order, and popular government*" in the immigrant children.[17] Those kids who could not be "*processed to completion*" were considered scraps to be dropped out of the production line.Whether for practical or idealistic reasons, the public school system became a vehicle to instill the values pursuant to the dominant social groups in the lower classes.[18]

Along the 19th century, other United States educators would assist in the Nation's academic transformation, particularly Henry Barnard (1811-1900), the Superintendent of Common Schools in Connecticut who addressed at length the subject of academic facilities in his writings.[19] Key concerns

[14] Horace Mann, "First Annual Report of the Board of Education", 374.
[15] Ellwood Cubberly, *Changing Concepts of Education* (Boston: Houghton Mifflin, 1909),102.
[16] http://education.stateuniversity.com/pages/1893/Cubberly-Ellwood-1868-1941.html#ixzz1ofDFESYP
[17] Idem.
[18] Michael B. Katz, *Reconstructing American Education*, (Boston: Harvard University Press, 1987) ,61.
[19] Henry Barnard, *School Architecture; or, Contributions to The Improvement of School-houses in the United States,* (New

for Barnard included: proper siting, away from noise and dust; adequate lighting and ventilation; as well as furniture. He was concerned with a building's capacity to mirror both academic and US values. Schools – argued Barnard - should be sacred places (being temples of knowledge) and adopt the architectural idiom of the Greek or Gothic Revivals.[20]

Implementation of most of the aforementioned concepts and ideas in the USA throughout the 19th century was based on the academic system then prevalent in Massachusetts (Mann's professional seat), a most comprehensive one, and well-rehearsed in myriad topics: age of admission, programs of study, time allotments per subject, teachers' preparation, written tests, student punishment, coeducation, texts, proper buildings and, among others, other related administrative issues.[21]

Victor Selden Clark, who was named President of the Insular Board of Education, is credited for applying the Massachusetts model in Puerto Rico.[22] Clark penned the *Teachers' Manual for the Public Schools of Puerto Rico* **(FIG. 5)**, issued in bilingual format under the authority of said board in 1900.[23] Next to pedagogical theories, the text presents photos, drawings, and plans of US schools to be emulated locally. Issues addressed include: siting, access, neighboring conditions, lighting, order, optimum colors, best furniture, aesthetics, and the structures' good public bearing:

> *"…sightliness should not be neglected. The schoolhouse should share with the church and the hall of justice the honor of representing the town to the eye of the citizen end the visitor. The schoolhouse should be placed where it will attract attention. It should be ever present in the eyes of the community as the material representative of their [sic] intellectual aims and ideals. Place the schoolhouse, then, where it can be seen and make it a building worthy of its position*."[24]

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York: A.S. Barnes and Burr, 1860).

[20] Warren H. Button, Eugene F. Provenzo, *History of Education and Culture in America* (New Jersey: Prentice Hall, 1983), 106.

[21] George R Martin in *The Evolution of Massachusetts Public School System*(New York: D. Appleton and Company, 1904),vii, argues that *"…almost all educational problems have been agitated at some point or another in Massachusetts*."

[22] Ángela López Borrero, *Mi escuelita: educación y arquitectura en Puerto Rico* (San Juan, Puerto Rico: Editorial de la Universidad de Puerto Rico, 2005), 76, 102

[23] Victor S. Clark, *Teachers' Manual for the Public Schools of Puerto Rico, issued under the authority of the Insular Board of Education*(New York: Silver, Burdett & Company, 1900).

[24] Victor S. Clark, *Teachers' Manual,* 24.

Furthermore, Clark states schools must be conceived as: "…*an ornament to the town, an expression of the ideals, and a tribute to the self-respect of a community*…"[25]

From the moment it takes possession of the Island – and propelled by the most relevant pedagogical tenets of the 1800's in the Mainland - the American government in Puerto Rico sets off an aggressive program to completely revamp local education. Airs of renovation would be most welcome in an island that had been ravaged in 1899 by hurricane San Ciriaco, and weakened by devaluation of Spanish currency vis à vis the US dollar. Municipal administrations, local government allocations, and federal funds contributed to carry out the first projects.

Education in Puerto Rico evidenced an extremely complex panorama. A whole new set of pedagogic perspectives was introduced on the new territory, where a high illiteracy rate prevailed: only between 10 to 20% of the population on the Island was able to read and write. To deal with the situation, the new regime had to overcome numerous obstacles. Key among them was the lack of appropriate public school buildings. Due to a chronic shortage of resources for the construction of public works, the floundering Spanish government had implemented a policy of renting private buildings – instead of engaging in construction – for classroom use. This did not meet the new administrators' expectations regarding the role of education in society and, particularly, in a recently acquired overseas possesion.

William Dinwiddie - who came to Puerto Rico on assignment for the prestigious magazine Harper's Weekly shortly after the war – published a long series of articles on the "conditions and possibilities" of the Island.[26] **(FIG. 6)** He described the school system, estimating that school-age children comprise two fifths of the population:

> "*The island "Budget" for 1897-98 shows an appropriation of 69,776 pesos for Public Instruction, which was allotted, ostensibly, to the eight districts in varying proportion, based upon their relative importance and population, but which in practice, it is said, had use found for most of it in the city of San Juan. It is not to be supposed that this insignificant amount represents the*

[25] Ibid, p. 28.

[26] William Dinwiddie (1867–1934) was an American journalist, war photographer, and writer and colonial administrator in the Philippines. Born in Virginia, he worked as a customs inspector in Corpus Christi, Texas (1883-1886) and the *Bureau of American Ethnology* (1886-1895). As a journalist and war photographer for *Harper's Weekly* during the Spanish American War, Dinwiddie was assigned to report and photograph the American campaigns in Cuba and Puerto Rico.He was also a war correspondent for the New York Herald during the Russo-Japanese conflict (1904-1905).

> *entire school fund for the island, as each municipality provides for its own school taxes in its annual estimate of expenses for the district*."[27]

Besides the shortage of school facilities, the uneven distribution of them across the urban and rural areas represented an additional problem. There were great disproportions among regions. As one could expect, the rural areas were, by far, less equipped than the main urban centers.

The school census of 1899 showed that Puerto Rico had a school population of 322,393 and total enrollments in the public schools of only 29,172, that is, about 9% of the potential attendees.[28] Another North American who visited the Island at the turn of the century summed up his assessment of the school system as follows: "It is wholly evident that there is some room for educational reform on our new island".[29] Those adversely impacted by the educational facilities were many. Victor Clark's initial reports highlight the precarious, overcrowded state of most schoolhouses, grouping students together regardless of age or learning level.[30] Puerto Rican educator Juan José Osuna, in his account of the Island's educational development, underlines the lack of adequate school buildings in which renewed academic functions could be housed and how this situation "impressed Americans most unfavorably".[31]

In order to deal with the lack of public school buildings, as early as June 9, 1899, the US Military Government recommended a temporary measure: to appropriate and use as classroom facilities the existing road keeper's houses (casillas de peón caminero) that the Spanish Government had erected in the 1880's as a prototype building repeated at diverse locations throughout the Island **(FIG. 7)**. This recommendation to reuse existing structures was perhaps the first official US response to fulfill the urgent need for public school buildings in Puerto Rico.[32]

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[27] William Dinwiddie, *Puerto Rico, Its Conditions and Possibilities*(Ed. Harper and Brothers, New York: 1899), 198.
[28] Juan José Osuna, *A History of Education,* 184.
[29]Victor S. Clark, *Teachers' Manual,* 190.
[30] Ángela López Borrero, *Mi Escuelita***,** 102.
[31]Juan José Osuna, *A History of Education*, 54, 189.
[32]"The work of building public-school houses, devoted entirely and exclusively to school purposes, should be pushed as rapidly as possible in every part of the island, and taxes levied for this purpose should not be permitted to be diverted in any other direction. In the meantime, there are a number of buildings situated along the military road and along the public road leading from Guayama to Cayey now used as residencies by persons employed on the public highways, which could be readily changed into public school houses, and would answer a speedy purpose to this end… There are perhaps 40-50 of these buildings and could be quickly turned into public school houses, and are so conveniently situated that we hardly imagine a better purpose for which they could be used, and we so recommend." (War Department, 1899:52). Apparently, this measure was never implemented.

By early 1899, John Eaton (former Commissioner of Education in the USA) had been entrusted to handle all educational matters regarding Puerto Rico. He, in turn, advised Governor Guy V. Henry about the need to build schools. The 1899 Report to the Secretary of War advised to locate "an American school at every valley and every hill…"[33]"with the building facing an important street",[34] making its presence hierarchically comparable to that of church and city hall in traditional towns.[35] The "graded" system was made official over the "consolidated" one. Now students from 6 to 18 years old would be grouped by age in different rooms. Different classrooms required larger schoolhouses.

On May 1, 1900, the first organic act of Puerto Rico under the USA was issued. The Foraker Act provided for a Commissioner of Education and the same year Martin G. Brumbaugh was appointed to the post **(FIG. 8).** His main tasks were to address the severe lack of teachers in spite of the importation of American ones, and to take up the scarcity of school buildings. The need of having buildings specially constructed and designed for school purposes under the control of the Department of Education thus became a high priority. During Brumbaugh's tenure over $200,000 were dedicated to the construction of urban and rural schools.[36] Each of them were expected to fulfill four (4) requirements:

1. Be placed within a settlement or close to it.

2. Face an important public street.

3. Sit on a lot with an area of at least half an acre.

4. Be located on debt-free land.[37]

[33]United States War Department, *Report of the United States Insular Commission to the Secretary of War Upon Investigations made into the Civil Affairs of the Island of Puerto Rico, with Recommendations***.** (Washington: Government Printing Office, 1899), 53.

[34] Aida Negrón de Montilla, *La americanización en Puerto Rico y el sistema de instrucción pública 1900/1930*(España: Editorial de la Universidad de Puerto Rico, 1976), 60.

[35] Sylvester Baxter underlines the importance of the new educational structures when describing schoolhouses as "usually the most monumental building in the place, even outranking the parish church" in "Recent Civic Architecture in Puerto Rico," Architectural Record 48 (1920): 137.

[36] Aida Negrón de Montilla, *La americanización*, 60.

[37] Idem.

The most successful examples built would grant a distinctive profile to most towns, changing decisively the Island's built landscape along the next two decades. As early as 1901 there were erected and occupied several four-room schools in localities like Caguas, Bayamón, Coamo, San Germán and Yauco. Other similar schools started construction in Lares, Mayagüez, Fajardo and Arecibo.[38]Among the most representative examples erected during this first period are: the *Ramón Quiñones Pacheco School*, in Fajardo (1901)[39]**(FIG. 9)** ; the *James Fenimore Cooper School*, in Sabana Grande, and Adjuntas' *Washington Irving School* (1903); the *Perry Graded School* at Lajas (1904); *Escuela Martín G. Brumbaugh*, in Santa Isabel (1906; included in the *National Register of Historic Places in February 4, 2011*)[40]; *Vieques Public School*, from 1907; Guayama's *Eleuterio Derkes School*[41], the *Federico Degetau*[42] and *McKinley*[43] schools in Ponce, as well as the *Escuela José Padilla* from Vega Baja[44] (all from 1908), and Arecibo's *Thomas Jefferson School* (1909)[45].

In spite of architectural dissimilarities, most schools built between 1900 and 1910 in Puerto Rico exhibit basic elements pertaining to the Neoclassical style. At Fajardo we find a recessed Doric portico in Roman style, with base and plynth, engaged Doric columns, cornices and window sills. The entrance door is capped with a pediment, and the uppermost parapet rises at center, all iterating symmetry. Sabana Grande's example boasts several pediments with tympani and raking cornices, also keystones in bas-relief; the latter can also be found at the *Eleuterio Derkes School*. The *Escuela Martin G. Brumbaugh*, rather sober, nonetheless includes cornices, a parapet with an entablature, pilasters and window surrounds. The examples from Ponce display Greek Doric columns and dentil courses. Columns, mouldings, urns and escutcheons are featured at Arecibo's *Escuela Jefferson*.

When these schools were being built, Neoclassical architecture, an inherited taste from the 19th century, was universally acknowledged as the "correct" venue for institutional architecture. However, in the United States, the Mission Style Revival Movement was simultaneously enjoying great popularity as novelty. Impacting primarily from 1890 to 1915, it drew inspiration from the late 18th and early 19th century Spanish missions in California. Architects from the USA designing schools for

[38] The early *Reports for the Commissioner of Education for Puerto Rico* illustrate the construction of a significant number of schools across the Island.
[39]AGPR, Fondo: Obras Públicas, Serie: Edificios Escolares, Caja 1004, Legajo 25, Exp. 2
[40]Ibid., Caja 1066, Legajo 646, Exp. 1-3
[41]Ibid., Caja 1005, Legajo 27, Exp. 1
[42]Ibid., Caja 1035, Legajo 54-B, Exp. 5
[43]Ibid., Caja 1035, Legajo 542, Exp. 1
[44]Ibid., Caja 1071, Legajo 71, Exp. 1-3
[45] Ibid., Caja 0986, Legajo 07, Exp. 1-2

Puerto Rico often included the Mission Revival vocabulary within the overall Neoclassical bearing: stepped parapets and bell gables were amongst the most trendy elements added. *José Julián Acosta School*, in Puerta de Tierra, San Juan (designed by Clark, Howe & Homer, from Providence, Rhode Island, in 1908) is an example among other similar ones built from 1900 to 1910.

Besides being in vogue, the Mission Style must have seemed appropriate to architects linking it to the Island's Spanish heritage, even if there were never missions of the kind in Puerto Rico. Moreover, diverse texts published in the USA argued the appropriateness of said style to the purposes of education. On her book *La arquitectura de la Universidad de Puerto Rico, Recinto de Río Piedras* (2000), María Luisa Moreno discusses "*the intimate relationship between California's Mission Style Revival and the progressive stances of educational philoshopy in Northamerica*". In fact, architect Eleazar B. Homer[46], when entrusted some of the earliest buildings erected in the Río Piedras campus (the dairy [*lechería*] and the Model School), he designed both in Mission Revival style.[47] In synthesis, in schools erected in Puerto Rico during the first decade of US domination, traditional classical vocabulary was endorsed, often incorporating then fashionable Mission details.

