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Racial Discrimination in Housing in Fort Collins (1867–1982)

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STATEMENT OF CONTEXT

This document is part of the Fort Collins *Civil Rights Movement Historic Context Study*. Based on the National Park Service (NPS) thematic framework *Civil Rights in America: A Framework for Identifying Significant Sites* and associated theme studies, this historic context narrative focuses on the experiences and activism of seven marginalized groups: women, Indigenous peoples, African Americans, Hispanic people, Asian Americans/Pacific Islanders, LGBTQIA+ people, and religious minorities. It covers the period from 1866, when the early Civil Rights Act guaranteeing all citizens the right to own property was enacted, through 1983, when many homes in the Alta Vista, Andersonville, and Buckingham neighborhoods were razed under the rationale of urban renewal. This historic context narrative examines federal and state legislative and judicial activity before turning its attention to discrimination and activism related to fair housing in Fort Collins.

Earlier documents that have informed this narrative include the NPS theme study, *Civil Rights in America: Racial Discrimination in Housing*, which examines court cases and legislation related to fair housing rights for African Americans, Hispanic people, Asian Americans, and Indigenous peoples. Books on this topic include *The Color of Law: A Forgotten History of How Our Government Segregated America* by Richard Rothstein and *Segregated by Design: Local Politics and Inequality in American Cities* by Jessica Trounstine.

This historic context narrative explores the abilities of all persons to secure equitable and livable housing within the boundaries that today enclose Fort Collins. Following a summary of federal and state legislation and judicial activity and civil rights activism, nationally and at the state level, this document explores discrimination and activism related to housing in Fort Collins. This historic context narrative further identifies associated property types and significant sites associated with racial, ethnic, and religious discrimination in housing within the city limits of Fort Collins as they exist in 2023.

Note: The non-White/Anglo population in Fort Collins was relatively small during the period of time covered in this historic context. Additional research and contributions by community members are requested to supplement the information gathered to date from archives and community stories.

INTRODUCTION

Throughout the history of the United States, people who were not wealthy, male, White/Anglo, Protestant, and heterosexual have been prevented from securing the housing of their choice wherever they may have wanted to live. The fundamental human needs for shelter and security have been limited by both public institutions (including federal, state, and local governments) and private interests. Although perhaps the best-known example of this is the residential segregation imposed upon African Americans, both housing discrimination and its long-term repercussions have impacted and continue to affect Black, Hispanic, Asian American, Indigenous, and other non-White/Anglo people, as well as women, unmarried people, single parents, Jewish people, and LGBTQIA+ individuals. Americans of lower income levels also generally have been and are harmed by policies and regulations that limit their ability to secure safe housing for themselves and their families, whether by rent or purchase.

The role of the federal government, in creating the laws and institutional structures that both created and maintained these inequalities, has been thoroughly documented. In short, following a brief period after the Civil War, during Reconstruction, when the U.S. Congress passed Constitutional amendments and laws attempting to secure and protect the property rights of formerly enslaved people, most federal policies intentionally destroyed integrated neighborhoods and created segregated ones; developed a system of mortgage lending and residential property insurance that was effectively closed to minority Americans; and encouraged the rise of municipal zoning, which has perpetuated racial and class divides. During the 1950s and 1960s, after the U.S. Supreme Court struck down the ability of property owners and developers to create White-only neighborhoods through deed restrictions, the U.S. government's interstate highway construction and urban renewal projects devastated African American and Hispanic communities across the country. Property owners were forced from their homes through the exercise of eminent domain and compensated little, if at all, for the loss of their property. Numerous other approaches to dismantling wealth accumulated by non-White/Anglo people through property ownership were also employed, and violence by White/Anglos against anyone who dared to challenge these norms was commonplace. This was not limited to the American South and has been documented throughout the United States, including in the North and West.

The NPS Theme Study *Racial Discrimination in Housing* notes that "access to decent housing" has been linked to "a range of crucial quality-of-life measures and indeed basic citizenship rights in the United States, including adequate health care, living-wage job markets, and most directly to equal educational opportunity and fair law enforcement. … Residential segregation has anchored the forces of school segregation in American cities and suburbs, especially but not only during the period following the *Brown v. Board of Education* decision, when school districts across the nation adopted allegedly race-neutral 'neighborhood school' assignment plans that reproduced housing patterns. … (And) housing segregation is directly linked to historical patterns of discriminatory law enforcement and to the well-documented racial and economic inequalities in the U.S. criminal justice system. In particular, recent scholarship has emphasized the selective policing and over-criminalization of poor communities of color as a major cause of mass incarceration and of the disproportionate arrest, prosecution, conviction, and imprisonment of African Americans and Latinos." [1]

