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**TO:** Hilary Anderson, Community Planning Director  
City of Coeur d'Alene, Idaho

**DATE:** January 11, 2016

**RE:** Recommendations and references related to discussion of proposed Fort Grounds neighborhood character ("mansionsization") ordinance

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## **I. Overview**

This memorandum summarizes recommendations and research conducted by the University of Idaho College of Law's Economic Development Clinic on behalf of the City of Coeur d'Alene, Idaho (City) related to community interest in an ordinance to regulate the character of the City's Fort Grounds neighborhood. The memorandum first provides a recommendation to conduct an updated survey of the Fort Grounds neighborhood properties before beginning any serious discussion of drafting ordinances related to neighborhood character (also referred to as neighborhood conservation or mansionsization). See Section II. The second part of the memorandum provides a summary of informational attachments resulting from the Clinic's research. See Section III. These attached documents, which include model ordinances, professional and academic articles, as well as treatise chapters, should serve as useful references for any future ordinance drafting, should you proceed to that step.

## **II. Recommendation for action: Informational survey of Fort Grounds properties**

A 1992 effort to form a historic district in the Fort Grounds neighborhood resulted in the production of the "National Register of Historic Places Registration Form for the Sherman Park Addition/Fort Grounds Neighborhood Historic District" (1992 History Survey) (**Attachment A**). This document provides a comprehensive list and descriptions of each of the 80 buildings in the district at that time. It also includes an analysis of whether the properties were deemed contributing or noncontributing to the proposed historic district, explains the significant architectural characteristics of the district, and provides a picture of almost all of the buildings in the neighborhood.

We suggest that the City's next step should be to conduct a survey similar to the 1992 Historic Survey. The purpose of this new survey (Proposed Survey), would not need to be confined to determinations of buildings' historic merit; rather, a survey would prove valuable in determining the current status of the neighborhood. The 1992 Historic Survey would provide a useful baseline against which to evaluate change. The new information from the Proposed Survey would prove helpful in several ways. First, information gleaned from the Proposed Survey could be compared to the 1992 Historic Survey, which would indicate the degree to which the neighborhood had changed over the past several decades. Our understanding is that the community perceives that the neighborhood has changed significantly; however, a survey would give concrete facts about the pace of change and the nature of those changes. Such a survey might provide more systemic answers to questions like: How many homes, if any, have been significantly altered or demolished? Are the changes limited to a particular sections of the Fort Grounds neighborhood? The Proposed Survey, coupled with the 1992 History Survey, would prove an analytical tool for both the City and the community to speak with greater specificity about the nature of change that has occurred in the community, as well as the types of change that the community may wish to limit.

Without such analysis, it is difficult to offer advice on what approach the City should take in drafting an ordinance. For instance, if most—or a large minority—of the 1.5 story houses have already been modified or replaced with much larger 3-story homes, then an ordinance restricting future modifications to 1.5 or 2 stories may not make sense. Similarly, if additions and new construction have greatly modified the character-defining features of the individual buildings and/or the district, a future ordinance may not focus as much on character. If the significant characteristics described in the 1992 Registration Form, however, are still largely intact, then the City may wish to craft an ordinance to retain the district's character within reasonable means.

Proceeding without this type of information in regulation of such a small neighborhood could also have unintended consequences that may implicate constitutional protections. For instance, it could be that a particular regulation that appeared to be facially applicable to the entire neighborhood may, in fact, only apply to one or two property owners. Such a regulation that applied only to such limited number of properties could be subject to equal protection challenges. See *Village of Willowbrook v. Olech*, 528 U.S. 562 (2000) (upholding “class of one” equal protection claim in development context).

The production of the Proposed Survey should not strain resources. In some cities, such neighborhood surveys have been conducted by community groups with the administrative assistance of City staff or a community group. With an active community group in this location, the Proposed Survey could potentially be conducted over a weekend and the data compiled and processed within a few weeks.

The 1992 Historic Survey contains a paragraph description of each house (1992 Historic Survey, Section 7, pp. 5-16) as well as a picture of each house. The Proposed Survey could take each such property description and update that description with a basic review. For instance, the first house listed in the 1992 Historic Survey provides:

728 Garden Avenue. Myron E. Humphrey House. 1 1/2 story gable-front frame house;

Colonial Revival; narrow clapboard siding with shingles in gable ends; large windows with transom; outset porch. Built in 1907 for Myron E. Humphrey, a teamster, by contractors Fuller and Landt. (Contributing.)

A reviewer participating in the Proposed Survey could simply answer if that description is still accurate for the property at 728 Garden Avenue. If not, what are the changes noticeable from a street review? If a reviewer finds noticeable changes to the property, then staff could assist a community review by pulling permits or other documents related to those changes that could be briefly summarized in a paragraph update. The City and community could agree whether to update the optional historic district “contributing” determination. While the historic determination could be included in the Proposed Survey, it is not necessary to accomplish the purposes of deciding how to address neighborhood character or mansionization.

In addition, a new image of each home in the neighborhood would be an important additional contribution to the Proposed Survey.

### **III. Other resources**

This section highlights several resources that may be useful if the City proceeds to drafting an ordinance with regard to neighborhood character or “mansionization.” These resources include the following:

Ordinance template. A draft ordinance from *Matthews Municipal Ordinances*, a reference treatise, is attached here at **Attachment B**. This template provides basic terms to consider in a neighborhood character ordinance; however, it would need to be tailored to the specifics of the City’s existing regulations as well as the community’s interests.

Professional journal articles. Also attached are several professional articles that address issues to consider in drafting ordinances related to neighborhood character or mansionization. These include: Martin R. Healy, *Municipal Zoning Control over “Mansionization,”* BOSTON BAR JOURNAL (Sept./Oct. 2008) (**Attachment C**); Julie A. Tappendorf & Dwight H. Merriam, *Teardowns and “Mansionization,”* (Aug. 2007) (**Attachment D**); and California Association of Realtors, *Mansionization and Design Standards* (Jan. 1992), <http://www.car.org/governmentaffairs/localgovernmentaffairs/mansion/> (last visited Jan. 10, 2016) (**Attachment E**).

Treatise sections. The next attachment is a section from a leading land use law treatise addressing how bulk, building area, and floor size regulations have fared under legal challenges. 3 RATHKOPF’S THE LAW OF ZONING AND PLANNING § 54:10 (4th ed. 2016) (**Attachment F**).

Academic article challenging concepts of neighborhood conservation. Also included is a recent academic article that argues against the rise of neighborhood conservation districts such as the one considered here. Inclusion of this article does not necessarily indicate agreement with the positions of the article; however, understanding some of the concerns with such ordinances that have arisen in other locations may assist in drafting a better ordinance if that is the ultimate goal of the City and community. Anika Singh Lemara, *Zoning as Taxidermy: Neighborhood Conservation Districts and the Regulation of Aesthetics*, 90 IND. L.J. 1525 (2015) (**Attachment G**).

#### **IV. Concluding remarks**

In addition to this research, the Clinic did make an effort to contact planners at the City of Austin, Texas, which has a neighborhood character ordinance that is of interest to several community members. Despite several attempts, the Clinic was unable to make substantive contact with planners in Austin. If the City and the community so desire, the Clinic will continue its efforts to contact Austin planners.

We hope this guidance, as well as additional resources, provides a useful tool for analyzing the next options for both the City and the community. Let us know if you would like to discuss our research further or wish for us to conduct additional research.

**Attachment A**

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# National Register of Historic Places Registration Form

This form is for use in nominating or requesting determinations of eligibility for individual properties or districts. See instructions in *Guidelines for Completing National Register Forms* (National Register Bulletin 16). Complete each item by marking "x" in the appropriate box or by entering the requested information. If an item does not apply to the property being documented, enter "N/A" for "not applicable." For functions, styles, materials, and areas of significance, enter only the categories and subcategories listed in the instructions. For additional space use continuation sheets (Form 10-900a). Type all entries.

### 1. Name of Property

historic name Sherman Park Addition  
other names/site Fort Grounds Neighborhood Historic District

### 2. Location

street & number Bounded by Garden Ave., Hubbard St., Lakeshore Dr., and Park Dr. n/a not for publication  
city, town Coeur d'Alene X vicinity  
state Idaho code ID county Kootenai code 055 zip code 83814

### 3. Classification

Ownership of Property	Category of Property	No. of Resources within Property	
<u>X</u> private	<u>   </u> building(s)	contributing	noncontributing
<u>X</u> public-local	<u>X</u> district	<u>55</u>	<u>25</u> buildings
<u>   </u> public-State	<u>   </u> site	<u>   </u>	<u>   </u> sites
<u>   </u> public-Federal	<u>   </u> structure	<u>   </u>	<u>   </u> structures
	<u>   </u> object	<u>   </u>	<u>   </u> objects
Name of related multiple property listing:		<u>55</u>	<u>25</u> Total
<u>n/a</u>		No. of contributing resources previously listed in the National Register <u>1</u>	

### 4. State/Federal Agency Certification

As the designated authority under the National Historic Preservation Act of 1966, as amended, I hereby certify that this X nomination     request for determination of eligibility meets the documentation standards for registering properties in the National Register of Historic Places and meets the procedural and professional requirements set forth in 36 CFR Part 60. In my opinion, the property ✓ meets     does not meet the National Register criteria.     See continuation sheet.

Thomas J. Green Signature of certifying official      3-19-92 Date

Idaho State Historic Preservation Office  
State or Federal agency and bureau

In my opinion, the property     meets     does not meet the National Register criteria.     See continuation sheet.

\_\_\_\_\_  
Signature of commenting or other official      Date

\_\_\_\_\_  
State or Federal agency and bureau

### 5. National Park Service Certification

I, hereby, certify that this property is:  
✓ entered in the National Register.      Antonietta Reese      4/27/92  
        See continuation sheet  
    determined eligible for the National Register.     See continuation sheet  
    determined not eligible for the National Register  
    removed from the National Register.  
    other, (explain:)

\_\_\_\_\_  
Signature of the Keeper      Date of Action



**8. Statement of Significance**

Certifying official has considered the significance of this property in relation to other properties:  
 nationally     statewide     locally

Applicable National Register Criteria     A     B     C     D

Criteria Considerations (Exceptions)     A     B     C     D     E     F     G    N/A

**Areas of Significance**

(enter categories from instructions)

**Period of Significance**

**Significant Dates**

Architecture

1905-21

1905

Landscape Architecture

\_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_

**Cultural Affiliation**

\_\_\_\_\_

n/a

\_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_

**Significant Person**

n/a

**Architect/Builder**

See text

State significance of property, and justify criteria, criteria considerations, and areas and periods of significance noted above.

X See continuation sheet





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**Description:**

**Materials:**

Walls: WOOD/log

METAL/aluminum

STUCCO

CONCRETE

Roof: WOOD/shingle

METAL/steel

CONCRETE -Refers to the roof of #74

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Summary Paragraph. Sherman Park Addition, (also referred to as the Fort Grounds Neighborhood Historic District), is a clearly defined residential area in the southwestern corner of Coeur d'Alene. It is bounded on the east by the city park, on the south by Lake Coeur d'Alene, on the west by the campus of North Idaho College, and on the north by Garden Avenue. The area north of Garden Avenue includes single family dwellings of the same time period as those in the nominated area, but the high number of altered buildings and intrusions has lowered the area's significance. The visual cohesion within the district stems from similar materials (wood weatherboard siding), scale (one to one and a half stories), styles (primarily Colonial Revival and Craftsman bungalows), and setback. In addition, all but one of the houses were built as single family dwellings and, of these, all but two retain their original function. Seventy-two out of eighty buildings date from the period of significance, 1905-1921. The neighborhood also retains its historic landscape. The narrow, gently curving streets are unchanged except that traffic on Forest, Military, and Park is now limited to a one-way pattern. Mature trees, including conifers from the days of Fort Sherman, shade yards and streets.

Natural and manmade elements. Lakeshore Drive separates the southern edge of the Sherman Park Addition from Lake Coeur d'Alene. A concrete seawall further divides the road from the sandy beach along the lake edge. The dike was built in 1934 after the lake rose thirteen feet above its normal level at Christmas the previous year. The lake is the dominant natural feature, both in this neighborhood and all of Coeur d'Alene. The homes along Lakeshore Drive look over the water, and the four main streets serving the neighborhood all run north-south to the lake edge.

A second primary landscape feature is the city park, which adjoins the neighborhood on the eastern edge. The park was a popular recreation spot which served local residents, out-of-town visitors, and weekend campers. It was developed in 1905, the same year that Sherman Park Addition was platted. Park Drive separates the neighborhood from the park. Lots fronting Lakeshore and Park Drives brought the highest initial purchase prices and continue to be prestigious Coeur d'Alene addresses.

Land west of the neighborhood was the parade grounds for Fort Sherman, (1878-1900), bordered along the northern edge by a row of officers' quarters. Following the sale of the military reservation in 1905, the officers' quarters reverted to private homes, the parade grounds remained essentially an open area, and the land to the northwest along the Spokane River became home to a large lumber mill. The mill remains, but all of the officers' homes are gone except one. The parade grounds are surrounded now by buildings on the North Idaho College campus. As the college continues to expand, many nearby homeowners fear that the college will move into their neighborhood next.

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Three of the streets bounding the Sherman Park Addition are straight; the fourth, Lakeshore Drive, curves to follow the edge of the water. The majority of the lots front on the two interior streets, Forest and Military, which curve gently as they traverse the neighborhood from north to south. This lends a relaxed, almost rural feel to the area in contrast to the rest of the city with its regular grid pattern. The streets are narrow, bounded by curbs and sidewalks.

Unifying Features. The predominant house type in the Fort Grounds neighborhood is the bungalow, including the Craftsman style and the more general bungalow style. This matches national trends where bungalow fever swept the country between 1905 and the early 1920s, the same years during which the Fort Grounds neighborhood was developed. Outstanding examples of the bungalow are seen in #9, 15, 48, and 73.

Designers of other homes fell back on earlier influences, especially Colonial Revival style. The best examples of this more traditional form are seen in #2, 25, 30, 71, and 77. Other styles include Dutch Colonial Revival and Tudor Revival. A number of simpler homes are vernacular in design, revealing no particular style.

The district is unified by height of the homes. Fifty-five of the eighty buildings are one and a half stories tall, also the most common height for homes throughout northern Idaho. Seventeen houses are just one story, three are two stories, while only five are two and a half stories.

The use of wooden weatherboard siding also unifies the design of the neighborhood. Seventy-four of the eighty buildings originally had wooden siding, a number so high that the others stand out as clearly different; of these, fifty-one retain the original siding. One home is built of concrete blocks, two of brick (both newer), two are stucco, and one is log. Wooden siding predominates throughout Coeur d'Alene and all of northern Idaho where every town had a lumber mill; cities the size of Coeur d'Alene had several mills to supply local building needs.

Further unity of design is found in the fairly standard setback of all houses from the streets. The second of twelve restrictive covenants in all original deeds specified a setback of at least thirty-five feet from the streets. A few houses are located farther back on the lots, while one new one is considerably closer. But most fall in a similar range, unifying the streetscape.

The third covenant restricted garages and outbuildings to the rear of lots: along Hubbard Street for houses fronting on the west side of Forest, or along alleys which divide the other blocks. The outbuildings were not considered an important component of the district when it was surveyed initially, but their importance to the overall character may be reassessed in the future.

The one anomaly in the district is the Fort Sherman Chapel at the corner of Hubbard and Woodland Drive. Only three buildings remain from Ft. Sherman, all of which were listed in the National Register of Historic Places in 1979. The chapel was one of several of the original fort buildings included in the sale of land which became the Sherman Park Addition. The school, next door to the chapel, may have been extensively remodeled into a house (#11); the Hospital Steward

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Quarters served initially as a home but was replaced before 1921; the commanding officer's home continued as a private residence into the 1950s; and other buildings were either moved or torn down to make way for the new subdivision.

The commanding officer's home and the associated stable were centered in the block bounded by Forest, Lakeshore, Military, and Sherman Court. This included Lots 32, 51, and 52 of the Sherman Park Addition. Thomas T. Kerl purchased the three lots and buildings and kept it as a private holding until his death in the late 1930s. His widow then sold the lots to Charles A. Finch, Jr. in 1945. He and his family lived there into the 1950s. Finch platted the block into twelve lots in 1950. Homes here date from the 1950s to 1991. Because of the recent vintage of the buildings, this block was eliminated from the Fort Grounds Neighborhood Historic District.

General Condition. The layout of the Fort Grounds neighborhood remains the same as it was when platted in 1905. The streets and alleys have not been straightened or widened over the years. The only change is a restriction on traffic flow which regulates vehicles on Forest, Military, Park, and Lakeshore to a one-way pattern.

Buildings within the district have been altered in several ways. The original wooden weatherboard siding has been replaced by asbestos shingles, heavy wooden shingles, or aluminum siding on twenty-three buildings. Windows have been altered or replaced to some degree on twenty-four houses. Seventeen houses have additions ranging from a dormer window to a three-story wing. Porches were enclosed, at least partially, on fourteen houses, removed on three more, and altered on three others. Many of these changes were considered significant enough to designate the building as noncontributory to the district. In other cases, the general historical character remained intact.

The most common change was in roofing material. The original wooden shingles have been replaced in most cases with either composition shingles or with metal roofing. Both are very common alterations in northern Idaho where heating with wood makes fire resistant roofing attractive. In addition, homeowners look for a roof that will quickly shed the often-heavy winter snow.

Building List. Construction dates for the Fort Grounds neighborhood homes were obtained from the following sources: land transaction records available at the County Recorder's office; Polk directories for Coeur d'Alene; Sanborn firemaps dated November 1908 and November 1921; and miscellaneous newspaper articles. It was impossible to precisely date most of the structures, but estimates were based on the available evidence.

Historic names are given and underlined only for those houses where the name is clearly identifiable. While research into courthouse records provided a list of property owners' names, it was often unclear which owner had built the house. The partial collection of city directories was insufficient to corroborate ownership in many cases. The name of the first longtime owner/resident was given preference over the builder when it seemed clear that the builder had never lived in the house.

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### Garden Avenue:

- 1 728 Garden Avenue. Myron E. Humphrey House. 1 1/2 story gable-front frame house; Colonial Revival; narrow clapboard siding with shingles in gable ends; large windows with transom; outset porch. Built in 1907 for Myron E. Humphrey, a teamster, by contractors Fuller and Landt. (Contributing.)
- 2 724 Garden Avenue. Herbert S. and Bertha M. Tenny House. 1 1/2 story gable-front frame house; Colonial Revival; narrow clapboard siding, with fishscale shingles in gable peaks; outset porch with pediment over steps; 1/1 double-hung sash windows set singly or in pairs. Built by the Tennys in 1907; W. J. and Mary E. Robinson lived here from 1909 to ca. 1918. (Contributing.)
- 3 720-722 Garden Avenue. Julia LaSalle House. 1 1/2 story side-gable frame house with heavy wooden shingle replacement siding; gabled front dormer; replacement aluminum windows; replacement porches; now serves as duplex. Built by Julia LaSalle, a widow, between 1907 and 1908. (Noncontributing.)
- 4 716 Garden Avenue. George A. and Harriette Olson House. 1 1/2 story side-gable frame bungalow; narrow clapboard siding; shed-roofed dormer on facade; knee braces; large windows with transom on lower facade; other windows are 1/1 double-hung sash; inset porch spans facade. Probably built by Peter J. and Mary Verstoppen between 1913 and 1914; sold to Olsons in 1914; Olson worked as an engineer with Blackwell Lumber Co. (Contributing.)