The Department of Education hired E. B. Homer to work in Puerto Rico during the summer of 1907 as consulting architect. He prepared building sketches and shared his knowledge of modern architectural standards. It was felt he made a real contribution towards improving school design and more economical and effective construction.[48]

Under the Foraker Act (in effect until 1917), six different American commissioners of education were appointed: Martin G. Brumbaugh was in office until November 1901; the second, Samuel McCune Lindsay, from February 1902 to October 1904; Ronald Post Falkner (1904-07), Edwin Grant Dexter (1907-12), Edward M. Bainter (1912-15) and Paul G. Miller (1915-21). Each one of the commissioners had a particular policy, nevertheless, it can be said that after an early stage of using (and discarding wood) as building material,[49] emphasis was placed on quality as the construction of new schools was an absolute priority. The already mentioned graded schools together with the rural

[46] Born in 1864, E. B. Homer attended the School of Architecture at MIT (then known as the School of Technology, Boston) from where he received his B.S. in architecture in 1885. After teaching Architecture at MIT and designing several schools in New England, in 1901 he becomes the first director of Rhode Island School of Design in Providence. He served in France during the First World War and died in 1929.
[47] María Luisa Moreno, La arquitectura de la Universidad de Puerto Rico: Recinto de Rio Piedars, (San Juan, Puerto Rico: Editorial de la Universidad de Puerto Rico, 2000), 17-18.
[48] Demetrio Cartagena Colón, *An Evaluation of the Policies and Procedures used in Puerto Rico in Planning and Constructing Public School Buildings* (PhD. Thesis, New York University, New York: 1960), 86-87.
[49] Ángela López Borrero, *Mi Escuelita*, 114-116.

schools were known as “common schools”. Besides them, “special schools” were erected **(FIG. 10)**. They included the high schools, industrial schools, night schools, agriculture schools and kindergartens.

Since the first decade when the United States took charge of education in Puerto Rico, many of the newly-erected institutions were named after North American statesmen such as Abraham Lincoln, Thomas Jefferson, and George Washington, or literary figures like Washington Irving and James Fenimore Cooper. Holidays honoring them were observed as occasions for the display of political loyalty to the United States. Schools were instrumental for teaching not only English, but also “Americanism”.[50] Official reports leave no doubt about it:

> “*One million children dressed in red, white, and blue paraded down the street in a flag formation 90 meters wide. Upon arrival at the stand where the governor and other authorities were enjoying the celebration, the flag became the American flag. The children sang* The Star Spangled Banner*, America, and other songs…”*[51]

> “*Lincoln’s birthday anniversary was celebrated with great enthusiasm throughout the district. The great statesman claims a place of honor within the hearts of this people and they are not shy to make it evident. The Commissioner’s speech, written expressly for this occasion, was read at all schools and the pamphlet on Lincoln distributed by the Department proved to be useful in providing material for the event”.*[52]

At the earliest stage, the insular government financed most buildings. However, in 1902 a plan was prepared in order to assign municipalities the responsibility of providing school sites and paying half the cost of construction of each school built in their respective districts. The local school boards were held responsible for obtaining the sites. If possible, these sites were to be donated by private citizens. In addition, the boards were authorized to ask contributions from local citizens or from sugar companies, whether in cash, labor or construction materials. These companies constituted the new economic power fostered by the newcomer sugar corporations.[53]

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[50] Aida Negrón de Montilla, *La americanización*,134.
[51] Department of Education, *Annual Report of the Commissioner of Education*, (San Juan, Porto Rico: Government Printing Office, 1908),15.
[52] Department of Education, *Annual Report of the Commissioner of Education*, (San Juan, Porto Rico: Government Printing Office, 1909), 260.
[53] Teachers’ College, Columbia University, *A Survey of the Public Educational System in Puerto Rico* (New York City, Bureau of Publications,1926), 19-20.

Regarding architectural authorship, the first 20th century schools in Puerto Rico evidence scattered contributions from several USA trained architects who came to work in the Island shortly after the war. Some of their names have faded into oblivion. Clark, Howe, & Homer have already been mentioned; Van Alen Harris is credited for the *Luis Muñoz Rivera School* in Carolina (1909)[54]; Albert B. McCulloch was construction inspector for *Escuela Mckinley* in Ponce (1908)[55], designed the *Pedro Arroyo School* in Orocovis in 1915, and prepared preliminary plans for the *Francisco Ramos School* in Utuado (1917)[56] However, in the next decade, their successors would honor them by emulation, designing some of the most emblematic school buildings ever built in Puerto Rico.

1910-1920

Contrast and change weighed heavily throughout the globe during the second decade of the 20th century. The First World War (1914-1918) triggered unexpected, although completely understandable, social transformations. The Bolshevik Revolution of 1917 challenged the old aristocratic layering of society. Cars, telephones, and movies came of age. The opening of the Panama Canal in 1914 pointed towards the future, but the *Panama Pacific International Exposition* in San Francisco chose, nostalgically, to seek refuge in the past: "*There never before had been a fair who's (sic) architectural focus had been so all-encompassing*".[57]

Historians coincide this is the decade in which the US was first considered a world leader. In 1908, William Taft was elected President, holding the position until 1912, when Woodrow Wilson won the post. Wilson's administration lasted until 1921, having to tend with World War I, its causes and consequences, also tending to domestic troubles.

[54] Van Alen Harris "graduated from Princeton college in 1893; an engineer in Puerto Rico since April 1900", as stated in: http://www.ebooksread.com/authors-eng/joseph-s-joseph-smith-harris/record-of-the-harris-family-descended-from-john-harris-born-in-1680-in-wiltshir-rra/page-10-record-of-the-harris-family-descended-from-john-harris-born-in-1680-in-wiltshir-rra.shtml. By 1924 he was City Manager for Miami Beach. (*The Miami News*, January 25, 1924), 2

[55] AGPR, Fondo Obras Públicas, Serie Edificios Escolares, Caja 1035, Legajo 542, Exp. 1. As of this date, not much information is readily available on McCulloch. Part 4 of a *United States Government Manual* dated February 1940 lists the architect among other professionals working at the Federal Works Agency as District Engineer for the *Public Buildings Administration*. He headed District No. 2, which comprised Delaware, Greater New York, and NewJersey. Architect McCulloch's office was located at 713 Customhouse, New York, New York: http://digital.lib.umn.edu/TEXTS/006/0004BODY.PDF

[56] AGPR, Fondo Obras Públicas, Serie: Edificios Escolares, Caja 1070, Legajo 69, Exp. 1.

[57] The Panama Pacific International Exposition: http://www.sanfranciscomemories.com/ppie/buildings.html

If Horace Mann and Henry Barnard's ideas propelled educational reforms in the first ten years of the 20th century, another figure proved influential in the following decades, John Dewey, who presented his educational theories in writings like *My Pedagogic Creed* (1897), *The School and Society* (1900), *The Child and the Curriculum* (1902), and *Democracy and Education* (1916). The latter is regarded as a seminal work on public education and its author acknowledged amongst the most important scholars of the century. Concerned with the challenge of providing quality public education in a democratic society, Dewey called for the complete renewal of public schooling, arguing for the fusion of vocational and contemplative studies and for the necessity of universal education to insure the advancement of self and society. A professor at *Columbia University Teachers' College* since 1904, Dewey's line of reasoning had direct impact on everyone joining the teaching profession at the time. That same year, 353 public school teachers from Puerto Rico went to Harvard and Cornell University for the summer in an "expedition" organized by Samuel McCune Lindsay, then Commissioner of Education for Puerto Rico. English lessons were complemented by lectures in American history and the American educational system, among other subjects. The group traveled to Washington, D.C., New York and Philadelphia before returning to Puerto Rico.[58]

During the years Edwin G. Dexter served as Commissioner of Education from 1907 to 1912, some 35,000 students were enrolled.[59] With many schools already in place, trained teachers, and a growing number of registrants, several educational policies fostered public debate: from the use of English as classroom language, and military instruction, to objectivity in the process of teacher selection.[60]In 1912, the *Puerto Rico Teachers Association* lent support for teaching all subjects in Spanish. In 1916, a middle-of-the-road alternative was approved: Spanish was adopted as a medium of instruction in grades 1‑4; both English and Spanish would be used in grade 5, and English would be used in grades 6‑12.The polemic would not be solved before 1939, when Spanish was finally adopted as the official language of instruction.

From 1915 to 1920, school construction slowed down. Ángela López Borrero, in *Mi escuelita: Educación y arquitectura en Puerto Rico* (2005) enumerates several reasons for it.[61]On one hand, war halted budget allocations for construction, but also, efforts were focused primarily on the expansion and rehabilitation of existing facilities. Among other examples, the *José N. Gándara School* in Aibonito was expanded (1915) [62] and the *Ramón Quiñones Pacheco School* in Fajardo -

[58]Cable with travel instructions for teachers from Puerto Rico from the Records of the President of Harvard University, Charles W. Eliot (http://hul.harvard.edu/huarc/summersch/puertorico.html)
[59]*Annual Report of the Commisioner of Education 1909*, 247
[60] Aida Negrón de Montilla, La americanización, 132-133.
[61]Ángela López Borrero, *Mi escuelita*, 141.
[62] AGPR, Fondo Obras Públicas, Serie: Edificios Escolares, Caja 985, Legajo 5, Exp. 1

previously extended in 1913 - was repaired in 1916. Three years before, six classrooms were added to its original rectangular volume housing eight classrooms.[63] In 1919, architect Adrian C. Finlayson remodeled the Pedro Arroyo School in Orocovis, changing its roof and floors [64], and made significant alterations to the *Whittier Public School* in San Sebastián, including a new façade.[65] The same year, Finlayson made repairs to two schools in Vieques: *José Gautier Benítez*and *Victor Duteil*.[66]

In parallel, Adrian Clark Finlayson's list of school projects completed at different locations in Puerto Rico from 1910 to 1920 is extensive, including several notable entries, among these:

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| 1915 | Ponce | Ponce High School |
| 1916 | Naguabo | Eugenio Brac |
| | Santurce | Rafael M. Labra High School |
| 1917 | Camuy | José Julián Acosta (schematics)[67] |
| 1918 | Guánica | María Luisa McDougall[68] |
| | | Román Baldorioty de Castro Graded and TechnicalSchool[69] |
| 1919 | Gurabo | Matías González García[70] |

Educated at Syracuse University, and named locally *Architect for the Insular Department of the Interior*, he set high standards for school design in Puerto Rico. At his imposing projects, building volumes were consistently articulated with care. Surfaces were handled as textures to be manipulated through choice and treatment of material, insertions and/or bas-relief designs. The different components are often contrasted, but ultimately harmony prevails. For example, at the *Rafael M. Labra School* (1916; included in the *National Register of Historic Places in August 4, 1987*), red brick is used in myriad patters against the wood fenestration, painted pure white. It was not uncommon for Finlayson to draw a distinction between the background surface of a wall and its trimmings, as can be witnessed at a later project of his, the *Rafael Balseiro Maceira School* in Barceloneta, from 1921. Here, concrete with exposed aggregate, poured in layers, grants depth and richness to the walls, while moldings remain flat.

[63] Ibid., Caja 1004, Legajo 25, Exp. 2
[64] Ibid., Caja 988, Legajo 10, Exp. 1-4
[65] Ibid., Caja 1063, Legajo 63, Exp. 1
[66] Ibid., Caja 1074, Legajo 72, Exp. 1
[67]Ibid., Caja 994, Legajo 15, Exp. 3
[68]Ibid., Caja 1,007, Legajo 29, Exp. 1
[69] "Let's Save the Baldorioty de Castro School", Jorge Rigau, *The San Juan Star*, June 18, 1978, Sunday Magazine, p. 6
[70] AGPR, Fondo Obras Públicas, Serie: Edificios Escolares, Caja 1,009, Legajo 30, Exp. 1

In 1920, the magazine *Architectural Record* presented a profile of the architect and his work in Puerto Rico, which included other civic buildings like city halls, marketplaces, and bridges. Sylvester Baxter, the reporter, was in awe of the school building program and its results:

> "*Visitors to Puerto Rico are invariably impressed by the admirable quality of the modern civic architecture that abounds in all sections of the beautiful island. There are few towns that do not possess at least one fine schoolhouse… In particular the citizens are justly proud of their handsome schoolhouses, usually the most monumental building in the place, even outranking the parish church."*[71]

Baxter simultaneously praises Finlayson's sensibility to the tropical climate, understanding of compositional problems, and dexterity in issues pertaining to architectural style.[72] Moreover, "…*His extensive architectural legacy includes some of the most impressive, elegant, and highly regarded institutional buildings in the Island, unsurpassed in the rest of the Hispanic Caribbean"*.[73]

Adrian Finlayson epitomizes the eclectic spirit behind schools designed in Puerto Rico from 1910 to 1920, an effort in which – as we have seen - other professionals also contributed. During this period – far from the spare 19th-century Neoclassicism, and removed from the Mission Revival style's initial furor - architectural expression became an idiosyncratic choice: Greek revival, Georgian, and Craftsmen styles were endorsed indistinctively. The *Secession* style was equally favored, often incorporating some features from the Prairie style. The *Baldorioty de Castro School* in San Juan and *Escuela José Celso Barbosa* in Bayamón adopted the Greek revival. The *Rafael M. Labra School* in Santurce embraced the Georgian idiom, and many around the Island were donned roof brackets in Craftsman manner. Schools in Arecibo, Mayagüez, Utuado and Arecibo (*Luis Muñoz Rivera*, 1914; *José de Diego*, 1915; and *Francisco Ramos*, 1917, respectively) constitute singular instances of *Secessionist* facades in the Island. The stepping volumes, the iteration of verticality, and columns capped with spheres unashamedly echo Josef Hoffmann's, *Stoclet House* (1905) in Brussels, with reverberations of Joseph Maria Olbrich's*Secession Building* in Vienna from 1898.[74]

The period's proclivity for stylistic *laissez-faire* – and finding any justification for it - is probably best exemplified by a rural consolidated school built in the outskirts of Arecibo, for no particular reason at all sporting Egyptian motifs in a pilonos-like entrance portico:

[71] Sylvester Baxter, "Recent Architecture", 137.
[72] Ibid.,138-139, 146-147, 155.
[73] Jorge Rigau, *Puerto Rico 1900: Turn-of-the-Century Architecture in the Caribbean* (New York: Rizzoli, 1992), 147.
[74] Architects Hoffmann and Olbrich, together with Otto Wagner, were key protagonists of said movement.

