INTRODUCTION

The housing and economic crises of the past five years have had deep and far-reaching consequences for America’s communities. Consequently, municipalities across the country face a growing incidence of vacant and abandoned properties. There is extensive debate on what drives a community’s “life-cycle,” from periods of decline and deterioration to renaissance and rejuvenation. However, a much greater consensus exists as to the harms vacant and abandoned properties inflict. As potential fire hazards and sites for drug trafficking, vacant and abandoned properties signal to society that a neighborhood is on the decline, undermining the sense of community and discouraging any further investments. These disinvestments often spread across neighborhoods and affect the overall health of a municipality.

Throughout most of the United States, residential mortgage foreclosures have risen to levels not experienced in 75 years, while some communities simultaneously experienced declines in property values of 25% or more. With an overwhelming concentration of foreclosures in particular neighborhoods, the number of vacant and abandoned properties has reached record levels as well. But perhaps nothing better underscores the real estate market’s inability to function.
efficiently than the governmental restructuring of the two largest guarantors of residential mortgages, Fannie Mae and Freddie Mac, and the largest insurance company, AIG.

Most local governments lack efficient and effective tools for dealing with increasing numbers of vacant and abandoned properties.

Together, the ongoing national mortgage crisis and the steady economic decline of older, industrial areas have created increasing numbers of vacant and abandoned properties that are placing ever greater stress on communities across the country. The sudden collapse of the mortgage markets and the drastic increase in foreclosure rates may be most intense in Southern and Southwestern regions, while the gradual economic decline and property abandonment may be more characteristic of the “Legacy” cities in the Northeastern and Midwestern parts of the country. Despite their differences, the neighborhoods, schools, and local governments of all metropolitan areas bear the costs induced by these large inventories of foreclosed, vacant, and abandoned properties.

Further complicating recovery, most local governments lack efficient and effective tools for halting and reversing such a serious consequence. First, this article describes the problems associated with vacant, abandoned, and foreclosed properties facing many communities across the country. Second, this article outlines various legal strategies and tools that communities can utilize to help return these inventories to productive use. Ultimately, the concepts discussed in this article can help communities turn vacant spaces into vibrant places.

I. Understanding the Problem

Our country’s communities face a growing inventory of vacant, abandoned, tax-delinquent, and foreclosed properties. These properties create problems and impose costs on both the municipality and its residents, such as higher annual maintenance costs, reduced property values, and increased property tax delinquencies resulting in declining revenue for local governments.6

While both pose significant problems, vacancy and abandonment are not synonymous. Vacancy can be defined as property that is unoccupied. It is more common in commercial areas, and oftentimes a
property is vacant simply because a property owner is holding on to it as a long-term investment. Abandonment, on the other hand, is a far stronger concept. An abandoned property suggests that the owner has ceased to invest any resources in the property, is forgoing all routine maintenance, and is making no further payments on related financial obligations such as mortgages or property taxes. Though the property has been abandoned by the owner, tenants may still occupy it, or squatters may live there without permission.

Those properties that are vacant and abandoned are often tax-delinquent as well. In fact, property tax delinquency is the most significant common denominator among vacant and abandoned properties. In addition to negatively affecting the health of a neighborhood, an increase in tax-delinquent properties typically leads to a reduction in a local government’s revenue. While some property owners may fail to pay property taxes due to a lack of financial resources, others choose to “milk” the equity from the property and then abandon it. The lengthy periods of time required by antiquated property tax foreclosure systems only encourage a property owner’s decision to neglect further investments. In the vast majority of cases, a continuous failure to pay property taxes signals the intent of the owner to abandon the property.

Municipalities often struggle with how to respond to the rise of vacant and abandoned properties, dwindling property tax revenues, and foreclosures forcing families out of their homes. In general, the legal and political cultures in America are not well equipped to deal with vacant, abandoned, and substandard properties. Even the advent of zoning and building codes during the past 80 years is not a complete solution. The regulatory framework has two dominant characteristics. First, it is overwhelmingly prospective and anticipatory in nature. Second, it is largely locally driven, with wide divergence among and within the states in both form and in substance. Consequently, communities are left without a mechanism for addressing these problems.

Mortgage foreclosures alone, independent of subsequent abandonment, have been found to reduce property values within one-eighth of a mile of the foreclosure by 0.9 percent in value.