### Hubbard Street:

- 5 410 Hubbard Street. Thomas H. and Henrietta Stricker House. 1 1/2 story gable-front frame house; Colonial Revival; clapboard siding; outset porch spans facade; most windows are 1/1 double-hung sash. Property was owned by various members of the Stricker family from 1906 through at least 1919; house built between 1906 and 1908 while Thomas H. and Henrietta Stricker owned lot; they had moved into house by 1912. (Contributing.)
- 6 Corner Hubbard and Woodland. Ft. Sherman Chapel. 1 story gable-front frame building; angular lines and buttresses of Gothic Revival style; Romanesque round arched windows set in pairs in each side bay. Built in 1880 by men stationed at Fort Sherman. (Listed in National Register, 1979.)
- 7 203 Hubbard Street. 1 story gable-front frame building with long side paralleling street; large shingle replacement siding; aluminum windows set in original openings; enclosed shed-roofed front entry. Built prior to 1908; may be an original Fort Sherman building that was moved to site. (Noncontributing.)

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### Woodland Drive:

- 8 721 Woodland Drive. John Hager House. 1 1/2 story side-gable frame house; grooved plywood siding in upper facade, with rock veneer in lower facade; replacement windows; carport on west end. House built by John Hager between 1909 and 1921 to replace an earlier building on the same lot; earlier structure was the Hospital Stewart Quarters from Fort Sherman. (Noncontributing.)
- 9 719 Woodland Drive. 1 1/2 story side-gable frame house; Craftsman bungalow; jerkin head roof; knee braces; outset front porch; narrow clapboard siding; 3/1 double-hung sash windows set in pairs or triples. Built between 1909 and 1911 by William E. and Nannie B. Seelye, who apparently never lived in Coeur d'Alene. (Contributing.)
- 10 713 Woodland Drive. 1 1/2 story gable-front frame house; narrow clapboard siding; knee braces; large windows with leaded glass transoms; outset porch spans facade. Built between 1907 and 1908 by William E. and Nannie B. Seelye, who apparently never lived in Coeur d'Alene. (Contributing.)

### Forest Drive:

- 11 327 Forest Drive. Charles A. and Elizabeth Crawford House. 1 1/2 story frame house; Dutch Colonial Revival; gambrel roof faces front; two-story gabled ell faces north and south; shiplap siding; 1/1 double-hung sash windows; outset porch wraps around north, east, and south. House may incorporate one-story frame Fort Sherman school building which was located on this lot. Crawfords purchased property in November 1905; he worked as a carpenter. (Contributing.)
- 12 323 Forest Drive. 1 story side-gable frame house; aluminum siding; small 3/1 double-hung sash windows in right facade; outset gabled roof to shelter centered front door. Built by Charles A. Crawford, a carpenter, between 1909 and 1921; probably used as a rental. (Noncontributing.)
- 13 323 1/2 Forest Drive. 1 story gable-front frame house; rear half has lower roof ridge and offset gable roof; shiplap siding; metal frame replacement windows in rear. Built by Charles A. Crawford, a carpenter, between 1909 and 1921; probably used as a rental. (Noncontributing.)
- 14 319 Forest Drive. 1 1/2 story gable-front frame house; clapboard siding; two-car garage spans 2/3 of facade; large round arched window in gable above garage; house and garage are set closer to street than other homes in neighborhood. Built 1988, replacing small one-story frame house set at rear of lot. (Noncontributing.)
- 15 315 Forest Drive. 1 story gable-front frame house; Craftsman bungalow; narrow clapboard siding; pair of 12/1 double-hung sash windows on facade; 1/1 double-hung sash windows on sides; paneled front door with sidelights; outset porch with lattice design in gable. Built between 1909 and 1921 by either W. J. and Eva Kirby or Otis and Anna B. Hill. (Contributing.)

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- 16 311 Forest Drive. 1 1/2 story side-gable frame house; Craftsman bungalow; narrow clapboard siding, with shingled gable ends; shed-roofed dormer; knee braces; 5/1 double-hung sash windows set in pairs; outset porch spans facade. Built between 1909 and 1921 by either W. J. and Eva Kirby or Otis and Anna B. Hill. (Contributing.)
- 17 307 Forest Drive. Small 1 story gable-front frame house; addition on south side doubled original house and altered roof into offset gable; aluminum siding; set at rear of lot. Built between 1909 and 1921 by either W. J. and Eva Kirby or Otis and Anna B. Hill; addition built in 1988. (Noncontributing.)
- 18 303 Forest Drive. James Z. and Cornelia D'Aoust House. 1 1/2 story gable-front frame house; asbestos shingle siding; large windows with 3-pane transom in lower facade; 1/1 double-hung sash windows elsewhere; inset front porch. Built between 1907 and 1908 by D'Aoust, a carpenter. (Contributing.)
- 19 213 Forest Drive. Frank E. and Beryl B. Harris House. 1 story side-gable frame house with veneer of narrow, tan-pink bricks; bay window in facade; others are large fixed-pane or 1/1 double-hung sash. Built by Harrises in 1954 to replace older frame house at rear of lot. (Noncontributing.)
- 20 209 Forest Drive. Anton Olson House. 1 1/2 story side-gable log house; saddle notched corners; kerfed underside; small peeled poles laid in chinks; large picture windows on facade; side windows are multipaned; outset porch spans facade. Built between 1909 and 1921 when Anton Olson owned property; directories do not indicate that he ever lived at this address. (Contributing.)
- 21 201 Forest Drive. 1 1/2 story side-gable frame house; narrow clapboard siding; jerkin head roof; 6/1 double-hung sash windows, set singly or in pairs; triple window on facade; outset porch; knee braces; sun room on north end. Built between 1909 and 1921, probably by Rolla B. Smith, the owner until 1920. (Contributing.)
- 22 111 Forest Drive. 1 story duplex; stucco walls; hipped roof with shakes; large fixed-paned windows; inset porch. Built in 1959 by Wayne Olsen; carport added in 1964. (Noncontributing.)
- 23 304 Forest Drive. Fred L. and Florence G. Tiffany House. 1 1/2 story side-gable frame house; bungalow design with unusual feature of boxed eaves; narrow clapboard siding; multipaned windows; shed-roofed porch in center of facade; addition at rear built between 1909 and 1921. House was built by Fred L. and Florence G. Tiffany between 1907 and 1908; Tiffany was president of Coeur d'Alene Abstract and Title Company in 1911; it is unclear if he ever lived in this house. (Contributing.)



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- 24 310 Forest Drive. 1 1/2 story side-gable frame house; Craftsman bungalow; large wood shingle siding; metal frame replacement windows; room added at front; outset front porch. House built ca. 1908, probably by H. S. Moore and J. F. and Jessie M. Baughman, who owned the property from 1908 until 1920. (Noncontributing.)
- 25 312 Forest Drive. Minnie Stoudt House. 1 1/2 story gable-front frame house; Colonial Revival; narrow clapboard siding; bay window on south wall; 3-part window on lower facade; other windows are 1/1 double-hung sash; outset porch spans facade; carport added on south. House built between 1906 and 1907 by Minnie Stoudt; John and Vida Christ lived there from 1909 into the mid-1920s; Christ was city clerk. (Contributing.)
- 26 316 Forest Drive. Matthew and Margaret J. Riley House. 1 1/2 story gable-front frame house; Colonial Revival; large wooden shingle replacement siding; enclosed front porch on right side has flat roof encircled with low balustrade; 1/1 double-hung sash windows. Matthew Riley worked as a boomman for Coeur d'Alene Lumber Co.; they lived there into the 1920s. (Noncontributing.)
- 27 320 Forest Drive. 1 story side-gable frame house; large wooden shingle siding; outset front porch spans facade and has new fan-shaped supports; large fixed-pane window in left facade; 1/1 double-hung sash window at right. House built between 1909 and 1914, probably by I. M. and Mary Busby; Busby was a local realtor. (Noncontributing.)
- 28 326 Forest Drive. Erick and Anna M. Bjorklund House. 1 1/2 story gable-front frame bungalow; narrow clapboard siding in midsection, with shingles in lower wall and gable ends; knee braces; inset front porch, with right half enclosed in 1940s; new bay window in lower facade; other windows are 1/1 double-hung sash. Built between 1910 and 1911; Bjorklund owned a clothing store. (Contributing.)
- 29 328 Forest Drive. 1 1/2 story side-gable frame house; Craftsman bungalow; clapboard siding in midsection; shingles in lower wall; knee braces; shed-roofed dormer on facade; altered windows; altered enclosed outset entry. House built between 1907 and 1908 by either Stephen A. and Frances Lewis or E. A. and Elizabeth A. Martin. Joseph B. and Nellie T. Hogan lived here from 1911-1919; Hogan was a lawyer. (Noncontributing.)
- 30 332 Forest Drive. R. L. and Mattie M. Poarch House. 1 1/2 story gable-front frame house; Colonial Revival; narrow clapboard siding with fishscale shingles in gable peaks; lower facade has large windows with transom; other windows are 1/1 double-hung sash set singly or in pairs; inset porch spans facade; new garage and family room added at rear to match original. Built in 1908; Poarch worked as a millwright at Blackwell Lumber Co. (Contributing.)

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### Military Drive:

- 31 423 Military Drive. A. C. and Maud White House. 1 1/2 story side-gable frame bungalow; narrow clapboard siding in midsection, with shingles below and in gable ends; shed-roofed dormer faces front; knee braces; inset porch spans facade; 12/1 double-hung sash windows. Built between 1907 and 1908 by A. C. and Maud White. (Contributing.)
- 32 421 Military Drive. 1 1/2 story gable-front frame house; bungalow; narrow clapboard siding with shingles in gable ends; large fixed-pane window in lower left facade; 9/1 double-hung sash at right; other windows are 1/1 double-hung sash; knee braces; shed-roofed dormer added to south side; outset porch spans facade. Built in 1907 by W. E. and Nannie Seelye, who built several other homes in this neighborhood in the same time period. (Contributing.)
- 33 417 Military Drive. 1 1/2 story gable-front frame house; Colonial Revival; narrow clapboard siding; bay window on lower facade; two-story bay on south side; most windows are 1/1 double-hung sash; inset corner porch with trio of round columns in corner. Built between 1907 and 1908 by either Isaac and Carrie Thompson or William D. and Minnie B. Rogers. (Contributing.)
- 34 413 Military Drive. Alpheus and Susan Pierce House. 1 1/2 story gable-front frame house; Bungalow; shiplap siding, with shingles in lower wall and gable ends; 1/1 double-hung sash windows; knee braces; outset porch spans facade. Built in 1907 by Alpheus and Susan Pierce; he worked for Lake City Furniture Co. (Contributing.)
- 35 407 Military Drive. J. T. and Jennie Sullivan House. 1 1/2 story gable-front frame house; wide clapboard or composition siding; wall dormers on north and south sides; knee braces; symmetrical facade with groups of three windows flanking front door; windows have multiple upper lights above single lower pane; inset porch spans facade. Built in 1908 by Sullivans; appears to have major additions by 1921. (Contributing.)
- 36 403 Military Drive. 1 1/2 story gable-front frame house; bungalow; aluminum siding; large windows with leaded glass transom flank door; other windows have leaded upper sash; inset porch spans facade. Built ca. 1909 by W. E. and Nannie B. Seelye, who built several other homes in the neighborhood during the same time period. Maurice B. and Annabel Sampson lived here from 1909-1920; he worked as a real estate salesman. (Contributing.)
- 37 329 Military Drive. O. A. and Arsella E. Roberts House. 1 1/2 story gable-front frame house; narrow clapboard siding, with shingles in lower walls and gable ends; knee braces; large windows with transoms on lower facade; bay window on north; other windows are 1/1 double-hung sash; inset porch spans facade; garage added to south side. Built in 1907 for Roberts. (Contributing.)

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- 38 325 Military Drive. 1 1/2 story side-gable frame house; narrow clapboard siding; shed-roofed dormer across facade; knee braces; large fixed-pane windows on lower facade; other windows are 1/1 double-hung sash, set singly or in pairs; inset porch spans facade; single car garage attached on north side as shown on 1921 map. House may have been constructed in 1907-1908 at rear of lot and moved forward by 1921; or it may have been built in place between 1909 and 1921. J. L. and Emma E. Voelker lived at this address from ca. 1908-1914; Voelker was a grocer. (Contributing.)
- 39 321 Military Drive. W. U. and Ada Casey House. 1 1/2 story gable-front house; rock-faced concrete block walls; gable ends clad in wide clapboards; knee braces; large windows on lower facade have 4-pane transom; others are 1/1 double-hung sash; inset porch spans facade. Built between 1906 and 1908 by Casey. (Contributing.)
- 40 317 Military Drive. Fred W. and Marjorie S. Tinkel House. 2 1/2 story frame house; Colonial Revival; wide composition clapboard siding; hipped roof with boxed eaves; hipped roofed dormers on south, east, and north; south half of outset porch is enclosed; bay window on south; other windows are 1/1 double-hung sash; front door has sidelights. Built between 1907 and 1908 by Tinkels; he was vice president and later president of First National Bank. (Contributing.)
- 41 311 Military Drive. 1 1/2 story side-gable frame house; bungalow; walls are clad with wide composition clapboard replacement siding; shed-roofed dormer across facade; leaded glass upper lights in windows; front door flanked by sidelights; inset porch spans facade. Built between 1909 and 1921; may have been built ca. 1916 by Carl G. A. and Constance Lundgren who lived here from 1916 into at least the mid-1920s. (Contributing.)
- 42 309 Military Drive. Sarah A. Burnett House. 1 1/2 story gable-front frame house; shiplap siding; multipaned windows; second story facade has square bay window with hipped roof; outset porch spans facade; house set at rear of lot. Built in 1913 by Sarah A. Burnett, a widow. (Contributing.)
- 43 303 Military Drive. James W. and Ada Cornelia Edwards House. 1 1/2 story side-gable frame house; bungalow; narrow clapboard siding, with shingles in lower wall and upper gable ends; shed roof across outset porch matches shed roof across rear; pedimented gable over front steps; knee braces; multipaned windows. Built between 1907 and 1908 when James and Ada Edwards owned the property. (Contributing.)
- 44 204 Military Drive. 1 1/2 story side-gable frame house; Tudor Revival; pebbly stucco coating; jerkin head roof; lattice-roofed pergola on south side; shallow arch above front door; multipaned french doors with sidelights in left facade; other windows are multipaned. Built between 1909 and 1921. (Contributing.)

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- 45 206 Military Drive. Axel Swan House. 1 story side-gable frame house; Craftsman bungalow; narrow clapboard siding, with board and batten siding in gable ends; 8-pane casement windows are set in bank of five on facade; gabled ell facing front contains enclosed porch; open porch on left facade has no roof, open rafters, battered piers, and heavy curving brackets. Built between 1909 and 1921 when property was owned by Axel Swan. (Contributing.)
- 46 310 Military Drive. D. R. and Ella Tanner House. 1 1/2 story gable-front frame house; Colonial Revival; narrow clapboard siding, with shingles in gable peaks; boxed eaves and eave returns; pedimented wall dormer on south, with smaller pedimented dormer on north; bay window on facade; most other windows are 1/1 double-hung sash; wrap-around porch replaced by smaller porch on south side only. Built between 1906 and 1908 when owned by Tanners. (Contributing.)
- 47 312 Military Drive. David H. and Anna F. Mitchell House. 1 1/2 story gable-front frame house; bungalow; aluminum siding; shed-roofed dormers on north and south sides; knee braces; 3/1 double-hung sash windows; inset front porch has been partially enclosed. Built between 1909 and 1912 by Mitchells; he worked as a sign painter. (Noncontributing.)
- 48 316 Military Drive. Samuel L. and Lillian D. Boyd House. 1 1/2 story gable-front frame house; Craftsman bungalow; narrow clapboard siding, with shingles in gable ends; eaves flare, matching flare in base of walls; leaded glass sidelights flank front door; 1/1 double-hung sash windows; bay window on north; outset porch. Built between 1909 and 1911; Boyd was the assistant manager at Coeur d'Alene Lumber Company in 1911. (Contributing.)
- 49 320 Military Drive. 1 1/2 story side-gable frame house; Tudor Revival; aluminum siding mirrors original narrow clapboards; multipaned casement windows set in groups of three; jerkin head roof; knee braces; roof arches over center front door. Probably built in 1921 by John Earl and Ernestine N. Duthie. (Contributing.)
- 50 328 Military Drive. Edward N. and Maude E. LaVeine House. 1 1/2 story frame house; aluminum siding; hipped roof with wide flaring eaves; hipped dormers on south and west; bay window in center facade; most others are 1/1 double-hung sash; inset porch in right corner. Built between 1909 and 1912 by LaVeine. (Contributing.)
- 51 334 Military Drive. 1 1/2 story gable-front frame house; bungalow; narrow clapboard walls with shingles in gable ends; two shallow bay windows on facade, with another on north; 5/1 double-hung sash windows; inset porch spans facade; wall dormer addition on south side matches original. Built between 1906 and 1908 when owned by W. G. and Laura Hartwell, who also built #52 about the same time. (Contributing.)

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- 52 338 Military Drive. 1 1/2 story side-gable frame house; bungalow; narrow clapboard walls with shingles in gable ends; gabled dormer in front and shed-roofed one in rear; knee braces; wood frame sliding windows in lower facade; most others are 1/1 double-hung sash; inset porch spans facade; one-story addition at rear. Built between 1906 and 1908 when property was owned by W. G. and Laura Hartwell, who also built #51. (Contributing.)
- 53 408 Military Drive. 1 1/2 story side-gable frame house; wood shingle siding set in alternating wide and narrow bands; gabled dormer in front; knee braces; 3/1 double-hung sash windows set in groups of three or four; inset porch is now enclosed with brick veneer on lower facade; large picture windows in porch area. Built between 1909 and 1921. (Contributing.)
- 54 410 Military Drive. Arthur J. and Lillian L. Leonard House. 2 story gable-front frame house; Colonial Revival; narrow clapboard siding; pedimented gable in facade; boxed eaves; eave returns in side gables; large windows with 7-pane transom on lower facade; most other windows are 1/1 double-hung sash; one-story bay window on south; house was originally just 1 or 1 1/2 stories in height, with inset porch in southwest corner; porch enclosed and additional height added after 1921; style matches well. Built between 1906 and 1908 by Leonard, a teamster. (Contributing.)
- 55 412 Military Drive. 1 story side-gable frame house; bungalow; narrow clapboard siding; large picture windows in facade; addition on north end; outset gabled porch in center of facade. Built between 1906 and 1908 by either George and Frances Tanner or Robert H. and Angeline Muncey. (Noncontributing.)
- 56 422 Military Drive. 1 1/2 story side-gable frame house; bungalow; board and batten siding, with shingles in lower wall; shed-roofed dormer on facade; multipaned sliding wooden windows; inset porch spans facade and is now enclosed. Built between 1909 and 1921. (Contributing.)
- 57 424 Military Drive. 1 story frame house with hipped roof and gabled ell facing front; ell was originally an open porch; boxed eaves; large fixed pane windows, along with 1/1 double-hung sash windows. Built probably between 1910 and 1916 by George W. and Gersha V. Haney; Haney was the auditor for Blackwell Lumber Co. (Noncontributing.)