> "*The Arecibo consolidated rural school at the Barrio Santana offers in its design an excellent illustration of how well concrete construction lends itself to the Employment of Egyptian motifs – in this example, the liberal space devoted to window openings conveying an effect of cheerfulness that bars any suggestion of the mausoleum-like character so commonly associated with Egyptian architecture."*[75]

The commitment to open stylistic choices in building did not disappear by the end of the decade. Architectural manifestations may lose momentum when officially out of vogue, but that never means their complete disappearance, for they always succeed at becoming someone's established taste and are kept alive by this sort of "seepage". As a consequence, after 1920 in Puerto Rico, the eclecticism that strongly pervaded the previous decade still influenced – but to a much lesser extent – school construction initiatives.[76]

However, before the first decade of the 20th century ended, Puerto Ricans experienced dramatic changes at different levels. The previous Foraker Act of 1900 had proved inefficient in defining a suitable political-administrative structure for Puerto Rico. Developing social transformations required a substantially improved operational (legal) frame. On March 1917, the US Congress issued the Jones Act, granting American citizenship to Puerto Ricans. Under such an assurance, the public school system continued its construction agenda. A year after, in 1918, the Island's western region suffered a major natural catastrophe: an earthquake and tidal wave destroyed schools in some towns, seriously damaging many. The ensuing reconstruction process proved catalytic for the rehabilitation and construction of schoolhouses.

The same year, the *Commission for the Reorganization of Secondary Education* in the USA publicly endorsed "*The Seven Cardinal Principles of Education*". For the purposes of this commission, secondary education was defined as applying to all pupils of approximately 12 to 18 years of age. The report would become one of the most influential education documents of the twentieth century in the Mainland. Seven main objectives of education were spelled out as follows: 1) Health; 2) Command of fundamental processes; 3) Worthy home membership; 4) Vocation; 5) Citizenship; 6) Worthy use of leisure; and, 7) Ethical character. All of these goals found their way into school

[75] Sylvester Baxter, , "Recent Architecture", 155.

[76] From 1921, the *Rafael Balseiro Maceira School* in Barceloneta, by Finlayson, retained his early style, akin to the previous decade. In the same year, *Escuela Luis Muñoz Rivera* in San Lorenzo, was built in Mission Revival style. From 1922, the *Antonia Sáez School* in Humacao, incorporated an entrance in-keeping with Secession tastes. Built in 1923, *Escuela Isabel Suárez*, in Añasco, highlighted its entrance with a full arch, also akin to the Viennese movement's predilections. At the *Jacinto López Martínez Grammar School* from 1923, Secession and Spanish Revival are "blended" idiosyncratically.

curricula in continental USA and, of course, in Puerto Rico, where students continued to be "shaped" to become good Americans, now as fellow citizens. When Commissioner of Education, Paul G. Miller, left his post in August, 1921, he was succeeded by Juan B. Huyke, the first Puerto Rican to hold the title **(FIG. 11)** His tenure extended until 1930. Education in 1920's unfolded under his aegis.

1920-30

Three Presidents witnessed fast-paced social changes during the third decade of the 20th century: Warren G. Harding (1921-23); Calvin Coolidge (1923-29); and Herbert Hoover (1929-33). During the period, women's suffrage was ratified; Nazism and Fascism rose. Ku Klux Klan violence spread; Lindbergh flew solo across the Atlantic in the *Spirit of St. Louis*; and motion pictures talked. In 1929 in the US, stock market prices collapsed, with US securities losing $26 billion. The Depression began as a world economic crisis ensued.

After 1921, Commissioner Huyke engaged in an assertive campaign in favor of using English as official classroom language, but also as the vehicle for Puerto Rico's assimilation into USA culture. He spoke of schools as agencies for the progress of Americanization. As early as 1902, another commissioner, Samuel M. Lindsay, had already described schools as "*outposts and garrisons*" for the peaceful colonization of the island.[77] Determined in his goal of integration with the USA, Huyke – in spite of being the first local person to whom the Island's education was entrusted – repeatedly challenged teachers without command of the new language with their dismissal; urged them to travel to the United States, and to correct any accent and speak "perfect" English. He sent students to the Mainland for the same purpose, and urged those living in the Island to write to kids in the US to improve their (new) language skills.[78] Early on, Huyke warned: "*Anyone not wishing to be a teacher of Americanism would do best by not following me in my task*[79]." By school year 1926-1927, only four (4) out of seventeen (17) high schools in the Island were led by a Puerto Rican director.

The fact is not inconsistent with what seemed to have been the Commissioner's pedagogic/political leanings at the time – and extraneous reasons may account for it – but the situation contrasts significantly with what happened with regards to the school building program, by which many local architects were entrusted the design of a large number of new schools.

[77]Department of Education, Annual Report of the Commissioner of Education, 1902. (Washington: Government Printing Office, 1902), 257.
[78] Aida Negrón de Montilla, *La americanización*, 203-205.
[79] Huyke writes in *Porto Rico Progress*, October 21, 1921, page 4

In Puerto Rico, during the first half of the 1920's, sugar corporations bloomed and became the focus of major economic activity in the Island. Many of the sugar planting municipalities benefited from this boom and were able to commit funds to build adequate schools within their districts. In 1923, the local government set aside one million dollars to complement their efforts.[80]

At that time, proactive, young Puerto Rican professionals trained abroad work for the Department of the Interior of Puerto Rico, the local agency responsible for countless public works programs that included, among many others, school construction. Their commitment to the department is evidenced by the large amount of work produced and its quality. Some eventually left the department to establish private practices.

Their body of work differed idiomatically from that produced by their peers in the preceding decade. Although Eclecticism still influenced some designs, two stylistic venues will be consistently pursued: *Beaux Arts* and Spanish Revival. The first, inspired by the noted French *école* founded by Napoleon, found adherents among the Island élite; the second took up Puerto Rico as if by storm, influencing local architecture well up to the late 1940's. While the Beaux Arts style was appropriated primarily for institutional buildings, the Spanish Revival captured both official and individual imaginations. Government buildings, as well as residences, were thus designed in Revival style. The two trends found their way into school design, becoming the common stylistic denominators of the decade.[81] Adherence to stylistic codes was not rigorous. Removed from metropolitan centers, architects felt less restrained to design "by the book", instead "*resorting to the idiosyncratic reinterpretation of architectural history as a resource for contemporary creation*"[82]. Awareness of distance constitutes a powerful incentive for creative reinvention.[83]

Two 1923 schools were designed in French manner: *Pedro Gerónimo Goyco* in Santurce, and *José Nevárez Landrón*, in Toa Baja. In the first one, U-shaped in plan, the entrance is accentuated by projecting forward two lateral volumes. Arches, flat rustication and keystones projecting as volutes

[80] Teachers' College, Columbia University, *A Survey of the Public Educational System in Puerto Rico*19-20: "*At various times since 1900, the insular government has also appropriated sums for the erection of school buildings. The last considerable appropriation was in 1923, when one million dolars were set aside for this purpose. The increasing tendency has been, however, to place upon the municipalities… the burden of providing and maintaining schoolhouses*."

[81] Key texts explain the particulars of each style in Puerto Rico. See Enrique Vivoni Farage and Sylvia Álvarez Curbelo, Eds., *Ilusión de Francia: arquitectura y afrancesamiento en Puerto Rico* (Archivo de Arquitectura y Construcción de la Universidad de Puerto Rico, San Juan, 1997; Enrique Vivoni Farage and Sylvia Álvarez Curbelo, *Hispanophilia: Architecture and Life in Puerto Rico*, 1900-1950 (Editorial de la Universidad de Puerto Rico, San Juan, Puerto Rico 1998); also Jorge Rigau, *Puerto Rico 1900*.

[82] *Puerto Rico 1900*, 70.

[83] Salvatore Settis, *El futuro de lo «clásico»* (Madrid: Abada Editores, 2006, p. 120)

appear in the lower level, at center. Above them, Ionic columns are paired to underline the entrance axis; they become single columns as they reach the projecting volumes. Three parapets, independent from the columns, include molded reliefs in festoons. An escutcheon (flanked by swags and the letters P and G in bas relief) crowns the portico at center of a stepping parapet. A deep, repeatedly recessing cornice runs around the building, along with an entablature; the school's name is written on it. Solid walls are decked with surrounds, enclosing solid panes, these framed and festooned.[84] The school at Toa Baja shares some similarities with the example from Santurce, just discussed. Also U-shaped in plan, its portico, however, projects outwards. Supported by four Ionic columns, includes an upper terrace with a surrounding balustrade. A projecting cornice with soffit and a modillion course establishes the height of its second story. Rectangular and round surrounds are paired left and right of the entrance axis, whose steps are flanked by low piers. Sills placed below highlight window openings.[85]

Many of the Beaux Arts' distinguishing traits were woven into these schools' designs: the intentional articulation of base, body and crown of the building; the profuse articulation of surfaces, whether in cornices, railings, parapets, and walls themselves; the delight on bejeweling with festoons, escutcheons and surround frames; the multiplication of features (banisters, moldings, modillions); and the delicacy with which the taste for them was exerted.
The *Tomás Hernández School*, in Juncos (1924) incorporated a clock in its front elevation, echoing 19th-century institutional buildings in America and Europe.[86] Together, all these features granted singular *presence* to schools conceived *à la Beaux Arts*, even if the design liberties undertaken deprived them from academic correctness. Classicism was simultaneously appropriated as "*model and point of reference for new cultural situations*"[87]. To this day, the architectural discipline still debates these opposing understandings of the Classical heritage: "*the one that iconizes as a stationary system of values, and that which searches within it the variety and complexity inherent to historical experience*".[88]

[84] AGPR, Fondo Obras Públicas, Serie Edificios Escolares, Caja 1062, Legajo 62-k, Exp. 1
[85] Ibid., Caja 1108, Legajo 141, Exp. 1
[86] Ibid.,, Caja 1,014, Legajo 37, Exp. 1
[87] Salvatore Settis, *El futuro de lo «clásico»*, 140.
[88] Ibid., 133.

These ideas would find ample oppportunities for fruition in the schools then built: *Escuela Luis Muñoz Rivera* in Lajas (1924)[89], Yauco (1925)[90], and Sabana Grande (1926)[91]; *Pedro Colberg School*, in Cabo Rojo (1924)[92]; the *José Fontán School* in Morovis (1926)[93]; the twin schools from 1927 at Juncos and Peñuelas (José Gallardo[94] and *Daniel Webster*[95]) and San Juan's *Central High School* (1925).

One of Adrian Finlayson's most impressive pieces, "*La Central*" - as the school is commonly (an affectionately) referred to – could be considered the period's *piéce de resistence*. Even if stylistically hybrid, its over scaled treatment, a colossal entrance, and copious ornamentation, inside and outside, anchor the building in the *Beaux Arts* Movement. Closely spaced Corinthian columns rest over tall bases and are culminated by a monumental cornice that "moves" back and forth over each one of these vertical elements. Three different modillion courses, frets, flat panels, and festoons are also featured. Curiously enough, in spite of its decidedly *Beaux Arts* vocation, Central High School also incorporates architectural elements and compositional strategies pursuant to the Spanish Revival style. If these do not become readily evident, it is because most of them appear in the façade wall behind the Corinthian columns, and, as such, remain relegated to the background, while the more flamboyant *Beaux Arts* features claim foreground protagonism. Careful inspection, however, reveals the use of Spanish tile at the roof, geminate arches whose shared supporting elements emulate the Morrish *parteluz*, *portadas* (highlighted door surrounds), twisted colonettes, and iron grillwork. Moreover, the ornate recessed plane behind the portico emulates the architectural screens (*pantallas arquitectónicas*) that historian Fernando Chueca Goitía describes as "suspended decoration", "looming" rather than standing.[96]

Available period documentation is not sufficient to make much of Finlayson's simultaneous adherence at *La Central* to both architectural styles then so popular. The reasons for doing it may be varied. Architectural crossbreeding has always existed, designers aware of changing tastes often produce transitional pieces, and, among other possibilities, many designers are just content with the partial reordering of canonical stances.[97] Without need of speculation, something is certain: by mid decade,

[89] AGPR, Fondo Obras Públicas, Serie Edificios Escolares,Caja 1119, Legajo 155, Exp. 1
[90]Ibid.,Caja 1101, Legajo 118, Exp. 1
[91]Ibid.,Caja 1129, Legajo 180, Exp. 1
[92]Ibid.,Caja 0992, Legajo 13-A, Exp. 1
[93]Ibid.,Caja 1140, Legajo 205, Exp. 1
[94]Ibid.,Caja 1135, Legajo 192, Exp. 1
[95]Ibid.,Caja 1135, Legajo 192, Exp. 1
[96] Fernando Chueca Goitía, *Invariantes castizos de la arquitectura española* (España: Editorial Dossat, 1981), 60, 77.
[97] For a discussion of "partial reordering" in the Caribbean, see Jorge Rigau, *Puerto Rico 1900*, 65.

the Spanish Revival lexicon was accepted as a legitimate architectural idiom. Schools appropriated its language rules without hesitation.

Spanish Revival architecture shared some elements with the earlier Mission Revival style, appropriating details from the Craftsman style often. Based on contrasting plain, background surfaces with applied ornament, it was characterized by a combination of details from different periods like the Spanish Colonial, the Spanish baroque, the Moorish Revival, and the Churrigueresque.[98] Walls were stuccoed with smooth plaster, but in Puerto Rico, rough concrete painted over created a similar effect. Low-pitched clay tile, small balconies, Roman (semicircular) arches, as well as terracotta and cast concrete ornaments were the most consistently used features.

From 1920 to 1930, amongst the most representative examples of the Spanish Revival grammar were: *Escuela Guillermo Estevez*, in Naranjito (1924)[99]; *Clemente Fernández School,*in Loíza (1925)[100]; *Escuela Mariano Reyes Cuevas*, in Lares (1926)[101]; Julio Vizcarrondo Coronado School, in Carolina (1928); *Escuela Padre Nazario*, in Guayanilla (1920); *Adolfo Quiñones Babilonia School*, in Moca (1929)[102]; and two from 1930: *Escuela Rafael Nicolau*, in Moca, and *Eugenio María de Hostos School*, in Las Marías. The *Josefina Quiñones School*, in Río Grande, dates from much later (1938), but endorses unabashedly Moorish decoration of clear Spanish Revival association. As such, it is considered part of the 1920-1930 crop of schools, in spite of the chronological gap.

The *Mariano Reyes Cuevas School*, on a high, privileged site in Lares, took advantage of its prominent location. The overall volume was articulated in three parts, the center one rising to reach three floors, in character somewhat evocative of Seville's *Torre del Oro*. Delicate crenellation at the uppermost parapet complements the effect. Rennaisance arches and an elaborate *portada* (entrance door and surround) are all located at center, concentrating ornamentation in the vertical volume for maximum effect. Ceramic torches at the top further enhance verticality. The school was designed by Joseph O'Kelly, the architect also responsible for San Juan's Customhouse building and the School

[98] In his analysis of Spanish architecture, historian Fernando Checa Goitía, *Invariantes castizos de la arquitectura española*, 80, has explained this partnering of severity and abundance as follows: "*Spanish art of all times is often characterized by endorsing a fundamental contrast: our profound liking is simultaneously pleased in a seemingly ascetic severity and an astonishing decorative abundance*".
[99] AGPR, Fondo: Obras Públicas, Serie: Edificios Escolares, Caja 1099, Legajo 112, Exp. 1
[100] Ibid.,Caja 1106, Legajo 135, Exp. 1
[101] Ibid.,Caja 1149, Legajo 223, Exp. 1
[102] Ibid.,Caja 1155, Legajo 252, Exp. 1 y 2

of Tropical Medicine in Puerta de Tierra.[103] Both buildings share similar embellishments with the school in Lares.