Properties in mortgage foreclosure present yet another challenge to communities, providing an additional reason to leave a property vacant or abandoned. When a property is in foreclosure, the party responsible for maintaining it is often unknown, unaware, or unwilling to expend the time or effort to do so. Frequently, the culprit is not the homeowner, but the lender who becomes the owner through a foreclosure. Consequently, with the drastic rise of foreclosures, the correlation between a community’s rate of foreclosure and its inventory of vacant or abandoned properties has increased as well. Mortgage foreclosures alone, independent of subsequent abandonment, have been found to reduce property values within one-eighth of a mile of the foreclosure by 0.9 percent in value. Multiple foreclosures had even greater cumulative adverse effects.

Thus far, legal and political cultures have been strikingly unwilling to acknowledge, much less address, the impact of vacant, abandoned, and substandard properties. In most jurisdictions, practitioners and politicians alike accept the proposition that advance planning and minimum standards benefit both individuals and the community. However, they have been incredibly reluctant to acknowledge the damages and dangers caused by the functional abandonment of real property.

While some argue that this is consistent with a general aversion to collective control over property usage, a more pernicious premise of the human condition seems to drive much of this attitude. American culture, at least thus far, views real property as a disposable asset—a consumable item. It is only valued as long as it is “useful,” and then it is disposed of. The catch, of course, is that land is not a disposable item. It is not something to be consumed and then discarded. Land, by definition, is a fixed commodity, permanently existing in a community and possessing an inherent relationship with its surroundings. Vacant, abandoned, and substandard properties impose costs on neighbors, on communities, on local governments, and on society.

A reformation of the cultural false premise that land is a disposable item cannot be accomplished by the legal system alone. However, reforms in the legal and regulatory systems can add legal significance to the meaning
of being a responsible property owner by eliminating the incentives that encourage abandonment and creating disincentives for abandoning property. The next section describes the legal tools that a municipality can utilize in its strategy addressing vacant, abandoned, tax-delinquent, and foreclosed properties.

II. Legal Strategies and Tools

In any community where there is a significant amount of vacant and abandoned inventory, the initial task is to evaluate the properties and identify the dominant characteristics of that inventory. In some jurisdictions, the dominant characteristic of abandoned property is the prevalence of multiple years of tax delinquency. In others, it is the absence of housing and building codes or general nuisance abatement ordinances, and in those communities with adequate ordinances, it may be the lack of a strong enforcement mechanism. In yet other communities, the dominant characteristic may be the nature of the mortgage foreclosure process with incentives for inaction rather than property preservation.

General economic decline within a community—with accompanying joblessness, population loss, and disinvestment—may well explain a rise in vacant and abandoned property inventories. It rarely, however, serves as an adequate justification for legal systems that encourage abandonment, and it never justifies having high rates of abandonment in concentrated neighborhoods in an otherwise stable community.

Regardless of differences between inventories, all legal strategies dealing with vacant, abandoned, and substandard properties have three key features. The first is the ability to identify at all times the legal owner(s) of the property. The second is to impose legal liability for the financial costs of abandonment. The third is to be able to force a transfer of ownership and control if the problems are not resolved. With these common features in mind, the following subsections highlight multiple areas for legal reform. These areas include: property tax foreclosure; code enforcement; receivership actions; vacant property registration; and land banks and land banking.

A. Property Tax Foreclosure Reform

As stated previously, properties that are vacant and abandoned are often tax-delinquent as well. Unfortunately, antiquated property tax systems prevent the real estate market from reaching these properties. At present, there are over 150 different systems in the United States for collecting the property tax. Most states have at least two entirely different approaches for enforcing payment of the property tax. Other states leave the enforcement of the property tax to local governments, with little consistency in procedures across jurisdictions.

One of the few generalizations that can be made about property tax enforcement proceedings in the United States is that they are largely inefficient and ineffective.

Complexity, rather than clarity and simplicity, characterizes property tax collection procedures in most jurisdictions. Many jurisdictions currently utilize procedures involving two, three, or four distinct steps to enforce a property tax lien. Some states conduct two sales—an initial sale of the property or the lien, followed by a statutory period of time before a final sale. Others conduct a sale of the property, followed by a statutory redemption period. One of the few generalizations that can be made about property tax enforcement proceedings in the United States is that they are largely inefficient and ineffective. It can take anywhere from two to seven years to complete a property tax foreclosure, and even then the purported new owner of the property lacks insurable and marketable title. Throughout this time frame the underlying properties decay and become greater liabilities to the community.