Park Drive:

- 58 423 Park Drive. James and Elizabeth Delaney House. 1 1/2 story frame house; bungalow; narrow clapboard siding; hipped roof with hipped dormer on facade; large windows with transoms on facade; hexagonal window in front entry wall; inset porch in right corner with hipped roof over front steps. Built between 1909 and 1916 by Delaneys; in 1916 he was a carman on the Spokane and Inland Empire Railroad, an electric line connecting Spokane and Coeur d'Alene. (Contributing.)

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- 59 419 Park Drive. 1 1/2 story side-gable frame house with full width gabled ell facing front; wide clapboard siding; multipaned fixed windows on lower facade, with 8/1 double-hung sash windows on upper facade; outset gabled porch shelters front door; single car garage with flat roof attached at southeast corner. House originally was side gabled with wrap-around porch across east and south. Built between 1909 and 1921. (Noncontributing.)
- 60 415 Park Drive. Mary and Louis Haraldson House. 1 1/2 story gable-front frame house; Colonial Revival; shiplap siding with shingles in lower walls and upper gable ends; cut-out pattern on front barge boards; 1/1 double-hung sash windows; outset porch spans facade, replacing earlier wrap-around porch. Built between 1906 and 1908 by Haraldsons; he worked as a grader at Coeur d'Alene Lumber Co. in 1911. (Contributing.)
- 61 411 Park Drive. 1 1/2 story side-gable frame house; gabled ell and dormer face facade; walls are clad with wooden shingles alternating wide and narrow bands; 6/1 double-hung sash windows set in pairs or triples in lower facade; upper windows replaced with metal frame sliders in original openings; closely cropped eaves. Built between 1909 and 1921 when owned by Louis and Mary Haraldson, who lived next door in #60. (Contributing.)
- 62 409 Park Drive. 1 1/2 story side-gable frame house, set behind 411 (#61); enclosed gabled entry faces east; walls clad with wooden shingles alternating wide and narrow bands. Built between 1909 and 1921 when owned by Louis and Mary Haraldson, who lived next door in #60. (Contributing.)
- 63 405 Park Drive. Laurantz and Emma Larsen House. 1 1/2 story gable-front frame house; bungalow; narrow clapboard siding; large multipaned or fixed-single pane windows on facade; right half of inset porch has been enclosed; knee braces. Built between 1912 and 1914 by Larsen, a setter at Dryad Lumber Co. (Contributing.)
- 64 401 Park Drive. Albert and Inga Eid House. 1 1/2 story gable-front frame house; narrow clapboard siding with shingles in upper gable peaks; gabled dormer on south; knee braces; trio of 6/1 double-hung sash windows in upper facade; most other windows are 1/1 double-hung sash, set in pairs or triples; inset porch spans facade; original design was almost identical to 405 Park (#63). Built between 1912 and 1914 by Eid, foreman at Blackwell Lumber Co. (Contributing.)
- 65 335 Park Drive. Dorothy S. Seymour House. 1 story gable-front frame house; wide clapboard siding; large fixed-pane windows; shallow gable pitch; overhang on south side shelters front door. Built between 1957 and 1960 by Seymour, an office secretary; she was the widow of Charles J. Seymour who ran a cigar store for many years. (Noncontributing.)

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- 66 333 Park Drive. F. A. and Josephine Drake House. 1 1/2 story side-gable frame house; Craftsman bungalow; narrow clapboard siding, with shingles in gable ends; rafter ends cut in zigzag pattern; barge board ends are notched; brass hinges on door have same zigzag pattern as rafters; gabled dormer at front sheltered steps; original front porch removed; two sets of three double-hung sash windows on facade, with leaded squares in upper lights. Built between 1909 and 1911 by Drakes. (Contributing.)
- 67 325 Park Drive. 1 story frame house; wide clapboard siding; hipped roof with closely cropped eaves; enclosed gabled entry on south; gabled roof to shelter front door; multipaned wood frame windows; round window to right of front door; house appears to have been remodeled in 1930s to minimal traditional style. Probably built between 1909 and 1911 by Theophilus C. and M. Eva Hahn; he worked as a bookkeeper with Consumers Co. and Kootenai Power Co. (Contributing.)
- 68 319 Park Drive. W. E. and Helen M. Sander House. 1 1/2 story side-gable frame bungalow; wooden shingle siding; shed roofed dormers across front and rear; double-hung sash windows with diamond panes in upper lights; front door is flanked by sidelights; inset porch spans facade; eaves flare; knee braces. Built between 1909 and 1911 by Sander, the general manager of the Idaho Mercantile Co. (Contributing.)
- 69 315 Park Drive. 1 1/2 story side-gable frame house; bungalowoid; asbestos shingle siding; shed-roofed dormer on facade; large fixed-pane windows on lower facade; most other windows are 1/1 double-hung sash; inset porch spans facade. Built between 1915 and 1919, probably by George W. and Gersha V. Haney. (Contributing.)
- 70 309 Park Drive. F. D. and Sara L. Winn House. 1 story side-gable frame house set at rear of lot; narrow clapboard siding; large fixed-pane window in left facade; 2/1 double-hung sash windows flank larger window in right facade; original porch altered; gabled roof over front door. Built in 1907 by Winns. (Noncontributing.)
- 71 303 Park Drive. Henry P. Knight House. Large 2 1/2 story frame house; Colonial Revival; aluminum siding simulates original narrow clapboards; hipped roof with boxed eaves; gabled dormer with eave returns and Palladian window set above oval window in second story; 1/1 double-hung sash windows set singly or in pairs; outset porch spans facade, with gabled peak over front steps; porch now enclosed; large 3 story addition at rear is modern in design. Built ca. 1909 for Henry P. Knight. (Noncontributing.)
- 72 207 Park Drive. 1 1/2 story side-gable frame house; bungalowoid; wood shingle siding alternates wide and narrow bands; roof flares at eaves; knee braces; 1/1 double-hung sash windows; shed-roofed front dormer expanded into wide gabled dormer with large metal frame sliding windows; inset front porch enclosed with large fixed-pane windows; additions have aluminum siding. Built between 1909 and 1921. (Noncontributing.)

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- 73 205 Park Drive. Dr. Charles W. and Isadore Craik House. 1 1/2 story gable-front frame house; Craftsman bungalow; narrow clapboard siding, with shingles in gable ends; gabled ell faces south; pairs of curving knee braces; cut-out designs in barge boards; large fixed-pane windows in south ell; most others are multipaned; inset porch spans facade. Built in 1906 for ca. \$3500; designed by architect Kreig for C. W. Craik. (Contributing.)
- 74 101 Park Drive. Oscar W. and Kathryn M. Edmonds House. 1 story frame house with veneer of narrow white bricks; ranch style; U-shaped plan has double garage in one wing; hipped roof covered with flat tile; wide boxed eaves; large fixed-pane windows look south and east; open deck on east enclosed with low brick wall. Built ca. 1957 by Edmonds; he was president and manager of Panhandle Abstract Co. (Noncontributing.)

### Lakeshore Drive:

- 75 607 Lakeshore Drive. 2 1/2 story frame house; bungalow elements mixed with Colonial Revival massing; narrow clapboard siding, with shingles above second story sills; hipped roof with wide open eaves; notched rafter ends; gabled dormer in facade; large fixed-pane windows in facade; most others are 1/1 double-hung sash; outset porch spans facade. Built in 1908 by W. E. and Nannie B. Seelye, who built several other houses in the neighborhood in same time period; unclear if they ever lived here. Judge James H. Beatty lived here from 1910-1918. (Contributing.)
- 76 613 Lakeshore Drive. Annie L. Nevers House. 2 1/2 story frame house; Colonial Revival; narrow clapboard siding; hipped roof with wide boxed eaves; gabled facade dormer with eave returns; new arched window in dormer; most windows are 1/1 double-hung sash, with leaded upper lights on facade; outset porch spans facade; porch now enclosed with large fixed-pane windows. Built in 1907 for Annie L. Nevers, a widow; Clay Porter was contractor; Nevers shared house with two grown sons until selling ca. 1919. (Noncontributing.)
- 77 615 Lakeshore Drive. Kate Louise Newton House. 2 1/2 story frame house; Colonial Revival; narrow clapboard siding; cross-gable roof with pedimented gables; boxed eaves with curving modillions; fan window in facade gable above three-part multipaned window; most windows are 1/1 double-hung sash; bay window on west side; outset porch spans facade but has been enclosed to form sunroom. Built between 1909 and 1911 by Kate Louise Newton, a widow; she lived there until ca. 1918. (Contributing.)
- 78 801 Lakeshore Drive. 1 story side-gable frame house; Tudor Revival; asbestos shingle siding; outset entry with uneven gable roof which curves at peak; half-timbering in entry walls; large fixed-pane window on facade; most other windows are 1/1 double-hung sash; original one-car garage attached at west end. Built between 1909 and 1921. (Contributing.)
- 79 807 Lakeshore Drive. 2 story gable-front frame house; grooved plywood siding; variety of windows; shallow pitch in roof; balcony for second story on facade. Built as one-story duplex ca. 1960; altered radically in 1988. (Noncontributing.)



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- 80 815 Lakeshore Drive. Alfred and Sarah Page House. 2 story gable-front frame house set at rear of lot; clapboard siding; variety of windows; porches added. House was built between 1909 and 1921 when owned by Pages; Pages purchased several other lots during same time period; house was originally a modest one-story dwelling, now radically altered. (Noncontributing.)

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Summary Paragraph. The Fort Grounds neighborhood is locally significant for its concentration of intact homes dating from the early twentieth century when Coeur d'Alene was experiencing tremendous growth. The styles represented in the district reflect what was popular during this period not only in Coeur d'Alene but also in other cities in northern Idaho and across the nation. The district is also significant as an early planned subdivision in Coeur d'Alene. The design of the neighborhood featuring long curving streets leading to the lake, uniform housing setback, and restrictive covenants made the Sherman Park Addition probably the first area in the city to regulate the exclusive quality of the neighborhood. The built environment qualifies the district under Criteria C for architecture, while the neighborhood design qualifies it under Criteria C for landscape architecture.

The Sherman Park Addition was platted into ninety-five lots in October 1905. Construction on the initial houses started soon after that and continued at a steady pace. The November 1908 Sanborn firemap showed forty-six homes already finished in the neighborhood, although some of these were very small starter houses which were later replaced with more substantial homes. By November 1921, the date of the next Sanborn firemap, only three vacant lots remained. Today, seventy-two of the eighty buildings date from the period of significance bracketed by the start of construction and the apparent end of construction. The district reflects the period of significance in the unchanged layout of the streets and the concentration of period architecture. Later changes are seen in alterations to houses, including siding, windows, porches, and roofs.

The Fort Grounds neighborhood is a distinct neighborhood within Coeur d'Alene. It is set off by the physical boundaries of the park on the east, the lake on the south, the college campus on the west, and Garden Avenue on the north. The residential area across Garden Avenue dates from the same time period as the Fort Grounds neighborhood, but it lacks the architectural integrity and cohesion of the district.

The district is further distinguished by its street patterns. It is the only area in historic Coeur d'Alene to deviate radically from the regular grid pattern. Lakeshore Drive curves along the south following the edge of the lake, while Park Drive, Hubbard, and Garden form regular square boundaries for the district on the other three sides. Within the neighborhood, however, Military and Forest traverse the north-south length, curving gently to form irregular lot shapes and add rural charm to the neighborhood. The long blocks are broken by only two cross streets: Woodland Drive, which connects Hubbard and Military, and Sherman Court, a narrow alley running between Forest and Park.

The architecture of the district's houses reflects what was popular in the city during the period of significance, from 1905-1921. Within the various styles, the gable front design predominates. Alan Gowans calls these "homestead temple-houses," a form with broad appeal and simple construction. House catalogs promoted this building form extensively during the early twentieth century, and local builders probably looked to these sources for ideas and plans.

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Use of similar building materials further unifies the district. Seventy-four of the eighty houses originally had wooden weatherboard siding, and of these, fifty-one retain the original materials. This extensive use of wood is typical of towns and cities throughout the Inland Northwest where local lumber mills manufactured and sold building supplies.

The Fort Grounds neighborhood conveys a sense of both historic and architectural cohesion through its landscape, setting, building design, and integrity. The setting and landscape remain virtually unaltered. The narrow streets now accommodate only one-way traffic, and landscape trees and shrubs have matured. House designs, typical of the period of significance, remain unchanged or only slightly altered on the majority of the homes. Noncontributing buildings are generally similar in scale and setback to other structures in the district, and thus they do not cause any jarring intrusions.

House styles found in the Fort Grounds neighborhood are typical of designs from other neighborhoods in Coeur d'Alene and towns throughout northern Idaho and nearby eastern Washington. Variations on the bungalow style were very popular during the first two decades of the twentieth century when most of this region was undergoing rapid development. This growth coincided with the heyday of the bungalow nationwide. Other homes in the neighborhood reflect more traditional styles, especially the Colonial Revival. Dutch Colonial Revival and Tudor Revival are also represented in the neighborhood, along with a number of homes which can be described only as vernacular. In this respect, the Fort Grounds neighborhood is representative of regional residential housing during the period of significance.

The street layout, with long, irregular blocks, and the restrictive covenants make this neighborhood unusual for its time. Other subdivisions in Coeur d'Alene from the same time period maintained the rigid grid pattern for streets, the same design followed by most other towns in the region. Research did not turn up any other subdivision in Coeur d'Alene from the early 1900s with deeds containing restrictive covenants, although these were relatively common in nearby Spokane. Since Coeur d'Alene was the largest town in northern Idaho, it is assumed that the smaller towns did not attempt to regulate development with such restrictions until a much later date.

Residents in the Fort Grounds neighborhood take great pride in their homes and streets, maintaining their houses and yards well. Many homes have been painted in the last few years, but no major restoration projects are now underway.

The Fort Sherman chapel is the only building lying outside the period of significance which deserves special consideration. It was listed in the National Register of Historic Places in 1979 as part of the Fort Sherman Historic District. The chapel, maintained by the local historical society, is used for Sunday worship and numerous weddings. The Kootenai County Certified Local Government (CLG) recently undertook a major preservation project on the chapel. The CLG has replaced the roof and now is planning to replace rotting foundation supports.

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**History.** The town of Coeur d'Alene had its beginnings in the military outpost of Camp Coeur d'Alene, established by the U. S. Army in April 1877. Military officials changed the post's name twice: to Ft. Coeur d'Alene in April 1879 and then to Ft. Sherman in April 1887.

The remote military post did not see much action. Troops were aroused and sent to Ft. Lapwai briefly during the Bannock Indian campaign in 1878. Soldiers spent more time in 1892 preserving martial law in the uprising in the Coeur'd'Alene mining district. Six years later, the Spanish American War took nearly all the troops from Fort Sherman, leaving only a handful of men behind to maintain the buildings.

Soldiers never returned to Fort Sherman, and the military abandoned the post in 1900. All equipment and supplies were auctioned in the summer of that year, but the disposition of land and buildings remained unsettled for several years.

Despite the presence of the military post, the town of Coeur d'Alene grew slowly in the early 1880s. Nearby Rathdrum, with its favorable location beside the Northern Pacific Railroad tracks, prospered during the same time. The discovery of gold in 1883 in the Coeur d'Alene mining district to the east brought explosive growth to Rathdrum, the newly designated county seat, and the town became the shipping point for supplies to the new mines.

Rathdrum's boom faded quickly, however, once Daniel Chase Corbin completed a spur line into Coeur d'Alene in 1887, allowing the town to take over as supply point to the mines. Rathdrum's population immediately declined more than fifty percent. Coeur d'Alene's growth became steady from then on, based initially on the mining trade and later on the timber industry.

Coeur d'Alene expanded its boundaries as it grew. The population doubled to 2,000 between 1896 and 1903 and then exploded to 9,000 by 1908. The town then remained at this level into the 1920s. The population increased as the timber industry expanded in the area, opening new mills in Coeur d'Alene.

Initial residential development concentrated in the area just north of the commercial district along Sherman and Lakeside. The town continued to expand northward and eastward during the first few years of the twentieth century.

The abandoned Fort Sherman Military Reservation offered Coeur d'Alene great potential for expansion with its more than eight hundred acres of land along the lake shore and western edge of town. Appraisers evaluated all the land and fifty-two structures during the summer of 1904. By the following spring, the approaching auction of the reserve generated great excitement throughout the region.

The sale took place in early June 1905. All of the land had been divided into lots ranging from one to twenty acres in size. The large houses of officers' row sold first, bringing in prices between \$210 and \$901. Most of the lots sold to individuals and developers, although prevailing opinion

United States Department of the Interior  
National Park Service

## National Register of Historic Places Continuation Sheet

Section number 8 Page 4 Sherman Park Addition

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seemed to favor the sale of prime lakefront to industries which would benefit the city. Stack-Gibbs purchased forty acres of land on the lakefront for a large lumber mill. F. A. Blackwell and other mills bought lots along the river for industrial purposes.

Two Spokane men bought two of the three large lots which became the Sherman Park Addition to Coeur d'Alene. Thomas T. Kerl paid \$3,650 for Lot 43, encompassing 11.8 acres, while David T. Ham spent \$4,050 for adjoining Lot 45 which included the post commander's spacious house and 9.34 acres.

Rev. Thomas J. Purcell of the Catholic church in Coeur d'Alene bought the smaller Lot 44 containing just 2.53 acres and the post hospital. He had the building moved to Ninth and Indiana where it served as a Catholic boarding school for many years. After removing the building, Purcell sold the land to the newly formed Sherman Park Company in December 1905 for \$2,000.

Kerl and Ham, through their Sherman Park Company, subdivided the three large lots into ninety-five smaller ones. Two of these (14 and 72) later went to the city for street and park use. Some owners purchased more than one lot before building, either combining two smaller lots or dividing an adjoining lot with a neighbor. Only one lot (10) was subdivided during the initial building stages, but four others (18, 26 and 27 combined, and 76) contained front and rear houses. Three oversized lots (32, 51, and 52) comprised one entire block containing the commander's home. Kerl purchased these for \$6,000 in 1905, retaining the building for his home. Kerl's widow sold the property in 1945 to Charles A. Finch, Jr., and he platted the block into twelve lots in 1950. Because of its late development, this block is left out of the nomination.