Both private residents and developers and city and state governments took steps to exclude people of color, Jewish people, and LGBTQ people from the housing market. This primarily took the forms of:

- **Forcible removal from specified areas.** Native Americans were forced to leave their homelands and relocate to reservations, in contravention of treaties signed by the U.S. and state governments. During the Great Depression, the federal government forcibly deported Mexican immigrants and U.S. citizens who could not prove their legal status, in an effort to improve the job prospects for White/Anglo Americans. And, during World War II, Japanese immigrants lost or were forced to sell their homes and businesses well below market value after being removed to desolate conditions in faraway internment camps. When these groups relocated or returned to urban areas, they were met with restrictive covenants, zoning, and other private and municipal tools that effectively segregated them into ethnic ghettos or barrios.
- **Racially restrictive covenants** were employed in many cities nationwide to prevent non-White/Anglo people from purchasing homes in certain neighborhoods. These deed restrictions and other methods of segregation were encouraged by the Federal Housing Administration and federal Home Owners Loan Corporation (HOLC), as well as Catholic and Protestant churches, and enforced by mortgage lenders and insurance carriers who refused to make loans or write insurance policies for any home in a neighborhood where one or more non-White/Anglo people lived.
- **Urban renewal projects,** such as highway construction or "blight" programs, destroyed existing non-White/Anglo neighborhoods, often with little compensation for property owners who lost their homes. This prevented non-White/Anglo people from building wealth and passing it down to subsequent generations.

STATE AND FEDERAL LEGISLATION AND JUDICIAL ACTIVITY

The United States Congress and judiciary has addressed property ownership through legislation, executive action, and court decisions since the nation was founded. The U.S. Constitution is based on the English *Magna Carta* of 1215, which established that the king could not seize property unlawfully or without compensation of the property owner, or levy taxes without the consent of the governed. Property rights and the links between land ownership, economic freedom, and democracy were repeatedly reinforced through U.S. laws and court decisions during the first 90 years of this nation.[2] This historic context narrative picks up with the first civil rights legislation related to real property ownership, in 1866.

FEDERAL LEGISLATION AND U. S. SUPREME COURT CASES

After the United States Civil War (1861–1865) ended, the Thirteenth Amendment (ratified in 1865),and subsequent Amendments and legislation extended American citizenship and the accompanying personal liberties to formerly enslaved people. Southern states responded by creating their own laws, known as "Black Codes," which restricted the ability of African Americans to leave or find work away from the plantations where they had previously been enslaved. In response, the U.S. Congress passed (over President Andrew Johnson's veto) the Civil Rights Act of 1866, which declared, "All citizens of the United States shall have the same right, in every State and Territory, as is enjoyed by White citizens thereof to inherit, purchase, lease, sell, hold, and convey real and personal property." The Act also specified that all persons born in the United States, excluding "Indians not taxed" were citizens.[3]

This cycle of federal action to secure rights, followed by state or local governments ignoring or circumventing both federal laws and rulings of the U.S. Supreme Court, would continue unabated throughout the twentieth century. After the Civil Rights Act of 1866, challenges to the law sought to prove that it only applied to state action, not to private individuals. In response, the U.S. Congress passed the Fourteenth Amendment to the U.S. Constitution, also in 1866 and ratified in 1868, which prevented states from depriving "any person of life, liberty, or property, without due process of law." It followed this in 1875 with another Civil Rights Act, which prevented private parties from discriminating on the basis of race in terms of equal access to public spaces, but the U.S. Supreme Court struck down that law in 1883. Following the Supreme Court decision in *Plessy v. Ferguson* (1896), state governments throughout the nation developed laws and other strategies to enforce residential segregation.

