

Greenbelt Knoll Historic District
Name of Property

Philadelphia County, PA
County and State

5. Classification

Ownership of Property
(Check as many boxes as apply.)

- private
- public - Local
- public - State
- public - Federal

Category of Property
(Check only **one** box.)

- building(s)
- district
- site
- structure
- object

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

Contributing	Noncontributing	
22	2	buildings
1	1	sites
		structures
		objects
23	3	Total

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

The Legacy of African Americans in Pennsylvania, 1644-1965

Number of contributing resources previously listed in the National Register

0

6. Function or Use

Historic Functions
(Enter categories from instructions.)

- Domestic/single dwelling
- Domestic/secondary structure
- Recreation & Culture/outdoor recreation

Current Functions
(Enter categories from instructions.)

- Domestic/single dwelling
- Domestic/secondary structure

7. Description

Architectural Classification
(Enter categories from instructions.)

Modern

Materials
(Enter categories from instructions.)

foundation: concrete block
walls: wood
roof: _____
other: _____

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Narrative Description

(Describe the historic and current physical appearance of the property. Explain contributing and noncontributing resources if necessary. Begin with a **summary paragraph** that briefly describes the general characteristics of the property, such as its location, setting, size, and significant features.)

Summary Paragraph

Greenbelt Knoll is a nine-acre development of 18 modest frame, one-story Modern houses constructed in 1955 and 1956 in suburban northeastern Philadelphia. The single-family homes are clustered efficiently along Longford Street, a cul-de-sac, on lots of approximately one-third acre each. The asphalt-paved cul-de-sac is accessed via the south side of Holme Avenue and is approximately 500 feet in length. It follows a north-south ridgeline and is bordered by concrete sidewalks. The development is heavily wooded and is bordered on three sides by the Pennypack Park Greenway. The siting of the houses and division of parcels was determined by the topography of the knoll, which drops off considerably to the west and south. Placement of the houses was intended to limit the removal of trees and incorporate the existing landscape into the design. Seventeen of the existing homes are considered contributing; one home was completely rebuilt following a fire and is considered non-contributing. An additional lot (#17) is now open-space, as the house was demolished 1997. Including the 5 detached garages, a studio, and the 2-acre community park that was part of the original neighborhood design, there are 26 resources: 22 contributing buildings and 1 contributing site (park), 2 non-contributing buildings and 1 non-contributing site (Lot #17). The development remains heavily wooded, and both the houses and landscape retain integrity.

Setting and Neighborhood Plan

The houses are not repetitively placed along the street, but are positioned with differing set-backs and orientations on irregularly-shaped lots (see Figure 1). While the houses follow a very similar plan and size, some are aligned with an end to the street, and others run length-wise. A few of the homes (lots #5 and #7) are “stacked” toward the rear of the neighborhood, behind other lots (#6 and 8) and are accessible by narrow right-of-way strips. An original paved “turn-around” driveway was placed at the end of the cul-de-sac in front of lots #11 and 12 for shared use by the residents of the southern end of the neighborhood. Lot #17’s home was demolished in 1997 and is now open space. There are small grass lawns on most lots, but the overwhelming effect is of a wooded property. Most of the house lots have at least a short paved driveway or parking pad. Neighbors are also able to park along Longford Street, which is 50 feet wide.

The houses were sited and designed to maximize privacy and incorporate existing natural features. Fences are uncommon; currently the only permanent fence is a chain link fence surrounding part of 1 Longford’s backyard. Decks, terraces and patios all remain from the original landscape and building designs. In some cases, the original designs accommodated the landscape dramatically, modifying decks or breezeways to incorporate the growing trunks of trees through the deck floors or the breezeway roofs, and these trees remain part of the current house designs (see photos 4 and 8).

In addition to the 19 building lots (which includes vacant #17), Greenbelt Knoll contained a 2-acre wooded communal park lot, located along the west border of lots #1-5. A small branch of the Pennypack Creek passes through this lot, with a railroad bed (freight spur) shadowing the west edge of the lot. This communal ground was intended to be accessed via a 10 foot right-of-way between lots #4 and 5. Part of the original design for Greenbelt Knoll included a swimming pool on the 2-acre

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lot, which was filled c.1985; no above-ground evidence remains of the pool. There is generally no distinction between private property, the park parcel, and the greater Pennypack Park Greenway, as there is an absence of fences or other barriers marking property lines. The 2-acre original park has been incorporated into the Fairmount Park Commission's Pennypack Park Greenway (see Figure 4).

The neighborhood is almost entirely surrounded by the heavily-wooded Pennypack Park Greenway, although the adjacent Pennypack Woods development is visible through the trees at the southeast corner of Greenbelt Knoll. A Pennsylvania Rail Road bed (currently a freight spur) cuts through the woods and runs along the western side of the neighborhood, particularly close to the houses at the southwest corner of the development (see photo 13 and Figure 3). The area north of Holme Avenue, across from the entrance to Greenbelt Knoll's Longford Street, remains wooded and is also part of the Greenway. The area surrounding Pennypack Park Greenway and the small cluster of houses forming Greenbelt Knoll is intensively developed with primarily-residential areas. Greenbelt Knoll is very unusual for the area, both in design and lot size, as well as setting. The Modern-style houses set it apart, as do the lack of repetition and symmetry in building set-back and placement on the lots. The surrounding developments are dense, with uniform set-backs, and are either early 20th century row homes, post-World War II small houses, or late 20th-century townhouses or apartment complexes. Lots the size of Greenbelt Knoll's (one-quarter to one-third acre) are non-existent in the surrounding area, as is the incorporation of nature.

The Homes

The 17 contributing houses share a similar Modern design and appearance. They are all rectangular, fairly narrow, single-story modest homes with flat or low-pitched roofs featuring broad eaves. While the houses are very similar, they are not exact copies of a single master design. The individual plans were influenced by each house's orientation and siting on its lot. Most retain vertical wood siding, a combination of casement and fixed windows, and in many cases sliding glass doors that open onto first-floor patios and decks or from the basements. The primary living areas are evident due to grouping or clustering of larger windows to create banks or walls of windows (see photos 1, 5 and 19), generally found on the more-private side of the house. The main entrance areas are often marked by brick knee-walls and exterior wall panels of tile, contrasting-color wood board, or other materials than the vertical wood siding covering the rest of the first floor (see photos 2, 10 and 17). Basement walls are generally exposed concrete block.

Most of the houses were able to incorporate walk-out or day-light basements due to the sloping topography. In many cases, the basements appear to have been adapted to include family rooms, bedrooms, or other finished space. The houses are similar in size—a typical house was 1,350 square feet, and most of the houses have not been dramatically enlarged. In a few cases carports or detached garages have been converted to living space (such as 4 Longford). Not every house was designed with a carport or detached garage, and only 5 detached garages are present today (see description below).

A distinctive original exterior feature that remains prominent on most of the homes is a projecting triangular brick fireplace with a tubular metal chimney that extends from the main living area, in some cases near or adjacent to the primary entrance and in others on the secondary façade. (See photos 1 and 5, where the fireplaces are on the secondary, more-secluded facades, and 8 and 19, which are on the primary facade).

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The house at 12 Longford is considered non-contributing, as it was completely rebuilt following a c.1980 fire. The general scale of the house is in keeping with the neighbors, but the gable roof and other changes set it apart. No other houses have been so extensively altered. The primary living area of the house at 16 Longford was enlarged with a recent addition, which did not dramatically increase the size of the house nor alter its visual impact on the neighborhood. The new room has a higher roof, but the same low pitch as the original portion of the house. The exterior materials and expansive windows are also in keeping with the original design (see photo 18), and so this house remains a contributing resource.

Garages and Outbuildings

There are 5 contributing outbuildings and 1 non-contributing outbuilding within the Greenbelt Knoll community. Non-permanent garden sheds are few and were not counted. Detached garages can be found at 7, 9, 13, 16 and 19 Longford Street. A small frame artist's studio is on 11 Longford's lot. The garages are part of the original design or were issued building permits very early in the community's history (pre-1960) and are considered contributing resources. Permits for other garages were issued between 1955 and 1957, but it does not appear all were constructed, perhaps only the detached garage at 14 Longford, which was removed in 1958. The contributing garages mimic the houses with frame construction, low-pitched or flat roofs, and coordinating colors and materials. Only one detached garage appears on the 1956 site plan (see Figure 1) at 19 Longford Street. Two carports also appear on that site plan, at 4 and 6 Longford; the carport at 4 Longford was converted into living space. The carport at 6 Longford is considered part of the contributing house, as it is integrated into the original design of the home and connected via a breezeway. The artist's studio at 11 Longford is considered a non-contributing resource due to its later construction and lack of connection to the original design of the neighborhood.

Integrity

The relationship of the houses to each other and to the landscape remains intact. Infill construction has been limited to an artist studio and a few scattered non-permanent garden sheds. One home (formerly on lot #17) was demolished in 1997. That lot is now passive open space, largely wooded. The only non-contributing home in the development was rebuilt on its original site following a fire (lot # 12). Original materials remain intact on most of the houses. The houses continue to strongly reflect their original Modern design and sensitivity to the natural landscape, and the neighborhood retains all of the National Register aspects of integrity. Most importantly for this particular district is the retention of three specific integrity aspects: design, setting, and feeling. Greenbelt Knoll continues to clearly reflect the intention of the architects and landscape architects involved in the neighborhood's design, and easily conveys the concepts first proposed by Morris Milgram, Greenbelt Knoll's developer and champion.

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8. Statement of Significance

Applicable National Register Criteria

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

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

Areas of Significance

(Enter categories from instructions.)

Social History

Architecture

Period of Significance

1956-1960

Significant Dates

NA

Significant Person

(Complete only if Criterion B is marked above.)

Milgram, Morris

Cultural Affiliation

NA

Architect/Builder

Montgomery & Bishop

Duncan, Harry

Duncan, Margaret Lancaster

Kahn, Louis I.

Otto, George

Criteria Considerations

(Mark "x" in all the boxes that apply.)

Property is:

- A Owned by a religious institution or used for religious purposes.
- B removed from its original location.
- C a birthplace or grave.
- D a cemetery.
- E a reconstructed building, object, or structure.
- F a commemorative property.
- G less than 50 years old or achieving significance within the past 50 years.

Period of Significance (justification)

The period of significance begins in 1956 when construction of Greenbelt Knoll started and ends in 1960, following the NR 50-year guideline.

Criteria Considerations (explanation, if necessary) NA

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Statement of Significance Summary Paragraph (Provide a summary paragraph that includes level of significance and applicable criteria.)

Greenbelt Knoll is eligible for the National Register under Criteria A, B, and C. It is significant at the local level of significance in the area of Social History under Criterion A for association with the development of integrated housing in Philadelphia during the post-World War II period. Greenbelt Knoll was the second of Morris Milgram's Philadelphia area integrated housing developments; it reflected what became a flashpoint for civil rights in the post-war period. Greenbelt Knoll was a small part of a serious nationwide attempt to resolve the worsening problem of decent minority housing. It was one of the few attempts to create integrated working and middle class housing, and one of the even smaller number to succeed. It is also locally significant under Criterion B for association with Morris Milgram, one of the leading proponents of fair housing and the developer of Greenbelt Knoll and other planned integrated housing projects across the country. Milgram made Greenbelt Knoll his residence from the time of its construction until 1976. Greenbelt Knoll meets the registration requirements for the property type "Resources Associated with African American Settlement Patterns and Housing" in the MPDF *The Legacy of African Americans in Pennsylvania, 1644-1965*.

Greenbelt Knoll is locally significant under Criterion C in the area of Architecture. Designed by the prominent firm of Montgomery & Bishop with architect Harry Duncan, landscape architect Margaret Lancaster Duncan, and consultant Louis I. Kahn, the houses and landscape at Greenbelt Knoll are excellent examples of the organic vein of mid-century Modern architecture. Set in a wooded area and isolated from its neighbors, Greenbelt Knoll is one of the most important concentrations of residential Modernist buildings in Philadelphia.

Narrative Statement of Significance (Provide at least **one** paragraph for each area of significance.)

Context for Social History: Integrated Housing

Post-World War II housing has been the subject of scholarly and popular study for decades. After the war, key political policies and governmental and private institutions mobilized themselves to facilitate the supply and demand of new residential units to make housing construction one of the pillars of the post-war economic boom. However, while the concept of home ownership was the central image of the American Dream as a symbol of family, class identity, respectability, and upward mobility, the opportunity to achieve home ownership was clearly defined by race. Decades-long institutionalized discrimination in the real estate and banking industries had been buttressed by Federal Housing Administration (FHA) policies since the 1930s. Practices such as red-lining, block-busting, and steering maintained racial homogeneity and kept African Americans and other minorities in defined areas, usually in city neighborhoods being abandoned by whites for the suburbs or new housing developments away from deteriorating areas. As the black population of the urban north grew dramatically during and after the war as a part of the Second Great Migration, lack of new housing opportunities and deterioration of older housing stock left African Americans competing for a shrinking inventory of housing possibilities.