Again, several examples from the decade, although adhering to one style, slip in elements from another. Two pairs of schools bear to the fact. At Juncos and Peñuelas, the *Escuela José Gallardo* and *Escuela Daniel Webster*, respectively, share the same building plans from 1927[104]; in Patillas and Isabela, *Escuela María Dávila Semidey* and *Escuela Manuel Corchado Juarbe* also share similar plans, but from 1929.[105] The two school models represented by these four properties blend classical details of the Beaux Arts with Spanish Revival motifs. Urns and column capitels shaped like volutes, as well as roundels and pilasters are conjugated freely with clay tile, Roman arches, and copings.

If Adrian Finlayson played the leading role as architect from 1910 to 1920, Rafael Carmoega succeeded him as the most prolific school designer of the 1921-1930 period. Precisely from 1921 to 1936 he occupied the position of State Architect within the Department of the Interior. Just in 1925, architect Carmoega was responsible, among others, for the *Dr. Rafael del Valle School*, in Aguadilla[106]; the *Enrique Huyke Graded School*, in Arroyo[107]; *Escuela Jacinto López*, in Dorado[108]; *Escuela Elemental Cautiño*, in Guayama[109]; *Escuela Elemental Urbana*, in Jayuya[110]; *Luis Muñoz Rivera School*, in Salinas[111]. In 1926, he authored at least three more schools: *Escuela Luis Muñoz Rivera*, in Barranquitas[112]; another *Luis Muñoz Rivera School* in Sabana Grande[113]; and, in Villalba, the *Walter McJones School*[114]. Carmoega also designed the *Cástulo Rodríguez Torres School* in Barranquitas (1931)[115]. Besides authoring these projects, the architect revised, and approved many others designed by architects working within the department and/or in private practice.

[103] O'Kelly (1890-1970) studied at the University of Pennsylvania and the Drexel Institute of Philadelphia, from where he graduated in 1915. After 1923 – for eleven years – he worked for Puerto Rico's Department of the Interior, under which he designed the Mariano Reyes Cuevas School. As a private practitioner, he was responsible for apartment buildings and private residences; from "*Algunos arquitectos de Miramar*": http://www.miramarpr.org/arqalgunosarq.htm
[104] For Juncos and Peñuelas, see: AGPR Fondo Obras Públicas, Serie Edificios Escolares, Caja 1135, Legajo 192, Exp. 1; 192.
[105] For Patillas, see: Ibid., Caja 1154, Leg. 249, Exp. 1
[106] Ibid., Caja 1146, Leg. 221, Exp. 1
[107] Ibid., Caja 1100, Leg. 116, Exp. 1
[108] Ibid., Caja 1003, Leg. 24, Exp.1
[109] Ibid., Caja 1124, Leg. 167, Exp.1
[110] Ibid., Caja 1085, Leg. 078, Exp.1
[111] Ibid., Caja 1046, Leg. 60, Exp.1
[112] Ibid., Caja 1087, Leg. 080 Exp. 2
[113] Ibid., Caja 1129, Leg. 180, Exp.1
[114] Ibid., Caja 1096, Leg. 104, Exp.1
[115] Ibid., Caja 1158, Leg. 262, Exp.1

Architects Pedro A. de Castro and Francisco Roldán collaborated in two completely different schools, one backward looking in terms of style, the other advancing what future tastes would bring. The *Beaux Arts*-inspired *José Celso Barbosa,* in Bayamón (1924)[116] and the *José Julián Acosta*, in Adjuntas (1925)[117] – whose walls adhere to Secessionist articulation, but seem in pursuit of a farsighted Art Deco expression. On the other hand, architect Fidel Sevillano, who also worked for the Department of the Interior, is credited for *Escuela Luis Muñoz Rivera*, in Lajas (1924)[118]; *Escuela Dr. Clemente Fernández*, in Loíza (1925)[119]; and the *José Rodríguez de Soto* School in Ensenada (1928)[120] Two schools entrusted to Francisco Gardón at different locations in the Island shared the same design. These were: *Escuela Rafael Nicolau*, Aguas Buenas (1930)[121]; *Andrés Flores López*School, in Canóvanas (1928)[122]. Another two properties with one (different) design from Gardón, were: the *José M. Gallardo High School*, in Juncos (1927)[123], and *Escuela Daniel Webster*, in Peñuelas (1927)[124] And yet, there was anbother instance of repetition. *Escuela Eugenio María de Hostos*, in Las Marías (1930), and *María Dávila Semidey*School, in Patillas (1928)[125]

The breadth of the construction effort is made evident by the number of schools erected from 1920 to 1930, the most prolific decade regarding this governmental initiative. It is difficult to ascertain the impact of architects as individuals in the process. Not being imposed any "official" vocabulary for their designs, they were free to exercise their stylistic proclivities at will. These years coincided with those of Juan B. Huyke at the helm of Puerto Rico's Education Department. However, the Commissioner's staunch and stolid pro-American stances – so controversial at that time - do not seem to have deterred architects from freedom of choice regarding architectural expression. Their professional training, after all – whether educated in the United States or Europe – had embraced pluralistic positions and personal dexterity in the application of different styles. Their school designs mirrored, to a great extent, what they had been taught, as it was happening elsewhere.

[116]Ibid., Caja 0988, Leg. 011, Exp. 3
[117]Ibid., Caja 1142, Leg. 209, Exp.1
[118]Ibid., Caja 1119, Leg. 155, Exp.1
[119]Ibid., Caja 1106, Leg. 136, Exp.1
[120]Ibid., Caja 1139, Leg. 204, Exp.1
[121] Ibid., Caja 1156, Leg. 253, Exp.1
[122]ibid., Caja 1151, Leg. 240, Exp.1
[123]Ibid., Caja 1135, Leg. 192, Exp.1
[124]Ibid., Caja 1135, Leg. 192, Exp.1
[125]Ibid., Caja 1154, Leg. 249, Exp.1

Two historic events bracketed the end of the decade, one of local consequence, the other of widespread international impact. In 1928, a major hurricane, San Felipe, destroyed much of the Island's most susceptible school inventory then existing, particularly in the rural areas. Urban schoolhouses fared better: some lost their original wooden roofs and substituted them with new ones in concrete, others were just repaired.[126] The *Puerto Rico Hurricane Relief Commission*, specially created for disaster response, took over the repair and rebuilding tasks. The years following the storm were particularly difficult. Sugar faced serious market problems due to overgrowth of the industry. Tobacco faced declining values and coffee was waning due to the diminished buying capacity of its traditional consumer countries. At that time, the Island's resources were almost exclusively agricultural, not having developed a diversified economy. Puerto Rico was just beginning to recover from San Felipe when it felt the effects of the 1930's Depression after the Wall Street Crash and its world-wide consequences. The decade closed with the naming of a new local Commisioner of Education: Puerto Rican José Padín, whose tenure differed from Huyke's significantly: among other things, he made Spanish the official classroom language.

Another devastating hurricane hit in September 1932, and once again the schools suffered some damages. To cope with the situation under extreme poverty conditions, three agencies were engaged in school reconstruction programs and provided with funds to implement them: the *Puerto Rican Emergency Relief Administration* (PRERA), the *Works Project Administration* (WPA), and the *Puerto Rican Reconstruction Administration* (PRRA). Massive unemployment and working class struggles fueled the establishment of those emergency measures under the New Deal initiative, led by then President Franklin Delano Roosevelt. This constitutes a different chapter in Puerto Rico's history.

Times had definitely changed, leading to significant transformations in all spheres of life. By then, the renewed social panorama had adopted a new expression: *Art Deco*, which although introduced originally in the Paris Exposition of 1925, it had taken some time for it to become an accepted, widespread idiom, one applicable to local institutional buildings. Schools built in Puerto Rico from the mid 1930's on carried with them unmistakable Art Deco traits which distinguished them significantly from the educational properties erected on the Island the three previous decades. Among those, as explained before, shared consistencies were plentiful. Strikingly different from those previous eclectic efforts, the new breed of Art Deco schools, nonetheless, also succeeded at rendering notable pieces of architecture. Among these were: the *Franklin Delano Roosevelt School*, in Arecibo (1938); *Escuela Aguayo Aldea*, in Caguas (1939); the *Luis Muñoz Marín School*, in Cabo Rojo (1940); as well as the *Ana Roqué School* and the *Escuela Vocacional*, in Humacao (1940).

[126] *Ponce de León School*, in Humacao, was one of them. (Ibid., Caja 1011, Legajo 34-A, Exp. 3

Pride at what was accomplished in the previous decades nurtured public policy in the years to come. In a Social Studies textbook prepared in 1941 by Puerto Rico's Department of Education for fourth grade students, USA contributions to the Island's educational advancement were lauded, simultaneously chastising the Spanish Regime for its previous academic indifference.[127] The classroom text was used well up to the 60's; its message still resonates today.

Conclusion

In spite of the relative rush with which government set out to build so many of these educational facilities, many turned out to be superb architectural examples whose siting strategy, design, and detailing are all worthy of recognition as public heritage. Their story sheds light on Puerto Rico's relationship with the United States throughout more than three decades: thirty years that proved crucial to the development of Education in the Island. *Ponce High School*, one of the earliest erected, remains to this day a landmark of careful massing of building components, spatial sophistication, and good craftsmanship. Even if heavily influenced on the exterior by the work of McKim, Mead & White in the USA, the entry sequence from portico to lobby, library, and auditorium reflects a mature design hand at work. *Central High School* shared with its counterpart in Ponce an equally complex buildings program. Besides classrooms and hallways, it included an ample lobby, generous stairs, a library, gym, and a small theater. These two schools remain exemplary academic facilities and rank among the most important public buildings ever built in Puerto Rico. As such, thay have been included in the *National Register of Historic Places*. Others similarly distinguished by inclusion in said roster are: *EscuelaVocacionalAguayoAldea* and *José Gautier Benítez High School* in Caguas; *Escuela Jacinto López*, in Dorado; the *EleuterioDerkes Grammar School*, in Guayama; Humacao's*Antonia Sáez School*; *Ponce High School*; *Escuela Rafael M. Labra*, the *Martín S. Brumbaugh School*, and *José Celso Barbosa Graded School*, all in San Juan.

School buildings erected in Puerto Rico between 1900 and 1930 were the earliest buildings with which the USA government made its presence felt in Puerto Rico, and have proven to be some of the most long lasting.•

[127] Francisco Gaztambide Vega and Pedro P. Arán. *La isla de Puerto Rico* (New York: Rand MacNally y Compañia, 1945), 126-127.

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

**National Register of Historic Places Continuation Sheet**

Early XXth Century Schools in Puerto Rico, 1900-1930

Puerto Rico

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# Schools built by year

Key
Resources to be nominated are shaded in gray
Buildings in the National Register in bold
Date listed in the National Register (D)
Architect or Engineer linked to the building (A)

| Year | | Town | School | A | D |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1. | 1901 | Fajardo | Ramón Quiñones Pacheco | A.C. Finlayson, Carmoega among others | |
| 2. | 1903 | Sabana Grande | James Fenimore Cooper | | |
| 3. | 1904 | Juana Díaz | Manuel Fernández Juncos | | |
| 4. | 1905 | Humacao | Ponce de León | | |
| 5. | | Yabucoa | José Facundo Cintrón | | |
| 6. | 1906 | **Santa Isabel** | **Martin G. Brumbaugh** | **A.C. Finlayson 1913 Porrata Doria 1934** | **2/4/11** |
| 7. | 1907 | Vieques | José Gautier Benítez | Adrian C. Finlayson 1919 | |
| 8. | 1908 | **Guayama** | **Eleuterio Derkes** | | **8/4/87** |
| 9. | | Ponce | Federico Degetau y González | | |
| 10. | | Ponce | McKinley | Albert B. McCulloch, A.C. Finlayson | |
| 11. | | Vega Baja | José G. Padilla | A.C. Finlayson 1908, Adolfo Nones 1924 | |
| 12. | 1909 | Arecibo | Thomas Jefferson | | |
| 13. | | Carolina | Luis Muñoz Rivera | Van Alen Harris | |
| 14. | | Maunabo | José Navarro | | |
| 15. | 1910 | Aibonito | José N. Gándara | Adrian C. Finlayson | |
| 16. | | Hatillo | Adrian Martínez Gandía | | |
| 17. | 1911 | Vieques | VictorDuteil | Adrian C. Finlayson 1919 | |
| 18. | 1913 | **San Juan** | **Martin G. Brumbaugh** | | **5/5/89** |
| 19. | | San Sebastián | Whittier | Repairs in 1919 by Adrian C. Finlayson | |
| 20. | 1914 | Arecibo | Luis Muñoz Rivera | | |
| 21. | 1915 | Cayey | Benjamin Harrison | Repairs in 1924 by Rafael Carmoega | |
| 22. | | Mayaguez | José De Diego | Nichols?, Dalryruple?, accepted by Finlayson | |
| 23. | | Orocovis | Pedro Arroyo | Albert B. McCulloch, A.C. Finlayson | |
| 24. | | **Ponce** | **Ponce High** | **Adrian C. Finlayson** | **8/4/87** |
| 25. | 1916 | Naguabo | Eugenio Brac | Adrian C. Finlayson | |