Reforming state and local property tax enforcement procedures is not for the faint of heart, but it can be done, and done in a manner that creates an efficient and effective system consistent with all contemporary constitutional due process requirements. In 1995 Georgia enacted an optional judicial in rem foreclosure statute. In 1999 Michigan completely revamped its property tax foreclosure system. Just this year the assembly in Pennsylvania introduced legislation that, if passed, will completely reform the state’s property tax foreclosure system.

Reform of property tax foreclosure laws can contemplate many systemic changes. These changes include: shifting to in rem foreclosures; providing constitutionally adequate notice and creating judicial tax foreclosure proceedings; increasing efficiency and expediting tax foreclosure; permitting tax sales without requiring a minimum bid; and allowing for expedited quiet title proceedings.
1. SHIFTING TO JUDICIAL IN REM FORECLOSURES

One of the initial steps in reforming property tax foreclosure procedures is to shift the focus of foreclosure from seeking a judgment of personal liability against the property owner to seeking to enforce a lien against the property. Proceedings against properties—commonly referred to as in rem foreclosures—have considerably different constitutional requirements to meet than proceedings against property owners personally. This results in less time, effort, and money spent obtaining personal jurisdiction over irresponsible owners.

2. CONSTITUTIONALLY ADEQUATE NOTICE AND JUDICIAL TAX FORECLOSURE PROCEEDINGS

A second step in property tax foreclosure reform is to require constitutionally adequate notice and judicial tax foreclosure proceedings. In order to be constitutionally adequate, notice of property tax foreclosure proceedings must be given to all parties holding legally protected property interests whose identities are reasonably ascertainable. A judicially supervised and approved tax foreclosure has the substantial advantage of a final judicial decision on the adequacy of notice to all parties. A judicial decision provides a strong likelihood that the property will have an insurable title—a fundamental prerequisite for future development. Because a lien for property taxes is the senior lien on the property, regardless of the date it arose, a valid foreclosure of this senior lien terminates the interests and claims of all other parties to the property. A tax foreclosure process that provides both constitutionally adequate notice to all parties and a judicial decree on the validity of the foreclosure provides a unique opportunity to resolve all outstanding title defects. If a jurisdiction grants senior priority status to nuisance abatement liens, and similar judicial foreclosure proceedings apply, enforcement of the nuisance abatement lien also can provide clear and marketable title.

3. INCREASING EFFICIENCY AND EXPEDITING TAX FORECLOSURE

Many tax foreclosure laws require multiple steps over very extended periods of time, resulting in a tax foreclosure process that lasts four to six years. A drawn-out process severely limits a community’s ability to take action against the clearly abandoned properties that are tax-delinquent. The result is yet another incentive for property owners to pay little attention to tax bills. One method for increasing efficiency in a jurisdiction that utilizes judicial in rem tax foreclosure is to permit bulk petitions. A bulk petition can be constructed to permit a local government to process hundreds or even thousands of parcels in one short hearing. When a jurisdiction is contemplating reforming its tax foreclosure procedures, providing for bulk petitions will increase effectiveness and efficiency of the tax enforcement system.

An expedited judicial foreclosure process is a powerful tool for local government to transfer vacant, abandoned, and tax-delinquent property to new responsible ownership.

Some jurisdictions, faced with numerous properties that are both tax-delinquent and constitute a public nuisance, have adopted streamlined procedures to allow quick acquisition or transfer of the property. An expedited judicial foreclosure process with constitutionally adequate notice is one of the most powerful tools for local governments to transfer vacant, abandoned, and tax-delinquent property to new responsible ownership.

4. PERMITTING SALES WITHOUT REQUIRING A MINIMUM BID

Historically, most states’ laws have provided that the minimum bid for a parcel of property at a tax sale is the total amount of all delinquent taxes, penalties, and interest. With vacant and abandoned properties, however, the amount of tax delinquency compounds each year, often exceeding the fair market value of the underlying property. In this situation, the market no longer desires the property, leaving it as unsold liability of the community. The simple and direct solution is amending the applicable state or local laws to provide either that the minimum bid can be reduced to a lower amount by the tax collector, or that the property is automatically sold or transferred to a public agency such as a land bank.