Decent housing proved to be one of the most tenacious problems facing African Americans and the nation. By the end of the 1940s none could ignore the serious problem that minority housing represented, and through the 1950s the subject remained at the center of public discussion. Hundreds—probably thousands—of studies, newspaper articles, speeches, and reports explored, praised or bemoaned the status of minority housing in the

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country. By the end of the 1950s the centrality of minority housing to civil rights had become a widely recognized social and political fact. Housing, especially private housing, set the pattern of segregation in the North. An analysis of several late 1950s studies of housing issues summed up the situation perfectly:

If the Negro can be confined by slums and segregation in the more tolerant North as well as in the South, we may be forging the first enduring exception to our historic formula of social and economic fluidity. Housing is therefore emerging as the main front on which the contest for equality will be waged.¹

Even the *Wall Street Journal* recognized that “Housing segregation is the core problem, the heart of other civil rights problems.”²

Indeed, the character-defining feature of the entire structure of the real estate industry, the banking system, and government housing policy was its unrelenting adherence to a whites-only neighborhood policy. The segregationist practices of the FHA, real estate brokers,³ and the banking industry hardened the racial landscape in America as blacks and other minorities were increasingly locked in cities and whites fled to the surrounding suburbs. From its inception in 1937 the FHA adopted the practice of red-lining and the real estate and banking industries used it, along with tactics such as racial steering and block-busting to ensure that African Americans and other minorities stayed out of the suburbs.⁴ Between 1937 and 1950 three out of five homes purchased in the US were financed by FHA but less than 2% of the FHA-insured loans were made to non-white home buyers. Even after FHA loosened its policies under pressure from civil rights groups and its own staff, few FHA insured mortgages went to African Americans. As a result of these policies a vast majority of FHA mortgages went to

¹ Charles Abrams, “Opening the Door to Good Neighbors. Progress in Combating Discrimination in Housing is Reported in a New Study,” *New York Times*, February 5, 1961, p BR1.

² “Race & Residence: Negro Efforts to Find Racially Mixed Housing Lead to New Ghettos,” *Wall Street Journal*, Aug 13, 1962, p 1. “Housing in the North Sets Bias Picture,” *New York Times*, April 25, 1956, p 28.

³ The hostility of the real estate business, whose formal anti-integration policy dated to the early 1900s, was certainly no secret by 1950. In 1956 the *Philadelphia Tribune* poked fun at realtors in an essay assessing the potential future freedom of housing for African Americans: “this freedom may not be flawless: a number of white citizens, from southern governors to northern real estate brokers, can be counted upon to see to that.” Emmet Hughes, “The Negro’s New Economic Life,” *Philadelphia Tribune*, October 2, 1956, p 7. “Real Estate Board Against Fair Housing Law,” *Philadelphia Tribune*, December 16, 1958, p 1. “Realtors Warn that Fair Housing Act Forbids Discrimination by Race or Color,” *Pittsburgh Courier*, April 4, 1959, p 4. “Special Interests Blamed for Poor Housing Situation,” *Philadelphia Tribune*, June 26, 1951, p 3.

⁴ Stanley Roberts, “Minority Got 2% of U.S. Housing,” January 23, 1954, p 32. “NAACP Charges Negroes Still get Less than Two Per Cent of Private Housing,” February 25, 1958, p 8.

Steering is a practice whereby minority home purchasers are systematically offered houses in different neighborhoods than interested white buyers. Red-lining is a discriminatory rating system used to evaluate the risks associated with loans made to borrowers in specific urban neighborhoods. The vast majority of FHA insured loans went to the two top categories of the rating systems, the highest of which included areas that were “new, homogeneous, and in demand in good times and bad.” The second highest category was comprised of mostly stable areas that were still desirable. The third category, and the level at which redlining began, consisted of working class neighborhoods near black residences that were “within such as low price or rent range as to attract an undesirable element.” All black areas were placed in the fourth category. Exclusionary zoning—including restrictions for single families, prohibition of multi family units, minimum lot and floor space requirements, maximum density limits, and other land use controls—have long functioned as agents of homogeneity. Exclusionary zoning is still the most pervasive legal structure perpetuating racial segregation. Block busting is a particularly insidious tactic in which realtors play on the racial fears of white property owners by telling them a black family had bought into, or planned to buy into the neighborhood. The realtor would then buy the white owner’s property at a reduced price (before prices fell even further) then resell it to a black family at a usually higher than market price. And of course, where other measures failed to keep African Americans out of white neighborhoods, white violence could always be counted on to step up.

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borrowers in white middle class neighborhoods. The President's Advisory Committee on Government Housing Policies and Programs reported in 1954 that "In the last fifteen years 2,760,000 units have been insured by the FHA. Only 50,000 of these, or less than 2 per cent have been for Negroes."⁵

Exclusionary housing practices were only part of the problem. The equally discriminatory agenda of urban renewal in the 1950s turned the housing challenge into a catastrophe for African Americans and for American cities. Certainly the urban housing stock needed improvement—in 1950 over 70,000 dwellings in the city of Philadelphia lacked a bath, or were dilapidated; overcrowding made the problems worse. As urban renewal programs relentlessly destroyed existing housing, it displaced African American residents to even more crowded conditions, broke up neighborhoods, weakened existing social support structures, and offered instead poorly built and badly designed "affordable" or subsidized housing that were not conducive to neighborhood-building and usually quickly degenerated into little more than slums.

Numerous private and governmental studies at the state and federal levels made this apparent. In Pennsylvania an unsettling picture emerged. By 1956, 85% of all nonwhite households in Philadelphia were located either in or adjacent to the central business district. Ten out of sixteen suburban municipalities showed a decline in nonwhite population during the period 1950-1957. In Pittsburgh, seven out of ten African American families were located in three areas of high nonwhite concentration, while the city contained almost all African Americans in the metropolitan area. Statistics on smaller cities show they matched or exceeded the degree of segregation shown in Philadelphia and Pittsburgh. In Reading in 1950 80% of the area's African Americans lived in the city's central wards, with the number of blocks in which African Americans lived in decreasing by twelve. The City of Erie in 1950 also showed increasing concentration of minorities the central city and loss of nonwhite families on the fringes.⁶ The situation worsened through the 1950s. In 1958, Philadelphia mayor Richardson Dilworth summed up:

Philadelphia's Negro population numbers about 400,000, with new immigrants—mostly from the South and 60 percent unskilled workers—coming in at the rate of 600 a month....Already 60 percent of the public housing is located in the Negro slum areas. It would take \$800 million to rip out the Philadelphia slums. You'd reduce the density by one-half and you'd have no place to put the rest of the people.⁷

African Americans' demand for good housing increased continuously. During World War II, black migration northward surged in pursuit of wartime job opportunities, and it continued into the 1960s. By 1960 African Americans made up 25 % of Philadelphia's population, 32% of Washington, D.C.'s, and 27 % of Newark, NJ's populations. Philadelphia's black population increased by 44% from 1940 to 1950 and another 44% from 1950-1959 to a total of 670,000 in 1960. Incomes increased as well. The war created a substantial African American

⁵Stanley Roberts, *Courier*, p 32. "Home Builders Ignore Negro Housing Needs," *Philadelphia Tribune*, August 23, 1958, p 13. Marc Seitles, "The Perpetuation of Residential Racial Segregation in America: Historic Discrimination, Modern Forms of Exclusion, and Inclusionary Remedies," *Journal of Land Use and Environmental Law*, 1996. Andrew Wiese, discussion on open housing December 4, 2004, H-Net Online, h-urban logs, <http://h-net.msu.edu/cgi-bin/logbrowse.pl?trx=vx&list=h-urban&month=0412&week=a&msg=MoyqljF%2bV4%2bqeNZfdXFUSg&user=&pw=>

⁶Jessica Lane, "Search for the American Dream: Race and Suburbanization in Post-War America," p 26, (typescript, 2010, PHMC) cites a report by the Pennsylvania Governor's Committee on Discrimination in Housing 1959. (Walton, MG-191, Carton 12, Folder 28 Housing 4).

⁷"Mayor Says Negroes Deserve Good Homes in All Parts of the City," *Philadelphia Tribune*, Feb 25, 1958, p 1.

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population with the financial resources and the desire to achieve the goal of home ownership.⁸ By 1960 27% of Philadelphia's black population had an income over \$6000 or more annually, a sum considered to place them solidly in the middle class.

Considerable resources were brought to bear on the housing issue. Many state and large cities created race relations commissions and housing committees; major professional organizations including the national boards of realtors and builders had minority housing committees. A number of states and major cities passed anti-discrimination legislation and the federal Housing Act of 1954 amended the 1949 National Housing Act to provide direct federal subsidies for housing rehabilitation. In 1956 the Pennsylvania legislature passed the Fair Employment Practices Act; it was amended in the 1960s to prohibit discrimination in housing, insurance and lending, public accommodations, and public education.⁹ By 1960 the federal government had spent over thirty two billion dollars on housing and urban renewal.¹⁰

Major cities, including Philadelphia and Pittsburgh, created agencies to facilitate the integration of neighborhoods and ease race relations. Private advocacy organizations such as the National Association for the Advancement of Colored People (NAACP), American Friends Service Committee (AFSC), and Urban League, along with numerous local groups and churches worked at the grass roots level organizing neighborhoods, holding public meetings and performing other mediating outreach activities to allay white fears in the face on encroaching black neighbors. In a mid-1950s study conducted for the Commission on Race and Housing, sociologists Eunice Grier and George Grier suggested that the reason the development of Greenbelt Knoll went smoothly was that the Philadelphia Commission on Human Relations implemented a strategy to help acceptance of the development. It called special meetings of community leaders and developers to discuss the project, "addressing all issues raised to stop rumors and quell the panic."¹¹ In a study of four unidentified Philadelphia neighborhoods, sociologists Chester Rapkin and William Grigsby commented on the relative lack of violence suffered in Philadelphia in the 1950s:

The vigorous action of the Philadelphia Commission on Human Relations which has stopped many potential disturbances in their nascent stages may have been a principal deterrent to violence in some areas, but it is also true that exceedingly few Negroes entered neighborhoods in which the danger signs were clear. ... This

⁸ Asking for information on family income based on race was a question the Census either preferred not to ask, or not to publish. But the 1960 Census of housing did provide the following: the median income of white homeowners in the Philadelphia city was \$6000, and of white renters \$3800. The median income of black owners was \$4900 and of black renters was \$2900. 1960 Census of Housing, Table C-3. Income in 1959 of Primary Families and Individuals in Owner and Renter Occupied Housing Units, for the City of Philadelphia: 1960. Table C-13.—Income in 1959 of Primary Families and Individuals in Owner and Renter Occupied Housing Units with Non-White Household Heads for the City of Philadelphia: 1960. Other popular sources support the understanding that while progress was made by African Americans in the 1950s, they always lagged behind their white counterparts. A study based on the 1960 census found that approximately 30% of Philadelphia's black population lived below the poverty line of \$3000 annual income; but 27% fell into what would be considered the "middle class" with an annual income of \$6000 or more. M. S. Handler, "U.S. Finds Negroes Trapped in Menial Jobs," *New York Times*, November 16, 1964, p 21.

⁹ The National Housing Act of 1949 authorized funds to localities to do slum clearance and urban redevelopment; the policy goal: "a decent home in a suitable living environment for every American family"

http://www.jchs.harvard.edu/publications/remodeling/duda_w01-8.pdf

¹⁰ US Census 1970, Series Y 605-637, Federal Government Expenditures, by Function: 1902-1970.

<http://www2.census.gov/prod2/statcomp/documents/CT1970p2-12.pdf>

¹¹ Eunice Grier and George Grier, *Privately Developed Inter-Racial Housing: An Analysis of Experience* (Report to the Commission on Race and Housing), (Berkeley and Los Angeles: University of California Press, 1960) p 215.

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is not to suggest that there was no opposition to Negro entry, but that there were very few ugly incidents.¹²

Developers of housing for African Americans, especially developers of integrated housing, faced serious hurdles in four areas: finding a site, financing, attracting buyers, and dealing with opposition from white communities, basically the same problems that individual black buyers faced, but on a larger scale. Communities used exclusionary zoning, impossibly meticulous code inspections, and a whole host of other delaying tactics including violence, to delay or thwart minority housing developments. Usually developers of minority housing found that they encountered less opposition when they chose less-than-optimum sites. Thus many new developments were located in areas that abutted highways, or industrial sites or all-black neighborhoods or transitioning neighborhoods from which whites were fleeing. Morris Milgram wrote about a project in the Philadelphia region that officials greeted his project

Warmly ... until word reached them ... that the development would be integrated. At that point, [they] indicated a preference for lots of about half an acre. When we agreed to go along with that, they demanded lots closer to one acre. ... Our Board then voted to accept an alternate site which the village indicated would win their approval, a site between an all-white and an all-black area in the center of the town. However, the village failed to improve the black area as promised, and the FHA gave such low valuations on our proposed housing that the second site, like the first had to be sold.¹³

In his study *Places of Their Own: African American Suburbanization in the Twentieth Century*, Andrew Weise makes clear that there were numerous housing developments across the country aimed specifically at black buyers. In Philadelphia, the Yorktown neighborhood is one of these.¹⁴ Housing developments, especially suburban developments for blacks were both profitable and unable to meet the demand for new housing in the suburbs. They were advertised in the black press; using the same domestic imagery as advertisements for white suburbs. But the demand far exceeded the supply and black buyers still found themselves unable to buy housing they could now afford.

¹² Chester Rapkin and William G. Grigsby. *The Demand for Housing in Racially Mixed Areas: A Study of the Nature of Neighborhood Change*. (Berkeley and Los Angeles: University of California Press, 1960). Special Report to the Commission on Race and Housing and the Philadelphia Redevelopment Authority. p 115. "City Backs Model of Mixed Housing," *Pittsburgh Courier*, November 10, 1956, p 2. "City May Have Integrated Housing Development Soon," *Pittsburgh Courier*, February 8, 1958, p A1. "Integrated Housing Works in Sacramento," *Pittsburgh Courier*, December 6, 1952, p 22.

¹³ Quoted in Weise, p 101. Also see Morris Milgram, *Good Neighborhoods: The Challenge of Open Housing* (New York, Norton, 1977), 78 and Grier & Grier, pp 78-94. Also see "Georgian Gloats Over Failure of Interracial Unit in Capitol," *Pittsburgh Courier*, August 7, 1954, p 8. "Raps Swarthmore's Vicious Drive to Halt Non-Jim Crow Housing," *Philadelphia Tribune*, January 24, 1956, p 8. "Restrictive Zoning Hampers Growth of Interracial Apartment Units," *New York Times*, February 29, 1960. "3 Out of 10 Favor Integrated Housing," *Philadelphia Tribune*, November 1, 195, p 3. "Integrated Housing Opposed 8 to 1 in Poll," *New York Times*, December 7, 1959, p 5.