The Sherman Park Company altered the alignment of the existing north-south road, now known as Hubbard, and added three other parallel roads (Forest, Military, and Park Drives) as well as connecting streets and alleys. The main access road came in from the north; an additional entrance in the southeast corner was regulated with a locked gate to keep out heavy traffic. Initial plans called for retaining a wide strip of land along the lakeshore to form a park area for residents, beautifying it with shrubs, rustic gates, and benches. Plans called for two rows of trees to be planted along the western edge to hide the mill. The local newspaper quickly predicted that this would become a fashionable suburban residential district.

Deeds to lots in the Sherman Park Addition contained twelve covenants, making this probably the first development in northern Idaho to contain such provisions. The covenants restricted buildings to residences and associated structures; specified setbacks from streets and rights-of-way; limited fence and wall heights to five feet or less; kept teams and vehicles off sidewalks; eliminated regular heavy traffic; and specified proportional payments for subdivision improvements. Covenant 4 listed minimal house values for each lot, starting with \$1,200 for lots in the northwest block, \$1,500 for most central lots, \$2,000 for lots facing the city park, and \$5,000 for larger lots facing Lake Coeur d'Alene.

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Section number 8 Page 5 Sherman Park Addition

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The location of Sherman Park Addition near both Lake Coeur d'Alene and the electric railroad line to Spokane made the neighborhood appeal to some Spokane families who wanted a summer home near the lake. A number of families camped in tents on their lots during the summer of 1907, and others built small, temporary houses to be replaced at a later date.

The neighborhood built up rapidly, as did other parts of the old military reservation. After just one year of development, the Coeur d'Alene school board purchased a two-acre tract of land on the fort grounds in August 1906 and constructed a four-room frame school to accommodate the great influx of new families to the area. By late November 1908, the Sherman Park Addition boasted forty-six homes on its ninety-five lots.

Developers Kerl and Ham initially retained a major voice in neighborhood plans, but residents soon moved to take control. At a meeting on 31 May 1907, owners expressed anger that the developers had allowed a boathouse to be built at the end of Park Drive. When they found that other buildings might be constructed along the beach, they discussed steps to secure an agreement on this strip. This land never became a community beach, however, transferring instead in 1910 to property owners across Lakeshore Drive. Their deeds restricted any building which might "obstruct the view or mar the beauty of the lake shore or the water" but went on to allow construction of boathouses and docks.

At the same meeting, owners elected a committee to investigate transferring control of the streets and alleys of the Sherman Park Addition from the developers to the residents. They also appointed another committee to work out improved access to the neighborhood from Sherman Avenue. The Sherman Park Corporation deeded Park Drive to the city in 1909 and may have turned over the other streets at the same time.

The neighborhood continued to grow rapidly during the next decade. By late 1921, only three vacant lots were left in the Sherman Park Addition. These stayed empty until the owners built during the late 1950s and early 1960s. The area remained stable over the years but has seen a resurgence of popularity in the last ten years. The neighborhood now has an active association to oversee general neighborhood improvements.

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## National Register of Historic Places Continuation Sheet

Section number 9 Page 1 Sherman Park Addition

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### Unpublished sources:

Deed Records, Recorder's Office, Kootenai County Courthouse, Coeur d'Alene.

### Maps:

"Coeur d'Alene, Idaho." Sanborn Insurance Company. June 1891, May 1896, September 1903, November 1908, and November 1921. On file, Special Collections, University of Idaho, Moscow.

"Fort Sherman, Idaho." J. M. Hilton, Q.M.G.O. Copy of original from National Archives by LGC. 1972.

"Plat of Fort Sherman Abandoned Military Reservation." Recorded 1 December 1905. On file, Kootenai County Courthouse, Coeur d'Alene.

"Sherman Park, Kootenai County, Idaho." Otto A. Weile, Civil Engineer, Spokane. October 1905. On file, Kootenai County Courthouse, Coeur d'Alene.

### Newspapers:

Coeur d'Alene Journal. Selected issues, 1905-1907.

Coeur d'Alene Press. Selected issues, 1900.

Spokesman-Review (Spokane). Selected issues, 1904-1911.

### Published Sources:

Gowans, Alan. The Comfortable House: North American Suburban Architecture 1890-1930. Cambridge, Massachusetts: The MIT Press, 1986.

Henderson, John M., William S. Shiach, and Harry B. Averill. An Illustrated History of North Idaho, Embracing Nez Perce, Idaho, Latah, Kootenai and Shoshone Counties, State of Idaho. Spokane: Western Historical Publishing Company, 1903.

Jones, Larry. "Fort Sherman," Reference Series. No. 355. Boise: Idaho Historical Society, 1979. Museum of North Idaho. "Coeur d'Alene, City of Beautiful Homes and Landmarks, A Tour Guide." 1988.

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----- Coeur d'Alene City and Kootenai, Bonner and Shoshone Counties Directory, 1912-13. Seattle: R. L. Polk and Co., 1912.

----- Coeur d'Alene and Kootenai County Directory, 1923-24. Seattle: R. L. Polk and Co., 1923.

----- Kootenai, Bonner and Shoshone Counties Directory, 1914-15. Seattle: R. L. Polk and Co., 1914.

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National Park Service**

**National Register of Historic Places  
Continuation Sheet**

Section number 10 Page 1

Sherman Park Addition

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**UTM REFERENCES**

A	11	515500	5280240
B	11	515710	5280240
C	11	515760	5280130
D	11	515740	5279880
E	11	515660	5279870
F	11	515660	5280000
G	11	515540	5280000
H	11	515540	5279860
I	11	515490	5279890



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# **National Register of Historic Places**

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### **VERBAL BOUNDARY DESCRIPTION:**

Area includes all of original Sherman Park Addition to Coeur d'Alene, less lots 14 and 72 (now owned by city for street and park use), and less lots 32, 51, and 52 (now known as Finch's Subdivision). Area is bounded by Garden Avenue on the north, Hubbard Street on the west, Lakeshore Drive on the south, and Park Drive on the east, less Finch's Subdivision bounded by Sherman Court on the north, Forest Drive on the west, Lakeshore Drive on the south, and Military Drive on the east.

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# **National Register of Historic Places Continuation Sheet**

Section number 10 Page 3 Sherman Park Addition

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## **BOUNDARY JUSTIFICATION**

The area included in the nomination is what was known historically as the Sherman Park Addition. The block not included was not subdivided until 1950, with buildings constructed after this date and thus not fitting in with the period of significance for the rest of the nominated area.

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## National Register of Historic Places Continuation Sheet

Section number    Page  1  Sherman Park Addition

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Nancy F. Renk PHOTOGRAPH KEY

September 5, 1991

Idaho State Historical Society

Boise, Idaho

Camera view follows address or name of building.

### Streetscape of Military Drive

6. Ft. Sherman Chapel  
SE

9. 719 Woodland Drive  
N

11. 327 Forest Drive  
W

19. 213 Forest Drive  
W

20. 209 Forest Drive  
SW

21. 201 Forest Drive  
W

28. 326 Forest Drive  
E

30. 332 Forest Drive  
E

33. 417 Military Drive  
SW

34. 413 Military Drive  
W

39. 321 Military  
W

43. 303 Military Drive  
NW

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National Park Service**

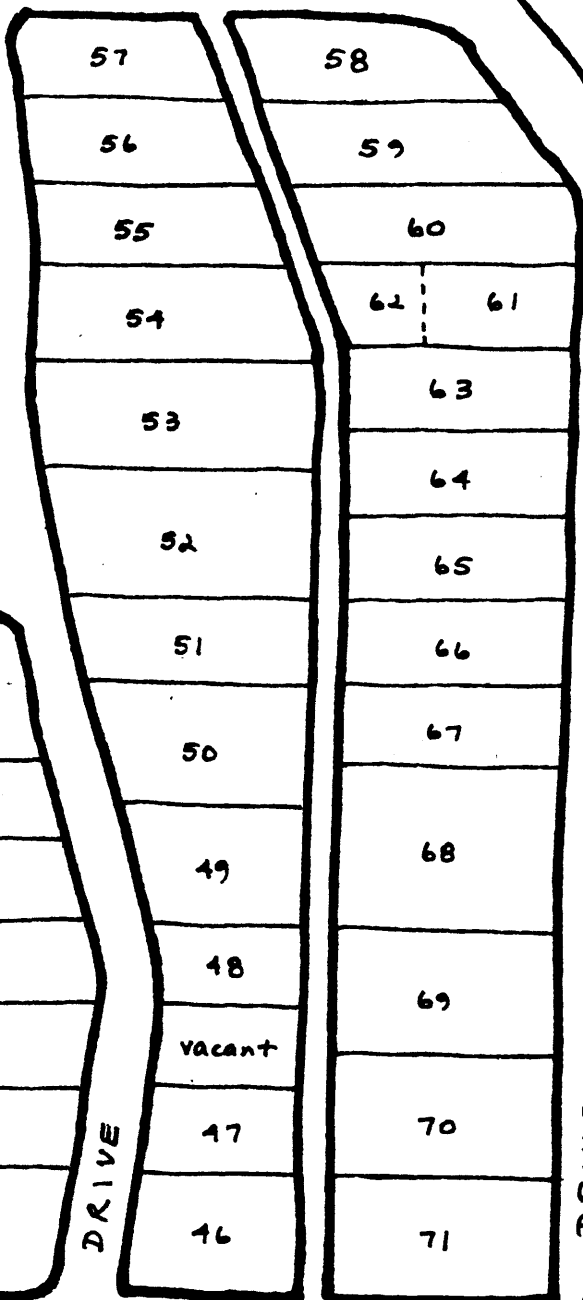
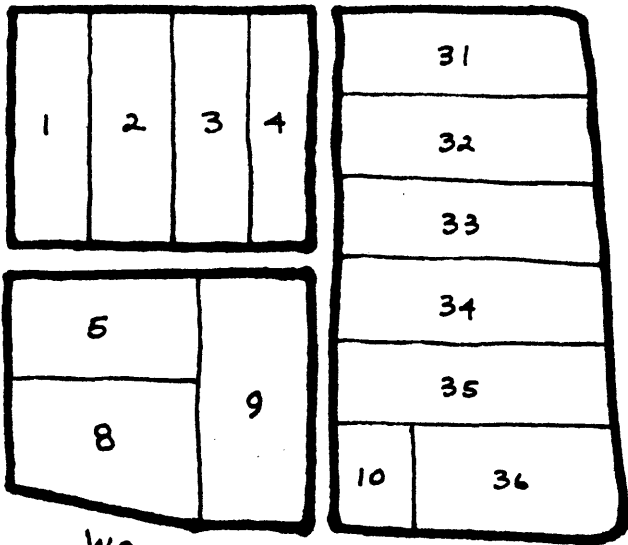
**National Register of Historic Places  
Continuation Sheet**

Section number \_\_\_ Page 2 Sherman Park Addition

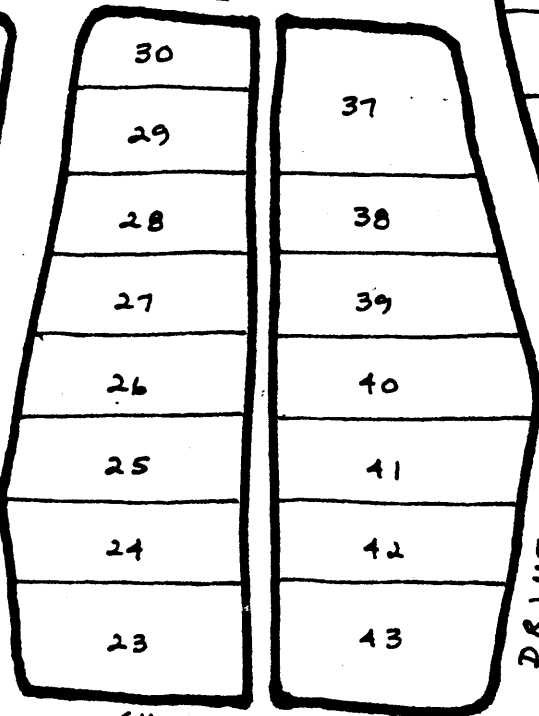
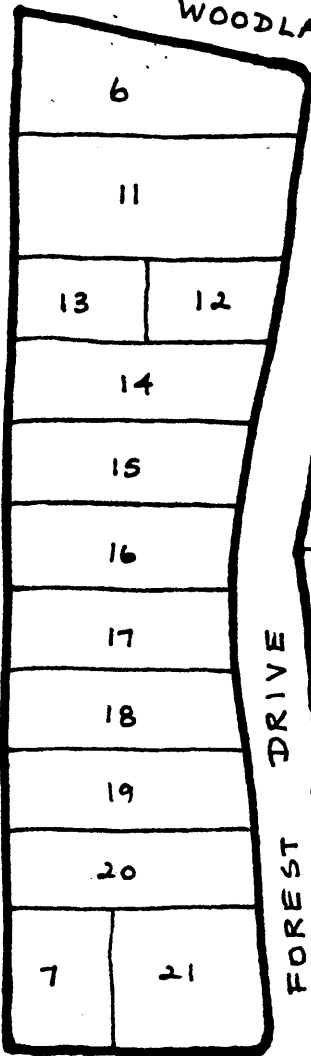
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- 44. 204 Military Drive  
E
- 46. 310 Military Drive  
E
- 47. 312 Military Drive  
E
- 48. 316 Military Drive  
E
- 51. 334 Military Drive  
E
- 52. 338 Military Drive  
NE
- 54. 410 Military Drive  
E
- 68. 319 Park Drive  
W
- 73. 205 Park Drive  
W
- 76. & 613 Lakeshore Drive (right) and
- 77. 615 Lakeshore Drive  
NW

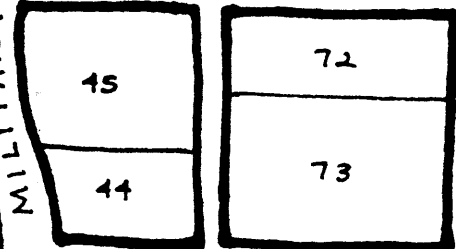
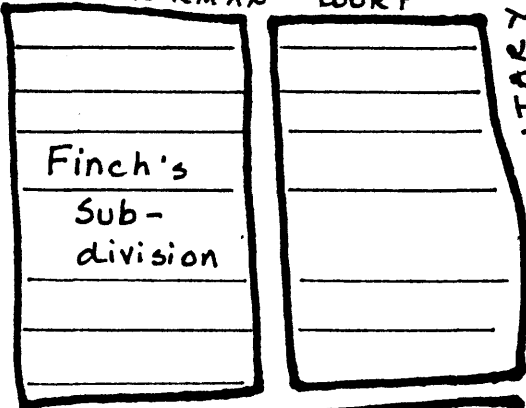
GARDEN AVENUE



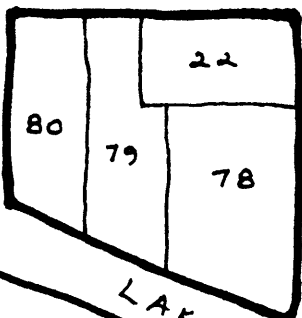
WOODLAND DRIVE



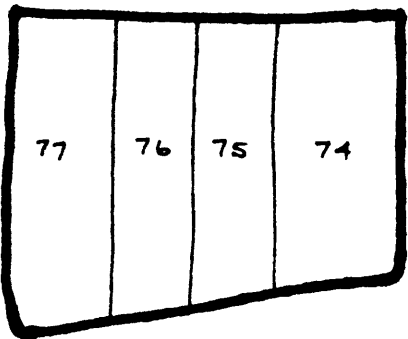
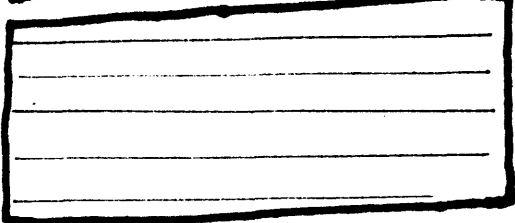
SHERMAN COURT



PARK DRIVE



LAKE SHORE DRIVE



DRIVE



Streetscape of Military Drive, Sherman

Park Addition

Kootenai County Idaho





Ft. Sherman Chapel, Sherman Park Addition  
Kootenai County, Idaho

#6



719 Woodland, Sherman Park Addition  
Kootenai County, Idaho

#9



327 Forest Drive, Sherman Park Addition  
Kootenai County, Idaho

#11



213 Forest Drive, Sherman Park Addition

Kootenai County, Idaho

#19





209 Forest Drive, Sherman Park Addition

Kootenai County, Idaho

#20



201 Forest Drive, Sherman Park Addition  
Kootenai County, Idaho

#21



326 Forest Drive, Sherman Park Addition  
Kootenai County, Idaho

#28



332 Forest, Sherman Park Addition  
Kootenai County, Idaho

#30





417 Military Drive, Sherman Park Addition  
Kootenai County, Idaho

#33



413 Military Drive, Sherman Park Addition  
Kootenai County, Idaho

#34



321 Military Drive, Sherman Park Addition  
Kootenai County, Idaho

# 39



303 Military Drive, Sherman Park Addition

Kootenai County, Idaho

#43





204 Military Drive, Sherman Park Addition  
Kootenai County, Idaho

#44



310 Military Drive, Sherman Park Addition  
Kootenai County, Idaho

#416



312 Military Drive, Sherman Park Addition

Kootenai County, Idaho

#47



316

316 Military Drive, Sherman Park  
Addition

Kootenai County, Idaho

#48





334 Military Drive, Sherman Park Addition  
Cootenai County, Idaho

#51



338 Military Drive, Sherman Park Addition  
Kootenai County, Idaho

\*52



410 Military Drive, Sherman  
Park Addition

Kootenai County, Idaho

#54



NO  
PARKING  
THIS SIDE  
OF STREET

319 Park Drive, Shuman Park Addition  
Tetonai County, Idaho

#68





205 Park Drive, Sherman Park Addition  
Kootenai County, Idaho

#73



left to right: 615 and 613 Lakeshore Drive,

Sherman Park Addition

Kootenai County, Idaho

# 77 and # 76

**Attachment B**

1APt1 Matthews Municipal Ordinances § 33:102 (2d ed.)

Matthews Municipal Ordinances  
Database updated November 2015  
The Publisher's Editorial Staff  
Part II. Forms  
Chapter 33. City Planning  
III. Zoning<sup>1</sup>  
Correlation Table References

§ 33:102. Neighborhood character (mansionization)

**Section One.** Definitions:

**BASE FLOOR.**

That story of a main building, at or above grade, which is not considered a basement, and which has the greatest number of square feet confined within the exterior walls, including the area of the attached covered parking at the same story. All levels within four vertical feet of each other shall count as a single story.