> "All citizens of the United States shall have the same right, in every State and Territory, as is enjoyed by White citizens thereof to inherit, purchase, lease, sell, hold, and convey real and personal property."
> *The Civil Rights Act of 1866*

The U.S. Supreme Court's 1917 decision in *Buchanan v. Warley* overturned a City of Louisville, Kentucky, racial zoning ordinance; the Court found that a person of color had the right "to acquire property without state legislation discriminating against him solely because of color." That ruling effectively excluded property rights from the "separate but equal" doctrine enshrined in *Plessy*, and was largely ignored by Southern cities. Urban planning, a concept that gained great traction with municipal governments in the early twentieth century, relied heavily on exclusionary zoning that restricted land use within discrete areas in a city. Zoning laws separated many residential areas from commercial or industrial property, and within residential areas separated single-family homes from multi-family housing. The ultimate effect was

to separate affluent neighborhoods from working-class and low-income areas, and, since employment discrimination disproportionately limited Black American's income, effectively segregated cities without having to address race. The U.S. Supreme Court upheld such zoning laws in a 1926 case, *Village of Euclid v. Ambler Realty Co*.[4]

Those Supreme Court decisions also paved the way for racially restrictive covenants and deed restrictions, which barred non-White/Anglo people from purchasing or renting property in "restricted" neighborhoods; Jewish people were frequently excluded as well. Another Supreme Court decision, *Corrigan v. Buckley* (1926), held that the Thirteenth and Fourteenth Amendments did not prevent "private individuals from entering into contracts respecting the control and disposition of their own property."[5]

In 1933 and 1934, the U.S. Congress created the Home Owners' Loan Corporation (HOLC) and passed the National Housing Act, intended to make mortgage loans affordable, secure homes from foreclosure, and to encourage single-family homeownership. The Act also established the Federal Housing Administration and the Federal Savings and Loan Insurance Corporation.[6] HOLC developed maps that indicated the locations of mostly White vs. mostly non-White neighborhoods, assigning grades (and colored shading) to the "undesirable" neighborhoods. HOLC, a lender itself, and other banks and insurance companies used these maps to decide where to make loans and issue insurance policies. As a result, mortgages and home insurance were predominantly available only to White/Anglo customers, making homeownership a difficult goal to achieve for everyone else.

The Home Owners' Loan Corporation (HOLC) maps digitized and made available by the University of Richmond (Virginia) at *Mapping Inequality* (https://dsl.richmond.edu/panorama/redlining/), include Denver and Pueblo. Further research indicates that Colorado Springs also was mapped by HOLC, but it does not appear that Fort Collins was included in that program. Perhaps Fort Collins did not have enough predominantly non-White/Anglo neighborhoods within the city limits at that time to warrant the HOLC's attention; the Alta Vista and Andersonville neighborhoods were outside the city boundaries until 1978.

Three years later, Congress passed the United States Housing Act of 1937, which funded the construction of public housing by local government entities but required the demolition of the same number of housing units as were being built.[7] The Housing Act of 1949 also incentivized and paid for the clearance of "slums" for private or public redevelopment.[8] The result was called "urban renewal," in which local governments seized and demolished privately owned property, displacing whole neighborhoods, in order to create new commercial and industrial areas. This practice affected lower-income people of all races, but disproportionately impacted non-White/Anglo people. Many of the areas targeted for urban renewal had been "redlined" during the 1930s.

Left unchecked, state and local governments and other institutions enacted discriminatory laws and regulations that prohibited neighborhood integration. Only in 1948, in *Shelley v. Kraemer*, did the U.S. Supreme Court finally strike down racially motivated deed restrictions and covenants in real estate, finding that they were a violation of the equal protection clause of the Fourteenth Amendment.[9]

The Civil Rights Act of 1964 included a section (Title VIII) now known as the Fair Housing Act of 1968, which banned discrimination based on race, color, religion, sex, and national origin in the sale or rental of housing.[10] This was intended to address the inequities that the federal government had created in the 1930s. The Act was amended in 1988 to extend these protections against discrimination based on disability or family status (meaning, the presence of children in a home or a woman's pregnancy).

COLORADO STATE STATUTES AND LAWS

In 1948, the Colorado Legislature banned racially restrictive covenants.[11]

The Colorado Fair Housing Act (1959) was among the first state legislation in the U.S. to address discrimination in private housing. The law prohibits discrimination based on race, color, religion, or ancestry when selling, renting, or leasing a home. The concept of the state regulating private property proved controversial in 1959; the statute did not apply to owner-occupied housing with four or fewer boarders or lodgers.[12]

COLORADO SUPREME COURT CASES

Colorado cities began to adopt racially restrictive housing covenants in the 1920s; these covenants were initially upheld by the Colorado Supreme Court.[13]

> A person who owns a tract of land and divides it into smaller tracts for the purpose of selling one or more may prefer to have as neighbors persons of the white, or Caucasian, race, and may believe that prospective purchasers of the several tracts would entertain a similar preference, and would pay a higher price if the ownership were restricted to persons of that race.
> *Colorado Supreme Court, 1930*