¹⁴ Yorktown was a planned residential community of 600 homes about 10 blocks from City Hall in north-central Philadelphia built in the 1960s; it was planned and implemented by a coalition of African American churches and civic groups. The community still has a neighborhood association and a website; see http://www.whitecarp.com/pnrt/html/04_nb.htm Another urban renewal development, Central Apartments, a high rent building opened in 1951, was located on the edge of a blighted area, 2/3 of the surrounding population was black. It was intended for and marketed to African American buyers, but due to its location close to center city and high rents about half of its initial tenants were white. Grier and Grier reported that the tenancy was slowly turning over toward being all black. See Grier and Grier, pp 101-103.

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Very few builders were willing to attempt integrated housing projects. Beginning in the 1930s efforts had begun to build integrated communities. Most of the support for multi-racial housing came from liberal self-help groups such as the Urban League or American Friends Service Committee, which sponsored experiments such as the cooperatives Penn-Craft and Norvelt, partnered with developers for housing projects, and also provided moral and logistical support for black pioneers integrating white neighborhoods. But in the 1950s a few developers combined profit and idealism to build integrated neighborhoods.

Grier and Grier found a little over fifty privately built inter-racial housing developments. They reported that since World War II about 8000 units of inter-racial housing had been constructed, out of ten million total in the U.S., 40% of which were in the mid-Atlantic region, with nine developments in the NYC area and eight in the Philadelphia metropolitan area. The scale of the projects was usually small; 40 % had fewer than 25 units, another 40% had 100 or more units; the largest, in California, had 1600 units. Prices ranged from \$5,000 to \$60,000, with most in the moderate \$10,000-14,000 range.¹⁵

Possibly the first commercial interracial housing project was built in 1947 in Minnesota, by Edward N. Tilsen, president of Tilsenbilt Homes, Inc. and a member of the slum clearance committee of the National Builders Association. Tilsen's firm built 24 two-story row house rentals in a St. Paul neighborhood that black residents had already entered. In 1954 Tilsen acquired 63 lots scattered in a ten block area of Minneapolis where a small black population already was established; ninety-six percent of the home buyers were black.¹⁶ Corona Park, California, gets credit as the first commercially developed single homes for African Americans; its 273 homes went on the market and sold out in 18 months. About 80% of its original buyers were white.¹⁷ T.J. Mitchell, a builder near an unidentified Wisconsin city, began building very inexpensive single family homes. He started in 1952 with 40 prefabs that sold to an interracial market at about \$12,000. Looking to lower prices and attract African American buyers he began a development of forty homes that backed up to the tracks of the Chicago and Northwestern Railroad. He used prefab homes and allowed buyers to use sweat equity as part of the down payments and was able to market the houses at \$6250--\$9500.¹⁸ Other developments were in Ohio, New York, and New Jersey.

It proved to be very difficult to maintain a successful integrated community. In discussing the development at Concord Park, Morris Milgram's first integrated project, located in Bucks County, Pennsylvania, the *New York Times* noted the troubles Milgram had during marketing:

To secure enough white buyers Mr. Milgram reluctantly set a quota of 55 percent white families to 45 percent Negroes. It was later found that white buyers would not buy without assurance that Negroes would be in the minority. Mr. Milgram does not like the occupancy quota—which he says is a form of discrimination—but the alternative would have been a nearly all-Negro community. This has been the fate of other open-occupancy projects.¹⁹

¹⁵ Grier and Grier, pp 8-12. Thirty-four percent of inter-racial housing built was on the west coast, mostly in California.

¹⁶ "Home Project Without Color Lines," *Minneapolis Morning Tribune*, May 24, 1954, p 7. "Minority Housing Can Be Profitable," *National Real Estate and Building Journal*, 1955, pp 18-19.

¹⁷ Grier & Grier, p 9.

¹⁸ Grier and Grier, pp 33-40, 198-199, *et passim*.

¹⁹ Thomas W. Ennis, "Suburb Breaks Racial Barrier," *New York Times*, March 10, 1957, p R1. Laurence G. O'Donnell, "Race & Residence. Negro Efforts to find Racially Mixed Housing Lead to New Ghettos," *Wall Street Journal*, August 13, 1962, p 1.

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Ultimately, Concord Park suffered the fate of other integrated projects; as homes went up for resale the neighborhood gradually turned over to all black ownership.

Although much of the city was already developed, there were still opportunities for new housing in the city of Philadelphia. Historian Emily Cooperman describes the general open land picture at the end of the war:

The vast majority of [new development] was in the "great" Northeast, which was the only area left with a lot of open land, but there are several other pockets, including far south Philly, Andorra (east of Ridge), the area around Ivy Hill Cemetery northeast of Mount Airy, and a few others. Generally speaking, there are three types of post-war housing, all related to geography. The first is redevelopment - both market rate (Society Hill) and public housing. The latter takes place (Society Hill of course effectively got rid of most of an African-American neighborhood) in areas on the perimeter of downtown and into North Philadelphia in neighborhoods perceived to be blighted: primarily African-American neighborhoods.²⁰

It was not possible to identify all eight of the Philadelphia open housing developments mentioned by Grier and Grier. The subject of this nomination, Greenbelt Knoll, had 19 Modernist single family homes, the smallest of the developments. There may have been an open housing project in Yeadon (Delaware County), and by the late 1950s a small group of 48 houses in Downingtown (Chester County). There was also Concord Park, with 139 ranchers in Lower Southampton Township, Bucks County). Another development in the Philadelphia region was Bloomsdale Gardens, consisting of 209 homes built near Levittown in Bucks County. It was "successfully completed by Dick Davidson (an out-of-town builder) and Al Letson, a prominent Philadelphia real estate broker . . . Bloomsdale Gardens completely sold out on an integrated basis within a matter of a short period of time."²¹

At the end of the decade African Americans still found themselves in a dire housing situation. Not only were suburbs almost closed to them in the name of racial homogeneity, but the urban options were either undesirable or disappearing. Out of about 10 million housing units built in the United States between the end of the war and 1959, less than 10% were built for non-white occupants. The record in the North was even worse: only 103,917 units were built for non-white occupants out of 1.7 million. In Philadelphia 8,293 new units were constructed for non-white residents, about 14% of the total.²² When reporting on the development of Morris Milgram's first integrated housing neighborhood in the Philadelphia region, Concord Park, the *New York Times* noted that "Out of 144,000 new homes built between 1946 and 1953 only 1,044 or less than 1 per cent of the total were sold to Negroes who make up 20 per cent of Philadelphia's population." In 1958, the *Philadelphia Tribune*

Farnsworth Fowle, "Weaver Attacks Bias in Suburbs," *New York Times*, July 15, 1959, p 13.

²⁰ Personal correspondence with Carol Lee, June 15, 2010.

²¹ "Open Homes Prove Good Investment," *Philadelphia Tribune*, November 1, 1958, p14. "New Concern Aids Bias-Free Housing," *New York Times*, May 18, 1958, p R1.

²² Weise, 170.

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reported that “A recent survey made by the Philadelphia Housing Association disclosed that only 703 new homes were built for Negro resident during a two-year period in the entire Philadelphia area.”²³

Even when policy loosened up the FHA and Veterans Administration (VA) together may have subsidized only 300,000 minority housing units between 1945 and 1960. The FHA may have assisted the construction of as much as 40% of new housing purchased by African Americans in the 1950s nationwide.²⁴ Through the 1940s and 1950s African Americans did increase home ownership. Nationwide, non-farm home ownership by non-whites rose from 24 to 39 percent. Between 1940 and 1950 the number of non-white families owning homes in Philadelphia increased from 5,596 to 29,149. By 1960 the number of Philadelphia city black home owners had risen to 58,637.²⁵ The problems were that black buyers were being steered to existing building stock in certain sections of the city, there were few new housing units available to them, and they were largely being shut out of the booming suburbs.²⁶

By the end of the 1950s no one could pretend that the question of providing decent minority housing was even approaching resolution, nor could anyone pretend that white racism was not the root cause. As long as plenty of space remained for new suburban construction, white buyers would not stay in areas where there were any concentrations of black residents. Report after gloomy report made clear the intractable nature of the problem: after a decade and a half of pushing the boulder uphill trying to eliminate ghettos, now the boulder was careening downhill over the reformers. In a grimly prescient article the *New York Times* relayed the opinions of a New York state economic development study group:

Slums will march from downtown business districts to the suburbs of New York and twelve other major cities. ...[there will be] a gray belt of urban decay ...and scant prospect of arresting the flight of middle income white families to the suburbs.²⁷

Charles Abrams, the author of *Forbidden Neighbors, A Study of Prejudice in Housing*, warned Americans that

The suburbs and the quest for status are shaping the American personality of the future as the frontier once shaped the American personality of the past. The new

²³ Howard H. Thomas, “Real Estate News” *Philadelphia Tribune*, November 16, 1957, p 11. “Home Builders Ignore Negroes Housing Needs,” *Philadelphia Tribune*, Aug 23, 1958, pp 14. The *Tribune* noted that “a few homes were built in Germantown, Yeadon and Darby, which have a summary total of less than 200.” “Open Homes Prove Good Investment,” *Philadelphia Tribune* November 1, 1958, p 14. “Bias on Housing in Cities Scored,” *New York Times*, Mar 13, 1955, p83. Howard Thomas, “New Homes For Negroes In Phila. Area In Great Demand,” *Philadelphia Tribune*, October 29, 1957, p 10.

²⁴ Andrew Weise, *Places of Their Own: African American Suburbanization in the Twentieth Century*. (Chicago & London: The University of Chicago Press), 140.

²⁵ 1950 Census of Housing, Table 3. Occupied dwelling Units by Tenure and Color of Occupants for the State, Urban and Rural: 1950 and 1940. 1960 Census of Housing, Table C-11 Value of Owner –Occupied Housing Units with Non-White Household Heads, for the City of Philadelphia, 1960. study that stated home ownership rose from 24% of non-white families in 1940 to 36% in 1956, compared to 46 % and 63% for white families respectively. “Negroes’ Income Found Improving,” *New York Times* November 3, 1960, p 45. “Economic Progress an ‘Illusion’: Negro Income Growth Sags,” *Pittsburgh Courier*, April 16, 1960, p A3.

²⁶ “Migration And Larger Incomes Challenge Negro Realtors,” *Philadelphia Tribune*, August 21, 1956, p 2.

²⁷ Homer Bigart, “Spread of Slums in City Foreseen,” *New York Times*, February 22, 1959, p 1. The good news was that “there will always be a downtown.”

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American neighborhood has turned into a breeding ground of bias, fear, and discrimination.²⁸

Philadelphia mayor Richardson Dilworth put it more bluntly. “That is why,” he said, “it essential to put an end to the white noose of the suburbs which is strangling our cities and threatening our basic concepts of equality of opportunity.”²⁹

Forced segregation had endured since Africans arrived in Pennsylvania and continued into the 21st century. While many believe that African Americans “chose” to live in segregated residential communities, Greenbelt Knoll and the other attempts at building integrated neighborhoods is evidence to the contrary.

Context for Architecture

For the most part single family residential housing in the 1945-1960 period was architecturally simple and lacked the kind of stylistic forms and detailing that were common in the previous decades. Residential forms common in developer-built subdivisions consisted mostly of small Cape Cod, ranch, split level, and two-story (“Colonial”) houses with occasional, stock Colonial Revival influenced features. This was possibly more true for minority housing, where builders sought to minimize costs as much as possible. But it also depended on the builder and the market. T.J. Mitchell in Wisconsin built and sold inexpensive, bare-bones houses, while the California Corona Park houses were considered to be well-built and attractive. Morris Milgram and George Otto’s homes in Concord Park were built in the ranch form, while their New Jersey developments included both ranch and split level houses. Public housing developments built in Philadelphia during this period, such as the failed Schuylkill Falls, were modernist in design.³⁰ Greenbelt Knoll appears to be unusual in its use of modernist elements for low-cost, single-family residential housing.

As was typical in most communities at that time, prominent modernist architects such as Oscar Stonorov, Louis Kahn, Marcel Breuer, Frank Weise, and Richard Neutra primarily designed single-family houses in the Philadelphia metropolitan area for those individuals and families who could afford their services.³¹

Consequently, these custom houses generally have more floor space than those that were speculatively built by developers during that period, and they tend to be scattered around the City on large lots in new subdivisions and in affluent, established neighborhoods like Chestnut Hill and Mt. Airy. In this way, the modest homes of

²⁸ R. L. Duffus, “Newcomers Unwelcome,” *New York Times*, October 2, 1955, p BR23. “Angry Mob of 300 Greets Myers,” *Philadelphia Tribune*, August 20, 1957, p 1. “Barbed Wire Rioters in Chicago,” *New York Times*, July 4, 1951, p 28. . “Blast Ruins Home of Negro Second Time,” *New York Times*, August 3, 1959, p 3. “*Negro’s Home Stoned*,” *New York Times*, February 25, 1959, p 3.

²⁹ “Mayor Says Negroes Deserve Good Homes in All Parts of the City,” p 1. Jerome Z. Zukoski, “Segregated Suburbs,” *Wall Street Journal*, March 11, 1906, p 1.

³⁰ The Philadelphia Housing Authority, under the influence of two staunch advocates of the Modern Movement, Ed Bacon and G. Holmes Perkins, contracted with several important modernist architects for designing public housing. The most famous, or infamous, project was the Schuylkill Falls housing project built in 1954-55 and designed by Oscar Stonorov. It consisted of two 16 story towers characterized by long horizontal open balconies and a series of two story row houses. It had carefully planned open space and was considered at the time to be both architecturally and socially innovative but by the early 1970s uncontrolled crime and vandalism turned them into “catastrophic, dens of social collapse and horror in the best tradition of modern project design.” Pennsylvania Historic Resource Survey Form for Schuylkill Falls, 1983, prepared by George Thomas.