**FLOOR AREA, RESIDENTIAL.**

The area in square feet confined within the exterior walls of a building or accessory building on a lot in an RA, RE, RS, or R1 Zone. Any floor or portion of a floor with a ceiling height greater than 14 feet shall count as twice the square footage of that area. The area of stairways shall only be counted once regardless of ceiling height. Area of an attic or portion of an attic with a ceiling height of more than seven feet shall be included in the floor area calculation,

Except that the following areas shall not be counted:

1. The first 400 square feet of covered parking area,
2. Detached accessory buildings not exceeding 200 square feet; however, the total combined area exempted of all these accessory buildings on a lot shall not exceed 400 square feet,
3. The first 250 square feet of attached porches, patios, and breezeways with a solid roof if they are open on at least two sides,
4. Porches, patios, and breezeways that have an open lattice roof,

5. The first 100 square feet of any story or portion of a story of the main building on a lot with a ceiling height greater than 14 feet shall be counted only once, and

6. A Basement when the elevation of the upper surface of the floor or roof above the basement does not exceed two feet in height at any point above the finished or natural grade, whichever is lower.

### FLOOR AREA.

The area in square feet confined within the exterior walls of a building, but not including the area of the following: exterior walls, stairways, shafts, rooms housing building-operating equipment or machinery, parking areas with associated driveways and ramps, space for the landing and storage of helicopters, and basement storage areas. Except that buildings on properties zoned RA, RE, RS, and R1, and not located in a Hillside Area or Coastal Zone are subject to the definition of Residential Floor Area.

**Section Two. Maximum Residential Floor Area.** For a lot located in a Hillside Area or Coastal Zone, the maximum floor area shall comply with Section *[citation of code reference]* of this Code. For all other lots, the maximum residential floor area contained in all buildings and accessory buildings shall not exceed 25% of the lot area, except that when the lot is 20,000 square feet or greater, then the residential floor area shall not exceed 20% of the lot area or 5,000 square feet, whichever is greater. An additional 20% of the maximum residential floor area for that lot shall be allowed if any of the methods listed below is utilized. Only one 20% bonus per property is allowed.

a. The total residential floor area of each story other than the base floor in a multi-story building does not exceed 75% of the base floor area; or

b. The cumulative length of the exterior walls facing the front lot line, equal to a minimum of 25% of the building width shall be stepped-back a distance of at least 20% of the building depth from a plane parallel to the lot width established at the point of the building closest to the front lot line. When the front lot line is not straight, a line connecting the points where the side lot lines and the front lot line intersect shall be used. When through-lots have two front yards, the setback shall be provided along both front lot lines. For the purposes of this provision, all exterior walls that intersect a plane parallel to the front lot line at 45 degrees or less shall be considered to be facing the front lot line. The building width shall be the greatest distance between the exterior walls of the building measured parallel to the lot width. The building depth shall be the greatest distance between the exterior walls of the building measured parallel to the lot depth; or

c. For new single family dwelling construction only, the new construction shall be in substantial compliance with the requirements for the U.S. Green Building Council's (USGBC) Leadership in Energy and Environmental Design (LEED®) for Homes program at the "Certified" level or higher. Prior to submitting an application to the Department of Building and Safety for a building permit, the applicant shall be required to obtain an authorization to submit for plan check from the Department of Planning. In order to obtain this authorization, the applicant shall provide:

(1) Documentation that the project has been registered with the USGBC's LEED® for Homes Program, and that the required fees have been paid;

§ 33:102.Neighborhood character (mansions), 1APt1 Matthews Municipal...

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(2) A preliminary checklist from a USGBC-contracted LEED® for Homes Provider, which demonstrates that the project can be registered with the LEED® for Homes Program with a target of certification at the “Certified” or higher level;

(3) A signed declaration from the USGBC-contracted LEED® for Homes Provider stating that the plans and plan details have been reviewed, and confirms that the project can be registered with the LEED® for Homes Program with a target certification at the “Certified” or higher level; and

(4) A complete set of plans stamped and signed by a licensed architect or engineer that include a copy of the preliminary checklist and signed declaration identified in Subparagraphs (2) and (3) of this paragraph and identify the measures being provided for LEED® Certification. Each plan sheet must also be signed by a USGBC-contracted LEED® for Homes Provider verifying that the plans are consistent with the submitted preliminary checklist. The Department of Building and Safety shall refer applicants to the Department of Planning prior to issuance of a building permit to obtain a clearance to verify the project compliance with the originally approved plans. If changes are made to the project, the applicant shall be required to submit a revised set of plans, including the four requirements listed above, with all revisions necessary to make the project in substantial compliance with the requirements for LEED® Certification.

**Section Three. Maximum Residential Floor Area.** For a lot located in a Hillside Area or Coastal Zone, the maximum floor area shall comply with Section [citation of code reference] of this Code. For all other lots, the maximum residential floor area contained in all buildings and accessory buildings shall not exceed the following standards for each RE Zone: REg and RE11—40% of the lot area, except that when the lot is 15,000 square feet or greater than the residential floor area shall not exceed 35% of the lot area or 6,000 square feet, whichever is greater; RE 15, RE20 and RE40—35% of the lot area. An additional 20% of the maximum residential floor area for that lot shall be allowed if any of the methods listed below is utilized. Only one 20% bonus per property is allowed.

a. The total residential floor area of each story other than the base floor in a multi-story building does not exceed 75% of the base floor area; or

b. The cumulative length of the exterior walls facing the front lot line, equal to a minimum of 25% of the building width shall be stepped-back a distance of at least 20% of the building depth from a plane parallel to the lot width established at the point of the building closest to the front lot line. When the front lot line is not straight, a line connecting the points where the side lot lines and the front lot line intersect shall be used. When through-lots have two front yards, the step back shall be provided along both front lot lines. For the purposes of this provision, all exterior walls that intersect a plane parallel to the front lot line at 45 degrees or less shall be considered to be facing the front lot line. The building width shall be the greatest distance between the exterior walls of the building measured parallel to the lot width. The building depth shall be the greatest distance between the exterior walls of the building measured parallel to the lot depth; or

c. For new single-family dwelling construction only, the new construction shall be in substantial compliance with the requirements for the U.S. Green Building Council’s (USGBC) Leadership in Energy and Environmental Design (LEED®) for Homes program at the “Certified” level or higher. Prior to submitting an application to the Department of Building and Safety for a building permit, the applicant shall be required to obtain an authorization to submit for plan check from the Department of Planning. In order to obtain this authorization, the applicant shall provide:

(1) Documentation that the project has been registered with the USGBC’s LEED® for Homes Program, and that the required fees have been paid;

§ 33:102.Neighborhood character (mansionization), 1APt1 Matthews Municipal...

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(2) A preliminary checklist from a USGBC-contracted LEED® for Homes Provider, which demonstrates that the project can be registered with the LEED® for Homes Program with a target of certification at the “Certified” or higher level;

(3) A signed declaration from the USGBC-contracted LEED® for Homes Provider stating that the plans and plan details have been reviewed, and confirms that the project can be registered with the LEED® for Homes Program with a target certification at the “Certified” or higher level; and

(4) A complete set of plans stamped and signed by a licensed architect or engineer that include a copy of the preliminary checklist and signed declaration identified in Subparagraphs (2) and (3) of this paragraph and identify the measures being provided for LEED® Certification. Each plan sheet must also be signed by a USGBC-contracted LEED® for Homes Provider verifying that the plans are consistent with the submitted preliminary checklist. The Department of Building and Safety shall refer applicants to the Department of Planning prior to issuance of a building permit to obtain a clearance to verify the project compliance with the originally approved plans. If changes are made to the project, the applicant shall be required to submit a revised set of plans, including the four requirements listed above, with all revisions necessary to make the project in substantial compliance with the requirements for LEED® Certification.

**Section Four. Maximum Residential Floor Area.** For a lot located in a Hillside Area or Coastal Zone, the maximum floor area shall comply with Section [citation of code reference] of this Code. For all other lots, the maximum residential floor area contained in all buildings and accessory buildings shall not exceed 45% of the lot area, except that when the lot is 9,000 square feet or greater, then the residential floor area shall not exceed 40% of the lot area or 4,050 square feet, whichever is greater. An additional 20% of the maximum residential floor area for that lot shall be allowed if any of the methods listed below is utilized. Only one 20% bonus per property is allowed.

a. The total residential floor area of each story other than the base floor in a multi-story building does not exceed 75% of the base floor area; or

b. The cumulative length of the exterior walls facing the front lot line, equal to a minimum of 25% of the building width shall be stepped-back a distance of at least 20% of the building depth from a plane parallel to the lot width established at the point of the building closest to the front lot line. When the front lot line is not straight, a line connecting the points where the side lot lines and the front lot line intersect shall be used. When through lots have two front yards, the step back shall be provided along both front lot lines. For the purposes of this provision, all exterior walls that intersect a plane parallel to the front lot line at 45 degrees or less shall be considered to be facing the front lot line. The building width shall be the greatest distance between the exterior walls of the building measured parallel to the lot width. The building depth shall be the greatest distance between the exterior walls of the building measured parallel to the lot depth; or

c. For new single family dwelling construction only, the new construction shall be in substantial compliance with the requirements for the U.S. Green Building Council’s (USGBC) Leadership in Energy and Environmental Design (LEED®) for Homes program at the “Certified” level or higher. Prior to submitting an application to the Department of Building and Safety for a building permit, the applicant shall be required to obtain an authorization to submit for plan check from the Department of Planning. In order to obtain this authorization, the applicant shall provide:

(1) Documentation that the project has been registered with the USGBC’s LEED® for Homes Program, and that the required fees have been paid;



§ 33:102.Neighborhood character (mansionization), 1APt1 Matthews Municipal...

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(2) A preliminary checklist from a USGBC-contracted LEED® for Homes Provider, which demonstrates that the project can be registered with the LEED® for Homes Program with a target of certification at the “Certified” or higher level;

(3) A signed declaration from the USGBC-contracted LEED® for Homes Provider stating that the plans and plan details have been reviewed, and confirms that the project can be registered with the LEED® for Homes Program with a target certification at the “Certified” or higher level; and

(4) A complete set of plans stamped and signed by a licensed architect or engineer that include a copy of the preliminary checklist and signed declaration identified in Subparagraphs (2) and (3) of this paragraph and identify the measures being provided for LEED® Certification. Each plan sheet must also be signed by a USGBC-contracted LEED® for Homes Provider verifying that the plans are consistent with the submitted preliminary checklist. The Department of Building and Safety shall refer applicants to the Department of Planning prior to issuance of a building permit to obtain a clearance to verify the project compliance with the originally approved plans. If changes are made to the project, the applicant shall be required to submit a revised set of plans, including the four requirements listed above, with all revisions necessary to make the project in substantial compliance with the requirements for LEED® Certification.

**Section Five. Maximum Residential Floor Area.** For a lot located in a Hillside Area or Coastal Zone, the maximum floor area shall comply with Section [citation of code reference] of this Code. For all other lots, the maximum residential floor area contained in all buildings and accessory buildings shall not exceed 50% of the lot area, except that when the lot is 7,500 square feet or greater, then the residential floor area shall not exceed 45% of the lot area or 3,750 square feet, whichever is greater. An additional 20%, or 30% for lots less than 5,000 square feet in area, of the maximum residential floor area for that lot shall be allowed if any of the methods listed below is utilized. Only one bonus per property is allowed.

a. The total residential floor area of each story other than the base floor in a multi-story building does not exceed 75% of the base floor area; or

b. The cumulative length of the exterior walls facing the front lot line, equal to a minimum of 25% of the building width shall be stepped-back a distance of at least 20% of the building depth from a plane parallel to the lot width established at the point of the building closest to the front lot line. When the front lot line is not straight, a line connecting the points where the side lot lines and the front lot line intersect shall be used. When through-lots have two front yards, the step back shall be provided along both front lot lines. For the purposes of this provision, all exterior walls that intersect a plane parallel to the front lot line at 45 degrees or less shall be considered to be facing the front lot line. The building width shall be the greatest distance between the exterior walls of the building measured parallel to the lot width. The building depth shall be the greatest distance between the exterior walls of the building measured parallel to the lot depth; or

c. For new single family dwelling construction only, the new construction shall be in substantial compliance with the requirements for the U.S. Green Building Council’s (USGBC) Leadership in Energy and Environmental Design (LEED®) for Homes program at the “Certified” level or higher. Prior to submitting an application to the Department of Building and Safety for a building permit, the applicant shall be required to obtain an authorization to submit for plan check from the Department of Planning. In order to obtain this authorization, the applicant shall provide:

(1) Documentation that the project has been registered with the USGBC’s LEED® for Homes Program, and that the required fees have been paid;

§ 33:102.Neighborhood character (mansionization), 1APt1 Matthews Municipal...

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(2) A preliminary checklist from a USGBC-contracted LEED® for Homes Provider, which demonstrates that the project can be registered with the LEED® for Homes Program with a target of certification at the “Certified” or higher level;

(3) A signed declaration from the USGBC-contracted LEED® for Homes Provider stating that the plans and plan details have been reviewed, and confirms that the project can be registered with the LEED® for Homes Program with a target certification at the “Certified” or higher level; and

(4) A complete set of plans stamped and signed by a licensed architect or engineer that include a copy of the preliminary checklist and signed declaration identified in Subparagraphs (2) and (3) of this paragraph and identify the measures being provided for LEED® Certification. Each plan sheet must also be signed by a USGBC-contracted LEED® for Homes Provider verifying that the plans are consistent with the submitted preliminary checklist. The Department of Building and Safety shall refer applicants to the Department of Planning prior to issuance of a building permit to obtain a clearance to verify the project compliance with the originally approved plans. If changes are made to the project, the applicant shall be required to submit a revised set of plans, including the four requirements listed above, with all revisions necessary to make the project in substantial compliance with the requirements for LEED® Certification.

**Section Six.** Verification of Existing Residential Floor Area. For additions with cumulative residential floor area of less than 1,000 square feet constructed after *[date of construction]*, or remodels of buildings built prior to *[date of prior construction]*, the existing residential floor area shall be the same as the building square footage shown on the most recent *[name of city]* Tax Assessor’s records at the time the plans are submitted to the Department of Building and Safety and a plan check fee is paid. Except that residential floor area may be calculated as defined in Section *[citation of code reference]* of this Code when a complete set of fully dimensioned plans with area calculations of all the structures on the lot, prepared by a licensed architect or engineer, is submitted by the applicant. Any work that does not qualify as a remodel, as defined in the paragraph below, or additions that are 1,000 square feet or larger shall require a complete set of fully dimensioned plans with area calculations of all the structures on the lot prepared by a licensed architect or engineer.

For the purposes of implementing this subdivision, a remodel shall mean the alteration of an existing building or structure provided that at least 50% of the perimeter length of the contiguous exterior walls and 50% of the roof are retained.

**Section Seven.** In the A1, A2, RZ, RMP, and RW2 Zones, and in those portions of the RD and R3 Zones, which are also in Height District No.1, no building or structure shall exceed 45 feet in height. In the RA, RE, RS, R1 and R2 Zones in Height District No.1, located in a Hillside Area or a Coastal Zone, no building or structure shall exceed 45 feet in height. In the RU and RW1 Zones, no building or structure shall exceed 30 feet in height.

Notwithstanding the preceding paragraph, the following height regulations shall apply on a lot that is not located in a Hillside Area or Coastal Zone: In the R2 Zone, no building or structure shall exceed 33 feet in height. In the R1, RS, or REg Zones, no building or structure shall exceed 33 feet in height; except that when the roof of the uppermost story of a building or structure or portion of the building or structure has a slope of less than 25%, the maximum height shall be 28 feet. In the RE11, RE15, RE20, RE 40 or RA Zones, no building or structure shall exceed 36 feet in height; except that when the roof of the uppermost story of a building or structure or portion of a building or structure has a slope of less than 25%, the maximum height shall be 30 feet. Notwithstanding the above, when 40% or more of the existing one-family dwellings with frontage on both sides of the block have building heights exceeding these limits, the maximum height for any building on that block may be the average height of the dwellings exceeding these limits. Height limitations in specific plans, Historic Preservation Overlay Zones or in subdivision approvals shall take precedence over the requirements of this section. This section shall

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apply when there are no height limitations imposed on lots by a specific plan or a Historic Overlay Zone or created by a subdivision approval.

**Section Eight.** The total floor area contained in all the main buildings on a lot in a commercial or industrial zone in Height District No. 1 shall not exceed one-and-one-half times the buildable area of the lot; for a lot in all other zones, except RA, RE, RS, and R1 Zoned properties not located in a Hillside Area or Coastal Zone and developed primarily for residential uses, the total floor area contained in all the main buildings on a lot in Height District No. 1 shall not exceed three times the buildable area of the lot. For RA, RE, RS, and R1 Zoned properties not located in a Hillside Area or Coastal Zone, the total residential floor area shall comply with the floor area restrictions for each zone.

Portions of Height District No. 1 may be designated as being in an “L” Limited Height District, and no building or structure in Height District No. 1-L shall exceed six stories, nor shall it exceed 75 feet in height. Portions of Height District No. 1 may be designated as being in a “VL” Very Limited Height District, and no building or structure in Height District No. 1-VL shall exceed three stories, nor shall it exceed 45 feet in height. Notwithstanding that limitation, portions of Height District No. 1-VL that are also in the RAS3 or RAS4 Zones shall not exceed 50 feet in height. Portions of Height District No. 1 may also be designated as being in an “XL” Extra Limited Height District, and no building or structure in Height District No.1-XL shall exceed two stories, nor shall the highest point of the roof of any building or structure located in this District exceed 30 feet in height. In the RA, RE, RS, and R1 Zones, portions of Height District No. 1 may also be designated as being in an “SS” Single Story Limit Height District, and no building or structure in Height District No. 1-S8 shall exceed one story, nor shall the highest point of the roof of any building or structure located in this District exceed 18 feet in height. For the purposes of Height District No. 1-SS, a basement does not count as a story when the elevation of the upper surface of the floor or roof above the basement does not exceed two feet in height at any point above the finished or natural grade, whichever is lower.

**Section Nine.** A building, nonconforming as to the residential floor area regulations on properties zoned RA, RE, RS, and R1 and not located in the Hillside Area or Coastal Zone, shall not be added to or enlarged in any manner. However, alterations, other than additions or enlargements, may be made provided that at least 50% of the perimeter length of the contiguous exterior walls and 50% of the roof are retained.

**Section Ten.** The Zoning Administrator shall also have the authority to grant adjustments in residential floor area of no more than a 10% increase beyond what is otherwise permitted by this Code. A request for an increase in residential floor area greater than 10% shall be made as an application for a variance pursuant to Section [citation of code reference] of this Code.

**Section Eleven.** “RFA” RESIDENTIAL FLOOR AREA DISTRICT.

A. Purpose. This section sets forth procedures and guidelines for the establishment of “RFA” Residential Floor Area Districts in residential areas of the City. The purpose of the “RFA” Residential Floor Area District is to permit residential floor area maximums in residential zones to be higher or lower than normally permitted by this Code in areas where the proposed district will further enhance the existing scale of homes and help to preserve the existing character of the neighborhood as effectively as the residential floor area limitations established in this Code; and where the increased or decreased residential floor area maximums will be consistent with the policies and objectives set forth in the applicable Community Plan.