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| | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 26. | | **San Juan** | **Rafael Labra** | **Adrian C. Finlayson** | **8/4/87** |
| 27. | 1917 | Camuy | José Julian Acosta | Schematics plans by A.C. Finlayson | |
| 28. | | Mayaguez | Manuel Barreto | Approved by Dalryruple & Santana | |
| 29. | | Toa Alta | José Pablo Morales | | |
| 30. | | Utuado | Francisco Ramos | A. B. McCulloch, approved by A.C. Finlayson | |
| 31. | 1918 | Guánica | María Luisa McDougall | Adrian C. Finlayson | |
| 32. | 1919 | Gurabo | Matías Gonzalez García | Adrian C. Finlayson | |
| 33. | 1920 | **Guayanilla** | **Padre José M. Nazario** | | |
| 34. | | Naguabo | Ramón Rodriguez González | | |
| 35. | | Utuado | Antonio De Jesús López | | |
| 36. | | Yabucoa | José Berríos | | |
| 37. | 1921 | **Barceloneta** | **Rafael Balseiro Maceira** | **Adrian C. Finlayson** | |
| 38. | | San Lorenzo | Luis Muñoz Rivera | | |
| 39. | 1922 | **Humacao** | **Antonia Sáez** | | **5/18/95** |
| 40. | | San Germán | Rafael García | | |
| 41. | 1923 | Añasco | Isabel Suaréz | A.S. Bures approved by Carmoega | |
| 42. | | **Dorado** | **Jacinto López Martínez** | | **10/11/88** |
| 43. | | San Juan | Pedro Goyco | Del Valle & Company | |
| 44. | | Toa Baja | José Nevárez Landrón | R. Nevárez approved by Carmoega | |
| 45. | | Vega Alta | José De Diego | F. Lebrón?, approved by Carmoega | |
| 46. | 1924 | Aguada | José E. Benedicto | H. Caso | |
| 47. | | Bayamón | José Celso Barbosa | Pedro A. de Castro, Francisco Roldán | |
| 48. | | **Caguas** | **José Gautier Benítez** | | **6/15/88** |
| 49. | | Juncos | Tomás Hernández | Dufant & Benitez approved by Carmoega | |
| 50. | | **Lajas** | **Luis Muñoz Rivera** | **Fidel Sevillano approved by Carmoega** | |
| 51. | | Mayaguez | Luis Muñoz Rivera | A.S. Bures recommended by Carmoega | |
| 52. | | Naranjito | Guillermo Estevez | G.F.M. approved by Carmoega | |
| 53. | 1925 | Adjuntas | José Julian Acosta | Pedro A. de Castro, Francisco Roldán | |
| 54. | | Aguadilla | Dr. Rafael Del Valle | Rafael Carmoega | |
| 55. | | Arroyo | Enrique Huyke | Rafael Carmoega | |
| 56. | | Cabo Rojo | Pedro F. Colberg | Jesús Benítez | |
| 57. | | Ciales | Francisco Coira | A.M. Navas approved by Carmoega | |
| 58. | | Cidra | Luis Muñoz Rivera | Jesús Benítez | |
| 59. | | Dorado | Jacinto López Martínez | Rafael Carmoega | |
| 60. | | Guayama | Elemental Cautiño | Rafael Carmoega signed documents | |

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Puerto Rico

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| | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 61. | | Jayuya | Elemental Urbana | Rafael Carmoega | |
| 62. | | Loíza | Dr. Clemente Fernández | F. Sevillano, J.Benítez approved by Carmoega | |
| 63. | | Manatí | José Severo Quiñones | Pedro A. de Castro | |
| 64. | | Salinas | Luis Muñoz Rivera | Rafael Carmoega | |
| 65. | | **San Juan** | **Central High** | **Adrian C. Finlayson** | **8/4/87** |
| 66. | | Yauco | Luis Muñoz Rivera | R.A. Bigay 1925, Carmoega & Sevillano 1928 | |
| 67. | 1926 | Barranquitas | Luis Muñoz Rivera | Rafael Carmoega | |
| 68. | | Coamo | José Román Rodriguez | Ramón Martínez de León | |
| 69. | | Lares | Mariano Reyes Cuevas | O'Kelly approved by Carmoega | |
| 70. | | Sabana Grande | Luis Muñoz Rivera | Rafael Carmoega | |
| 71. | | Villalba | Walter McJones | Rafael Carmoega | |
| 72. | 1927 | **Juncos** | **José Gallardo** | **F. Gardón approved by Carmoega** | |
| 73. | | Isabela | Manuel Corchado y Juarbe | | |
| 74. | | **Peñuelas** | **Daniel Webster** | **F. Gardón approved by Carmoega** | |
| 75. | | **San Juan** | **José Celso Barbosa** | | **5/19/89** |
| 76. | 1928 | Canóvanas | Andrés Flores López | F. Gardón approved by Carmoega | |
| 77. | | Carolina | Julio Vizcarrondo | | |
| 78. | | Guánica | José Rodriguez De Soto | Fidel Sevillano, Antonio S. Bures | |
| 79. | | **Morovis** | **José Fontán** | **O'Kelly approved by Carmoega** | |
| 80. | | **Patillas** | **María Dávila Semidey** | **F.G. approved by Carmoega** | |
| 81. | 1929 | Moca | Adolfo Babilonia Quiñones | Osvaldo Hidalgo accepted by Carmoega | |
| 82. | 1930 | Aguas Buenas | Rafael Nicolau | F. Gardón approved by Carmoega | |
| 83. | | **Las Marías** | **Eugenio María De Hostos** | **F. Gardón approved by Carmoega** | |

F. Associated Property Types

Name of Property: School Buildings

Description

Placement on Site

Four typical categories and their variations exemplify best the siting conditions related to the disposition of the schools within each city. One prototypical condition is that of **schools located adjacent to the town's plaza**, thus sharing direct importance with the church, city hall and other public facilities of similar significance. Vieques (with its *José Gautier Benítez* and *Victor Duteil* Schools); Arroyo (with the *Enrique Huyke Graded School*); Guánica (and its *Escuela María Luisa McDougall*); as well as Dorado (with its *Jacinto López Martínez* school building) can be quoted as notable examples.

A second condition relates to **schools located within one city block**, as found in Ponce (at its *High School*, and *McKinley* and *Degetau* schools); Caguas (*Gautier Benítez*, several adjacent ones to it, and *Aguayo Aldea*); and Morovis (*José Fontán*) **(FIG. 12)** and the group of neighboring schools). This condition refers to a set of buildings coexisting within one city block, their disposition allowing for the particular articulation of space between them. In this case, their scale relationship to the rest of the city is usually one of contrast, always underlining the building's profile against the prevailing urban texture. As a consequence, these schools are often perceived as rather colossal.

**Schools that culminate a city grid** represent a third recognizable condition. In these cases, buildings conclude the town's then existing gridded layout, becoming the termination of an urban sequence. The street that usually leads to them becomes an axis, underscoring the school's monumental presence and its dominance over the city landscape. Juncos (with the *Tomás Hernández* and *José M. Gallardo* **(FIG. 13)** schools); Guayama (with the *Derkes* and *Cautiño* schools); and Cabo Rojo (with the *Pedro Colberg High School*) best exemplify the concept.

The fourth documented urban condition refers to **schools that appear as singular events within a street (or linear) sequence**. *Rafael M. Labra* and *Central High* schools in Santurce rank among the most illustrative of these examples. The schoolhouse becomes part of a progression by which the city dweller can enjoy the town's open spaces, as it also happens in Yauco (*Luis Muñoz Rivera*), Guayanilla (*Padre Nazario*) **(FIG. 14)**, Humacao (*Ana Roqué*, *Ponce de León* and the *Vocational School*), Río Grande (*Josefina Quiñones*) **(FIG. 15)**, Peñuelas (*Daniel J. Webster*) **(FIG. 16)** and

Villalba (*Walter McJones*) **(FIG. 17)** among others. In Ensenada, given the linear layout of town, the placement of schools along the main street seemed natural. In Yauco, their location responds to a richer context. Facing ample Barbosa Avenue (formerly lined with trees), schools are the climax of the north-south axis that contains the city's two main open spaces, its most prominent public buildings, ornate residential architecture, and the open-air steps (*escalinatas*) that lead to the higher section of town.

Architectural Typologies

Basic building shapes configure most plans, which can be: **rectangular** (*Eugenio María de Hostos*, in Las Marías; *MaríaDávilaSemidey*, in Patillas; *Rafael Balseiro Maceira*, in Barceloneta **(FIG. 18)** and Guayanilla's*Padre Nazario*; **C-shaped** (*Luis Muñoz Rivera*, in several towns; *José M.Gallardo*, in Juncos; *EleuterioDerkes*, in Guayama, and many others); **E-shaped** (*Ponce High*); **H** (*Daniel J. Webster*, in Peñuelas); **V** (*Central High*); or **O** (*Rafael M. Labra*, in Santurce; *Josefina Quiñones*, in Río Grande; and *Aguayo Aldea*, in Caguas) **(FIG. 19).** Semi-enclosed patios and arcades (front and/or back) are integral to many basic patterns. Peculiarities inherent to each arrangement are particularly enhanced by each school's location.

Composition

Front façades would be customarily addressed in formal, symmetrical manner. Back elevations, in contrast, were sometimes merely balanced in disposition. Along them, an additional classroom, storage, or bathrooms could throw off the overall symmetrical treatment. Entrance porticoes were highlighted by a preferred location: either on axis, or two of them at both sides of the main axis, as in Isabela's*Manuel CorchadoJuarbe* School, and Patillas, *EscuelaMaríaDávilaSemidey*. Porticoes such as the one gracing the entrances at Lajas' *Luis Muñoz Rivera School* **(FIG. 20)** and at CaboRojo's*Pedro Colberg High School*, further confirmed that schools like these ones were buildings of consequence.

An enlarged scale and bas-relief ornamentation would help emphasize hierarchical accesses. Raising the main floor from ground level enriched the spatial handling of entry sequences, making steps a necessity (and often a main, rather theatrical feature, flanked by piers at each side). Access axes serve always as an organizing "spine" to which special features and/or repetitive elements (like classrooms) were related. Auditoria, libraries or gyms were granted importance by their placement on axis, as illustrated by Santurce's*Central High School* and at *Ponce High School*, among others. Formality, however, coexisted with flexibility: folding doors (many with integrated blackboards) allowed for multiple/expanded uses of the same facilities.

Tectonics

As argued before, architects addressed school design from the wide eclectic repertoire: Neoclassic, Secession, Georgian, Prairie, Beaux Arts, or Spanish Revival, among others **(FIG. 21).** But above all, theirs was a work highly interested in spatial values and craftsmanship, two of architecture's primal concerns. In some instances, reinforced concrete would be finished in plaster and/or paint. On others, it would be exposed concrete, revealing formwork patterns (as in the *Federico Degetau School* in Ponce) and/or stone aggregates as in Barceloneta (*Escuela Rafael BalseiroMaceira*). Few examples such as the *Rafael M. Labra High School* in Santurce, displayed fired brick finished walls. Low-pitched, cross-hipped roofs were popular. Zinc-corrugated panels would cover the wood rafter system. A few examples had reinforced concrete flat roofs with parapets, with walls extending up beyond the roof's edge.

Roof-wall junctions would be mostly slight eave with few examples of wide eave overhangs. The variations would range from eaves boxed with modillions, dentils, or other classical moldings; or open, not boxed; with brackets; and with a wide band of trim below the eaves and soffits.Wooden ceilings and soffits would be mainly tongue-and-groove joints, among others, like channel and flush shiplap joints.Hardwoods were used customarily at windows, doors, and frames, floors, ceilings and roof soffit and structures.

The original fenestration included wood louvers and shutters; much of it has been replaced. Natural ventilation was always a main concern; raised floors, operable louvers and perforated transoms for airflow are a trademark. Close examination of these schools will render them as buildings highly responsive to Puerto Rico's climatic conditions. These are structures that "breathe" in response to their tropical surroundings. Wood doors would be mostly board-and-batten or six-to-eight panels. A few would display doors with pilasters to the sides and a pediment at main entrances, often incorporatingcornices, friezes, and architraves.

Customarily including round or segmental arches, façades were treated in bas-relief manner, keeping surfaces sober as well as shallow. Architectural elements were often underlined with lintels and sills, label molds, roundels, belt courses, and garlands. Specific Greek revival details were used to differentiate one school from another: a pediment (*Rafael M. Labra School*), Corinthian columns (*Federico Degetau School*), and pilasters (*Ponce High School*).

Statement of Significance

The ambitious school building program carried out during the first three decades of the 20th century by the U.S. Government in Puerto Rico links the Island's history with key concerns of relevant 19th-century education reformers who advocated not only improved pedagogical responsibilities, but also advanced school buildings and teaching conditions. Schools were instrumental for teaching English, but also "Americanism". Conceived as catalytical for the process of Americanization of the Puerto Rican territory, schools were entrusted a sort of peaceful colonization of the Island and its transformation into a capitalistic society. The argument is made stronger upon knowledge of the American government's insistence on building "*an American school at every valley and on each hill"; "with the building facing an important street*", making its presence evident and only comparable to that of church and city hall in each of our towns.

During this period, every single town in the island was provided with brand new schools. A variety of expressions became a trademark of the period. Such an approach to architecture fostered the adoption of innumerable styles and typological variations, as well as the endorsement of newly acquired construction techniques. Initially introduced in schoolhouse construction, cast-in-place concrete, stucco, exposed aggregates, and the use of mosaic and plaster later became popular in residential architecture. These schools also disseminated climatically and health-oriented concerns.

Schools of the period in Puerto Rico adhere to "*codes*" or accepted procedures adopted in the United States through German and/or English influences. That is how the two-story scheme with basement came to be a preferred one, auditoriums were placed on the uppermost floor, and stairs provided in multiple sets; transoms ventilated... and so on. Architects or renown such as *Haussander and Perkins* in Chicago, *Snyder* in New York, *Cooper* in Boston and *William B. Ittner* in St. Louis were developing these and other ideas at the time in the USA. Their names, ideas and work were consistently featured at trade magazines of the time: *The AmericanArchitect*, *Architectural Record* and *The Architectural Forum*.

Issues addressed in the States became local criteria regarding school hygiene and sanitation; climate as a main consideration; beauty as a result of function; and future expansions as an ever-present possibility. Professional debates mirrored locally included: site selection, minimum square feet-standards; compositional and proportional concerns; and decoration. When such an architectural heritage is understood in full scope, it will become obvious that Puerto Rico's Early XX Century schools embody an all-inclusive legacy that commands attention, interpretation and recognition.

Besides their integrity and location in an urban context, the schools deserving inclusion in the National Register of Historic Places share the fact of having been designed by some of the most productive architects that ever worked on the Island. All of their buildings proved an efficient vehicle for introducing in Puerto Rico architectural vocabulary of the most different styles, ranging from Georgian to Neoclassical, to Secession and Spanish Revival to, eventually, Art Deco. As such, they not only embodied reigning building concerns at their time, but also became models widely repeated and reinterpreted on the Island. Their conservation should be part of an Island-wide coherent public policy.

Examination of these schools renders effective design strategies regarding building typology, siting, applied ornamentation, symmetry, prototype reinterpretation (all other issues above mentioned). An important lesson offered by these buildings relates to the use of simple construction methods to their fullest potential. Paired with the different patterns and practices each building nominated represents, the design alternatives embodied by all together, cover all conditions inherent to the school prototype on the Island. Similar schools were built by the United States in Cuba and the Dominican Republic during the same decades. In Santiago and Santo Domingo (Dominican Republic) schoolhouses resemble closely these erected in Puerto Rico. Coral Gables Elementary School, Miami Shores School, and William Jennings Bryan School, all in Miami, are akin to Puerto Rico's educational facilities built under US influence.