5. ALLOWING EXPEDITED QUIET TITLE PROCEEDINGS

Unfortunately, property tax foreclosure laws are not directly designed to address title problems that...
may exist in the inventory of properties acquired by local governments under preexisting enforcement procedures. In these instances state and local governments find themselves with a substantial inventory of properties, title to which is clouded, defective, and not marketable. Because no taxes are due on publicly owned property, even revised tax foreclosure laws cannot provide a mechanism to gain clear title on this preexisting inventory. Providing for an expedited quiet title procedure applicable solely to publicly held inventories of previously tax-foreclosed properties is an effective way to address this issue.10

The single most important aspect of dealing with the defective title that characterizes so many problem properties is the availability of title insurance. Because of the numerous procedural obstacles and evolving constitutional requirements, title insurance companies historically have been reluctant to insure marketable title on properties acquired through tax foreclosures. To ensure that the title insurance industry is comfortable with the adequacy of new foreclosure procedures, industry representatives should participate in revising foreclosure laws for delinquent taxes and nuisance abatement liens.

**B. Code Enforcement**

The underlying substance of housing and building codes and generalized nuisance abatement ordinances have been revised in recent decades to reflect contemporary construction techniques and knowledge of public health, safety, and welfare. The problem is not so much the creation of a code, but the failure of many local governments to modernize their codes.

\[ \text{It is critical that liability for a building or housing code violation exist as a lien on the property.} \]

The adoption of modern codes and nuisance abatement ordinances is simply the first step. It is critical that liability for a violation exist as a lien on the property. However desirable it may be to impose personal liability on the part of the property owner, our corporate structures of ownership make it relatively easy to create shells that cannot be penetrated. The key is the imposition of a lien on the property for every code violation and for each expenditure of public assets to remedy a violation. The lien must be legally recognized as having “super-priority” status, thus making it a first lien on the property ahead of all mortgages and other encumbrances.

A super-priority code enforcement lien should then be capable of easy and quick enforcement through foreclosure resulting in insurable title to the property. Tying the code enforcement lien to an efficient and effective property tax foreclosure system is one of the optimum approaches.

Since the middle of the twentieth century, the standard approach to enforcement of housing and building codes has been an administrative or judicial enforcement proceeding against the property owner seeking to force the owner to remedy the violations. The logic of this approach is its goal to place responsibility on the party who is failing to meet public duties. The difficulty, however, is that the owner may be hard to locate, have insufficient assets, or simply drag out the proceedings for years. An alternative approach used in recent years is to authorize the local government to undertake repairs or demolition directly if the owner fails to do so within a specific period of time. The advantage of this approach is that the local government can act far more quickly in demolishing dangerous and harmful structures, but the distinct disadvantage is that the local government funds are required.

The willingness of public officials to invest public resources to correct code violations on private property relates both to the magnitude of the harm caused to the community by the violations and to the possibility of recovering part or all of the financial investment. All jurisdictions permit the local governments to file a lien against the property in the amount of the public expenditures. Unfortunately, if the lien has only chronological priority it is likely to be subordinate to mortgages, judgments, and other encumbrances, rendering it of little functional value. However, the outcome is dramatically different if the nuisance abatement lien is by law made a first priority lien superior to all other claims against the property. Such a policy has two significant benefits. First, it is far more likely that the local government will recapture part or all of its financial investment in repairs or demolition. Second, the existence of a nuisance abatement lien with senior priority permits the local government to enforce it and proceed with foreclosure even if there are no delinquent property taxes that could be the basis for such an action.
C. Receivership Actions

A variation on direct action by local governments is to strengthen the legal procedures for the appointment of a receiver to control and manage the property.11 The central task of a court-appointed receiver is to step into the shoes of the owner of disputed or distressed property, to protect that property from waste or deterioration, to manage and return it to occupancy where possible, and to preserve it until the court makes a final determination as to its ultimate disposition.12

Statutory receivership programs that expressly provide for the appointment of a receiver over properties that are vacant, abandoned, or substandard; that expand standing to bring receivership actions to parties other than government officials, owners, or lien-holders; that ensure a broad range of receiver powers; and that provide for super-priority status for receiver liens can increase the speed and efficacy of the receivership tool.13

The most common objective statutory criteria for a property to be placed into a court appointed receivership are the existence of citations for housing or building codes that are un-remediated for a stated period of time. For example, pursuant to Pennsylvania's Abandoned and Blighted Property Conservatorship Act, a receiver (or “conservator”) may be appointed over a building that (i) has been unoccupied for at least 12 months, (ii) has not been marketed in the 60 days before the receivership petition, (iii) has not been acquired by the owner in the previous six months, (iv) is not already in foreclosure proceedings, and (v) has at least three violations contained on the statute’s list of nuisances and code violations.14 Similarly, according to Baltimore, Maryland’s vacant building receivership ordinance, receivers may be appointed over vacant structures for which the owner has failed to comply with a notice or order to rehabilitate.15 Vacant structures that implicate the Baltimore ordinance are unoccupied structures that are unsafe for human habitation, and a determination of vacancy may be based on the fact that a structure is open to casual entry, has boarded-up windows and doors, or lacks intact window sashes, walls, or roof surfaces to repel weather entry.16