³¹ See the ModernHomes webpage for an outstanding collection of images and inventory of modernist residential architecture, including interior and exterior views of Greenbelt Knoll houses. <http://modernhomesphiladelphia.com/history-c12381.html>

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Greenbelt Knoll are distinct from these contemporary homes, even though they share the flat or shed roofs, large expanses of glass, and open floorplans that are characteristic of postwar modernist design.

Developmental history/additional historic context information (if appropriate)

Morris Milgram, the driving force behind the creation of Greenbelt Knoll, was the son of Orthodox Jews driven from Russia by tsarist terrorists. His family immigrated to the United States before his birth and settled in New York's Lower East Side, where his father was a peddler. As a student at the City College of New York, Milgram led campus protests against fascism. Expelled from City College for his political activities in 1934, he graduated from Dana College in Newark, New Jersey, in 1939. After college, he became an organizer for the Workers Defense League, a civil rights and legal aid group for tenant farmers and the poor. He quickly advanced to position of national secretary of the organization.

While employed by the Workers Defense League, Milgram met and married Grace Smelo. William M. Smelo, Milgram's father-in-law, ran a small construction company in the Philadelphia area. Milgram joined the construction firm and, after learning the suburban development business, directed the company into integrated housing. While speaking at a conference of the National Association of Intergroup Relations Officials in 1956, Milgram recounted his emergence as a developer of open housing.

In 1947 my father-in-law, William M. Smelo of Philadelphia urged me to join him in the building business. I told him I could not come to Philadelphia to build houses for white people only as is the local pattern. He replied that if I joined his firm, I could build houses that all people could live in. On this agreement I came to Philadelphia in June 1947 and for four and a half years built houses according to the local pattern while my conscience hurt. Early in 1952 I announced my determination to re-tool to open-occupancy housing at a meeting at the home of Frank Loescher, then Director of the Mayor's Commission on Human Relations. I burned my bridges behind me and told the group that I would rather be laborer and live in a slum than build housing for whites only; that I would build nothing not even commercial properties until I could get my open-occupancy projects underway.³²

During an interview in 1965, Milgram elaborated on his entry into open housing more than a decade earlier. He explained that his crusade for integrated housing began in earnest after a clash at a zoning hearing in Hatboro, Pennsylvania. A young man, who lived in a house built by Milgram, confronted the builder at the hearing, charging that "Mr. Milgram hasn't told us whether he's going to sell to niggers or spicks!" Angered, Milgram retorted: "I'm sorry, I don't know what spicks are. However, the township president has said in the past that restrictive covenants are unenforceable. In any event, I can tell you now, no Negroes have applied." The board approved Milgram's zoning application, but he left the meeting in a rage, vowing never again to build all-white housing. By 1952, he had reorganized his business, which he had inherited from his father-in-law, for the construction of integrated housing only.³³

³² Morris Milgram, "Building Private Interracial Housing Developments," in *Non-Discrimination Firsts in Housing, Proceedings of the 10th Annual Conference of the National Association of Intergroup Relations Officials*, Bellevue Stratford Hotel, 29 November 1956, p 1.

³³ Alfred Balk, "The Builder Who Makes Integration Pay," *Harper's Magazine*, 231, #1382 (July 1965), pp 94-99.

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In 1952, Milgram began planning the Greenbelt Knoll development.³⁴ The earliest surviving site plan depicting the layout of the houses on the landscape is dated 23 June 1952.³⁵ After the early planning, the project stalled owing to antagonism. Contractors, bankers, real estate brokers, and even those who had been urging open-occupancy housing refused to aid him in his effort. But Milgram was as tenacious as he was idealistic and he forged ahead, seeking backers to invest in his open-housing plans. In 1953, George E. Otto, a Quaker leader and the owner of Penn Valley Constructors, a prosperous residential building firm in Morrisville, Pennsylvania, agreed to invest in Milgram's scheme. The prestigious Otto drew others, both black and white, to Milgram. Dr. William H. Gray, the former president of Florida A & M College, the chair of the Governor's Commission on Industrial Race Relations, and the Pastor of Bright Hope Baptist Church, joined the investors. Gray recruited Dr. Nathaniel Duff, the superintendent of his Sunday school. Physician Dr. E.G. McGruder of Bristol, Pennsylvania also joined the board of investors, which eventually numbered six white and three black members. Together, they formed Greenbelt Knoll, Inc. In November 1953, the corporation purchased the nine-acre property for \$22,200.³⁶ By April 1954, the board raised \$150,000 in working capital from sixty-five stockholders. Otto suggested that they proceed with a second, larger but less complicated project before beginning construction at Greenbelt Knoll. Quickly, they broke ground for Concord Park, the first integrated suburban housing development in the Philadelphia area. Built on fifty acres of farmland outside of the Philadelphia city limits in Trevoise, Pennsylvania, Concord Park opened in August 1954.³⁷ The sales of the 139 traditional suburban homes were strictly controlled by what Milgram called a "fair housing pattern," a quota system, which required 55% of buyers to be white and 45% non-white.³⁸

With the success of Concord Park, Milgram restarted the design of Greenbelt Knoll. Situated on a hilly, wooded tract surrounded on three sides by Pennypack Park and separated from nearby residential developments, it was ideally suited for the potentially controversial housing project. Milgram commissioned the prominent architectural firm of Montgomery & Bishop to design Greenbelt Knoll. Newcomb Montgomery and Robert Bishop had formed their partnership in 1952. An important Philadelphia firm, Montgomery & Bishop worked in a Modernist vocabulary, concentrated largely on residential projects, and produced designs informed by their Quaker beliefs.

Robert Bishop, who directed the design of Greenbelt Knoll, trained in the office of noted architect W. Pope Barney before attending classes at the Drexel Institute and the T-Square Club. Inspired by Frank Lloyd Wright, who lectured at the University of Pennsylvania in 1932, Bishop enrolled at Taliesin, Wright's atelier in Wisconsin, where he remained as a fellow for three years. While there, Bishop participated in the design of Broadacre City, Wright's conservative Jeffersonian proposal to safeguard American democracy with the

³⁴ See Edward Teitelman and Richard W. Longstreth, *Architecture in Philadelphia: A Guide*, (Cambridge: MIT Press, 1974), p 169. Tom Suge, "Morris Milgram's Interracial Levittowns: Civil Rights Activists and the Struggle to Integrate Postwar Suburbia," Seminar at Emory University, 8 March 2006.

³⁵ See Plot Plan 11-1 dated June 23, 1952 in the Montgomery & Bishop Collection, 060.12, Architectural Archives, University of Pennsylvania.

³⁶ The deed was recorded on November 24, 1953 in M.L.S. 1953 Book 544, page 350.

³⁷ On Concord Park see "Interracial Housing Project Opened in Lower Bucks Co.," *Evening Bulletin*, November 15, 1954, np. W. M. Dwyer, "Experiment in Housing: Concord Park," *Commonweal*, 62(August 12, 1955), p 465-466. Eunice Grier and George Grier, *Buyers of Interracial housing: A Study of the Market for Concord Park* (Philadelphia: Institute for Urban Studies, January 1957). S. B. Applebaum, "For Everybody Only," *Coronet*, 42(August 1957), pp 64-66. Matthew Blanchard, "A Vision of Suburban Racial Utopia Here," *Philadelphia Inquirer*, October 9, 2000, np.

³⁸ Balk, pp 97-98.

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substitution of rural, yet technologically sophisticated development for dense urban development. At Taliesen, Bishop melded his Quaker social philosophy with Wright's idealistic notions of nature, home, and community. Bishop returned to Philadelphia after accompanying the completed Broadacre City model to New York for exhibition in 1935. In the late 1930s and 1940s, Bishop worked for several Philadelphia architectural firms. In 1939, he helped found Bryn Gweled, a cooperative Quaker homestead community in Bucks County, Pennsylvania, where he designed houses and made his residence. In 1945, he formed a partnership with John W. Wright. In 1952, he formed a new firm with Montgomery. Bishop was prominent in Philadelphia's architectural community. He was the director of the Philadelphia Chapter of the American Institute of Architects in 1951 and 1952. He joined the faculty of the University of Pennsylvania's School of Fine Arts in 1952, where he lectured. Bishop's first-hand knowledge of Wright's theories and his talent for designing with wood in Wright's vein were important contributions to the reform of the university's dated architectural curriculum. Bishop continued to teach at the university until 1960. He retired from practice in 1972 and died in 1984.

Louis I. Kahn, one of the most important architects of the 20th century, consulted on the Greenbelt Knoll project. A left-wing, Jewish intellectual who supported the labor movement, Kahn shared Milgram's political and social beliefs. Although little is known about Kahn's role in the project, a surviving photograph depicts Kahn with Montgomery, Bishop, Otto, Milgram, and contractor William Jones. Kahn is presenting a large rendering of one of the Greenbelt Knoll houses to Otto and Milgram. The drawing held by Kahn, which is in the famous architect's unique hand, is inscribed: "This is wishing a marvelous success. Louis I. Kahn."³⁹

Bishop, with the aid of Kahn, designed a collection of 19 Modernist houses. Each is unique, but together they create a homogeneous whole. The houses are simple, Modern rectangular forms with flat roofs, but are enlivened by large expanses of glass, natural wood siding, broad shading eaves, and, most notably, sculptural diagonally-projecting brick fireplaces and entrances.

For the design of Greenbelt Knoll, Montgomery & Bishop associated with architect Harry Duncan and landscape architect Margaret Lancaster Duncan, a husband-and-wife team from Southampton, Bucks County. Harry Duncan executed the detailed design drawings and Margaret Lancaster Duncan executed the site plan and landscape design. Civil engineers Barnes & McLaughlin of Upper Darby, Pennsylvania prepared the site survey and drainage and paving plans. A portfolio of Montgomery & Bishop designs published in 1962 emphasized the importance of the relationships of the houses to the landscape.

Perhaps the most satisfying feature of the project is the arrangement of buildings to form handsome outdoor spaces between them, while at the same time achieving good orientation and family privacy for each house. The contour of the land was not disturbed and all trees except those in the roadway and within house walls were retained. This luxurious growth overhead eliminates all reflective glare from glass, and gives to the living areas an exceptional degree of openness and communion with the land.⁴⁰

A surviving architectural drawing emphasizes the importance Milgram and the designers placed upon preserving trees at the site. Dated 23 January 1956, the drawing evidences that the design for 2 Longford Street was revised with the insertion of a large notch to allow for the retention of a significant tree. At 6 Longford Street, a large, double tree grows up through an opening in the roof of the breezeway, which connects the

³⁹ The photograph is housed in the Montgomery & Bishop Collection, 060.29, Architectural Archives, University of Pennsylvania.

⁴⁰ Catalog of Montgomery & Bishop Projects, c 1962, np. Architectural Archives, University of Pennsylvania.

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house and garage. Contemporary accounts of the development also accentuate the importance of the relationship between the built and natural environments for Milgram. For example:

The site ... is completely wooded and surrounded by park on four sides, including a two-acre private park for Greenbelt home-owners. There are nineteen award-winning homes in the \$20,000 to \$45,000 range. As the builder conducts his visitors on a tour of the project, he waxes eloquent over the skill and artistry employed to exploit every rise, every slope, every tree of the beautiful site and rolling terrain for the greater glory and loveliness of each individual home. [Milgram's] "pitch" spills over with attacks on the architects and builders who level off hills and cut down trees to make building simpler—and more uniformly ugly. He extols the builders, like himself, who submit to the loveliness of nature instead of trying to obliterate it. He talks about drainage, flexibility of design, resale values.⁴¹

The houses in Greenbelt Knoll were constructed during 1955 and 1956. The house at 4 Longford Street, the model house for the development, was erected first. The Department of Licenses & Inspections issued zoning and building permits for the model house in the spring of 1955. The model house was completed by November 1955, when Montgomery & Bishop applied for and were granted the permits for the other houses and garages.⁴²

Greenbelt Knoll won several awards for design excellence. For example, the American Institute of Architects, *House and Home*, *Better Homes and Gardens*, and the National Broadcasting Corporation bestowed its Homes for Better Living award on the development. Also, Philadelphia's Mayor Richardson Dilworth, an ardent advocate of exceptional planning and design, conferred a City of Philadelphia Tribute on Montgomery & Bishop. He gave the tribute "for the design of Greenbelt Knoll Homes, which ... brought new standards of contemporary residential architecture to Philadelphia."⁴³

At Greenbelt Knoll, as at Concord Park, Milgram employed a quota system, "fair housing pattern" or "controlled occupancy," as he called it. He explained the system to a group of housing officials in 1956.

At the present time we have 130 of our houses under roof [at Concord Park]; 104 of them occupied, 55% white and 45% Negro. Getting the first 10 or 20 white sales was the most difficult. After that it became easier to secure white sales.... There was no problem securing Negro sales. We found more than an adequate number of Negro customers who have enough cash to buy the houses. The average Negro family income in the development is about \$6300 per year which is about \$200 higher than the average white family at Concord. At Greenbelt Knoll ... we went through a similar period of difficulty getting the few white sales. Now we have eleven sold. However, with the knowledge secured at Concord Park the job is easier. There the builder now

⁴¹ Harry Rosen and David Rosen, *But Not Next Door: An Account of the Deerfield Case and Integration*, (New York: Ivan Oblensky, Inc., 1962), p 35.