Most of these school buildings still survive and, most importantly, still function as originally intended. If the design approach can be said to have been all-encompassing, so were the schools themselves in their singular, if not completely purposeful, dissemination of social egalitarianism in Puerto Rico. After all, institutional buildings from Spanish colonial times (except several dedicated to charity and welfare) belonged to élite, whether religious, political, or economic. Education had previously been a privilege of the few. The new schools - and their monumental status - now stood for everyone. Rich and poor met and shared as equals in their hometown *escuela pública*, which became a most efficient social fulcrum. In general, "everybody" attended public school then, regardless of statues. These schools buildings were successful in their ability to bring people together, and it should not come as a surprise that – as a consequence - they are now objects of nostalgia, powerful in terms of contemporary cultural association. To this day, turn-of-the-century schoolhouses in Puerto Rico suggest an ideal of social integration, one that, for many today, seems ever more distant given the complexities of the Island's society today.

Registration Requirements

This thematic nomination for Early 20th Century Schools in Puerto Rico addresses those buildings that best represent the Island's public school building efforts from 1900 to 1930.

Based on the analysis of data collected on the property types and related variations, the following registration considerations have been established for comparing actual historic properties and making judgments about their relative significance:

1. The school must have been built between 1900 and 1930 or, if from a later date, must have been based on the same ideals developed and implemented during that period.

2. Urban schools were strategically placed within the urban fabric of each town, and any property must represent at least one of the four urban strategies identified as recurrent.

3. Given the lack of school buildings as such during the Spanish regime, the educational facilities built throughout the 1900's-1930's sharecharacteristic features and building shapes that made them identifiable as the schoolhouses erected by the department of education building type.The resource must be representative of a school type, which can be RECTANGULAR, or replicate letters *C,E, H, I, L, O, T* or *V* in plan.

4. The building must retain its original volumetric expression. No significant alterations or additions must now challenge the overall shape of the original design, unless removing them is possible without ulterior effect.

5. The resource must keep the distinctive features of its original facade profile. Although facades were usually sober and shallow, the symmetrical disposition in elevation, central gable or pediment, the wide cornicesunder the eave line, and simple decorative elements such as dentils and ledges must be preserved.

6. Openings – doorways and windows– must retain their original proportions, even if the original fenestration has been lost and/or substituted. However, retrievable (i. e. easy to remove without further damage) alterations to openings are acceptable.

7. The school must have been designed or developed by a figure of recognized greatness in the field, a known designer or craftsman of consummate skill or an anonymous designer or craftsman whose work is distinguishable.

## G. Geographical Data

The Commonwealth of Puerto Rico

H. Summary of Identification and Evaluation Methods

This thematic nomination for Puerto Rico's early 20th century schools expands on a previous effort to that effect, now providing enlarged background information, in-depth architectural analysis of the most significant examples by decade, and additional archival references. Execution of the work included: a more precise definition of the period that comprises the object of study and updated consultation of primary and secondary references. We also coordinated field trips to document and verify the actual state of the resources, conducting myriad interviews to gather additional information.

This Multiple Property Documentation Form incorporates information from primary and secondary sources. Primary sources of analysis included: archival material, publications from the federal, local, and municipal governments; also plans and photographs, and, of course, the buildings themselves. Construction specifications; correspondence; building contracts and certificates for payment from the contractors; as well as the Annual Reports of the Commissioners of Education and the Governors proved to be of vital relevance. The *Archivo General de Puerto Rico* is a huge repository of information related to the construction of schools from 1900 to 1930, harboring material specific to many of the most representative buildings of the period.

Key secondary sources were also reviewed, specifically books addressing education and school construction during the period of study, such as Aida Negrón de Montilla's*Laamericanización en Puerto Rico y el sistema de instrucciónpública 1900/1930*, and *Miescuelita: Educación y arquitectura en Puerto Rico*, by ÁngelaLópezBorrero. They provided an effective understanding of the background conditions and partnering social and political ideas behind the erection of the schools being studied. For the nuances associated with architectural styles, key texts proved essential to the task: *Ilusión de Francia: arquitectura y afrancesamiento en Puerto Rico*, and *Hispanophilia: Architecture and Life in Puerto Rico*, 1900-1950, both edited by Enrique VivoniFarage and Sylvia ÁlvarezCurbelo; also Jorge Rigau's*Puerto Rico 1900: Turn-of-the-Century Architecture in the Caribbean*.Bracketing time and place was facilitated by the previously existing thematic nomination, but differences from decade to decade were now accounted for.

Sampling and survey procedures were initially guided by the existing nomination and its accompanying inventory, and the identification of the most significant alterations to the original structures. Spot update visits were executed for said purpose; local historians, educators and culture administrators volunteered assistance and information. Knowledge of the condition of existing properties facilitated the definition of integrity requirements for any future listing of properties. A table listing representative properties is included here, even if not exhaustive:

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Key
Resources to be nominated are shaded in gray
Buildings in the National Register in bold
Date listed in the National Register (D)
Architect or Engineer linked to the building (A)

| Year | | Town | School | A | D |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1. | 1901 | Fajardo | Ramón Quiñones Pacheco | A.C. Finlayson, Carmoega among others | |
| 2. | 1903 | Sabana Grande | James Fenimore Cooper | | |
| 3. | 1904 | Juana Díaz | Manuel Fernández Juncos | | |
| 4. | 1905 | Humacao | Ponce de León | | |
| 5. | | Yabucoa | José Facundo Cintrón | | |
| 6. | 1906 | **Santa Isabel** | **Martin G. Brumbaugh** | **A.C. Finlayson 1913 Porrata Doria 1934** | **2/4/11** |
| 7. | 1907 | Vieques | José Gautier Benítez | Adrian C. Finlayson 1919 | |
| 8. | 1908 | **Guayama** | **Eleuterio Derkes** | | **8/4/87** |
| 9. | | Ponce | Federico Degetau y González | | |
| 10. | | Ponce | McKinley | Albert B. McCulloch, A.C. Finlayson | |
| 11. | | Vega Baja | José G. Padilla | A.C. Finlayson 1908, Adolfo Nones 1924 | |
| 12. | 1909 | Arecibo | Thomas Jefferson | | |
| 13. | | Carolina | Luis Muñoz Rivera | Van Alen Harris | |
| 14. | | Maunabo | José Navarro | | |
| 15. | 1910 | Aibonito | José N. Gándara | Adrian C. Finlayson | |
| 16. | | Hatillo | Adrian Martínez Gandía | | |
| 17. | 1911 | Vieques | VictorDuteil | Adrian C. Finlayson 1919 | |
| 18. | 1913 | **San Juan** | **Martin G. Brumbaugh** | | **5/5/89** |
| 19. | | San Sebastián | Whittier | Repairs in 1919 by Adrian C. Finlayson | |
| 20. | 1914 | Arecibo | Luis Muñoz Rivera | | |
| 21. | 1915 | Cayey | Benjamin Harrison | Repairs in 1924 by Rafael Carmoega | |
| 22. | | Mayaguez | José De Diego | Nichols?, Dalryruple?, accepted by Finlayson | |
| 23. | | Orocovis | Pedro Arroyo | Albert B. McCulloch, A.C. Finlayson | |
| 24. | | **Ponce** | **Ponce High** | **Adrian C. Finlayson** | **8/4/87** |
| 25. | 1916 | Naguabo | Eugenio Brac | Adrian C. Finlayson | |
| 26. | | **San Juan** | **Rafael Labra** | **Adrian C. Finlayson** | **8/4/87** |
| 27. | 1917 | Camuy | José Julian Acosta | Schematics plans by A.C. Finlayson | |

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| | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 28. | | Mayaguez | Manuel Barreto | Approved by Dalryruple & Santana | |
| 29. | | Toa Alta | José Pablo Morales | | |
| 30. | | Utuado | Francisco Ramos | A. B. McCulloch, approved by A.C. Finlayson | |
| 31. | 1918 | Guánica | María Luisa McDougall | Adrian C. Finlayson | |
| 32. | 1919 | Gurabo | Matías Gonzalez García | Adrian C. Finlayson | |
| 33. | 1920 | **Guayanilla** | **Padre José M. Nazario** | | |
| 34. | | Naguabo | Ramón Rodriguez González | | |
| 35. | | Utuado | Antonio De Jesús López | | |
| 36. | | Yabucoa | José Berríos | | |
| 37. | 1921 | **Barceloneta** | **Rafael Balseiro Maceira** | **Adrian C. Finlayson** | |
| 38. | | San Lorenzo | Luis Muñoz Rivera | | |
| 39. | 1922 | **Humacao** | **Antonia Sáez** | | **5/18/95** |
| 40. | | San Germán | Rafael García | | |
| 41. | 1923 | Añasco | Isabel Suaréz | A.S. Bures approved by Carmoega | |
| 42. | | **Dorado** | **Jacinto López Martínez** | | **10/11/88** |
| 43. | | San Juan | Pedro Goyco | Del Valle & Company | |
| 44. | | Toa Baja | José Nevárez Landrón | R. Nevárez approved by Carmoega | |
| 45. | | Vega Alta | José De Diego | F. Lebrón?, approved by Carmoega | |
| 46. | 1924 | Aguada | José E. Benedicto | H. Caso | |
| 47. | | Bayamón | José Celso Barbosa | Pedro A. de Castro, Francisco Roldán | |
| 48. | | **Caguas** | **José Gautier Benítez** | | **6/15/88** |
| 49. | | Juncos | Tomás Hernández | Dufant & Benitez approved by Carmoega | |
| 50. | | **Lajas** | **Luis Muñoz Rivera** | **Fidel Sevillano approved by Carmoega** | |
| 51. | | Mayaguez | Luis Muñoz Rivera | A.S. Bures recommended by Carmoega | |
| 52. | | Naranjito | Guillermo Estevez | G.F.M. approved by Carmoega | |
| 53. | 1925 | Adjuntas | José Julian Acosta | Pedro A. de Castro, Francisco Roldán | |
| 54. | | Aguadilla | Dr. Rafael Del Valle | Rafael Carmoega | |
| 55. | | Arroyo | Enrique Huyke | Rafael Carmoega | |
| 56. | | Cabo Rojo | Pedro F. Colberg | Jesús Benítez | |
| 57. | | Ciales | Francisco Coira | A.M. Navas approved by Carmoega | |
| 58. | | Cidra | Luis Muñoz Rivera | Jesús Benítez | |
| 59. | | Dorado | Jacinto López Martínez | Rafael Carmoega | |
| 60. | | Guayama | Elemental Cautiño | Rafael Carmoega signed documents | |
| 61. | | Jayuya | Elemental Urbana | Rafael Carmoega | |
| 62. | | Loíza | Dr. Clemente Fernández | F. Sevillano, J.Benítez approved by Carmoega | |

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| | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 63. | | Manatí | José Severo Quiñones | Pedro A. de Castro | |
| 64. | | Salinas | Luis Muñoz Rivera | Rafael Carmoega | |
| 65. | | **San Juan** | **Central High** | **Adrian C. Finlayson** | **8/4/87** |
| 66. | | Yauco | Luis Muñoz Rivera | R.A. Bigay 1925, Carmoega & Sevillano 1928 | |
| 67. | 1926 | Barranquitas | Luis Muñoz Rivera | Rafael Carmoega | |
| 68. | | Coamo | José Román Rodriguez | Ramón Martínez de León | |
| 69. | | Lares | Mariano Reyes Cuevas | O'Kelly approved by Carmoega | |
| 70. | | Sabana Grande | Luis Muñoz Rivera | Rafael Carmoega | |
| 71. | | Villalba | Walter McJones | Rafael Carmoega | |
| 72. | 1927 | **Juncos** | **José Gallardo** | **F. Gardón approved by Carmoega** | |
| 73. | | Isabela | Manuel Corchado y Juarbe | | |
| 74. | | **Peñuelas** | **Daniel Webster** | **F. Gardón approved by Carmoega** | |
| 75. | | **San Juan** | **José Celso Barbosa** | | **5/19/89** |
| 76. | 1928 | Canóvanas | Andrés Flores López | F. Gardón approved by Carmoega | |
| 77. | | Carolina | Julio Vizcarrondo | | |
| 78. | | Guánica | José Rodriguez De Soto | Fidel Sevillano, Antonio S. Bures | |
| 79. | | **Morovis** | **José Fontán** | **O'Kelly approved by Carmoega** | |
| 80. | | **Patillas** | **María Dávila Semidey** | **F.G. approved by Carmoega** | |
| 81. | 1929 | Moca | Adolfo Babilonia Quiñones | Osvaldo Hidalgo accepted by Carmoega | |
| 82. | 1930 | Aguas Buenas | Rafael Nicolau | F. Gardón approved by Carmoega | |
| 83. | | **Las Marías** | **Eugenio María De Hostos** | **F. Gardón approved by Carmoega** | |

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Caja 994, Legajo 15, Exp.3
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Caja 1005, Legajo 27, Exp.1
Caja 1007, Legajo 29, Exp.1
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Caja 1062, Legajo 62-k, Exp.1
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Caja 1066, Legajo 646, Exp.1-3
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**Fig. 1: Wood and thatch school, XIXth century.**
**Source: AGPR, Annual Report of the Governor of Puerto Rico, 1902-1903.**