In many jurisdictions local governments do not have the resources or capacity to adequately abate housing or building code violations, let alone to petition the court for receivers over troubled properties. Receivership statutes that provide non-profit housing corporations, community associations, tenants, or neighbors with standing to petition the court for a receiver over a troubled property may alleviate some of the burden on local governments.17 In addition, receivership statutes that expand the universe of those with standing to seek receivership over property provide a means by which individuals or organizations most adversely affected by a particular property are empowered to directly participate in the rehabilitation of that property and the neighborhood stabilization that follows.18

Upon appointment, a receiver’s powers should be broad and essentially mirror those of the owner—including the power to rehabilitate or demolish, and the power to sell the property at any time. Receivers should be appointed, in judicial discretion, based on their experience, ability, and resources to achieve remedial actions with respect to the objective criteria that form the basis for the receivership petition. A judicially appointed receiver has the advantages of being able to take control of any cash flow (such as rents) from the property and provide immunity from liability for such matters as environmental contamination19 and negligent decisions20—two factors that frequently make public officials reluctant to take control of properties.

An effective receivership statute will provide for adequate receiver compensation and the super-priority status of receiver liens. If a receiver’s lien is not granted such priority, there are two specific adverse results. First, the receiver will not be in a position to borrow against the value of the property in order to accomplish the maintenance and rehabilitation. Second, the lien will not permit a judicially authorized receiver’s sale of the property to provide clear title. In contrast, a senior-priority receiver’s lien can be foreclosed and provide marketable and insurable title to the foreclosure sale purchaser.21

D. Vacant Property Registration

One of the newest approaches to address the problems posed by vacant and abandoned properties is the requirement that such properties be “registered” with the local government. According to one estimate, over 240 local governments have moved ahead

Statutes that expand standing to seek receivership over a property provide a means by which persons most adversely affected by the property are empowered to participate in its rehabilitation.
with some form of vacant property registration ordinance in the last decade. There is a wide range of approaches within this category of vacant property registration. Some jurisdictions have the registration requirement triggered by vacancies of particular lengths of time; others trigger the requirement upon a specific event such as the initiation of a foreclosure action. Foreclosure-related registration typically triggers a mandatory inspection of the property and establishes the possibility of fines and penalties for unremediated violations. One of the most innovative features of this new wave of vacant property ordinances is the imposition of financial liability on the mortgagee on the theory that the mortgagee has the contractual, if not statutory, right to manage and control the property once there has been a default.22

Another approach to modifying the legal system to internalize the external costs of foreclosure is the establishment of an assessment to be paid upon the filing of a foreclosure deed (or deed in lieu of foreclosure). Such an assessment would not correspond to a tax, but would be an assessment or fee reflective of the costs imposed on the local governments as a result of increased fire, police, and building inspection activities that accompany foreclosed residential properties. The assessment would be payable, much as document recordings are done, as a condition for the recordation of the instrument. The payment of the assessment would also trigger an inspection of the property by the local government.

E. Land Banks and Land Banking

As entities intended to help a local government achieve legal, institutional, and systemic changes facilitating the reuse of a community’s problem properties, land banks have taken many forms.23 First proposed as a form of urban planning in the 1960s, the concept has taken root in several metropolitan communities in the last 25 years. The Housing and Economic Recovery Act of 2008, with its Neighborhood Stabilization Program, is the first federal recognition of the severe costs borne by neighborhoods and local governments when properties are vacant or abandoned. For the first time, Congress appropriated funds for the acquisition, management, and disposition of such properties—and recognized the role of a tool called land banking.

The idea of land banking is not to replace or supplant either the open market or land-use planning but to step in when there is a failure of market demand, acquiring abandoned inventory and making it available for other land-use planning. As with other new approaches, some efforts have been more successful than others. But all land banking initiatives share the ability to address inefficiencies in real estate markets and the potential to bring together federal, state, and local policies to build stronger communities.

Land banking is a useful tool because markets for land rarely, if ever, operate with market efficiency.

A land bank is not the same as a land trust, in which property may be held in perpetuity for a community purpose such as conservation or affordable housing. It is more like a bank into which one deposits valuables until such time as they are needed. Today, as more communities deal with foreclosures, more and more could benefit from land banking. Land banking is a useful tool because markets for land rarely, if ever, operate with market efficiency.