⁴² On May 17, 1955, Montgomery & Bishop applied to the Department of Licenses & Inspections for a zoning permit for the model house at 4 Longford Street under Application No. 97349B. The Department apparently issued the permit but no record of it has survived. On November 4, 1955, the architects applied to the department for a zoning permit for the other 18 houses under application No. 7778F. The Department issued the permit three days later. The Department issued Building Permit 4405 for the model house at 4 Longford Street in 1955. It issued Building Permit 10741 for the house at 15 Longford Street during the same year. It issued Building Permit 17042 for the houses at 1 to 3 and 6 to 10 Longford Street and Building Permit 10745 for garages at five of the houses the same year. It issued Building Permit 10743 for the houses at 11 to 19 Longford Street and Building Permit 10744 for garages at five of the houses the same year.

⁴³ See a copy of the award in the Montgomery & Bishop Collection, 060.44, Architectural Archives, University of Pennsylvania.

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lives with other families, Negro and white. (As of September 27, 1956, five families had moved in, 4 white, 1 Negro. Sales to date are 5 Negro, 6 white.). There we have only 19 houses and we have set the quota at 1/3 Negro and 2/3 white, which is the pattern we would have preferred Concord Park maintain but couldn't apply since we had made many sales to Negroes before we established controlled occupancy. ... There is no opposition from Negro customers to the quota, provided we take adequate time to explain it to them as a device for breaking down racial discrimination. ... I believe, as does William H. Hastie of the U.S. Circuit Court of Appeals, that prejudice may explain Jim Crow housing, but in the dynamics of society Negrophobia grows and flourishes as white persons are deprived of normal neighborly contact with Negroes isolated on the other side of the railroad tracks or in the obsolete and blighted city area which whites have abandoned. We must address ourselves frankly and vigorously to the great field of private housing.... Too many of us who should be in the forefront of this effort have not convinced ourselves, much less undertaken to convince others that segregated living makes for an unhealthy society. This evil will be with us undiminished until its elimination becomes a fighting faith of very many Americans.⁴⁴

At Greenbelt Knoll, Milgram explained, the "actual quota was set at one-third black and two-thirds white" to mirror Philadelphia's racial mix at the time.⁴⁵ Eventually, non-white buyers purchased eight of the nineteen houses. To maintain the racial ratios, Milgram included a clause in every sales agreement requiring that his company oversee all subsequent sales of the property. Over the intervening five decades, Greenbelt Knoll, unlike Concord Park, has maintained its racial diversity.

In addition to Milgram himself, who lived at 5 Longford Street, several prominent Philadelphians resided at Greenbelt Knoll. U.S. Representative Robert N.C. Nix, the first African American to represent Pennsylvania in the U.S. Congress, purchased 16 Longford Street in 1957 and resided there for many years. Famed civil-rights leader the Rev. Leon H. Sullivan, the "Lion of Zion," who developed the Sullivan Principles and hastened the end of apartheid in South Africa, resided at 14 Longford Street. At # 3 Longford Street lived Captain Roosevelt Barlow, a fire captain and civil rights activist who was among a small group of African-American firefighters to integrate the Philadelphia Fire Department, enduring extremely harsh treatment and fighting against entrenched institutional racism. Barlow was among the first African Americans in the department to be promoted to lieutenant and captain, and his work is known by many throughout the city, even being mentioned in the Fireman's Hall Museum in Philadelphia. He is a key figure in the story of integration in the city and came to be loved by many for his dedication and caring. Pulitzer Prize winner Charles Fuller lived at # 17 Longford. His work, *A Soldier's Play* told the story of the racially-charged search by a black captain for the murderer of a black sergeant on a Louisiana army base in 1944, as a means to discuss the position of blacks in white society. Although the play enjoyed a long run, Fuller has said it never played on Broadway because he refused to drop the last line, "You'll have to get used to Black people being in charge." It nevertheless was a critical success, winning Fuller a Pulitzer in 1982, and being produced as the 1984 film *A Soldier's Story*, for which Fuller himself wrote the screen adaptation.

After building Greenbelt Knoll, Morris Milgram continued to develop integrated residential communities. In 1958, he organized Modern Community Developers to finance and supervise the projects.⁴⁶ He assembled an honorary advisory board, which included former First Lady Eleanor Roosevelt, Episcopal Bishop James A. Pike, U.S. Senators Adlai Stevenson, Jacob Javits, and Joseph S. Clark, and African-American leaders Roy Wilkins,

⁴⁴ Milgram, "Building Private Interracial Housing," pp 3-6.

⁴⁵ Milgram, *Good Neighborhoods*, p 58.

⁴⁶ "Integrated Housing Corporation Formed," *Philadelphia Post*, August 19, 1958, np.

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James Farmer, A. Philip Randolph, and the Rev. Martin Luther King, and baseball legend Jackie Robinson.⁴⁷

In the late 1950s and early 1960s, Milgram and Modern Community Developers were thrust into the headlines nationwide when Milgram attempted to build two interracial residential developments in the Chicago suburb of Deerfield, Illinois. Recounted in a best-selling book by Harry and David Rosen entitled *But Not Next Door*, the Deerfield Case, as it became known, revealed that racism and segregation were not limited to the South, but were nationwide phenomena. In 1957, Milgram purchased two tracts of land in the all-white suburb of Deerfield through Progress Development Corporation, a subsidiary of Modern Community Developers. He planned two subdivisions, Floral Park and Pear Tree, but did not inform the local government or community that they would be integrated. With the requisite building and zoning permits, he subdivided the land and began to build two model homes. After Milgram revealed that the subdivisions would be integrated, the town quickly became polarized; a majority opposed the developments, but a large and vocal minority supported them. Town officials drummed up several bogus building code violations to halt the construction. After a long series of contentious public meetings and a referendum, which were covered by the Chicago and national print, radio, and television media, the town seized the land by eminent domain for parkland. Milgram, who was represented by Adlai Stevenson's law firm, sued, claiming that members of the Deerfield Park Board and a residents' association had conspired to violate his civil rights while seeking to block the developments. Both sides saw victories and suffered setbacks in the courts, but in 1961 the United States Court of Appeals found in favor of the Park Board. Milgram petitioned newly-elected President John F. Kennedy and Attorney General Robert F. Kennedy to back his appeal to the United States Supreme Court, but the Kennedy brothers declined to support it. A last-minute petition on behalf of Milgram by Roy Wilkins of the NAACP, A. Philip Randolph and James Farmer of the Congress of Racial Equality, and Whitney Young of the Urban League failed to move the Kennedy brothers. Eventually, the court refused to hear the case. The Park Board retained the land slated for the integrated developments and Milgram moved on to more accepting locales. However, Milgram's efforts at Deerfield educated Americans on prevalence of bias and segregation in the North, forever changing the course of the open-housing movement in the United States.⁴⁸

Milgram enjoyed a long and illustrious career after Deerfield. In 1962, President John F. Kennedy asked Milgram, through Angier Biddle Duke, his chief of protocol, to buy white apartment communities in Washington, DC, and integrate them to ensure that nonwhite diplomats were properly housed. Milgram accepted the task and bought three communities with a total of 633 units in the Washington area and integrated them without incident. He also created the Mutual Real Estate Investment Trust, which managed open housing throughout the country, providing shelter thousands of people.⁴⁹ In 1975, Milgram and civil-rights leader James Farmer founded Fund for an OPEN Society, which endures as the nation's only nonprofit promoting inclusive communities.⁵⁰ At first, OPEN provided below-market-rate mortgages to people moving to neighborhoods where their race was under-represented. More recently, OPEN has focused its efforts on working with communities seeking to become diverse and inclusive. He wrote dozens of articles and, in

⁴⁷ Balk, p 98.

⁴⁸ On the Deerfield case, see "Suburbia: High Cost of Democracy," *Time*, 74, #23 (December 7, 1959), p 23. "Races: Caws in the Wind," *Time*, 75, #1(January 4, 1960), p 19. Robert A. Lowe, "Bias 30 Miles from the Loop," *Saturday Review*, 45, #27(July 14, 1962), p 29. James A. Weschler, "Not Next Door," *New York Post*, April 18, 1 1963, p 23. "The Supreme Court: Device for Division," *Time*, 81, #17(April 26, 1963), p 24. "A Suburb Fights Biracial Housing," *New York Times*, November 29, 1959, p 54.

⁴⁹ Eugene R. Eisman, "Building with a Plan, and a Conscience," *Sunday Bulletin Magazine*, June 29, 1969, pp 4-6.

⁵⁰ Raymond A. Berens, "Milgram's Continuing Battle," *Evening Bulletin*, May 29, 1977, np.

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1977, published *Good Neighborhood: The Challenge of Open Housing*. Milgram received numerous awards for his groundbreaking work. In 1956, the National Committee Against Discrimination in Housing awarded Milgram the Walter White Award for Distinguished Service in Housing.⁵¹ In 1968, he was awarded the first National Human Rights Award by the Department of Housing & Urban Development. And he was awarded the Clarence Farmer Service Award by the Philadelphia Commission on Human Relations in 1990. Morris Milgram died in Langhorne, Pennsylvania on 22 June 1997. He was 81 years of age.⁵²

⁵¹ "Philadelphia Builder Gets Walter White Prize," *Evening Bulletin*, October 13, 1956, np.

⁵² Lawrence A. Van Gelder, "Morris Milgram, 81, Who Built Interracial Housing," *New York Times*, June 26, 1977, np.

Greenbelt Knoll Historic District

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Greenbelt Knoll Historic District

Philadelphia County, PA

Name of Property

County and State

Previous documentation on file (NPS):

- preliminary determination of individual listing (36 CFR 67 has been requested)
- previously listed in the National Register
- previously determined eligible by the National Register
- designated a National Historic Landmark
- recorded by Historic American Buildings Survey # _____
- recorded by Historic American Engineering Record # _____
- recorded by Historic American Landscape Survey # _____

Primary location of additional data:

- State Historic Preservation Office
- Other State agency
- Federal agency
- Local government
- University
- Other

Repository: **Architectural Archives, Univ of Pennsylvania**

Historic Resources Survey Number (if assigned): NA

10. Geographical Data

Acreage of Property Approx 9 acres
(Do not include previously listed resource acreage.)

UTM References

(Place additional UTM references on a continuation sheet.)

1	<u>18</u>	<u>498149</u>	<u>4433884</u>	3	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	<u> </u>
	Zone	Easting	Northing		Zone	Easting	Northing
2	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	4	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	<u> </u>
	Zone	Easting	Northing		Zone	Easting	Northing

Verbal Boundary Description (Describe the boundaries of the property.)

The Greenbelt Knoll Historic District boundary includes the 19 building lots lining Longford Street plus the 2-acre private community park land as shown on Figure 1, Site Plan map.

Boundary Justification (Explain why the boundaries were selected.)

The boundary includes the entire planned community of Greenbelt Knoll, as originally designed and based on the 1956 final plan. No properties formerly associated with the community have been excluded, nor new land or adjacent property included. The 2-acre Greenbelt Knoll neighborhood park, now part of the Fairmount Park Commission's Pennypack Park Greenway, is included within the boundary due to historic association with the community.

11. Form Prepared By

name/title Charles Fuller and Art Friedman, Greenbelt Knoll residents; PHMC-BHP staff

organization PHMC date August 4, 2010

street & number 400 North Street telephone 717-783-8947

city or town Harrisburg, PA 17104 state PA zip code 17120

e-mail calee@state.pa.us

Additional Documentation

Submit the following items with the completed form:

- **Maps:** A **USGS map** (7.5 or 15 minute series) indicating the property's location.
- A **Sketch map** for historic districts and properties having large acreage or numerous resources. Key all photographs to this map.
- **Continuation Sheets**
- **Additional items:** (Check with the SHPO or FPO for any additional items.)

Greenbelt Knoll Historic District

Philadelphia County, PA

Name of Property

County and State

Photographs:

Submit clear and descriptive photographs. The size of each image must be 1600x1200 pixels at 300 ppi (pixels per inch) or larger. Key all photographs to the sketch map.