DISCRIMINATION AND FAIR HOUSING ACTIVISM IN FORT COLLINS

Although the legal tools used to create and maintain segregated neighborhoods did not become formalized until after 1900, archival evidence indicates that Fort Collins' middle-class White/Anglo population supported separation between their homes and those of immigrants and people of color. For example, in 1903, Fort Collins contained an area known as the "Negro quarter," located west of the then-new sugar factory.[14] This was common across the United States, and as the twentieth century progressed, city governments looked to urban planning as a means to systematically segregate their communities, usually through zoning: a method of dividing land by use. Prior to the 1920s, neighborhoods often contained both residential and commercial properties, and perhaps even some used for light industrial purposes; zoning separated single-family residential housing from multi-family housing, which was often designated for areas near commercial or industrial properties.

SEGREGATION, ZONING, AND OCCUPANCY LAWS

In 1929, Fort Collins passed its first zoning ordinance to restrict land use; it divided the city into three residential zones, two commercial zones, and one industrial zone. The goal was "establishing and maintaining property values by preventing undesirable developments in an area of established developments and … establishing confidence in the permanence of (property) values." A map showing those zoning areas was published in 1938 (see next page). [15]

- Zone A was restricted to single-family homes, churches, schools, fraternity or sorority houses, farming or gardening districts, and "municipal recreation uses" (aka parks, playgrounds, swimming pools, etc.) In other words, the types of properties and amenities that middle-class White/Anglo people desired.
- Zone B could include any of the Zone A uses, as well as two-family dwellings, boarding or rooming houses, and private clubs.
- Zone C was also residential and could include all of the Zone A or Zone B uses, as well as multiple dwellings, "hotels and apartment hotels," educational, philanthropic, and eleemosynary (charitable) institutions. Each family in a multiple-family dwelling was required to have at least 600 square feet of space.
- Zone D included commercial areas outside downtown, and was intended for smaller retail businesses, such as groceries or filling stations.
- Zone E was the downtown commercial district and could include larger retail businesses, as long as they did not involve "manufacturing or occupations in which dust, odors, noise, or smoke result."
- Zone F was the industrial district and restricted to manufacturing uses. Those businesses that created dust, odors, noise, or smoke that would be hazardous to the surrounding neighborhoods were to be "located by permits approved by the board of adjustment."[16]

An examination of the 1929 zoning map shows that neighborhoods in northwest Fort Collins, which were more likely to contain Black and Hispanic residents, were zoned for more intensive uses.

Map Shows How City is Zoned

KEY TO DISTRICTS
"A" RESIDENCE
"B" RESIDENCE
"C" RESIDENCE
"D" COMMERCIAL
"E" COMMERCIAL
"F" INDUSTRIAL

Shown above is the zone map of Fort Collins, showing the different districts, the key to which will be found in the upper left corner. (Staff engraving.)

City Zoning Protects Property Owner

By EDITH BJORNSTAD

Property owners should accept the zoning regulations of the city of Fort Collins in the same way as they do other protection such as police, fire and health regulations, says Byron Albert, chairman of the Fort Collins zoning board, who has made the study of zoning problems his avocation in recent years.

In an attempt to clear up many of the misunderstandings as to what zoning attempts to do, he explained that the regulations have nothing to do with the type and price of structure, but regulate chiefly the use to which the building is put. Regulation of the density of population, as well as area of yards and open spaces between buildings, and protection of property values are aims of zoning.

Fort Collins' zoning ordinance was adopted May 31, 1929, after much study had been made to determine the best regulations for the local situation. Engineers were consulted, regulations of many other cities and towns were studied, and the ordinance was drawn up to conform to the

Figure 1. Zoning map of Fort Collins (Fort Collins Coloradoan, july 21, 1938, page 6)

In 1938, the City began to enforce the one-family-per-property limit in Zone A; anyone with more than one family living in a house had 10 days to remove the second family. Building inspectors looked for extra stoves and kitchen sinks in Zone A homes, which indicated the presence of a second family, and any found had to be removed. While officials acknowledged that the action would likely create a housing shortage, the chair of the Fort Collins Zoning Board stated that enforcing the ordinance in "well-established areas of the city" would encourage new construction in previously undeveloped areas of the city.[17]