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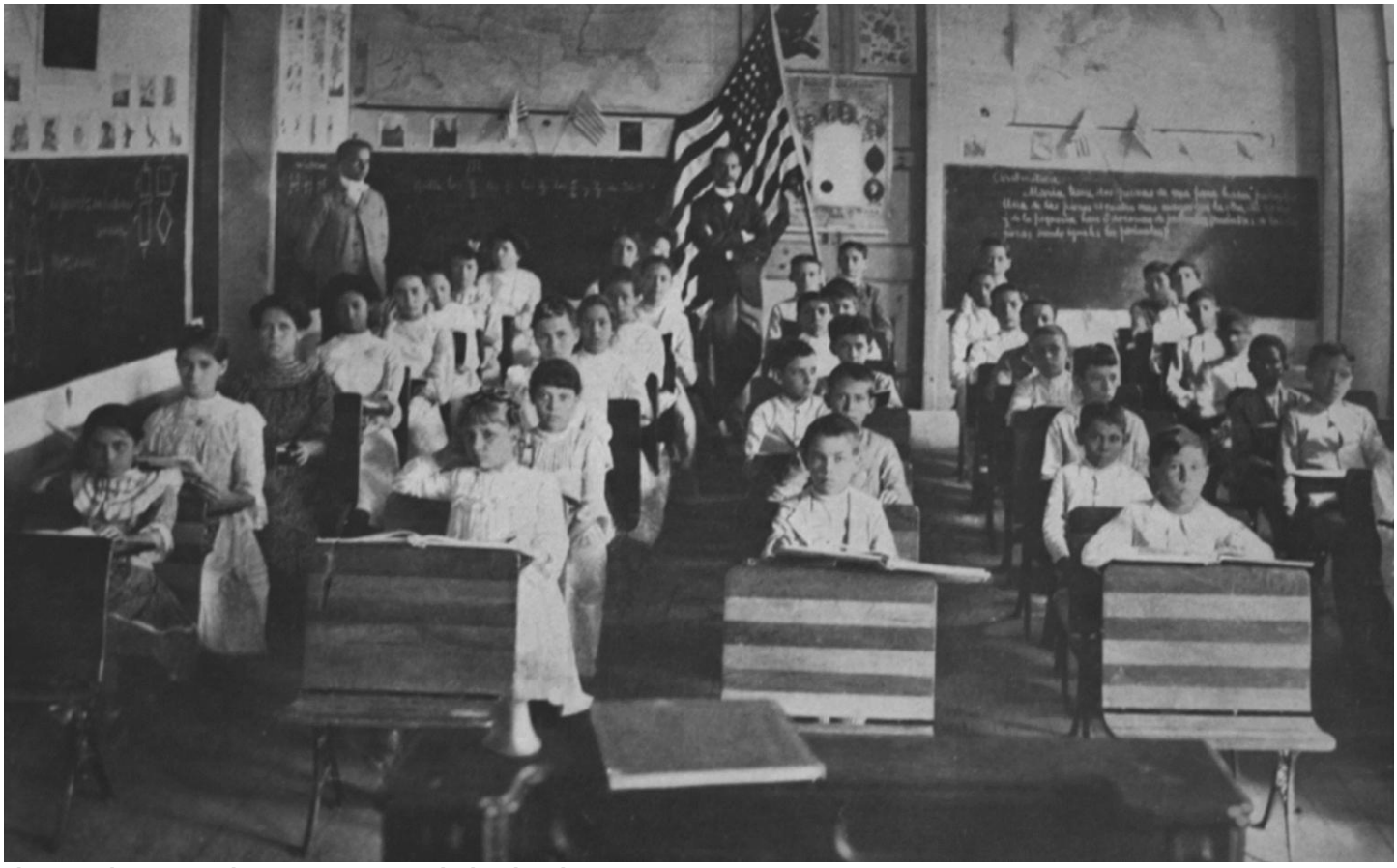

**Fig. 2: Classroom in Mayaguez graded school.**
**Source: AGPR, Annual Report of the Governor of Puerto Rico, 1902-1903.**

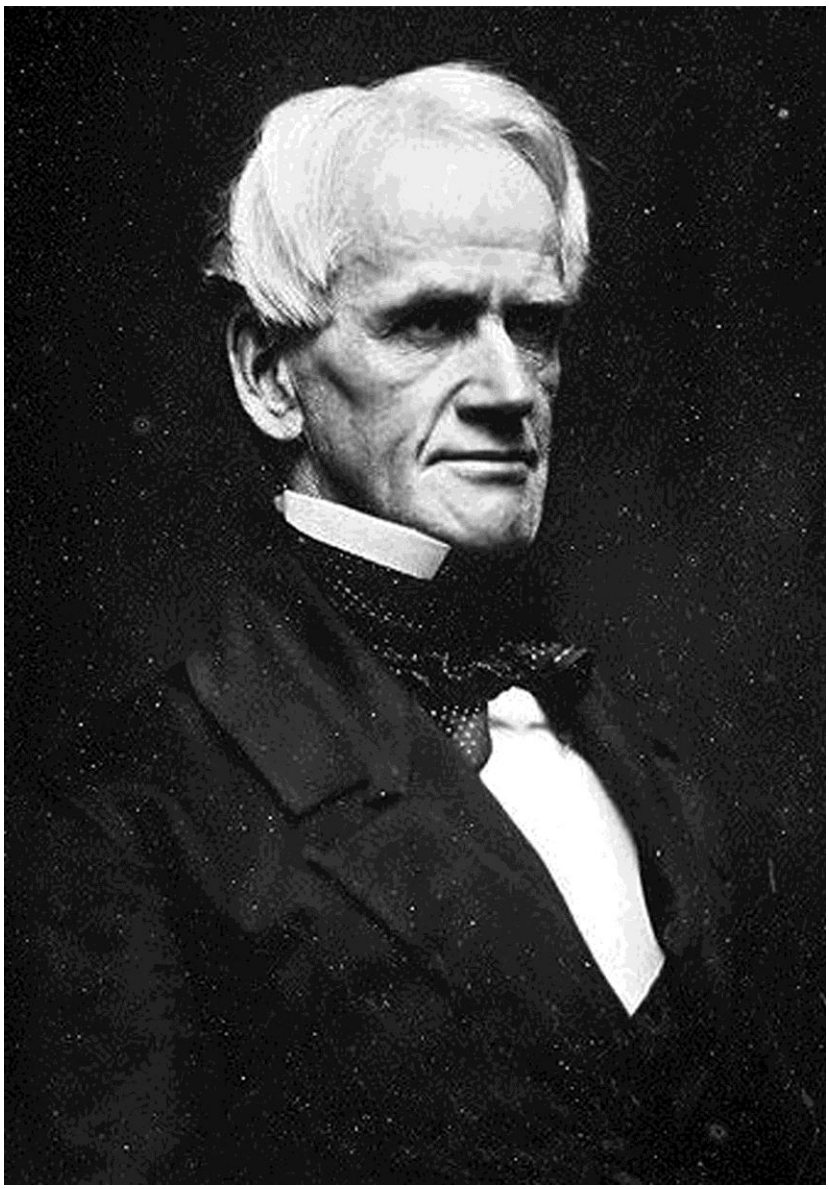

**Fig. 3: Horace Mann.**
**Source: http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Horace_Mann**

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**Fig. 4: Ellwood Cubberly.**
**Source: http://www.browsebiography.com/bio-ellwood_patterson_cubberley.html**

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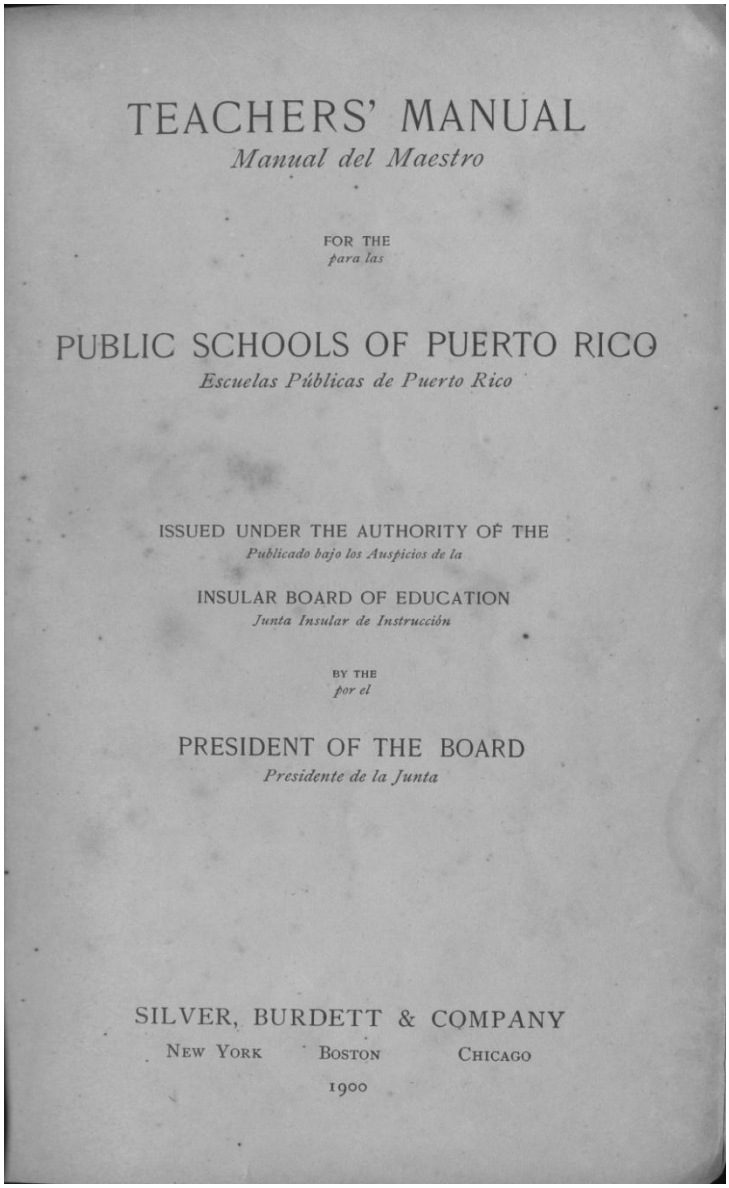


**Fig. 5: Introductory page of the Teacher's Manual, 1900. Source: Jorge Rigau private collection**.

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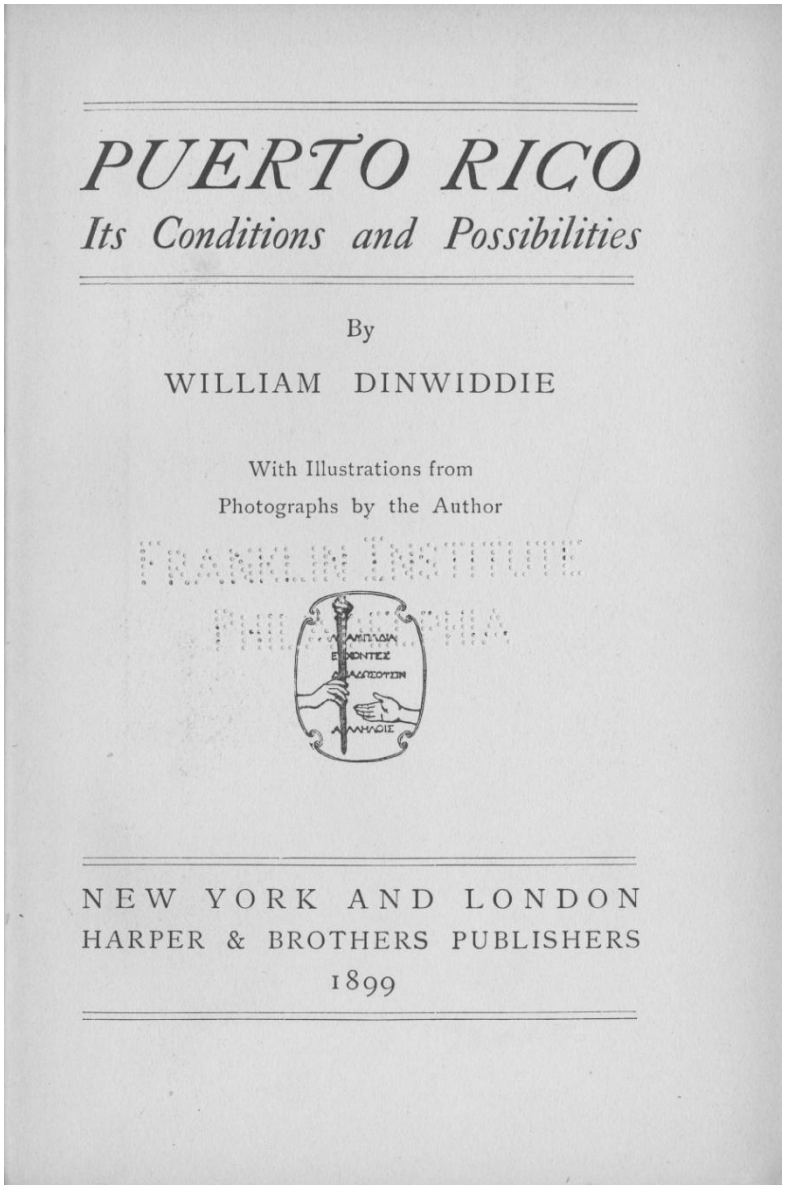


**Fig. 6: "Puerto Rico its Conditions and Possibilities" by William Dinwiddie, 1899. Source: Jorge Rigau private collection**.

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**Fig. 7: "Casilla de Peón Caminero", Guayama. These prototypes were considered initially for school buildings. Source: Casillas de Caminero, by Carlos M. Colón Torres, 1961.**

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**Fig. 8: Commissioner of Education M.G. Brumbaugh and his office assistants. (First row, fourth from left)**
**Source: AGPR, Report of the Comissioner of Education for Puerto Rico, 1901.**

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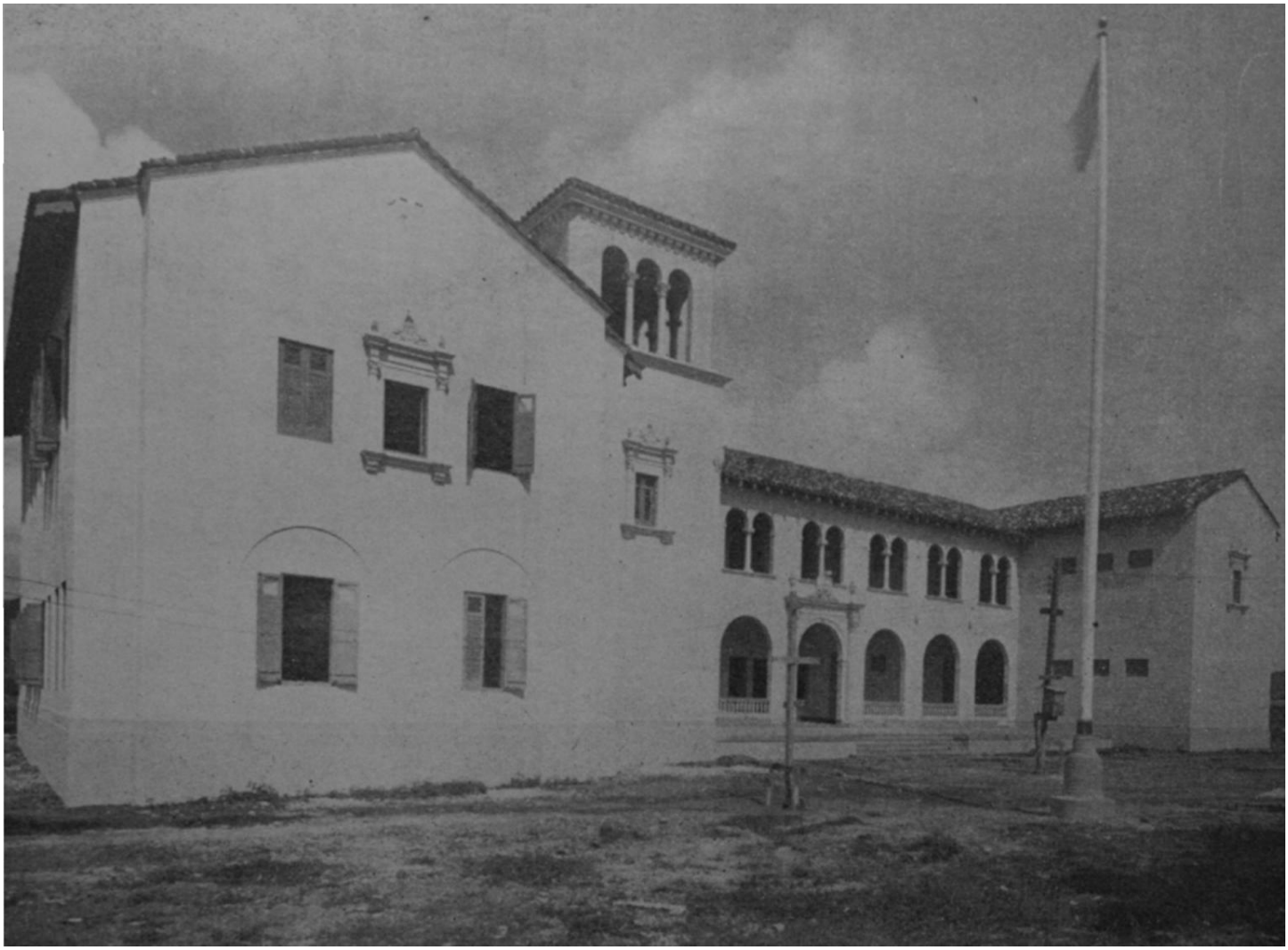