B. Establishment of the District. The procedures set forth in Section [citation of code reference] of this Code shall be followed, however each “RFA” Residential Floor Area District shall include only properties in the RA, RE, RS, or R1 zones. The district shall not generally be less than 100 acres in area. The precise boundary of a district may be adjusted for urban

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features such as topography, freeways or streets/highways. Boundaries shall be along street frontages and shall not split parcels. An "RFA" Residential Floor Area District may encompass an area, which is designated, in whole or in part, as a Historic Preservation Overlay Zone and/or Specific Plan. The "RFA" Residential Floor Area District shall include contiguous parcels, which may only be separated by public streets, ways or alleys or other physical features, or as set forth in the rules approved by the Director of Planning. Precise boundaries are required at the time of application for or initiation of an individual district.

C. Development Regulations. The Department of Building and Safety shall not issue a building permit for a residential structure within an "RFA" Residential Floor Area District unless the residential structure conforms to the regulations set forth in a specific "RFA" Residential Floor Area District. The development regulations for each "RFA" Residential Floor Area District shall be determined at the time the district is established. The development regulations shall enhance the character of the district.

- <sup>1</sup> Under some state statutes the functions of the zoning board of appeals are performed by a "board of adjustments." The city attorney will have to select the correct title after consulting the state statutes.  
Under some state statutes the zoning functions of the plan commission are performed by a "zoning commission." The city attorney will have to select the appropriate term after consulting the state statutes.

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**Attachment C**

52-OCT B. B.J. 14

**Boston Bar Journal**  
September/October, 2008

Department  
Case Focus<sup>a1</sup>

MUNICIPAL ZONING CONTROL OVER “MANSIONIZATION”

Martin R. Healy<sup>a2</sup>

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In January 2008 the SJC decided *Bjorklund v. Zoning Board of Appeals of Norwell*, 450 Mass. 357 (2008), upholding municipal zoning control over “mansionization” on undersized lots.

In *Bjorklund* the homeowner proposed to quintuple the size of an existing residence (from 675 square feet of living space to 3600 square feet of living space). The enlarged single-family home would have complied with all applicable dimensional requirements of the Norwell Zoning By-Law. However, the house lot was undersized, with approximately 34,500 square feet of area, whereas current zoning required 43,560 square feet for a buildable house lot.

Under the second “except” clause of G. L. c. 40A, § 6, prior lawful non-conforming single and two-family homes enjoy special protection against application of subsequently enacted zoning requirements. The owners of such homes are expressly permitted as a matter of right to alter, reconstruct, extend or structurally change the home in any manner that “does not increase the nonconforming nature of said structure.”

The *Bjorklund* court considered whether an otherwise zoning-compliant enlargement of the existing home increased the “nonconforming nature of said structure,” within the meaning of the second except clause of G. L. c. 40A, § 6, because the result would be a larger home on an existing undersized lot. The identical issue was addressed by the SJC a few years ago in *Bransford v. Zoning Board of Appeals of Edgartown*, 444 Mass. 852 (2005). In *Bransford*, the SJC split 3 to 3, upholding a Land Court judgment which concluded that a two-fold enlargement of a home on an undersized lot did increase the nonconforming nature of the home. Justice Cordy dissented, arguing that this result eviscerated the protection of single and two-family homes under the second except clause by requiring residents of established neighborhoods across the Commonwealth, with lots sizes below current zoning requirements, to secure “lengthy, costly, and discretionary” zoning approvals whenever they seek to increase their living space. In his dissent Justice Cordy reasoned that municipalities remain free to adopt a variety of dimensional controls to restrict the size of new homes, and thus are not powerless to address concerns about the size of new homes through other means.

The *Bjorklund* court (this time with 5 judges joining in the majority opinion) disagreed, holding that a substantial enlargement of a home on an undersized lot does in fact increase the existing nonconforming nature of the home. In so doing the SJC recognized the need of municipalities to protect against “mansionization,” a trend that “decreases the availability of would-be ‘starter’ homes in a community.” 450 Mass. at 363.

As a consequence of *Bjorklund*, homeowners with single or two-family homes on nonconforming lots have very limited rights to alter or enlarge those homes, even in full conformity with all applicable dimensional requirements of the municipality. Instead, such homeowners must first seek the permission of the board designated by the municipal zoning

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ordinance or by-law for granting such permission. Permission is granted by the reviewing board only if it finds, in accordance with G.L.c. 40A, § 6, “that such change, extension or alteration shall not be substantially more detrimental than the existing nonconforming use to the neighborhood” (a “Section 6 Finding”). The municipal board’s discretion to make or withhold a Section 6 Finding is upheld by a reviewing court unless it is based on a legally untenable ground, or unreasonable, whimsical, capricious or arbitrary.

In an effort to assure homeowners that the municipal control over “mansionization” would not be over-reaching, the SJC noted that certain small-scale alterations of homes on nonconforming lots could be made as a matter of right, without first seeking a Section 6 Finding, whenever such improvements “could not reasonably be found to increase the nonconforming nature of a structure.” Examples include “the addition of a dormer; the addition, or enclosure, of a porch or sunroom; the addition of a one-story garage for no more than two motor vehicles; the conversion of a one-story garage for one motor vehicle to a one-story garage for two motor vehicles; and the addition of small-scale, proportional storage structures, such as sheds used to store gardening and lawn equipment, or sheds used to house swimming pool heaters and equipment.” 450 Mass. at 362.

After *Bjorklund*, the “safe haven” for homeowner as-of-right improvements of homes on nonconforming lots is extremely limited, and fraught with opportunities for costly permit disputes and litigation. One is left to wonder whether this is the protection for single and two-family homeowners that the legislature envisioned when it enacted the second except clause.

Footnotes

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**Case Focus provides a timely, in depth, expert review of a new decision--federal, state, administrative--of particular importance, or practice area specific. The analysis focuses on the impact on prior case law or statutory interpretation, the complexities/gray areas of the opinion and what practitioners need to know about the effect the opinion has on their practice.**

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**Martin R. Healy is a partner of Goodwin Procter, LLP, and chairs the firm’s Real Estate Development & Permitting Practice Area. He currently serves on the Boston Bar Journal’s Board of Editors.**

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**Attachment D**



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American Law Institute - American Bar Association Continuing Legal Education  
ALI-ABA Course of Study  
August 16 - 18, 2007

Land Use Institute: Planning, Regulation, Litigation, Eminent Domain, and Compensation  
Cosponsored by the Center for Urban and Environmental Solutions, Florida Atlantic University

**\*407 TEARDOWNS AND “MANSIONIZATION”**

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**\*409 I. Introduction.**

Because land use regulations generally affect the value of real property, regulations limiting the ability of a property owner to demolish and replace homes will, in each case, have some impact on land values. This presentation will discuss some of the tools that might be employed to regulate teardowns, and how courts might view such regulations in the context of “takings” analyses. The materials will identify legal tools for regulating residential teardowns, as well as identify relevant United States Supreme Court and other relevant cases that affect the use of such legal tools.

**II. Teardowns: What and Why?**

A teardown involves the demolition of an existing structure to construct a replacement structure. The term is most commonly used for the demolition and replacement of residential structures in existing neighborhoods. Teardowns are often replaced with much larger structures that may appear out of scale with the remaining homes in a particular neighborhood.

Teardowns are most common in inner-ring suburbs and central cities where housing stock is considered outdated and undersized for current family requirements. Families desire newer amenities not always found in older structures, such as walk-in closets, three-car garages, larger master suites, and similar amenities. More significantly, the size of the average home has increased substantially just in the past 20 years, as families demand more living and playing space. Teardowns are prolific in communities and neighborhoods that are considered desirable in terms of location (including scenic amenities, community benefits, school districts, employment opportunities, and commuting distance) but where there may not be sufficient vacant land for new development.

Communities at risk for teardowns are those where vacant lot values begin to approach those with older homes on them. For example, in many Illinois suburbs where teardowns are becoming commonplace, the value of a lot may exceed \$500,000, with the existing structure’s value less than half the lot’s value; that is, the vacant lot value is fully two-thirds of the lot improved with a physically, functionally and economically obsolescent, but perhaps still quite habitable, older home.

**III. Legal Tools for Regulating Teardowns and Discouraging Mansionization.**

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**A. Architectural Design.**

Architectural design regulations can be used to discourage and even prevent the construction of the increasingly ubiquitous “McMansion” to replace a residential teardown. The \*410 advantages to using such design manuals is that the approach minimizes confrontation (does not prohibit teardowns, but regulates what replaces the teardown). The disadvantage is that this approach is not likely to prevent teardowns in a community and may have little or no impact on the preservation of a community’s or neighborhood’s character.

**B. Historic Preservation.**

Where applicable, historic preservation ordinances can prevent the demolition of buildings that have been identified by the municipality as being worthy of preservation. Historic preservation regulations can require more than standard zoning and building regulations. Historic preservation regulations can limit a property owner from making use of the full value of his or her property. Nevertheless, the Constitution does not guarantee that a person receive the full value of his or her property, so long as a reasonable use of the property remains.

For example, in *Penn Central Transp. Co. v. City of New York*, 438 U.S. 104, *reh’g denied*, 439 U.S. 883 (1978), the owners challenged New York City’s landmarks preservation law as it applied to proposed additions to the Grand Central terminal building. The law was upheld because not all reasonable beneficial use of property was taken. Importantly, the New York City ordinance provided for the transfer of development rights from the historic property to nearby parcels. Although this was a consideration in the decision, the decision turned on the ability to make a reasonable use of the property.

In *Keystone Bituminous Coal Ass’n. v. DeBenedictis*, 480 U.S. 470 (1987), the Court held that the prohibition of subsurface mining does not constitute a regulatory taking. The Court described property interests as a “bundle of rights,” and so long as there remained reasonable beneficial use of that bundle of rights (even if some of them were “taken” by regulation), the regulation is constitutional.

Historic preservation ordinances have considerable constitutional “respectability,” so long as a reasonable use of the property in question remains. Thus, an historic preservation ordinance should include an appeal procedure that is based on a claim of deprivation of all reasonable economic value of the property. This allows the municipality to assess such a claim locally before a takings claim can be filed.

**C. Zoning Controls.**

The range of zoning controls that might be employed to limit mansionization is extensive. One approach might be to provide differential/preferential treatment for existing housing stock; this is authorized if rationally related to legitimate governmental purposes. Some examples include:

1. More liberal building height regulations for housing that existed on or before a legislatively determined date.
2. Calculating floor areas differently for housing having certain preferred design features or for housing that existed on or before a legislatively determined date.
- \*411 3. Establishing differential regulations with respect to legal nonconformities for housing that existed on or before a legislatively determined date.

Because preferences are involved rather than prohibitions, there is unlikely to be a question of a “taking” in these cases. Such regulations enhance the relative value of existing housing stock without depriving any reasonable beneficial use of other properties.

While this approach may discourage some teardowns, it will not discourage all teardowns. Consequently, a community might also consider establishing other zoning requirements for homes that replace teardowns in established neighborhoods such as reducing the allowable floor area, increasing the required setbacks, establishing daylight plane and height restrictions, and decreasing allowable building or lot coverage.

**D. Form-Based Codes.**

An alternative to amending existing zoning codes is to adopt a form-based code. These codes are designed to, among other things, control the form and mass of new homes in relationship to one another, which can be particularly beneficial for municipalities that desire to regulate the size or design of new homes in established neighborhoods. These codes focus less on

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land uses and more on the appropriate form and scale for buildings and structures in a community, and typically include comprehensive architectural design standards.

**E. Development Approval Process.**

Because “time is money” for many property developers, municipalities may exercise a measure of control by enacting deliberative regulations regarding teardowns. Extensive (but reasonable) permitting procedures to ensure that the elimination of a home will neither adversely affect the land use patterns in the area nor cause undue disturbance or disruption can be adopted and enforced. For example, some communities have established 180 day delays (and more) between the receipt of an application for demolition of an existing home and the issuance of the demolition permit. One example is the Village of Bannockburn, Illinois, which enacted the following special procedure for demolition permit applications requiring public notice of all demolition permit applications, as well as a 120 day demolition delay period: <sup>[FN1]</sup>

110.4 Demolition Permit Applications.

(a) In addition to other permit requirements set forth in this Code, including the Architectural Review Commission pre-application requirements contained in Section 107.10, no permit shall be granted for the demolition of the principal building on any lot unless either (i) the plans for the replacement principal building or structure to be constructed on such lot have been approved, or (ii) in the absence of such plans, landscaping and screening plans showing compliance with the screening and bufferyard requirements of the Zoning Code have been approved. Work on any \*412 replacement principal structure or landscaping and screening plans shall be commenced within 60 days after completion of the demolition of the principal building on the lot in question.

(b) In no event shall a demolition permit be issued any earlier than 120 days after the filing of a completed application for a demolition permit. Notwithstanding the foregoing, the Village Board of Trustees may, by motion, waive the 120 day waiting period in whole or in part. In addition, during the one year period following issuance of the demolition permit, no building permit shall be issued to allow the construction of a structure or building on a lot for which a demolition permit was granted pursuant to Section 110.4(a)(ii) of this Code.

(c) Within 21 days of receipt of a demolition permit application, the Village shall cause notice of such application to be published in a newspaper of general circulation within the Village.

In some communities that have adopted special demolition procedures, public hearings are required before the demolition can proceed. Extensive procedural requirements may encourage property developers to look for other approaches that are less procedurally rigorous, including rehabilitation of an existing home. Any procedural requirement that is likely to result in delay should link the delay to the legitimate exercise of municipal investigation of relevant issues. For example, a delay for delay’s sake is a risky tactic. If employing that tactic, make sure that the property remains in a condition that permits a reasonable beneficial use during the delay period. Alternatively, incorporate an “economic hardship” exemption in the procedures.

Like zoning authority, there is no taking if the regulations are authorized and rationally related to legitimate governmental purposes. This is a relatively easy threshold to satisfy. A municipality may require permits for various aspects of the construction process, including specific permits for activities that are related primarily to demolition rather than construction. Also, a community might consider requiring that the applicant provide certain financial security to ensure that any damage to public property is repaired and that applicable ordinances are followed.

**F. Moratoria.**

A moratorium is a temporary regulatory measure to maintain the *status quo* while a municipality is considering the adoption of regulations to address a new problem or concern. Thus, a moratorium is a stopgap, not a solution. Moratoria have been held constitutional and unconstitutional; it depends on the facts of the particular case.

In *First English Evangelical Lutheran Church v. County of Los Angeles*, 482 U.S. 304 (1987), a county moratorium ordinance prohibited the rebuilding of a church camp retreat. The issue was the remedy in a takings case. The Court determined that if a taking has occurred (*i.e.* deprivation of all use of property), then the owner is entitled to compensation, even if only for a temporary period of time. On remand, the California Court of Appeals determined that no taking \*413 had

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ever occurred: 258 Cal. Rptr. 893 (Cal. App. 1989). Nevertheless, courts have recognized the risk of a taking in the context of enforcing a moratorium.

In *Tahoe-Sierra Preservation Council, Inc. v. Tahoe Regional Planning Agency*, 122 S.Ct 1465 (2002), a “temporary” moratorium on land development was held not to constitute a taking of land requiring just compensation. The Court emphasized that the time period (more than two years) was not unreasonable under the circumstances, including the fact that the governing body had diligently pursued the development of the new regulations for which the moratorium was established. In short, in adopting a moratorium, a municipality might consider including a procedural mechanism that will allow a property owner to seek local relief to avoid an unreasonable taking of all beneficial property rights.

### G. Licensing, Taxation, and Impact Fees.

Licensing and regulatory authority is subject to the basic constitutional test of being rationally related to a proper public purpose. This is a relatively easy standard to meet. Taxation is subject to constitutional limitations regarding uniformity requirements and being nonconfiscatory. Impact fees, on the other hand, are distinct from taxation. While taxation is authorized for the purpose of raising revenue, impact fees are to assess a fee to address a consequence of the use or activity that the payer is undertaking and subject to constitutional limitations.

For example, in *Dolan v. City of Tigard*, 512 U.S. 374 (1994), a plumbing store owner in the central business district applied for a building permit to expand the store and repave the parking lot. The City Planning Commission conditioned approval of the permit upon (1) dedication of land for a public greenway along Fanno Creek to minimize the impact of the flooding that would be exacerbated by the increase in impervious coverage and (2) dedication of land for a pedestrian/bicycle pathway intended to relieve traffic congestion in the CBD. The Oregon Supreme Court held that the conditions were reasonably related to the proposed development and, therefore, no taking had occurred. The U.S. Supreme Court reversed and remanded the case, holding that the dedication requirement is a clear physical invasion of property and constitutes an “unconstitutional condition.” The Court further held that the government may not require a person to give up a constitutional right in exchange for a discretionary benefit conferred by the government where the property sought has little or no relationship to the benefit.

A number of Illinois suburban municipalities have enacted a demolition tax in an effort to control teardowns in their communities. For example, the City of Lake Forest, Illinois recently enacted a \$10,000 tax on all residential demolitions: <sup>[FN2]</sup>

Sec. 39-75. DEMOLITION TAX IMPOSED. A tax is hereby imposed upon the activity of demolition of dwellings within the City. Any person granted a permit for demolition (a “*Demolition Permit*”) as provided in the City of Lake Forest \*414 Building Code for a principal structure as defined by the City of Lake Forest Zoning Code shall pay a demolition tax for the demolition of any single family dwelling or other building in which a dwelling unit (as defined in the City’s Zoning Code) is located (a “*Demolition Building*”). The demolition tax shall be at a rate of not less than:

- (a) \$10,000.00 per Demolition Permit for any single-family dwelling or two-family dwelling that is a Demolition Building;
- (b) for any other Demolition Building, \$5,000.00 times the number of dwelling units in such Demolition Building, but not less than \$10,000.00; or
- (c) such greater amount as may be established from time-to-time in the City’s annual fee ordinance.

The tax imposed pursuant to this Article shall be in addition to any Demolition Permit fee authorized in connection with the City’s Building Code or any other applicable fees and charges. Payment of the demolition tax shall be due prior to issuance of a Demolition Permit by the City. The funds received by the City for the amount imposed pursuant to this Article shall be deposited as follows: (i) 50% in the City’s general fund and/or road fund; and (ii) 50% in a special fund to be established for affordable housing.

#### Sec. 39-76. SPECIAL APPLICABILITY RULES; APPEALS.

(a) Notwithstanding the general requirement set forth in Section 39-75, the demolition tax shall not apply under the following circumstances upon filing of an application on a form provided and prepared by the City; provided however, that this Section shall not affect an applicant’s obligation to pay any fee authorized under the City’s Building Code for a Demolition Permit.