Indeed, Fort Collins did expand beyond its previous boundaries, and in 1951, the City began a period of increased annexation.[18] However, the enforcement of single-family zoning appears to have been rather haphazard, and homeowners in Zone A were able to take in boarders with no penalty for many years. In 1954, the City — again bowing to pressure from community members who considered multiple housing detrimental to property values — limited boarders to four per rooming home. Specifically, a Mrs. Velma Williams had complained that her neighbors, Mr. and Mrs. Cedrich Walradt, had six basement apartments in their Zone A house; the new rule required them to reduce those tenants to four. The City was concerned about how that might affect people who rented rooms to college students but stopped short of prohibiting boarders in Zone A altogether.[19]

In the 1960s, the City adopted the "U+2" ordinance limiting occupancy in any residential dwelling (single family, multi-family, or duplex) to one family plus one additional adult OR one adult and their dependents, a second adult and their dependents, and not more than one additional person. A "family" can include any number of people as long as they are related by blood, marriage, adoption, guardianship, or a "duly authorized custodial relationship;" the number of people living in the residential dwelling is not limited in any way. It is not clear whether or how this might affect the civil rights of people of different cultures, races, or socioeconomic classes, but the topic may merit additional exploration.

DISCRIMINATION IN OFF-CAMPUS STUDENT HOUSING

John Mosley, a star football player who attended CSU from 1939–1943, lived at 421 Smith Street in 1940;[20] like other African American students, he was not permitted to live on campus. By at least 1942, Mosley and five other Black students lived together at 238 N Meldrum Street.[21] Mosley called his group of Black roommates and friends the "lonesome boys." He was familiar with housing discrimination, hailing from Denver where segregation and racial covenants limited Black people to living in the northeast section of the city. Mosley spoke, later in life, about his time at CSU and being angry — not at his White friends, but at the system.[22]

Hispanic students may have also experienced this type of discrimination, but no information has been located at this time.

Stakeholders who attended CSU during the 1960s reported that off-campus rental rates quoted to minority students were frequently unaffordable.[23] At a public meeting in 1966, citizens reported incidents of Fort Collins realtors discriminating against minorities, and the CSU Committee on Human Relations reported the results of a four-year survey, which showed that 20% "of all foreign students ran into racial problems and housing, and CSU students were forced to live four to an apartment in order to pay high rental fees."[24]

In 1968, the CSU Human Relations Committee (CSUHRC), in cooperation with the Fort Collins Human Relations Committee (FCHRC), released a seven-point plan to combat discrimination toward students related to off-campus housing. CSU already required landlords to sign an anti-discrimination pledge if they used the university housing office to find tenants. Beginning in 1968, students looking for roommates were also required to sign the pledge. The plan established a system to inform students and faculty of the new policy and to ensure that all landlords renting housing to students signed the pledge.

CSU's student body president stated that the Associated Students of CSU (ASCSU) would support the program. It was estimated that 37% of unmarried CSU students lived off-campus at that time.[25]

Figure 2. John Mosley and friends ca. 1940s. (Source)

RESTRICTIVE COVENANTS

At least two neighborhoods in Fort Collins — the Circle Drive and Slade Acres subdivisions — were developed with racial covenants designed to limit home purchases and rentals to White/Anglo people. Both of these housing developments advertised their "restricted" status in the Coloradoan.[26] These covenants were typically applied to African American, Hispanic, Native American, Asian, and (often but not always) Jewish people.[27]

The protective covenant filed by the Northern Colorado Loan Association as owner of the land containing L. C. Moore's third addition to the City of Fort Collins, the Circle Drive Subdivision, was recorded in December 1945. It stipulated that "No person of any race other than the Caucasian race shall use or occupy any building or any lot, except that this covenant shall not prevent occupancy by domestic servants of a different race domiciled with an owner or tenant." The rules of the covenant were applied to the land through 1965, at which time they would automatically renew in successive periods of ten years unless voted down by a majority of property owners in the subdivision.[28]

In 1948, just two days before the U.S. Supreme Court ruled that racial covenants were unlawful (in *Shelby v. Kraemer*), A. A. Slade filed a plat map for the Slade Acres subdivision that included a schedule of restrictions, including one stating that "none of the lots in this subdivision shall ever be owned or occupied by any persons other than members of the Caucasian or White race; except the servants or guests of persons properly in ownership or occupancy hereunder."[29] This area of land was annexed by the City in mid-1952.[30]

Although people of Mexican descent had been legally considered "White" since the 1848 Treaty of Guadalupe Hildalgo, in 1954 the U.S. Supreme Court decision in *Hernandez v. Texas* established that Hispanic people were indeed a minority group that could be discriminated against.[31]