**Fig. 9: Fajardo High School, one of the many model schoolhouses built with the $200,000 fund given in 1900. Source: AGPR, Report of the Comissioner of Education for Puerto Rico, 1901, p39.**

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**Fig. 10: Agricultural (special) school in Sabana Grande.**
**Source: AGPR, Annual Report of the Governor of Puerto Rico, 1902-1903.**

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**Fig. 11: Juan B. Huyke.**
**Source: AGPR, Fulgores, Revista literaria escolar, 1901, p.17.**

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**Fig. 12: José Fontan School in Morovis, in proximity to the town's main square.**
**Source: AGPR, Album de Obras Municipales de Puerto Rico, 1919-1928.**

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**Fig. 13: José M. Gallardo School in Juncos.**
**Photo: Miguel Ortiz, February 09 2012.**

**Fig. 14: Padre Nazario School in Guayanilla, strategically placed on a main street.**
**Source: AGPR, Annual Report of the Governor of Puerto Rico, 1904-1905.**

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**Fig. 15: Josenfina Quiñones School in Río Grande.**
**Photo: Guillermo Marrero, February 08, 2012.**

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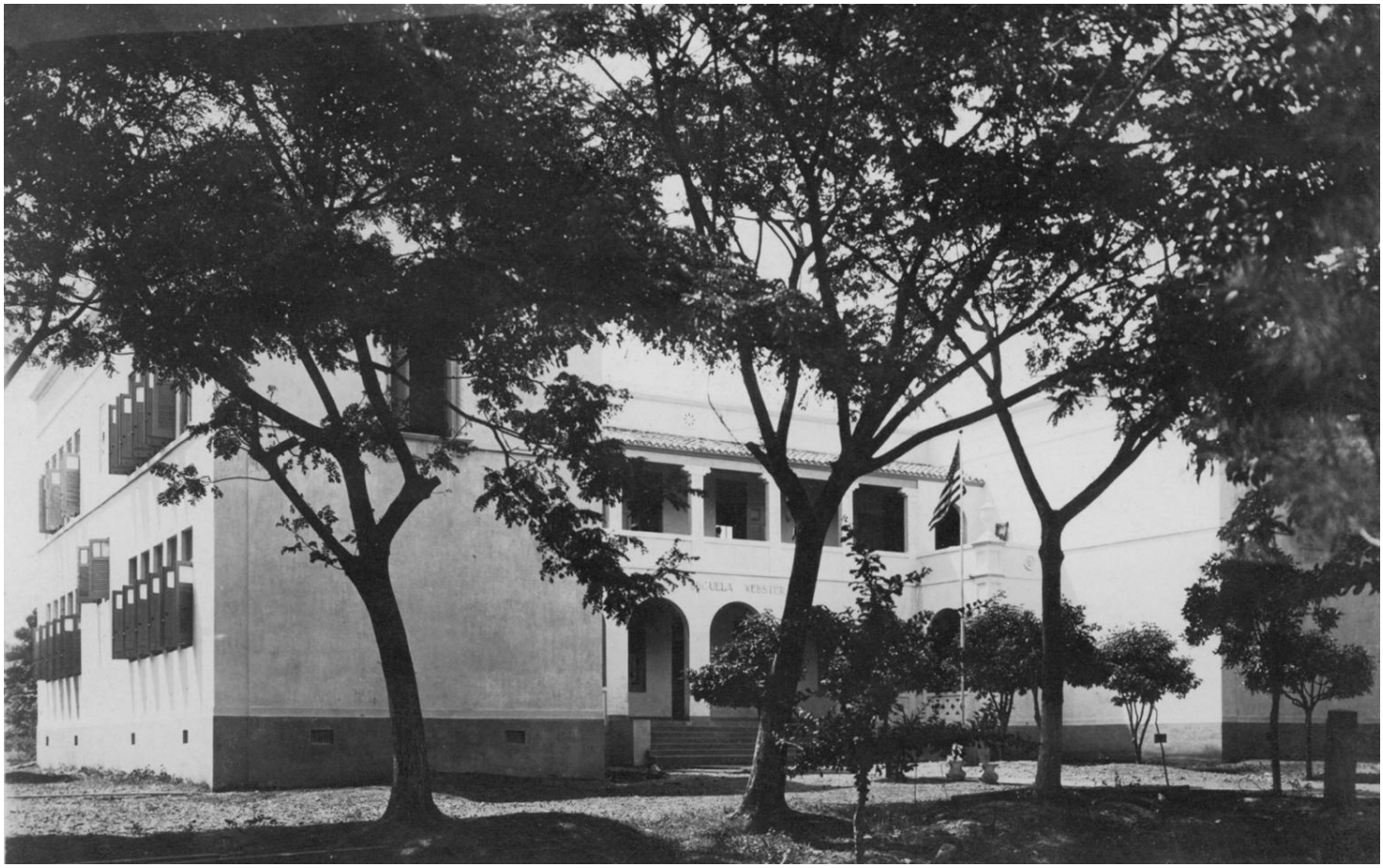

**Fig. 16: Daniel Webster School in Peñuelas, with round arches at entrance.**
**Source: AGPR, Album de Obras Municipales de Puerto Rico, 1919-1928.**

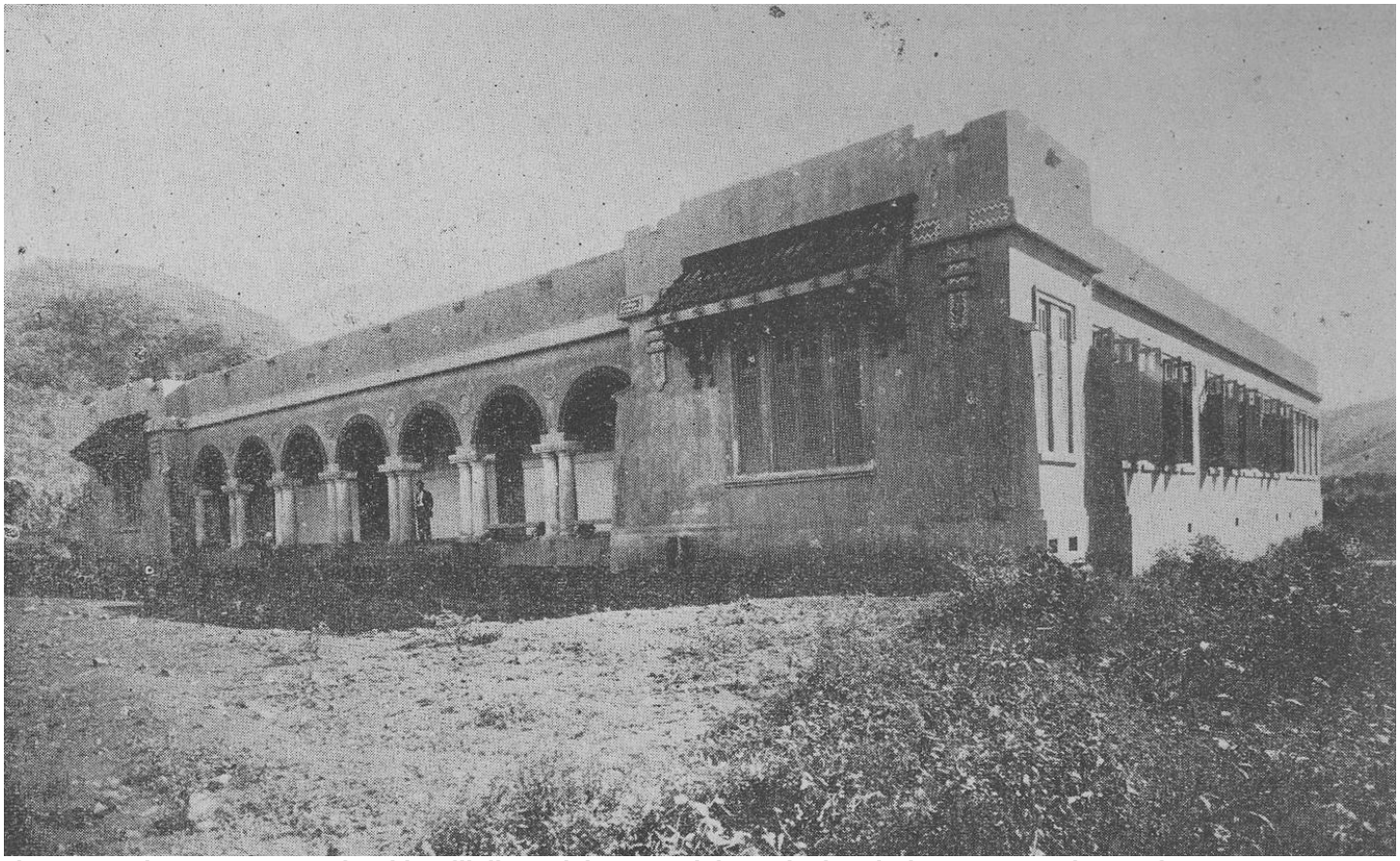

**Fig. 17: Walter McJones School in Villalba, mixing Spanish Revival and Vienna Secession Style.**
**Source: AGPR, Album de Obras Municipales de Puerto Rico, 1919-1928.**

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**Fig. 18: Rafael Balseiro School in Barceloneta.**
**Source: AGPR, Album de Obras Municipales de Puerto Rico, 1919-1928.**

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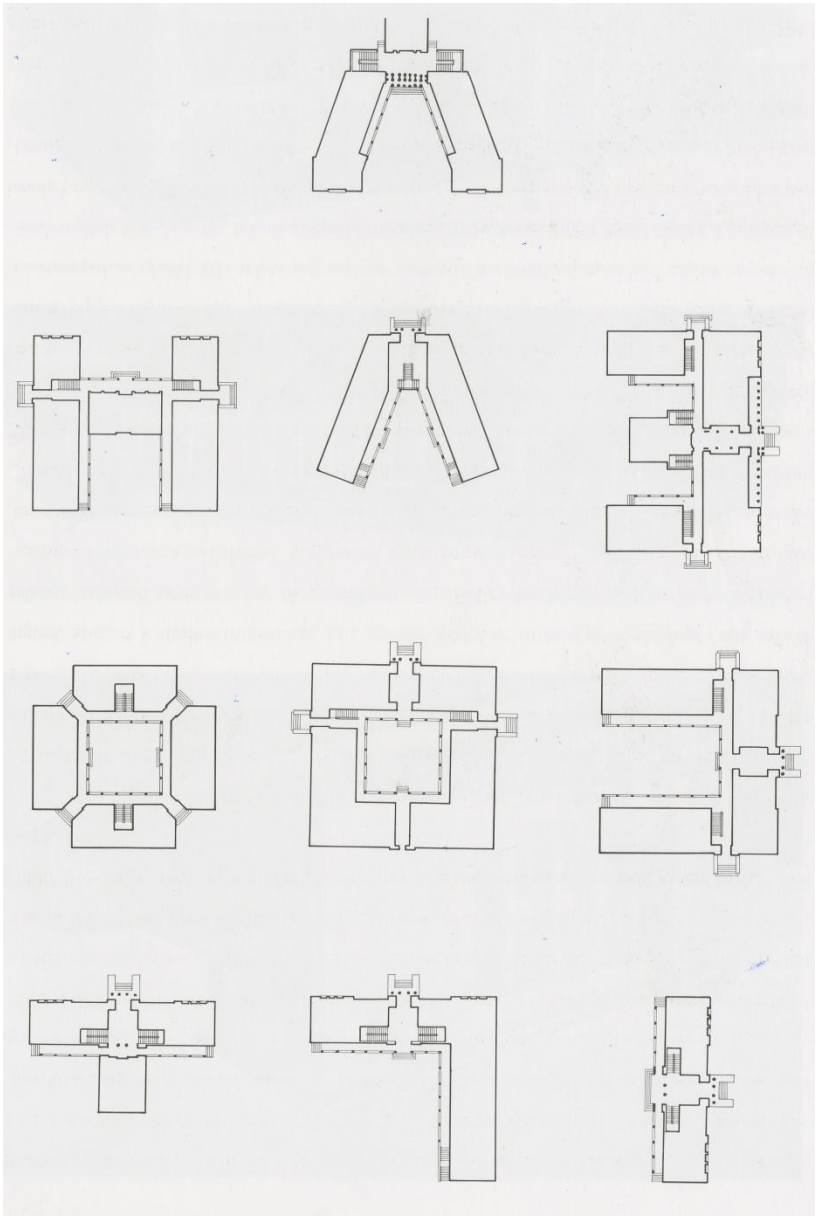

**Fig. 19: Property Types: C, E, H, I, L, O, T and V**
**Source: Puerto Rico 1900 by Jorge Rigau, 1992 p.146.**

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**Fig. 20: Luis Muñoz Rivera School in Lajas; central portico enphasizes the main entrance.**
**Source: AGPR, Annual Report of the Governor of Puerto Rico, 1904-1905.**