- (1) If the applicant and the City enter into an agreement for consideration regarding the demolition tax (e.g., an agreement relating to the provision of new or additional affordable housing units), which agreement expressly waives or abates, in whole or in part, the demolition tax. Any such agreement shall specifically set forth the applicability of this Subsection with regard to the demolition tax otherwise required under this Article.

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(2) If the applicant has been the record title or beneficial interest owner and occupant of the property on which the Demolition Building is located for all of the three years immediately preceding the date of the application ("Pre-Permit Period"), and remains the record title or beneficial interest owner and occupant of such property at all times after the pre-permit period until the date that is three years immediately after the date on which the certificate of occupancy for a new single-family dwelling on such \*415 property (the "Replacement Building") is issued ("Post-Permit Period"). To qualify under this Subsection, the applicant shall pay the applicable demolition tax to the City and notify the City at the time of such payment of applicant's intent to seek a rebate; the applicant may thereafter apply for a rebate of such tax after the Post-Permit Period has elapsed. Such application for rebate shall include title documents establishing the applicant's ownership during the entire Pre-Permit Period, as well as applicant's ownership and occupancy of the property for the entire Post-Permit Period. Any application for rebate shall be on forms prepared and provided by the City.

(3) If the applicant establishes to the satisfaction of the City Manager that structural measures that qualify as a "demolition" under the City's Building Code are required due to extensive damage to the Demolition Building caused by Force Majeure. For purposes of this Subsection, Force Majeure shall mean acts of God, or other factors beyond the owner's reasonable control and reasonable ability to remedy; provided, however, that for purposes of this Subparagraph Force Majeure shall not include damage caused by the owner, an agent or employee of the owner, or a third party in privity with the owner.

(b) Any person who shall be subject to the tax pursuant to this Article, or any applicant for relief under Section 39-76(a), who disputes the imposition of or amount of the demolition tax imposed pursuant to this Article or a determination under Section 39-76(a) may seek a review of such imposition or amount of the demolition tax or determination under Section 39-76(a) by filing with the City Manager, within 30 days after the notification of the demolition tax amount or the determination on a request for relief under Section 39-76(a), a request for review. The request for review shall set forth in detail the basis for the dispute of the imposition, amount, or determination relating to the demolition tax. The City Manager shall thereafter consider the request for review, determine whether the demolition tax should be waived or reduced, and provide a written determination thereof. If such person seeks further review of the imposition or amount of the demolition tax or determination under Section 39-76(a), such person shall file a request to appeal the determination of the City Manager with the City Clerk within 30 days after mailing of the determination by the City Manager; such appeal shall be considered by the Personnel, Compensation, and Administration Committee of the City Council based on the relevant facts available regarding the Demolition Building, the demolition tax, materials presented in connection with the request for relief under Section 39-76(a), and materials presented in connection with the Manager's review provided under this Section 39-76(b). The determination of the Personnel, Compensation, and Administration Committee shall be final. In connection with any review or appeal under this Section 39-76(b), a Demolition Permit may be issued upon paying the demolition tax, but any such tax payment shall not prevent a person from pursuing such review or appeal.

\*416 Sec. 39-77. GENERAL APPLICABILITY. Imposition of the tax imposed pursuant to this Article IX-A shall not apply to any demolition for which a complete and proper application for the demolition permit was on file with the City on or before 15 February 2006, being the effective date of this Article.

The revenues from the demolition tax are used in part for Lake Forest's affordable housing and road programs and the remainder of the proceeds goes into the City's general fund. It is not clear whether a demolition tax or impact fee is successful in reducing teardowns in the municipality that imposes such a tax or fee, or whether it is simply a revenue generator for the municipality. Of course, a municipality should ensure it has sufficient authority before imposing an impact fee or tax for teardowns.

#### IV. Conclusion.

The issue of whether or how to regulate teardowns and discourage the mansionization of communities is not just a legal one, but also a political one. Certainly, there will be residents of a community (or those who wish to move to a community) who will argue that teardowns are progress, not a threat to the community. Property values typically increase as a result of the replacement of older homes in a neighborhood, which can be seen as a blessing and a curse, as long-standing residents see their property tax bills steadily increase but residents looking to sell their properties benefit from the higher sale values. Municipalities also stand to gain from the increased tax revenues, but also face changing neighborhoods that may not be consistent with comprehensive plans for such neighborhoods.

TEARDOWNS AND “MANSIONIZATION”, SN005 ALI-ABA 407

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[FN1]. *See* Village of Bannockburn Ordinance No. 2003-03.

[FN2]. *See* Chapter 39 of The City of Lake Forest City Code.

SN005 ALI-ABA 407

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End of Document

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**Attachment E**



See: <http://www.car.org/governmentaffairs/localgovernmentaffairs/mansion/>

## Mansionization and Design Standards

### Issues Briefing Paper

January 1992 ( The following is for study only and has not been approved by the Local Government Relations Committee, the Executive committee, or the Board of Directors)

## INTRODUCTION

### A. Background

In recent years, California and other states have witnessed a new pattern of home construction and remodeling in older neighborhoods with small to medium sized homes. In many of these neighborhoods, which are close to being completely built-out and which have experienced tremendous jumps in real estate prices, developers and homeowners are tearing down the existing homes and building larger, more extravagant ones. The process, sometimes referred to as mansionization, is a response to incredible land costs. In many of the older, built-out communities in California, land is valued as high as \$ 1 million per acre and more. Over the last 40 years, land cost as a share of the total cost of building a new home has risen from 11 percent to over 25 percent nationwide, and as high as 30 and 40 percent in some locations in California. Even if a buyer in this state purchases a home on a lot much smaller than one acre in a built-out community that is not at the high end of the real estate market, the total purchase price is disproportionately based on the value of the land. For example, in some communities a homeowner can spend \$500,000 to buy a 2,000 square foot house on a 13,000 square foot lot. But with construction cost of \$ 100 per square foot, the homeowner can double the size of the house for another \$200,000. A person who spends a half-million dollars presumably won't mind spending the additional amount to make the home more commensurate with the value of the land. This process has become popular with developers who want to balance the cost of construction with the cost of land, and it is popular with homeowners who cannot afford to buy the larger homes in neighborhoods where they are too expensive, but who can afford to purchase smaller homes and add on at a later time. Not surprisingly, mansionization has created controversy in many communities. Residents often claim that the houses are eyesores and out of character, that they obstruct views, and that they can depress neighborhood property values. Local governments in these communities have attempted to curb this trend and placate objecting residents by adopting a variety of restrictions on the design of homes. These design standards cover a number of different areas, such as the height of a house, the size of side yards, and the total square footage of a house. Design review boards and architectural review boards have also grown more popular as a way to control mansionization. In many cases, the government response has also been a source of controversy. Some residents question whether or not it is proper for cities to place these kinds of restrictions on private property owners. Furthermore, there is still an unanswered question of whether or not design standards achieve their aesthetic purpose.

### B. Statement of Purpose



Because local government efforts to control mansionization affect private property rights and the real estate industry, this paper will examine the issue of design standards in close detail. Emphasis will be placed on the different areas of house design typically covered by design standard ordinances. Examples will also be provided of what some Boards have done to fight unpopular proposals in their communities. With the information provided in this paper, REALTORS® who are faced with design standard proposals in their community will be better informed about this issue and better equipped to plan an appropriate response.

## COMMON FORMS OF DESIGN STANDARDS

Efforts to restrict mansionization are implemented in a variety of ways. Design standard ordinances may only address one or two issues, or they may cover many different aspects of house design. Nevertheless, several features are common to most of these ordinances. The following section will describe some of the most common forms of design standards.

### A. Size Restrictions

One of the ways in which cities have attempted to control mansionization is by placing restrictions on the floor space of a home. One of the most common of these types of restrictions, the floor area ratio or FAR, limits the square footage of a home in proportion to the total square footage of the lot. For example, if a city has a 50 percent FAR, a home built on a 5,000 square foot lot could have a maximum of 2,500 square feet of floor space. The FAR may or may not include garage space. FAR's vary, from as low as 30 percent in places like Pasadena and Glendale, to as high as 60 percent in Torrance. In other cities, the ratios may fall anywhere between these two extremes. The FAR may also be on a sliding scale, varying with the overall size of the lot. For example, Pasadena's FAR increases to 35 percent for homes on lots larger than 7,200 square feet. The city of Glendale has three FAR's --45 percent, 40 percent, and 35 percent --each of which applies to different neighborhoods depending on their average lot size. It is important to note that a lower FAR will not necessarily result in smaller homes. This is because some cities have generally larger lot sizes than others. For example, the city of La Canada Flintridge has an FAR restriction of 35 percent, and the average lot size is 10,000 square feet; therefore, a home on an average-sized lot will have as much as 3,500 square feet of floor space. In contrast, the city of Carmel has a FAR restriction of 45 percent, and the average lot size is 4,000 square feet; therefore, a home on an average-sized lot may have only 1,800 square feet of floor space. Some communities limit the amount of space on the lot that may be covered by the structure of the house, often referred to as the footprint. The city of La Canada Flintridge has lot coverage limits of 35 percent, 32.5 percent and 30 percent for homes on lots up to 10,000 square feet, between 10,001 and 15,000 square feet, and between 15,001 and 20,000 square feet, respectively. The city's FAR for the same lot sizes is 35 percent, 40 percent and 40 percent. Some cities restrict the total amount of lot coverage allowed for the home and all other construction. Saratoga recently adopted a 15,000 square feet impervious coverage limit for lots of one acre or greater. The 15,000 square feet includes all accessory structures, such as pools, tennis courts and Jacuzzi's, except driveways. It is important to note that if a two-story house and a single-story house are built on lots of equal size, the two-story house could have a greater floor area ratio than the single-story house and still have the same amount of site coverage. In other

words, the two-story home could have the same amount of site coverage and still be a larger house. In order to address this discrepancy, some cities have different lot coverage requirements for single-story and two-story houses. For example, single story homes in Arcadia may cover 45 percent of the lot, but two-story homes may cover only 35 percent.

## B. Setbacks and Encroachments

Another way that locales control the size of homes is by establishing a minimum amount of space that must be left between the property lines and the walls of the house. These setback restrictions can be established for the side, front and rear yards. Setback restrictions vary with the terrain of the community and the style of building construction. For example, if a community wants to preserve its semi-rural character, in which most of the homes are built on larger and more open lots, the setback requirement might be more severe. In a community that consists of smaller lots, the requirements might not be as strict. Regardless of the circumstances, cities use a variety of formulas for calculating setback requirements. The city of Glendale requires a 15 foot front yard setback for hillsides and 25 feet for all other lots. La Canada Flintridge requires that all residential lots have a front setback of not less than the averaged depth of the front setback of property adjoining on either side. A vacant lot is considered to have a front setback of 20 feet, but the front setback requirement is never less than 20 feet or greater than 50 feet. Beverly Hills requires a rear yard setback of 30 percent of the lot depth minus nine feet, plus an alley dedication. Many locales also have separate setback requirements for first and second stories, in order to prevent what is perceived to be excessive bulk and mass. Their goal is to preserve a so-called "wedding cake" appearance, with the floors set back progressively as they go up. For example, Beverly Hills does not allow flat-faced front facades; at least one story must be set back from the other(s). In certain districts of Pasadena, the second story must be set back, on the front and side, five feet greater than the required setbacks for the first floor. In the city of Arcadia, all second stories, including architectural features, must have a minimum side yard setback of 10 feet or five feet plus ten percent of the width of the lot as measured at the front property line, whichever is greater. Some cities also place restrictions on an imaginary line referred to as the daylight plane. The line begins at a point in the air directly above the property line and angles inward towards the top of the house. The name daylight plane is derived from the amount of sunlight that can pass the house and penetrate onto neighboring homes. In other words, daylight plane restrictions are intended to restrict the size of the shadow that a house casts on its neighbors. For example, La Canada Flintridge's ordinance stipulates, "no building shall exceed the height of a 45 degree plane drawn from a height of ten feet above finished ground level at all boundaries of the lot." Some cities combine both of the above approaches. Alhambra has a 25-foot front yard setback for structures up to 20 feet in height. A requirement for an additional five-foot front yard setback or a 40 degree daylight plane angle from the front property line, whichever is greater, applies to any portion of a structure over 20 feet in height. The side yard setback requirement is five feet plus one foot for each story or partial story above the first floor.

## C. Height Limits

When cities place horizontal size restrictions on homes, the next logical direction for a builder or homeowner to go for additional space is up. Consequently, local governments have also tried to

addresses the mansionization problem by imposing height limits. For example, Culver City has a maximum height limit of 26 feet. (It was recently lowered from 30 feet.) Temple City limits all homes to two-stories or 30 feet in height. The city of Torrance limits one-story buildings to 18 feet and two-story buildings to 27 feet. Some locales have a sliding height limit depending on the size of the lot. In La Canada Flintridge, the maximum building height is 28 feet for lots 10,000 square feet or less in gross area and/or 65 feet or less in width. The height limit increases to 32 feet for lots that exceed those numbers. The city of Saratoga ties in the FAR to its height limit, in order to discourage two-story homes in single-story neighborhoods. In neighborhoods designated as single-story, a house loses 1.5 percent of its allowable FAR for each foot in height that exceeds 18 feet. While many cities are lowering their height limits to combat mansionization, the city of Pacific Grove recently increased its height limit in response to public pressure. In 1955, an 18-foot height limit had been adopted for one particular neighborhood. The height limit for the remainder of the city was established at 25 feet. However, many residents complained that the lower limit resulted in many flat-topped roofs on second stories. Therefore, in April of 1991, the council increased the height limit for the neighborhood to match the citywide limit of 25 feet. However, it also established an FAR of 50 percent for the same neighborhood.

#### D. Design Review Boards/Architectural Review Boards

Design review boards and/or architectural review boards are being used more frequently as a way to restrict mansionization. Many cities have established these boards and given them the authority to scrutinize plans for new construction and additions in order to ascertain whether the plan has "neighborhood compatibility" -- in other words, whether the house design will conform with the architectural style and other aesthetic features of existing homes in the neighborhood. The biggest complaint made against these boards is that they are arbitrary. Since neighborhood compatibility is an abstract concept, inevitably some of the review boards' decisions will be based more on subjective interpretations than on specific, objective standards. For example, in the city of Glendale plans for all new single-family homes, additions of 700 square feet or more, or an additional story must be submitted to the Design Review Board. The board reviews the plans to make sure they conform with all city standards (i.e., F.A.R., height and setbacks), and it reviews them for compatibility with the urban design, architecture and other aesthetic features of the existing neighborhood homes. In other words, if a plan meets all of the city's standards but is found to be incompatible with the surrounding homes, it will still be rejected. In one well publicized case, the Laguna Beach Design Review Board approved "desert sandstone" for the exterior color of one house that was being built in the city. After the decision, the owner decided to use "shell white," thinking it was a close enough substitute. After he painted the house, a neighbor complained, so the owner took the matter to the city's community development director, who agreed that the color was close enough to the color originally agreed upon. Although the official has the authority to make such a ruling, the neighbor continued to complain, and another Design Review Board hearing was held -- for a total of five for the same house. The DRB overturned the community development director's decision. Without the board's approval, the city does not authorize utility service, so the owner could not move in. In a show of protest, the owner painted a large American flag on the side of the house along with the slogan "Freedom of Choice."

## REALTORS® IN ACTION

In many cities, REALTORS® and their Boards have responded to proposed design standard ordinances by organizing themselves and the community to lobby the city for more reasonable proposals. The following examples can be very useful for REALTORS® who want to carry out similar action in response to proposed design standards in their community.

### Santa Barbara and Palo Alto

While REALTORS® in Santa Barbara and Palo Alto were not able to prevent their cities from adopting design restrictions, they put together two very organized efforts in opposition to the proposals which helped them to effectively communicate their concerns to city officials. During the course of its two-year battle against the city's so-called "Big House" ordinance, the Santa Barbara Board spent over \$2,000 on advertisements in the local newspaper. The ads announced the date, time and place of upcoming hearings on the proposed ordinance, and described the effects that the proposal would have on property owners should it pass. The Board also worked together with the local chambers of commerce and property owner groups to oppose the measure, and they provided written testimony at every hearing. Ultimately, in the Fall of 1991, the city adopted a list of minimum standards for square footage, FAR, and height, which if exceeded, trigger a review by the Architectural Review Board. Specifically, if a house is built in the so-called Hillside District, if a one-story house is more than 17 feet high, or if a one- or two-story house has a total floor area of 2,500 square feet or more, then a review is required by the ARB, and sometimes the Planning Commission. The ordinance will go into effect on July 1, 1992, by which time the city expects to have adopted the actual review standards. In 1989, when the city of Palo Alto began considering an ordinance to place restrictions on the floor space of homes, several REALTORS® in the community mobilized homeowners to attend meetings and voice their opposition to the proposal. They raised money and purchased ads in the local newspaper titled "An Invitation to All Palo Alto Homeowners." The ads announced the time and place of upcoming hearings and warned homeowners of the consequences if the ordinance should pass. As a result of the ads, citizens packed the meeting rooms where the Planning Commission and City Council hearings were held. In the end, the public involvement did not stop the city from adopting a 45 percent FAR, but it did succeed in persuading the city to adopt an FAR restriction of 30 percent (as opposed to 25 percent) for homes on lots over 5,000 square feet.

### Pasadena

In the Spring of 1991, when the city of Pasadena passed an anti-mansionization ordinance that included FAR restrictions and height limits, REALTORS® from the Pasadena Board were satisfied because they had been involved in the process and given their input on the proposals from the very beginning. The Board appointed a subcommittee of the Local Government Relations Committee, whose members teamed up with the American Institute of Architects. The subcommittee members worked with the Planning Department staff and Planning Commission to help draft the ordinance. In the end, REALTORS® were pleased because their efforts resulted in an ordinance much less restrictive than those in nearby communities. For example, one of the specific provisions they were satisfied with was an increase in FAR and height limit restrictions as lot size increases.

### Saratoga

The Los Gatos-Saratoga Board realized that a design standards ordinance would ultimately be enacted by the majority slow growth council in the city of Saratoga, so the Board established two goals. First, REALTORS® sought to remove the most onerous measures; and second, they wanted to minimize the overall impact of the new standards by eliminating the citywide blanket application of the ordinance. They accomplished the latter goal by breaking down the provision into specific zoning areas and by requesting specific exemptions or special consideration for those areas (e.g., hillside zones, flat lands, etc.). REALTORS® participated in study sessions, met with staff members, attended planning commission hearings, and provided testimony on the proposal. In November 1991, after a full year, the council adopted only three restrictions which concerned REALTORS®: an impervious coverage restriction as a way to address concerns about preserving open space on lots (see, Size Restrictions); a hillside FAR of 8,000 square feet for lots over five acres; and a formula for height limits that incorporates a reduction in FAR, in order to discourage two-story buildings in single-story neighborhoods (see, Height Limits) .