Land banks acquire inventories of real property, primarily from five sources: (1) tax delinquencies and tax foreclosures; (2) excess residential real estate foreclosures; (3) foreclosure of government liens arising from housing and building code violations; (4) direct market purchases; and (5) third parties “deposits” of properties to be held pending redevelopment.

Land banks help stabilize the real estate market by creating the functional equivalent of a publicly controlled secondary market. A land bank’s ability to acquire inventory when land has no readily available private market lets it address the contraction and expansion of property “liquidity” relative to demand. The regulation of private development is not affected, nor are traditional zoning and land-use plans. Rather, a community’s zoning and land-use plans can be enhanced by land banks.

As part of a public agency, or as a separate public authority, a land bank is, and should be, required to exercise its authority consistent with the common good. All real property transactions must fall within clearly stated purposes and priorities on land use. These purposes and priorities are established by state legislatures, by intergovernmental contracts, or by the local governments that create the programs.
CONCLUSION

Together, the ongoing national mortgage crisis and the steady economic decline of older, industrial areas have created increasing numbers of vacant and abandoned properties that are placing ever greater stress on communities across the country. Communities must bear the costs induced by these large inventories of vacant, abandoned, and foreclosed properties. When used efficiently and effectively, the tools described in this article can help local governments halt and reverse the negative impact of vacant, abandoned, and foreclosed properties.

NOTES

6. The costs an abandoned property imposes on a community are palpable. For example, a detailed study of Chicago in 2005 revealed that a property abandoned prior to foreclosure imposes average costs of almost $20,000 on the city, and when that property has a building damaged by arson, the costs reach an average of $34,000. James Goldstein et al., Urban Vacant Land Redevelopment: Challenges and Progress, Lincoln Institute of Land Policy (working paper) (2001); William C. Apgar & Mark Duda, Collateral Damage: The Municipal Impact of Today’s Mortgage Foreclosure Boom (Minneapolis: Homeownership Preservation Foundation, 2005). In Flint, Michigan, an analysis revealed that property within 500 feet of a vacant and abandoned structure lost an average of 2.26 percent of its value. Patricia E. Norris & Nigel G. Griswold, Economic Impacts of Residential Property Abandonment (East Lansing, MI: Michigan State University Land Policy Institute Report #2007-05). A study commissioned by Philadelphia in 2010 revealed that vacant and abandoned properties reduced the value of the city’s homes by an average of $8,000, incurred $20 million in annual maintenance costs, and deprived the city of $2 million a year in tax revenues. Catherine Lucey, Abandoned Properties Have Reduced City Home Values by an Average of $8,000, Study Finds, Phila. Daily News, Nov. 11, 2010. Further, a study of eight cities in Ohio found that 25,000 vacant and abandoned properties imposed approximately $15 million in direct annual costs to the cities and over $49 million in cumulative lost property tax revenues. Community Research Partners and ReBuild Ohio, $60 Million and Counting: The Cost of Vacant and Abandoned Properties to Eight Ohio Cities (Columbus: 2008).
9. The Center for Responsible Lending estimates that foreclosures of subprime home loans originated in 2005 and 2006 decrease the value of nearby properties by an average of $5,000. In aggregate, foreclosures on subprime loans are expected to cause a $202 billion decline in home values and the corresponding tax base. Center for Responsible Lending, Subprime Spillover: Foreclosures Cost Neighbors $202 Billion; 40.6 Million Homes Lose $5,000 on Average 1 (2008).
10. A quiet title action is a legal proceeding which seeks a judicial ruling on the claims of all parties. In a specially designed proceeding, constitutionally adequate notice is given to all interested parties of the opportunity to redeem the property from the tax lien. Failure of such redemption then vests clear title in the local government.


20. See generally, Clark, supra n. 12, § 391; Davis v. West, 317 S.W.3d 301, 307 (Tex. App. Houston 1st Dist. 2009) (“[A] court-appointed receiver acts as an arm of the court and is immune from liability for actions grounded in his conduct as receiver.”).


22. A vacant property registration ordinance triggered by a declaration of mortgage default provides:

Any [beneficiary under deed of trust covering a property OR beneficiary/trustee who holds a deed of trust on a property OR mortgagee who holds a mortgage on real property] located within the [City Name] shall cause an inspection to be performed of the property that is the security for the deed of trust [within fifteen (15) days of issuing a notice of default to the trustor OR upon default by the trustor, prior to recording a Notice of Default]. If the property is found to be vacant or shows evidence of vacancy, it is, by this article, deemed abandoned and the beneficiary/trustee shall, within ten (10) days of the inspection, register the property with the [code enforcement officer] or his/her designee on forms provided by the City.