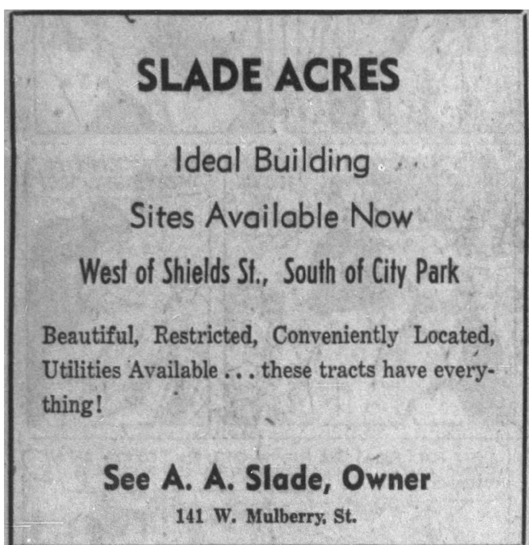


Figure 3. Advertisement for Slade Acres, marketed as being "Restricted" (Fort Collins Coloradoan, May 11, 1948, page 10)

ANNEXATION OF ALTA VISTA, BUCKINGHAM, AND ANDERSONVILLE

In 1966, the Fort Collins Human Relations Commission (FCHRC) and CSU Committee on Human Relations sponsored a meeting at City Hall to discuss minority group housing; it was attended by 70 people. Warren Alexander, a housing specialist for the Colorado Civil Rights Commission, spoke at the meeting on the subject of affordable housing as a problem that most affects minority groups. Pat Bing, a representative of the CSU committee, asserted that Fort Collins had a problem establishing housing for low-income groups, citing the Buckingham neighborhood as having unpaved streets, no streetlights, and no indoor plumbing.[32]

In May 1975, a three-article series on Mexican Americans in the community discussed the history of

Hispanic settlement and the state of housing in the Alta Vista, Andersonville, and Buckingham neighborhoods. By the 1960s, the three neighborhoods were almost exclusively Hispanic (mostly Mexican American). The story also discussed the movement of upwardly mobile Hispanic people from those eastside neighborhoods to the northside west of College Avenue, between Mountain Avenue and the river; today, this neighborhood is informally known as Holy Family.

A related article noted "recent cases of discrimination in housing, for which no legal redress was sought, and … a racial undertone in some of the controversy that surrounded the location of the city's new library."[33]

The annexation of Andersonville and Alta Vista was approved by the City Council in June 1974.[34] In October 1975, the city broke ground on a sewer system for the Andersonville and Alta Vista neighborhoods.[35] Also in 1975, the Northeast Area Neighborhood Improvement Association (NIA) was formed with a nine-member commission made up of six residents (two residents representing each of the three neighborhoods) and representatives from the Fort Collins Housing Authority, the Human Relations Commission, and a Housing Committee Taskforce called "Designing Tomorrow Today."[36] The NIA advised City Council and the City administration on the implementation of a housing rehabilitation program in the three neighborhoods utilizing a $200,000 Community Development grant. At that time, an estimated 90 homes in Andersonville and Alta Vista lacked sewer hookups; grant funds were also expected to be used for indoor plumbing, and NIA members were tasked with approving homeowners' application for grant funds. The NIA and housing program staff used 120 First Street, the Larimer County Human Development Office, as an office and meeting place.[37]