Name of Property: Greenbelt Knoll Historic District
 City or Vicinity: Philadelphia
 County: Philadelphia State: PA
 Photographer: April Frantz (with the exception of Photo#4, see note in description)
 Date Photographed: December 17, 2009
 Paper & Inks: Printed on Epson Stylus R800 using Epson Premium Glossy Photo Paper with Epson Inks

#	Description	Facing
1	1 Longford St; rear of house; note projecting fireplace	SE
2	2 Longford St; note brick knee-wall at entry	SW
3	3 Longford St	W
4	3 Longford St; detail view of rear deck with opening cut in floor for tree; photo taken from real estate website accessed 1/21/2010: www.realtor.com/reaalestateandhomes-detail/3-Longford-St_Philadelphia_PA_19136_1115281871	NE
5	4 Longford St; note projecting fireplace	NW
6	5 Longford St	SW
7	6 Longford St	NW
8	6 Longford St; detail view showing breezeway connecting house to carport, featuring opening in breezeway roof for trees; note also projecting fireplace	NW
9	7 Longford St; showing narrow drive to lot behind 6 Longford	W
10	7 Longford St	W
11	8 Longford St	SW
12	9 Longford St; entrance to 10 Longford in foreground	W
13	10 Longford St; note raised railroad bed behind house	SW
14	11 Longford St	S
15	13 Longford St	NE
16	14 Longford St, showing 15 Longford in rear	NE
17	15 Longford St; note brick half-wall at entry	NE
18	16 Longford St; main living area was enlarged with a recent addition with a higher roofline, but pitch & materials complement, and overall effect remain intact	N
19	18 Longford St; note projecting fireplace	NE
20	19 Longford St	SW
21	19 Longford St	SE

Property Owner:

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

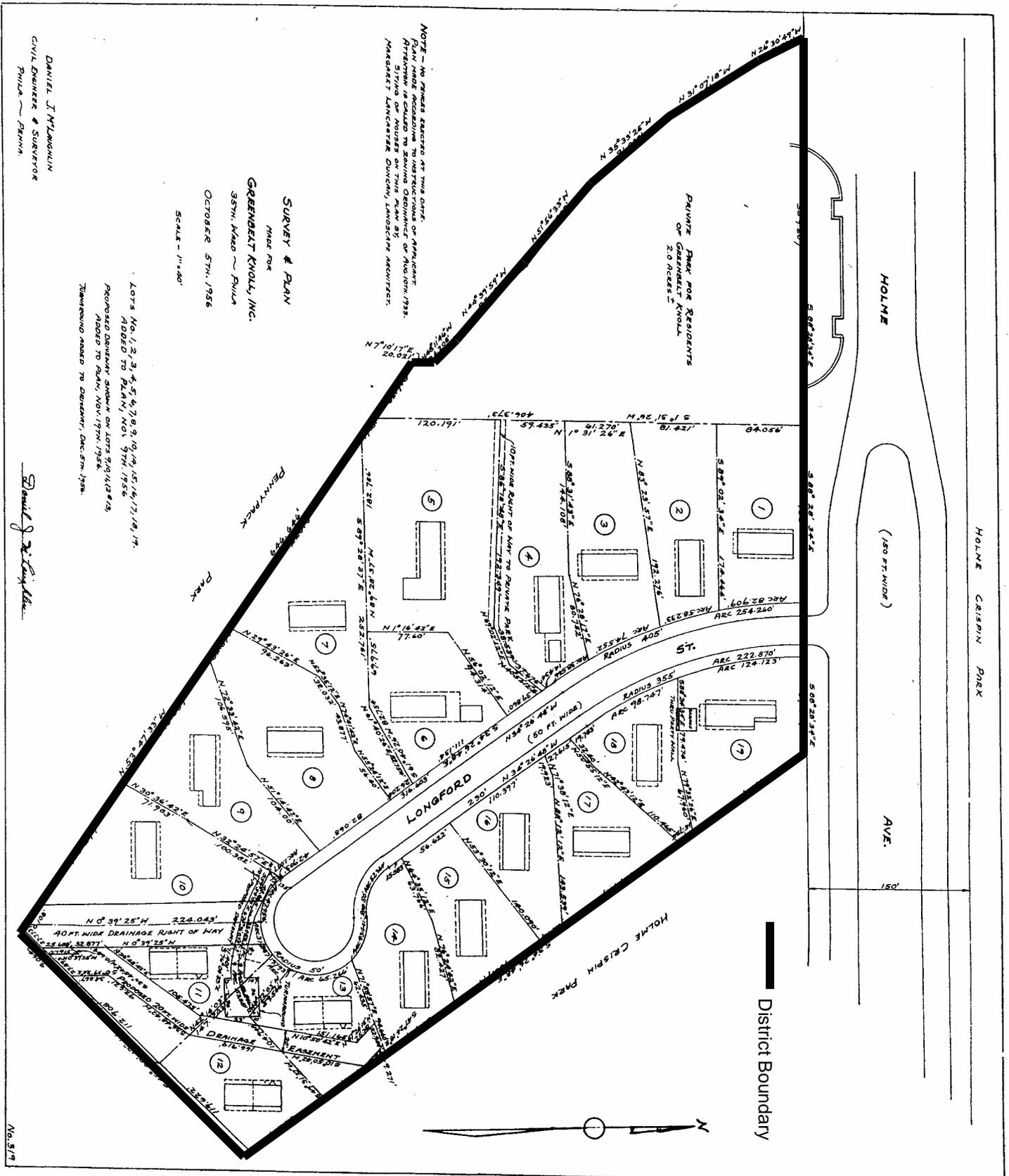
name _____
 street & number _____ telephone _____
 city or town _____ state _____ zip code _____

Paperwork Reduction Act Statement: This information is being collected for applications to the National Register of Historic Places to nominate properties for listing or determine eligibility for listing, to list properties, and to amend existing listings. Response to this request is required to obtain a benefit in accordance with the National Historic Preservation Act, as amended (16 U.S.C.460 et seq.).

Estimated Burden Statement: Public reporting burden for this form is estimated to average 18 hours per response including time for reviewing instructions, gathering and maintaining data, and completing and reviewing the form. Direct comments regarding this burden estimate or any aspect of this form to the Office of Planning and Performance Management, U.S. Dept. of the Interior, 1849 C. Street, NW, Washington, DC.

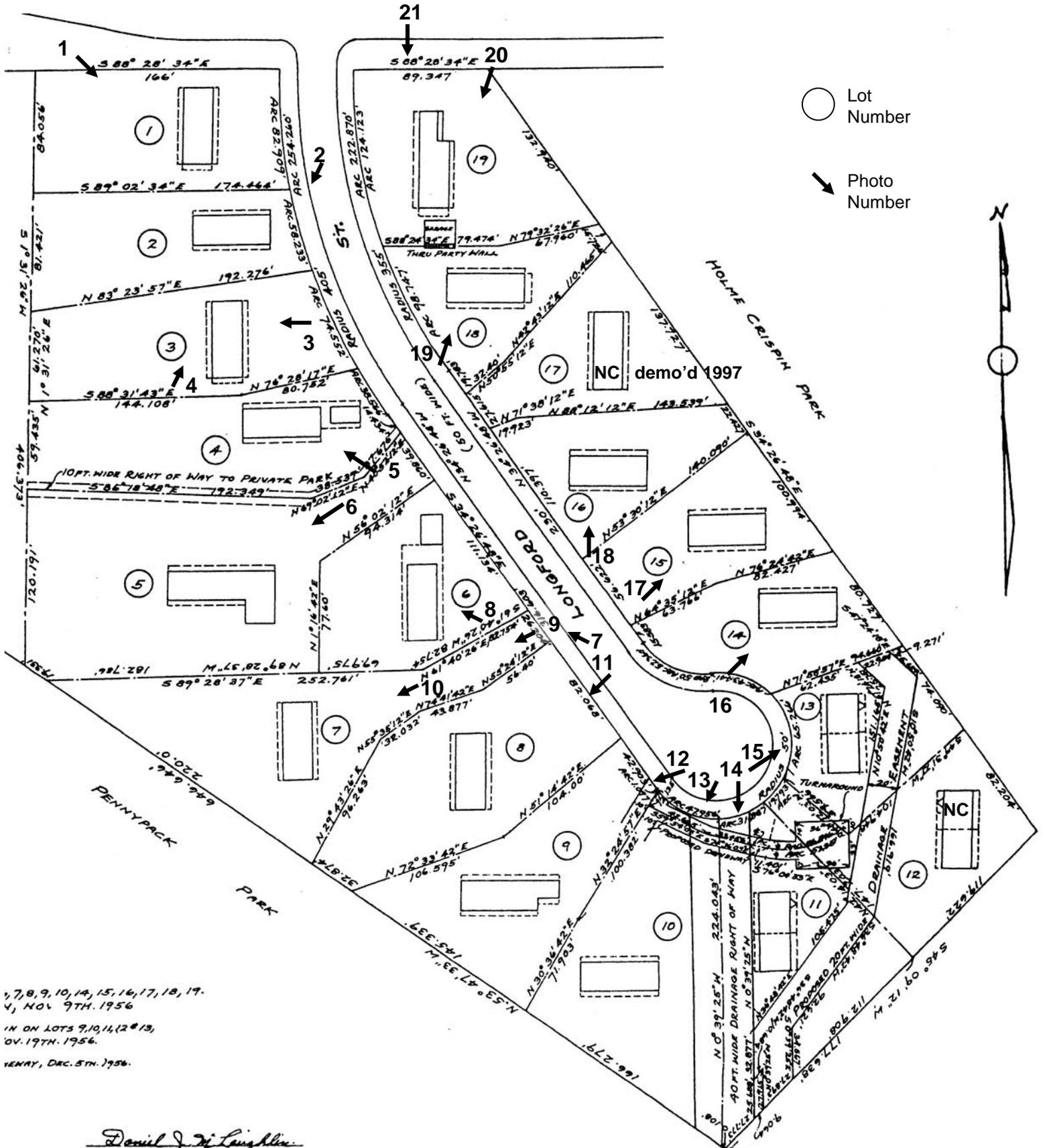
Greenbelt Knoll Historic District Philadelphia County, PA

Figure 1 Site Map



Greenbelt Knoll Historic District
Philadelphia County, PA

Figure 2
Photo Key



1, 7, 8, 9, 10, 14, 15, 16, 17, 18, 19.
4, NOV 9TH. 1956
IN ON LOTS 9, 10, 11, 12 & 13,
OV. 19TH. 1956.
PENNY, DEC. 5TH. 1956.

Donal J. McLaughlin

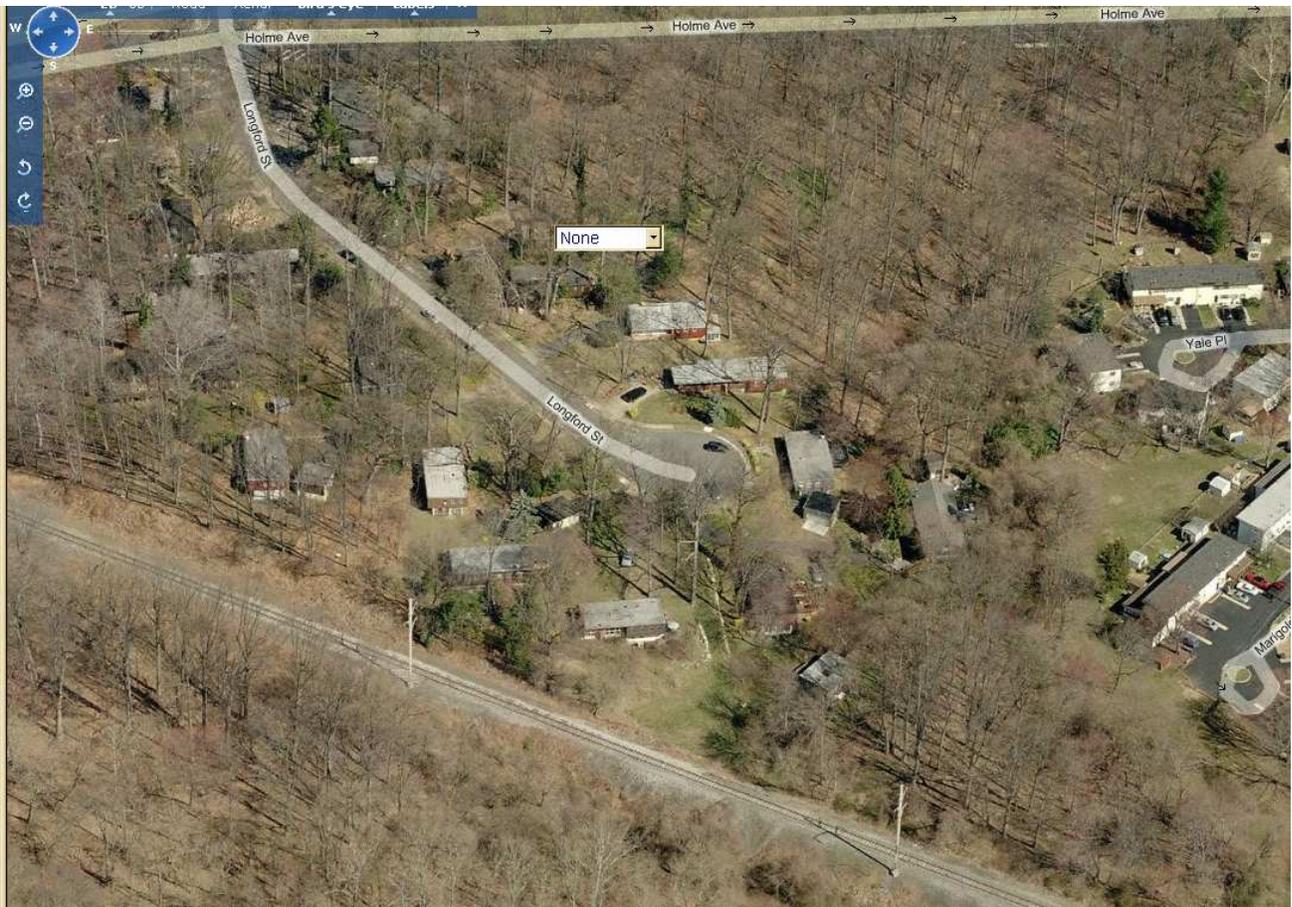


Figure 3: Current Aerial Views; above, showing the area surrounding Longford Street (Greenbelt Knoll circled); below, a detailed view of Longford Street. Both views from www.pennpilot.psu.edu accessed 7/26/2010.