**OF RELATED INTEREST**

Discussion of matters related to the subject of the above article can be found in:

Dunaway, The Law of Distressed Real Estate
Saft, Commercial Real Estate Workouts

**RECENT CASES**

Sixth Circuit Court of Appeals holds that ordinances regulating location of sexually oriented businesses did not violate First Amendment.

The city of Warren, Michigan amended its code to provide that no sexually oriented business could be located within 750 feet of various specified zoning districts or mixed residential zones, and that no sexually oriented business could be located in the downtown area. Big Dipper Entertainment applied for a license to conduct a sexually oriented business at a location barred under the city code amendments.

After the application was denied, Big Dipper sued in federal court, claiming that the amendments violated the First Amendment, and also that by taking 24 days to rule on its application, instead of the 20 days allowed by the city code, the city had placed a prior restraint on protected expression. The district court granted summary judgment to the city.

On appeal, the Sixth Circuit Court of Appeals affirmed. The court noted that normally a content-based restriction on speech is subject to strict scrutiny, but zoning ordinances that regulate adult businesses, even though they are typically content-based, are regarded as content-neutral and subject to less exacting scrutiny as long as they aim to limit the secondary effects of adult businesses.

Although Big Dipper maintained that the city’s true motive in enacting the amendments was to completely prevent new adult businesses from opening, the court said that all the city had to show was that its “predominate concern” was the secondary effects of such businesses. This showing had been made. The city council had received 49 studies and reports concerning secondary effects before enacting the amendments, and its minutes and resolutions reflected its concern with secondary effects, including blight, deterioration, and lowered property values.

The court rejected Big Dipper’s contention that the amendments left too few sites available for adult businesses. The district court found that the amend-
ments left a total of 39 potential locations available. The Court of Appeals reduced this number to 27 in light of Big Dipper’s argument that 12 of the sites were smaller than the minimum size required by the city’s zoning ordinance for lots zoned as they were zoned. But even then, the fact remained that only two applications to open adult businesses had been filed with the city in the five years preceding Big Dipper’s lawsuit. A supply of sites more than 13 times greater than the five-year demand is more than ample, said the court, for constitutional purposes.

The court also rejected the argument that, by taking four days longer than the time prescribed by its rules to reject Big Dipper’s application, the city had engaged in a prior restraint of speech. The question was whether the city had made its decision within a reasonable period of time, during which the status quo was maintained, and whether Big Dipper could have obtained prompt judicial review. That the city took 24 days rather than 20 was immaterial for constitutional purposes, said the court, citing a case in which a 44-day period for acting on the same kind of application was upheld. Moreover, the city had maintained the status quo while the application was pending. As to judicial review, the court noted that Big Dipper could have obtained prompt judicial review of the denial of its application, but instead waited 20 months to bring its lawsuit. Big Dipper Entertainment, L.L.C. v. City of Warren, 641 F.3d 715 (6th Cir. 2011).

Supreme Court of Alaska holds that city ordinance, limiting standing to appeal land use decision to persons who could show adverse effect on property they owned, did not violate due process or equal protection rights.

The Homer Advisory Planning Commission granted a conditional use permit to a mariculture association to allow it to construct a building. Frank Griswold, a resident of Homer, filed a notice of appeal, stating that the proposed building would adversely affect his future enjoyment of the public beach adjacent to the building, and his access to the beach. He also alleged that the construction might endanger pedestrians by forcing them to cross a highway to access their vehicles.

Griswold’s appeal was rejected by the city because he did not allege or prove that he owned land in the area of the proposed construction (he owned land over four miles distant from the site), and because his interest in the subject property was no different from that of the general public. He therefore was not a “person aggrieved” under the Homer City Code who was entitled to appeal the grant of the permit. Griswold appealed the rejection of his appeal to the superior court, which upheld the city’s action.

On appeal, the Supreme Court of Alaska affirmed. Although Griswold maintained that the City Code’s provision that an interest no different from that of the general public was insufficient to confer standing violated due process, the court noted that he had not identified any liberty or property interest that had been denied him because of that provision. Any property interest great enough to be cognizable for due process purposes, said the court, would also have been sufficient to confer standing under the City Code.