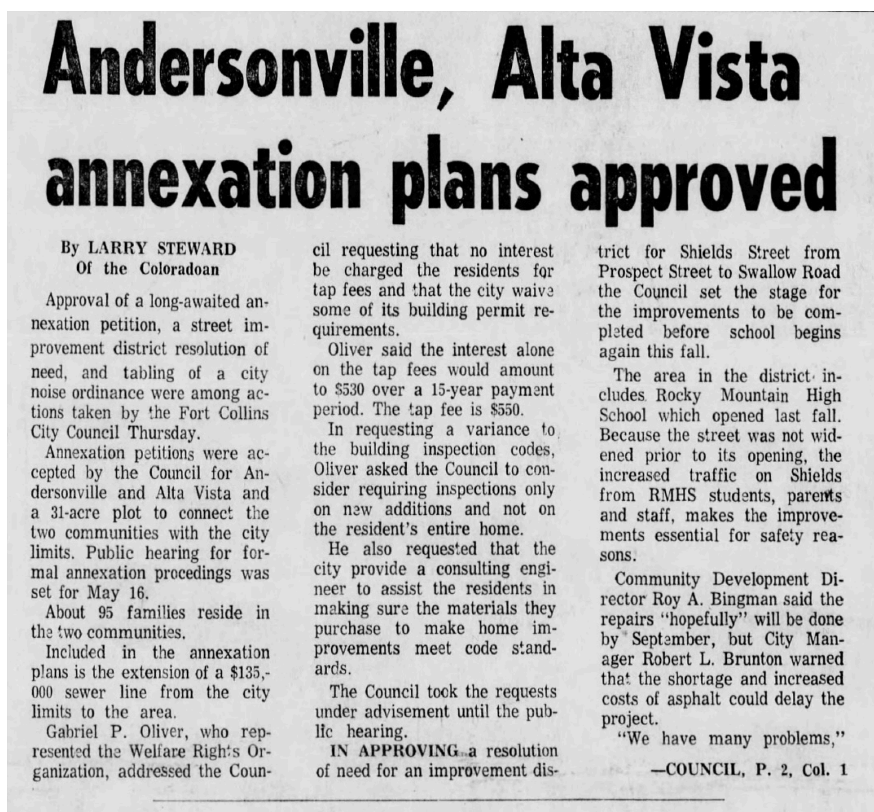
Streets remained unpaved in Alta Vista until 1980.[38]

URBAN RENEWAL

In 1981, a HUD-financed survey of the Holy Family neighborhood showed that properties were becoming increasingly occupied by Anglo residents and lower-income residents.

A 2004 Sugar Factory Neighborhoods survey report describes the impacts of urban renewal and references a 1983 survey report, *Architecture and History of Buckingham, Alta Vista, and Andersonville* by the Community Services Collaborative, on behalf of the Fort Collins Planning and Development Department, which conducted as inventory of every property in the three neighborhoods.[39] Two important phases of urban renewal in these neighborhoods included one in the early 1960s, when Neighbor to Neighbor, the Community Development Block Program, and the Fort Collins Housing Authority all contributed to what that report called a radical altering of the built environment. The 1983 survey "came at a time when urban renewal projects were profoundly altering the face of Buckingham, Andersonville, and Alta Vista. In some cases, the photographs and inventory forms from the 1983 survey are the only evidence remaining of the many structures razed during this period."[40]

Residents of the Alta Vista and Andersonville neighborhoods successfully protested against a widening project that would have divided the neighborhoods in the early 1980s.[41] Community activism in 1999, outside the scope of this project, led to a referendum passing that kept truck routes out of sections of the city, including Vine Drive, which bisects Alta Vista and Andersonville. This referendum was repealed in 2006.[42] The eventual overpass project was routed around those neighborhoods.



Andersonville, Alta Vista annexation plans approved

By LARRY STEWARD
Of the Coloradoan

Approval of a long-awaited annexation petition, a street improvement district resolution of need, and tabling of a city noise ordinance were among actions taken by the Fort Collins City Council Thursday.

Annexation petitions were accepted by the Council for Andersonville and Alta Vista and a 31-acre plot to connect the two communities with the city limits. Public hearing for formal annexation procedings was set for May 16.

About 95 families reside in the two communities.

Included in the annexation plans is the extension of a $135,000 sewer line from the city limits to the area.

Gabriel P. Oliver, who represented the Welfare Rights Organization, addressed the Council requesting that no interest be charged the residents for tap fees and that the city waive some of its building permit requirements.

Oliver said the interest alone on the tap fees would amount to $530 over a 15-year payment period. The tap fee is $550.

In requesting a variance to the building inspection codes, Oliver asked the Council to consider requiring inspections only on new additions and not on the resident's entire home.

He also requested that the city provide a consulting engineer to assist the residents in making sure the materials they purchase to make home improvements meet code standards.

The Council took the requests under advisement until the public hearing.

IN APPROVING a resolution of need for an improvement district for Shields Street from Prospect Street to Swallow Road the Council set the stage for the improvements to be completed before school begins again this fall.

The area in the district includes Rocky Mountain High School which opened last fall. Because the street was not widened prior to its opening, the increased traffic on Shields from RMHS students, parents and staff, makes the improvements essential for safety reasons.

Community Development Director Roy A. Bingman said the repairs "hopefully" will be done by September, but City Manager Robert L. Brunton warned that the shortage and increased costs of asphalt could delay the project.