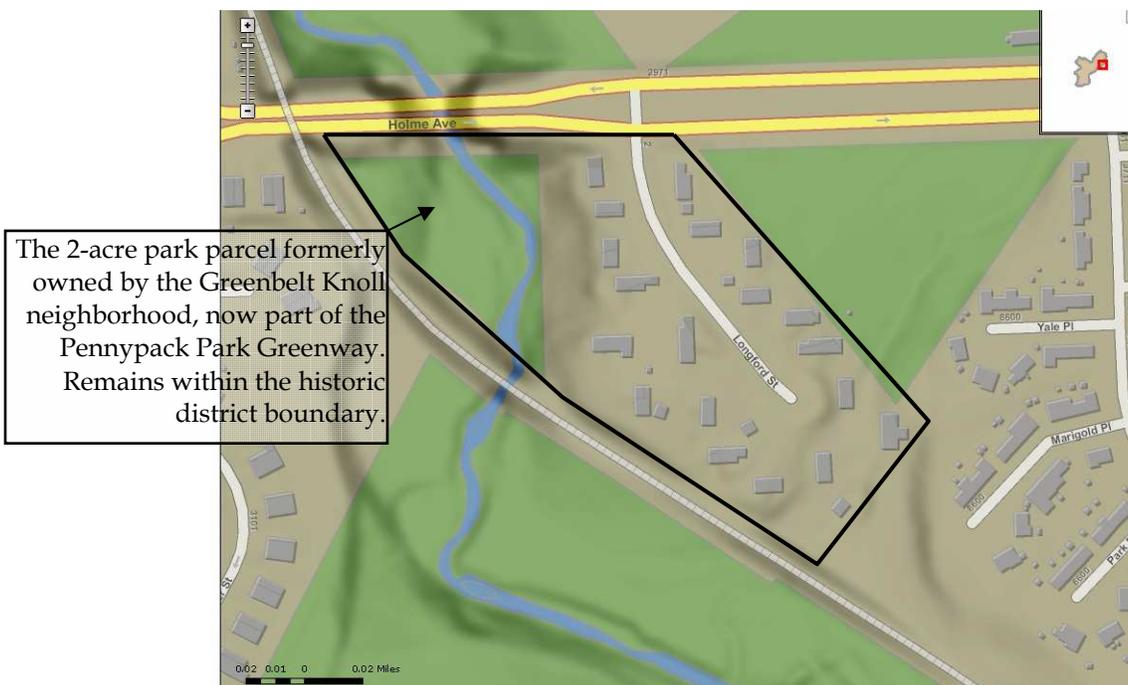
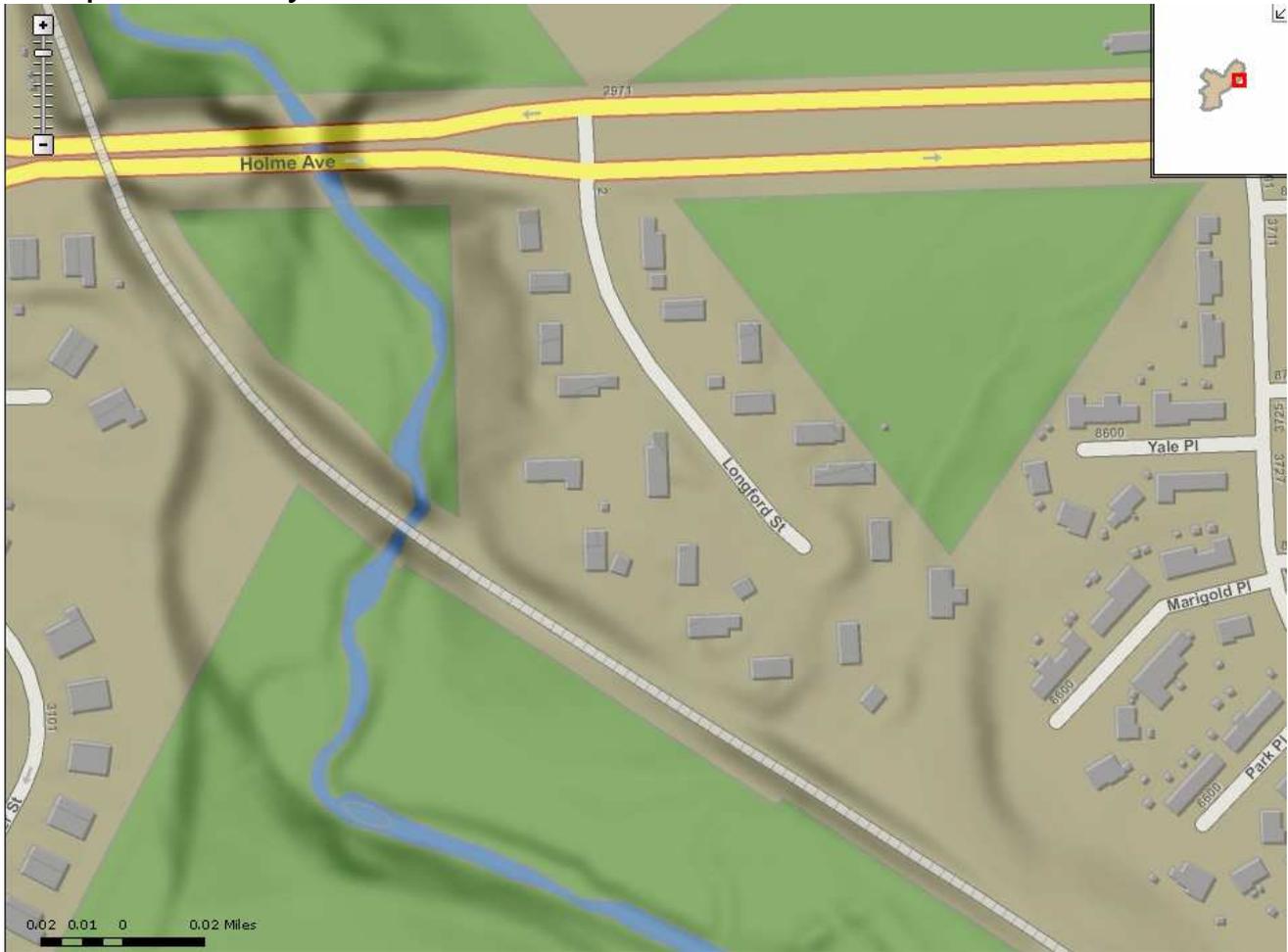
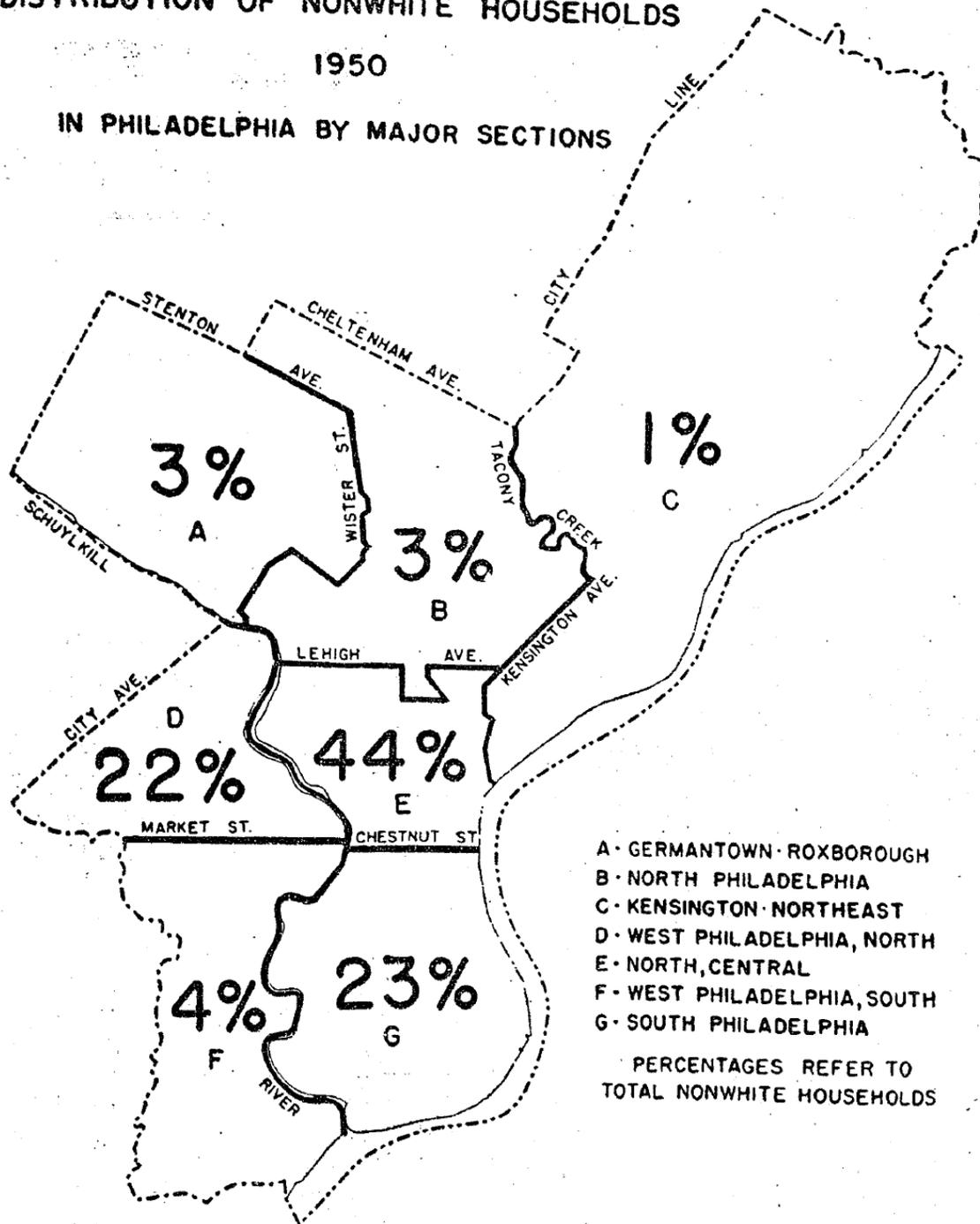


Figure 4 Above: Map from the Fairmount Park Commission's website, showing the 2-acre parcel formerly owned communally by the Greenbelt Knoll neighborhood now integrated into the Pennypack Park Greenway, shown in green. A small branch of the Pennypack Creek passes through the parcel, and a rail freight spur is adjacent. Map below shows same map with an *approximation* of the historic district boundary applied for reference. Website accessed August 8, 2010: <http://www.fairmountpark.org>.

**DISTRIBUTION OF NONWHITE HOUSEHOLDS
1950
IN PHILADELPHIA BY MAJOR SECTIONS**



A · GERMANTOWN · ROXBOROUGH
 B · NORTH PHILADELPHIA
 C · KENSINGTON · NORTHEAST
 D · WEST PHILADELPHIA, NORTH
 E · NORTH, CENTRAL
 F · WEST PHILADELPHIA, SOUTH
 G · SOUTH PHILADELPHIA

PERCENTAGES REFER TO
TOTAL NONWHITE HOUSEHOLDS

SOURCE: U. S. CENSUS

The above outlined map of the City of Philadelphia showing distribution of non-white households is based on U. S. Census of 1950. In viewing this map of the City of Philadelphia, it must be understood that the distribution of Negro population over the City of Philadelphia has greatly increased.

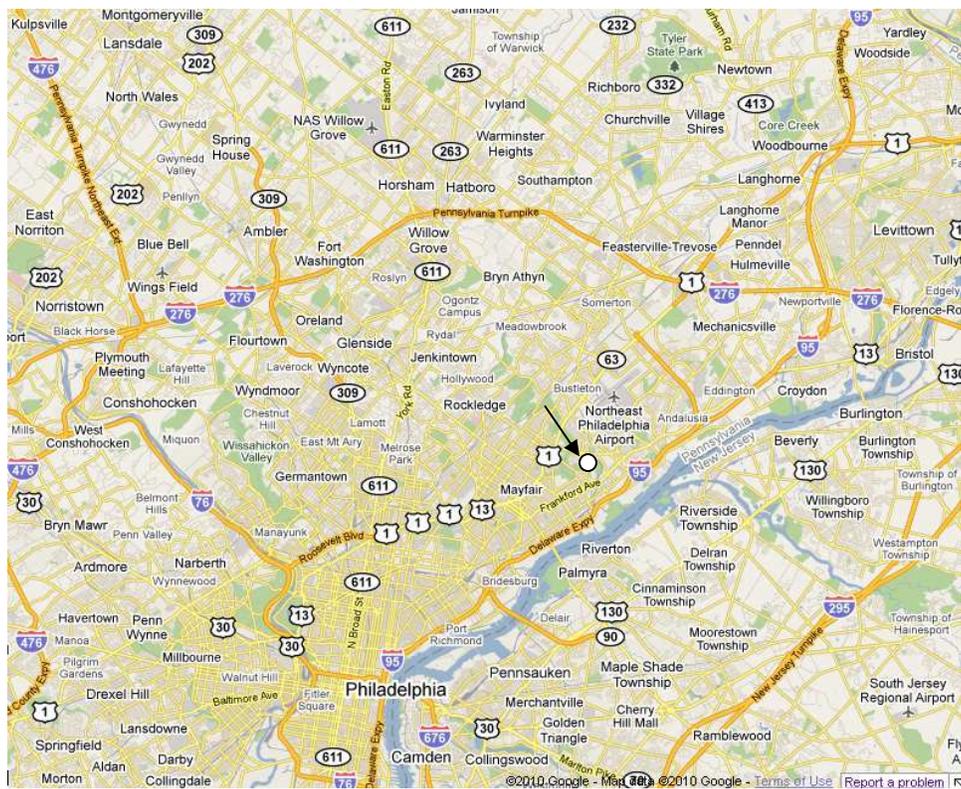
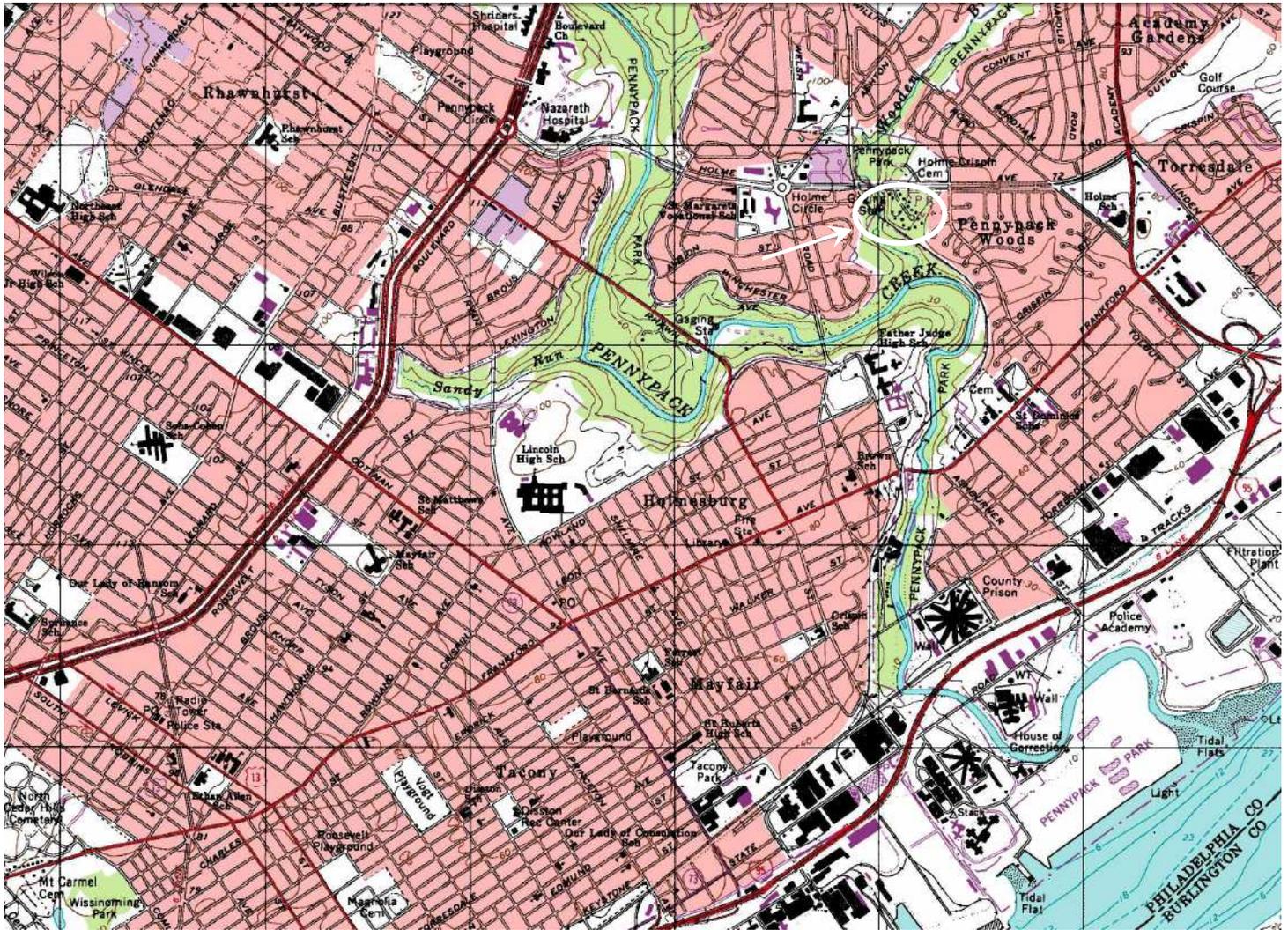
For example, in the (a) Germantown-Roxborough area, the estimated non-white population is at least now 7%. In the (c) Kensington-Northeast area it is now at