Griswold also contended that the City Code’s limitation of standing—to persons who could show that the decision being appealed affected or could affect the use, enjoyment or value of property they owned—violated his equal protection rights. But, said the court, the classification thereby created by the Code was not based on a suspect or quasi-suspect factor, nor did it infringe on a fundamental right. Therefore, the classification would pass constitutional scrutiny if there was a legitimate reason for it and the law creating the classification bore a fair and substantial relationship to that reason. The reason for the classification was to limit standing to persons with a substantial, direct and immediate interest, in order to prevent excessive litigation and undue delay, and to avoid creating a “land use battleground” that would unduly tax municipal resources, impair free enterprise, and unreasonably interfere with private property rights. These, said the court, were legitimate reasons, and the law’s requirement that an action potentially have an adverse effect on the use, enjoyment or value of land owned by an appellant bore a fair and substantial relationship to that reason. Griswold v. City of Homer, 252 P.3d 1020 (Alaska 2011).
Florida District Court of Appeal holds that county’s neglect of road maintenance could support inverse condemnation claim.

Several landowners owned real property in a subdivision called Summer Haven. The only road offering access to Summer Haven was a county road known as Old A1A, bordered on the east by the Atlantic Ocean and on the west by the Intracoastal Waterway. The landowners filed suit against the County, seeking in various counts declaratory and injunctive relief for what they viewed as the County’s deliberate failure to maintain the road in usable condition, and also asserting that the County’s failure to maintain the road constituted inverse condemnation of their lands due to diminished access thereto. The trial court granted summary judgment to the County on all counts of the landowners’ complaint.

On appeal, the Florida District Court of Appeal affirmed in part, but reversed the trial court’s grant of summary judgment on the count seeking declaratory relief and on the count asserting inverse condemnation. The denial of declaratory relief, said the court, amounted to a holding that the County had no duty to repair or restore Old A1A, except in its absolute discretion.

The County, the court held, had a duty to maintain Old A1A as long as it was a public road dedicated to the public use. The court declined to require the County to maintain the road in a particular manner or at the particular level of accessibility, but held that the County’s discretion to maintain or not maintain the road was not absolute. The County had to provide a reasonable level of maintenance that afforded meaningful access, unless and until the County formally abandoned the road. Summary judgment was improperly granted, the court held, because there were disputed issues of fact as to the level of maintenance the County had provided and the level it should have provided.

The court went on to say that governmental inaction, in the face of an affirmative duty to act, can support a claim for inverse condemnation. With respect to the inverse condemnation count, there were also disputed issues of fact as to the level of maintenance provided by the County and whether the County had as a practical matter abandoned the road without following the statutory procedure for abandoning it. The case was remanded for further proceedings. *Jordan v. St. Johns County*, 63 So. 3d 835 (Fla. Dist. Ct. App. 5th Dist. 2011), reh’g denied, (June 22, 2011).

Supreme Court of Minnesota holds city was not estopped from enforcing its zoning ordinance because of mistake on part of city employee.

Dr. Rajbir Sarpal and his wife, Dr. Carol Sarpal, owned a home in North Oaks. To build a shed on their property, they were required to submit an “as-built” survey of the property, showing where the shed would be located. Dr. Rajbir Sarpal went to the office of the City and asked a City employee if the City had the survey he needed. The employee gave Dr. Sarpal a document and represented that it was the one he needed.

After the shed was constructed, it was found to encroach upon a trail easement and on a 30-foot setback zone. The survey Dr. Sarpal had used to obtain his building permit was not, as represented by the City employee, an “as-built” survey, but rather a survey that showed only the proposed location of the Sarpals’ house and not its actual location. Dr. Sarpal’s use of the survey resulted in the encroachment of the shed, because he had built it in reliance on the incorrect location of the house as shown on the survey.

The City sued the Sarpals, seeking removal of the shed. The district court dismissed the action, holding that the City was equitably estopped from enforcing its zoning ordinance against the Sarpals, because the City had provided the survey on which they had relied. The court held, however, that there were disputed issues of fact as to the level of maintenance the City had provided and the level it should have provided.

On review, the Minnesota Supreme Court reversed and remanded. The court noted that one of the elements necessary to establish equitable estoppel against a government entity is wrongful conduct on the part of a government agent. Absent any finding that the City employee who had given Dr. Sarpal the wrong survey had intended to deceive him or induce him to build in violation of the zoning code, the employee’s simple mistake was not wrongful, nor had the City acted wrongfully by failing to note Dr. Sarpal’s erroneous reliance on the survey and issuing a building permit for the shed. *City of North Oaks v. Sarpal*, 797 N.W.2d 18 (Minn. 2011).