"We have many problems,"

—COUNCIL, P. 2, Col. 1

Figure 4. Coverage of the Andersonville and Alta Vista annexation (Fort Collins Coloradoan, April 5, 1974, page 1)

ASSOCIATED PROPERTY TYPES

"Associated property type" is a technical term used by NPS to describe historic resources that are related to the theme, geographic location, and time period for a particular theme study or historic context. The NPS theme study *Civil Rights in America: Racial Discrimination in Housing* identifies resources that could be nominated to the National Historic Landmarks Program, while this historic context identifies resources that could be nominated to the NRHP at the state or local level. Please refer to *National Register Bulletin 15: How to Apply the National Register Criteria for Evaluation* for more information.

Property types identified in the theme study include those that:

- Interpret the constitutionality of racial zoning or restrictive covenants that profoundly affected the development of residential segregation in the nation. In other words, if the property was associated with one of the court cases that helped to strike down racial zoning or restrictive covenants, it could be eligible for listing.
- Interpret the constitutionality of racial zoning that profoundly affected the right of Asian Americans to own real property. If the property was associated with one of the court cases that helped to strike down laws that specifically targeted Asian people, it could be eligible for listing.
- Outstandingly illustrate the major role the federal government played in developing segregated metropolitan regions across the nation. This includes the destruction of integrated neighborhoods or the physical separation of White/Anglo areas from neighborhoods occupied by non-White/Anglo people, as part of New Deal programs, urban renewal projects, or interstate highway construction.
- Interpret the constitutionality of restrictive covenants that dealt a major blow to de jure segregation in housing.
- Initiating a fair housing movement that directly stimulated legislation pivotal to national reform efforts. Sites of protests, meetings, marches, and other advocacy activities in Fort Collins related to fair housing in the 1960s would qualify.

All historic sites associated with this context, if nominated to the NRHP, would be proposed under Criterion A: "Association with events that have made a significant contribution to the broad patterns of our history" at the local level of significance.

A building must also retain its historical and architectural integrity; in other words, it "must physically represent the time period for which it is significant." Integrity is evaluated on the basis of seven aspects: location, design, setting, materials, workmanship, feeling, and association.

Although eligibility for listing in the NRHP is generally limited to those resources whose period of significance ends more than 50 years ago, as all resources associated with the ongoing struggle for fair housing are identified, their data should be collected so that they can be nominated as they become eligible.

The resource types listed here and individually significant sites identified elsewhere were located through archival and historical research and/or information provided by individuals in the community.

Note: This project did not include a historic resources survey. Prior to further considering any of these resources for inclusion in a potential NRHP nomination, these properties should be appropriately surveyed and documented.

PROPERTY TYPE: HISTORIC DISTRICT

The fact that Slade Acres was platted with racial covenants just a few days before the practice was declared unconstitutional in *Shelby v. Kraemer* could be considered historically significant at the local level, since it illustrates an attempt at segregating that subdivision that was never implemented due to the U. S. Supreme Court's decision. The timing of the neighborhood plat relative to the Court's ruling sets Slade Acres apart from the Circle Drive subdivision, which was also deed restricted for White/Anglo people.

The Alta Vista, Andersonville, and Buckingham neighborhoods might qualify as historic districts under Criterion A: Community Development at the local level because they help to interpret the role that the federal and local governments (both Larimer County and the City of Fort Collins) played in creating and maintaining segregated areas within the city.

PROPERTY TYPE: SINGLE DWELLING

The house at 238 N Meldrum Street, where many Black boarders including John Mosley and other university students lived in the late 1940s and early 1950s, is no longer extant. However, the house at 421 Smith Street still stands, and other homes where community members rented rooms to non-White/Anglo students, during the period when those students could not live on campus, might be potentially eligible for the NRHP.

PROPERTY TYPE: OFFICE

The Northeast Area Neighborhood Improvement Association (NIA) used a house occupied by the Larimer County Human Development Office (120 First Street) as an office and meeting place. That building is extant and could be eligible for the NRHP under Criterion A for its association with the fair housing movement in Fort Collins.

SITES TO BE PRIORITIZED FOR SURVEY

All historic resources identified during this project have been compiled in a single inventory spreadsheet, whether extant or not. The following historic properties have been confirmed to be extant and potentially significant at the local level under Criterion A.

421 Smith Street – college residence of John Mosley

120 First Street - Larimer County Human Development Office

Alta Vista, Andersonville, and Buckingham neighborhoods (re-survey)

Holy Family neighborhood

Slade Acres neighborhood

Circle Drive neighborhood

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