least 4%. In the (f) West Philadelphia, South, it is now 10%. It should be noted that while Negroes are buying more homes in Philadelphia than any other group, the home marketing practices are still highly discriminatory, insofar as Negroes are concerned, due to the fact that practically no new privately-built housing was made available for Negro occupancy in recent years. This continues to be true despite the great growth of Negro home ownership and the increase in the average Negro income.

Figure 5 Philadelphia Household Distribution based on 1950 Census data, from Philadelphia Tribune, April 26, 1955.

Greenbelt Knoll Historic District Philadelphia, PA

USGS map
(district area circled)



**Greenbelt Knoll Historic District
Philadelphia County, PA**

Inventory

#	Address	Resource Type	Style	Description	Architect	Status
1	1 Longford St	building—house	Modern	1956 one-story detached; flat roof with broad eaves; vertical wood siding; protruding two-story concrete block fireplace with metal chimney; banks of fixed and casement windows; contrasting brick panels on exterior siding line path to entry	Montgomery & Bishop firm with Harry Duncan; landscape arch. Margaret Lancaster Duncan	C
2	2 Longford St	building—house	Modern	1956 one-story detached; flat roof with broad eaves; vertical wood siding; protruding brick fireplace with metal chimney; banks of fixed and casement windows; contrasting wood panels on exterior siding line path to entry; angled brick half-wall at entry	Montgomery & Bishop firm with Harry Duncan; landscape arch. Margaret Lancaster Duncan	C
3	3 Longford St	building—house	Modern	1956 one-story detached; flat roof with broad eaves; vertical wood siding; rear deck has opening to accommodate tree, part of original design; protruding brick fireplace with metal chimney; banks of fixed & casement windows; contrasting wood panels on exterior siding line path to entry	Montgomery & Bishop firm with Harry Duncan; landscape arch. Margaret Lancaster Duncan	C
4	4 Longford St	building—house	Modern	1955 one-story detached; flat roof with broad eaves; vertical wood siding; protruding brick fireplace with metal chimney; banks of fixed and casement windows; contrasting ceramic tile panels on exterior siding line path to entry; first-built model home	Montgomery & Bishop firm with Harry Duncan; landscape arch. Margaret Lancaster Duncan	C
5	5 Longford St	building—house	Modern	1956 one-story detached; flat roof with broad eaves; vertical wood siding; protruding brick fireplace with metal chimney; banks of fixed and casement windows; contrasting wood panels on exterior siding line path to entry	Montgomery & Bishop firm with Harry Duncan; landscape arch. Margaret Lancaster Duncan	C
6	6 Longford St	building—house	Modern	1956 one-story detached; flat roof with broad eaves; vertical wood siding; carport integrated into design of house, connected by breezeway; opening for trees cut into breezeway roof part of original design; protruding brick fireplace with metal chimney; banks of fixed and casement windows	Montgomery & Bishop firm with Harry Duncan; landscape arch. Margaret Lancaster Duncan	C
7	7 Longford St	building—house	Modern	1956 one-story detached; flat roof with broad eaves; vertical wood siding; protruding brick fireplace with metal chimney; banks of fixed and casement windows; contrasting wood panels on exterior siding line path to entry	Montgomery & Bishop firm with Harry Duncan; landscape arch. Margaret Lancaster Duncan	C
		building—garage	NA	c.1957 detached garage—frame, shed roof	NA	C
8	8 Longford St	building—house	Modern	1956 one-story detached; flat roof with broad eaves; vertical wood siding; protruding brick fireplace with metal chimney; banks of fixed & casement windows; contrasting wood panels on exterior siding line path to entry	Montgomery & Bishop firm with Harry Duncan; landscape arch. Margaret Lancaster Duncan	C
9	9 Longford St	building—house	Modern	1956 one-story detached; flat roof with broad eaves; vertical wood siding; protruding brick fireplace with metal chimney; banks of fixed and casement windows; contrasting wood panels on exterior siding line path to entry	Montgomery & Bishop firm with Harry Duncan; landscape arch. Margaret Lancaster Duncan	C
		building—garage	NA	c.1957 detached garage—frame, shed roof	NA	C
10	10 Longford St	building—house	Modern	1956 one-story detached; flat roof with broad eaves; vertical wood siding; protruding brick fireplace with metal chimney; banks of fixed and	Montgomery & Bishop firm with Harry Duncan;	C

Contributing = C
Non-contributing = NC

**Greenbelt Knoll Historic District
Philadelphia County, PA**

Inventory

				casement windows; contrasting wood panels on exterior siding line path to entry	landscape arch. Margaret Lancaster Duncan	
11	11 Longford St	building—house	Modern	1956 one-story detached; flat roof with broad eaves; vertical wood siding; protruding brick fireplace with metal chimney; banks of fixed & casement windows; contrasting wood panels on exterior siding line path to entry	Montgomery & Bishop firm with Harry Duncan; landscape arch. Margaret Lancaster Duncan	C
		building—studio	NA	small frame building used as artist studio	NA	NC
12	12 Longford St	building—house	NA	original house rebuilt following c.1980 fire	NA	NC
13	13 Longford St	building—house	Modern	1956 one-story detached; flat roof with broad eaves; vertical wood siding; banks of fixed and casement windows, some replaced with double-hung; contrasting wood panels on exterior siding line path to entry	Montgomery & Bishop firm with Harry Duncan; landscape arch. Margaret Lancaster Duncan	C
		building—garage	NA	c. 1957 detached garage—frame, shed roof	NA	C
14	14 Longford St	building—house	Modern	1956 one-story detached, flat roof with broad eaves, vertical wood siding, protruding brick fireplace with metal chimney, banks of fixed and casement windows, some replaced with double-hung windows	Montgomery & Bishop firm with Harry Duncan; landscape arch. Margaret Lancaster Duncan	C
15	15 Longford St	building—house	Modern	1956 one-story detached; flat roof with broad eaves; vertical wood siding; protruding brick fireplace with metal chimney; banks of fixed and casement windows; brick half-wall at entry; contrasting wood panels on exterior siding line path to entry	Montgomery & Bishop firm with Harry Duncan; landscape arch. Margaret Lancaster Duncan	C
16	16 Longford St	building—house	Modern	1956 one-story detached, flat roof with broad eaves, vertical wood siding, recent addition on south side has low-pitch roof, wall of windows	Montgomery & Bishop firm with Harry Duncan; landscape arch. Margaret Lancaster Duncan	C
		building—garage	NA	c.1957 detached garage—frame, shed roof		C
17	17 Longford St	site—vacant	NA	original house demolished 1997, now passive wooded open space, privately owned	NA	NC
18	18 Longford St	building—house	Modern	1956 one-story detached, flat roof with broad eaves, vertical wood siding, protruding brick fireplace with metal chimney, banks of fixed and casement windows	Montgomery & Bishop firm with Harry Duncan; landscape arch. Margaret Lancaster Duncan	C
19	19 Longford St	building—house	Modern	1956 one-story detached; flat roof with broad eaves; vertical wood siding; protruding brick fireplace with metal chimney; banks of fixed and casement windows; contrasting ceramic tile panels line path to entry on east side, contrasting board panels on west side	Montgomery & Bishop firm with Harry Duncan; landscape arch. Margaret Lancaster Duncan	C
		building—garage	NA	c.1956 detached garage—frame, shed roof	NA	C
20	NA	site—park	NA	2-acre parcel designated as park during original design of community, remains wooded open space, swimming pool removed c.1985; now part of Fairmount Park Commission's Pennypack Park Greenway	NA	C
	Total Resource Types:	24 buildings 2 sites			Total Resource Status:	23C; 3NC

Contributing = C
Non-contributing = NC



Photo 1:
1 Longford Street, facing SE
Rear of house, note projecting
fireplace.



Photo 2:
2 Longford Street, facing SW



Photo 3:
3 Longford Street, facing W



Photo 4:
3 Longford Street, facing SE
Rear deck showing opening cut for tree; photo taken from real estate listing website on January 21, 2010 (http://www.realtor.com/realestateandhomes-detail/3-Longford-St_Philadelphia_PA_19136_1115281871)



Photo 5:
4 Longford Street, facing NW



Photo 6:
5 Longford Street, facing SW



Photo 7:
6 Longford Street, facing NW

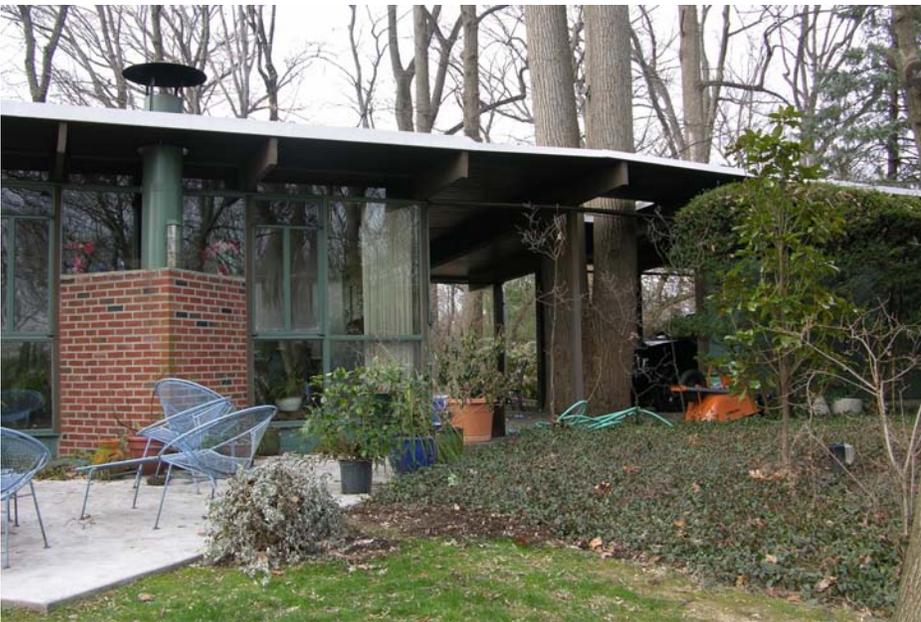


Photo 8:
6 Longford Street, facing NW
Detail showing breezeway
connecting house to carport; note
opening cut into breezeway roof for
trees and typical projecting
fireplace.



Photo 9:
7 Longford Street, facing W
Showing narrow entrance to
building lot behind 6 Longford.



Photo 10:
7 Longford Street, facing W



Photo 11:
8 Longford Street, facing SW



Photo 12:
9 Longford Street, facing W
Entrance to 10 Longford in
foreground.



Photo 13:
10 Longford Street, facing SW
Note rail bed behind house



Photo 14:
11 Longford Street, facing S



Photo 15:
13 Longford Street, facing NE



Photo 16:
14 Longford Street, facing NE



Photo 17:
15 Longford Street, facing NE



Photo 18:
16 Longford Street, facing N
The main living section of the house was enlarged; the addition has a higher roof, but the remainder of the plan is intact.



Photo 19:
18 Longford Street, facing NE
Note typical projecting fireplace.



Photo 20:
19 Longford Street, facing SW



Photo 21:
19 Longford Street, facing SE