## CONCLUSION

The decision of exactly how to respond to a proposed anti-mansionization ordinance is a difficult one for a Board or Association to make. On the one hand, many individuals feel that the present practice of tearing down older homes and replacing them with much larger ones constitutes such an offense to the neighborhood that it warrants some sort of government regulation. Some residents argue that the larger homes affect the ground below, which in turn affects the physical integrity of their homes. Some even argue that the "incompatible" house lowers their own home's property value. On the other hand, design standards and design/architectural review boards raise concerns about private property rights. Residents, REALTORS® and others are critical of the sometimes arbitrary standards that are imposed to control house design, as well as the lengthening of the development review process that results from the imposition of these standards. Furthermore, in many desirable neighborhoods, the existing housing stock is not designed in a manner that is desirable to many housing consumers (e.g., no family room or only one bathroom). In these cases, some argue that sellers and buyers alike should have some flexibility in redesigning a home to meet their own physical and aesthetic preferences. For a Board or Association to decide how to respond to a proposed design standards ordinance, it must take into consideration all of these points and, most importantly, evaluate its members' feelings on the specific proposal. Some of the case studies described above provide good examples of Boards that did not take an all-or-nothing approach by trying to defeat an ordinance out-right. On the contrary, they worked with their cities and came up with ordinances that were not overly restrictive. This is a realistic option that every Board should consider. High land costs in California's housing market, builders' needs to effectively balance the cost of land with the cost of construction, and homeowners' desire to own their dream homes, all portend a continued trend of mansionization. Consequently, cities will continue to adopt the types of design standards that have been described in this paper. This paper is intended to provide REALTORS® and their Boards and Associations with the resources necessary to prepare themselves should these types of standards be proposed in their community.

**Attachment F**

3 Rathkopf's The Law of Zoning and Planning § 54:10 (4th ed.)

Rathkopf's The Law of Zoning and Planning  
Database updated November 2015  
Arden H. Rathkopf, and Daren A. Rathkopf, Edward H. Ziegler, Jr.  
Chapter 54. Control of Bulk, Building Area, and Floor Size

References

§ 54:10. Regulation of floor size—Generally

Courts have implicitly sanctioned the use of floor-area ratio controls that, based on the size of a zoning lot, limit the maximum buildable floor area permitted on the lot.<sup>1</sup> Court decisions are split on the validity of zoning provisions that require some minimum floor area for residential dwellings.<sup>2</sup> Zoning provisions that establish some maximum floor size for residential dwellings (regardless of lot size) have yet to be tested in court but might be held valid and constitutionally permissible based on protection of aesthetics and community character.<sup>3</sup> Recent court decisions generally have upheld the validity of both minimum and maximum floor size restrictions on commercial and industrial uses.<sup>4</sup>

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Footnotes

<sup>1</sup> See discussion at § 54:3.

<sup>2</sup> See discussion herein at §§ 54:11, 54:14. In *Builders Service Corp., Inc. v. Planning & Zoning Com'n of Town of East Hampton*, 208 Conn. 267, 545 A.2d 530, 541, 87 A.L.R.4th 255 (1988), the court reported, from a March, 1987 survey of Connecticut zoning regulations by Charles Vildich Associates, the following minimum floor area requirements for municipalities in that state. The following table reflects the minimum floor area requirements for detached, single-family homes in the municipality as reported in that study:

Minimum Floor Area Requirements	Number of Municipalities
No minimum floor area requirements	50
Minimum of 300 to 599 square feet	4
Minimum of 600 to 899 square feet	47
Minimum of 900 to 1,199 square feet	56
Minimum of 1,200 to 1,499 square feet	11
Minimum of 1,500 square feet or more	1

And see *Barberino Realty & Development Corp. v. Town Plan and Zoning Com'n of Town of Farmington*, 1994 WL 547537 (Conn. Super. Ct. 1994) (listing schedule for minimum floor sizes for various types of dwellings under an affordable housing overlay zoning district).

§ 54:10.Regulation of floor size—Generally, 3 Rathkopf's The Law of Zoning and...

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**Massachusetts.** 81 Spooner Road, LLC v. Zoning Bd. of Appeals of Brookline, 78 Mass. App. Ct. 233, 936 N.E.2d 895 (2010), review granted, 459 Mass. 1104 (2011) (holding that unfinished space located on the second floor of a home was not exempt attic space that did not have to be counted in home's gross floor count for purposes of determining whether home exceeded the maximum floor area ratio allowed).

<sup>3</sup> The issue of controlling the overbuilding and “mansionization” of neighborhoods has arisen in places such as Aspen, Colorado, and Beverly Hills, California. In the latter community, the issue arose by the proposed construction of a 46,000-square-foot home in a neighborhood comprised largely of 5,000- to 8,000-square-foot homes. See the court decisions herein upholding the validity of maximum floor size restrictions on nonresidential uses to protect neighborhood character at § 54:12.

**Maryland.** Critical Area Com'n for Chesapeake and Atlantic Coastal Bays v. Moreland, LLC, 191 Md. App. 260, 991 A.2d 138 (2010), cert. granted, 415 Md. 40, 997 A.2d 790 (2010) (holding that board could not deny variance on grounds that proposed homes were greater than legally mandated minimum size).

**New Jersey.** Rumson Estates, Inc. v. Mayor & Council of Borough of Fair Haven, 177 N.J. 338, 828 A.2d 317 (2003) (cap on floor area for single-family dwellings did not violate uniformity principle by overriding floor area ratio on oversized lots; the cap maintained the proportionality of new construction to other houses in the zone and contributed to the diversification of housing stock by the building of smaller, more affordable homes, and developer failed to show that the cap was unreasonable, arbitrary, or capricious. N.J.S.A. 40:55D-2, subd. i, 40:55D-62, subd. a).

**Wyoming.** Board of County Commissioners of Teton County, Wyoming v. Crow, 2006 WY 45, 131 P.3d 988 (Wyo. 2006) (upholding limit on habitable size of single-family residences to 8,000 square feet).

<sup>4</sup> See herein § 54:12.

**Wyoming.** Board of County Com'rs of Teton County v. Crow, 2003 WY 40, 65 P.3d 720 (Wyo. 2003) (expressly upholding maximum 8,000 square feet habitable space limitation on size of single-family residences).



**Attachment G**

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Indiana Law Journal  
Fall, 2015

Articles

ZONING AS TAXIDERMY: NEIGHBORHOOD CONSERVATION DISTRICTS AND THE REGULATION OF  
AESTHETICS

Anika Singh Lemar<sup>al</sup>

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Over the last thirty years, municipalities across the country have embraced neighborhood conservation districts, regulations that impose design standards at the neighborhood level. Despite their adoption in thirty-five states, in municipalities from Boise to Cambridge, neighborhood conservation districts have evaded critical analysis by legal scholars. By regulating features such as architectural style, roof angle, and maximum eave overhang, conservation districts purport to protect “neighborhood character” or “cultural stability.” Implicit in these regulations is the unsupported assumption that the essential feature of a neighborhood’s character is its architectural design at a single point in time. The unfortunate result is zoning as taxidermy, rather than land-use planning that permits places to evolve to meet changing needs and preferences. Conservation districts freeze places in time, exclude would-be residents from desirable neighborhoods, and threaten to increase the cost of housing in those neighborhoods and the cities in which they are located.

Urban culture is defined by dynamism, vitality, and an ability to adapt to and accommodate population and market shifts. Conservation district regulations should be crafted in that same spirit, to preserve cities and suburbs as places amenable to change. They should not only permit but also promote investment and redevelopment, particularly redevelopment of neighborhoods that, because they are close to public amenities, are well suited to dense development. This Article urges state legislators to cabin local authority to enact conservation districts. Revisions to state zoning- enabling legislation can ensure that these regulations (i) are not exclusionary, (ii) are responsive to changing market dynamics and evolving consumer preferences, and (iii) do not artificially inflate housing prices.

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**\*1526 Introduction**

Emboldened in recent decades by modern-era case law that permits land-use regulations to be grounded only in aesthetics, local governments have embraced zoning codes that regulate the design of a structure, not simply its use or its size. Originally, zoning ordinances served primarily to segregate uses.<sup>1</sup> In addition, in order to preserve light and air, zoning ordinances have long regulated the bulk of a building by limiting height, establishing setback lines, setting minimum and maximum square footages, and imposing maximum floor-area ratios.<sup>2</sup> Design review ordinances go beyond ordinary use and bulk regulations to consider a building's aesthetics.<sup>3</sup> These ordinances establish design standards and oftentimes entrust an appointed board or commission with the review of the proposed design of a building, including choice of building materials, roof lines, siting and orientation, and scale. For example, a neighborhood conservation district<sup>4</sup> in Phoenix, Arizona, requires all commercial buildings to be built with traditional agrarian materials, such as adobe.<sup>5</sup> Another such district in the Avon Hill neighborhood of Cambridge, Massachusetts, expressly prohibits the use of vinyl siding and requires a local commission to consider the "site layout" of accessory buildings when determining whether to permit **\*1527** their construction.<sup>6</sup> A design review ordinance in Noank, Connecticut, requires the local zoning commission to consider "the rhythm of solids to voids in the facade" and the "[r]hythm of spacing of buildings on the street" when determining whether to allow issuance of a building permit.<sup>7</sup> And a district in Dallas requires all new construction to be limited to single-family High Tudors, of the type that were commonly built in that neighborhood in the 1920s.<sup>8</sup> While conservation districts share some characteristics with historic districts, they are distinguishable both procedurally and substantively and merit analysis separate from historic districts.<sup>9</sup>

This Article accomplishes two tasks, both crucial to a critical analysis of neighborhood conservation districts and, more generally, the role of aesthetics in land-use regulations.<sup>10</sup> First, it argues that the increase in the use of aesthetics in zoning regulations is attributable in significant part to an increased consumer preference for housing located in urban residential neighborhoods that are close to downtown districts, jobs, transportation infrastructure, or other immobile amenities, such as waterfronts. Homeowners respond to the perceived threat that increased demand will adversely change their neighborhoods by freezing development patterns, thus limiting supply. As a result, these regulations, like restrictive zoning regulations generally, threaten to increase housing prices, thus contributing to a dearth of housing affordable to middle-income families in urban areas.<sup>11</sup> Second, this Article argues that conservation districts should be understood and treated as a form of exclusionary, overly restrictive zoning of the sort that has been criticized by commentators and land-use scholars.<sup>12</sup> In order to advance housing affordability **\*1528** and account for the interests of all housing consumers, aesthetic regulations must accommodate changing market dynamics and evolving consumer preferences. In particular, state legislators should require that local aesthetic regulations permit neighborhoods to evolve and change over time in response to shifts in market demand.

Part I of this Article describes the current state of case law and scholarship on the role of aesthetics in land-use regulations, and it highlights the role that cultural stability has played in defining the contours of aesthetic land-use regulations. Part II, based on a review of regulations from various jurisdictions, argues that residential neighborhoods embrace conservation districts in an effort to resist development pressures resulting from the desirability of urban areas and "streetcar suburbs." Part III concludes that requiring aesthetic regulations, like conservation districts, to be grounded in existing context comes at

the expense of competing interests, including affordability, community empowerment, and inclusivity. Part IV proposes that conservation districts be reimagined to permit change and dynamism. Rather than seeking to invalidate all aesthetic regulations, this Article argues that state zoning-enabling legislation should prevent the use of aesthetic regulations to advance exclusionary policies.

### I. Revisiting the Case for Aesthetics: Community Values and Context

Neighbors often desire the ability to dictate the aesthetics of a neighbor's property. Undoubtedly, when a person purchases property, he or she is setting a price based not only on the property in question but also on the state of the surrounding properties and the qualities of the neighborhood. As the aphorism goes, "location, location, location." A home in a well-maintained neighborhood has a very different value when placed in a blighted community. Because "neighborhood" is an element of the purchase price paid by a homebuyer, many homebuyers, once they become homeowners, desire to control certain actions taken by their neighbors with respect to their properties. As a result, a property owner and his or her neighbors may have competing interests in the use of a single parcel of land and, provided that the property owner's intended use does not rise to the level of a nuisance or violate local law, the nature of their interests does not establish a process by which neighbors can have input in land-use decisions.<sup>13</sup> Aesthetic regulations provide a possible public-law mechanism to expand neighbor control of land use.

In the decades following *Village of Euclid v. Ambler Realty Co.*,<sup>14</sup> courts routinely rejected local attempts to impose aesthetic land-use regulations.<sup>15</sup> Treating aesthetics as a purely subjective inquiry incapable of supporting coherent land-use regulations, \*1529 early twentieth century courts consistently held that aesthetics alone could not serve as a basis for exercise of the police power.<sup>16</sup> Over time, however, particularly in a line of cases addressing regulation of billboards and junkyards,<sup>17</sup> courts couched validation of aesthetic regulations in health, safety, or the general welfare. Courts remained hesitant to hold explicitly that aesthetics alone could support the application of land-use regulations as a function of the police power.<sup>18</sup> Instead, courts upheld aesthetic ordinances by finding that they served other valid purposes, such as furthering the "general welfare," increasing property values, or supporting local tourism.<sup>19</sup> But "the asserted linkages between aesthetics and these goals were often dubious, if not transparently fictional."<sup>20</sup>

As early as 1955, some argued that this subterfuge was unnecessary and that courts ought to acknowledge that aesthetics, even standing on its own, was a reasonable and constitutional basis for the exercise of zoning authority.<sup>21</sup> Indeed, through 1980, land-use case law steadily trended toward permitting zoning regulations and other land-use restrictions to be based solely on aesthetics.<sup>22</sup> Since then, the trend has continued, but at a slower pace.<sup>23</sup> The result is that, by one count, \*1530 in approximately thirty-five states, in the District of Columbia, and at the federal level, courts do not question legislative and administrative land-use determinations purportedly grounded in aesthetics,<sup>24</sup> particularly where there is purported to be community support for aesthetic determinations.<sup>25</sup> In five other states, courts have allowed regulations based on aesthetics when aesthetics is but one of multiple bases.<sup>26</sup> These state courts have not, however, opined on whether aesthetics alone is sufficient.<sup>27</sup> In ten states, courts have held that aesthetics alone is insufficient.<sup>28</sup>

Rather than question this trend in land-use law, scholars have sought to validate it. As aesthetic regulations became more commonly accepted over the course of the twentieth century, scholars struggled to identify an underlying principle that would both support and meaningfully limit the use of aesthetics in land-use regulations.<sup>29</sup> In the course of those validation efforts, scholars embraced cultural stability and the preservation of buildings and places that are "icon[s] in the community mind"<sup>30</sup> as accepted bases for the use of aesthetics in land-use regulations.<sup>31</sup> Behind these \*1531 attempts is an assumption that a person's neighbors have a legitimate interest in "preserving" the neighborhood in the state in which it existed on the day that they purchased their homes.<sup>32</sup> Cultural stability has proved an attractive grounding for aesthetic rulemaking both because it encapsulates the prevailing sentiment that neighborhood homeowners ought to be able to stop time and prevent change and because, proponents argue, it can be defined objectively.<sup>33</sup> Whether a building is visually appealing is a subjective inquiry.<sup>34</sup> Whether a building is consistent with the existing architectural context is a supposedly objective one. As described in Part II, neighborhood conservation districts-by defining acceptable visual features with reference to the existing architectural context-embrace this approach to aesthetics. As a result, they provide a point of departure for considering and evaluating the

role of aesthetics and context in land-use regulation.

## II. Conservation Districts: Land-Use Ordinances Based Solely on Aesthetics

Neighborhood conservation districts (1) establish design standards based on the context existing in the district on the day of the regulation's adoption and (2) are adopted, implemented, or administered sublocally.<sup>35</sup> They represent a single type of \*1532 aesthetic land-use regulation but an increasingly popular one. One recent survey identified 165 such districts in thirty-five states.<sup>36</sup> In 1983, Cambridge, Massachusetts, was one of the first municipalities to adopt neighborhood conservation districts.<sup>37</sup> Cities as diverse as Nashville,<sup>38</sup> Dallas,<sup>39</sup> Miami,<sup>40</sup> Boise,<sup>41</sup> and Chapel Hill<sup>42</sup> followed, and conservation districts continue to be proposed and adopted today.<sup>43</sup> Despite that fact, to date, neighborhood conservation districts have evaded critical investigation from legal scholars.<sup>44</sup> The existing scholarship and commentary is dominated by historic preservationists advocating for conservation-district \*1533 adoption<sup>45</sup> and planners undertaking descriptive accounts of conservation-district ordinances.<sup>46</sup>

Neighborhood conservation districts are not historic districts. The adoption standards for historic districts are higher than those for conservation districts.<sup>47</sup> State enabling legislation limits local historic-district designations to areas that have some historical significance.<sup>48</sup> Sometimes the local or state law requires buildings to be at least fifty or more years old.<sup>49</sup> In addition, the historical integrity of the neighborhood must be intact.<sup>50</sup> If recent development has compromised the historic fabric of the area, the neighborhood may no longer be eligible for local historic-district designation. Conservation districts are not subject to any of these substantive requirements.<sup>51</sup> In fact, because the adoption standards are lower, conservation-district advocates argue that neighborhood conservation districts "can be useful . . . when a neighborhood does not meet the minimum requirements for historic designation."<sup>52</sup> For example, Iowa City designates both historic districts and conservation districts. Conservation districts have "fewer properties that retain a high degree of historic integrity or contribute to a distinct sense of time and place," but these districts "are still considered worthy of protection."<sup>53</sup>

\*1534 In addition, in some states, the process for adopting a conservation district is less onerous than that required for adopting a historic district. For example, in Connecticut, adoption of a local historic district requires the affirmative vote of two-thirds of the property owners in the proposed district as well as passage of an ordinance by the municipality's legislative body.<sup>54</sup> The process for adopting conservation districts, termed "village districts," requires only that the local zoning commission adopt the district, just as it would adopt any other zoning regulation.<sup>55</sup>

In fact, neighborhood conservation districts are routinely described as historic districts lite.<sup>56</sup> They "have less stringent regulatory hurdles and more flexibility in implementation [than do local historic districts], so they can be tailored to the physical, historical, or political needs of particular neighborhoods."<sup>57</sup> Because conservation districts, unlike historic districts, are not preserving well-defined historic architectural characteristics, regulations can be imprecise and ill defined.<sup>58</sup> At the same time, and worse still, conservation districts lack meaningful eligibility standards.<sup>59</sup> They can be used in neighborhoods that do not qualify for \*1535 historic-district status to subject renovations and construction to a design-review process just as stringent as that required in local historic districts. Thus, conservation districts permit residents and regulators to bypass legislative limitations on the use of onerous design criteria in historic districts.

This Part will establish and critique the defining characteristics of neighborhood conservation districts. The first characteristic, a design standard that requires alterations and new construction to be consistent with structures in the vicinity of the proposed development, is a misguided attempt to safeguard cultural stability.<sup>60</sup> The second characteristic, sublocal governance, represents an effort, ultimately unsuccessful, to ensure that the neighborhood conservation regulations reflect a community-based consensus.<sup>61</sup> In addition, this Part will describe how regulators and interest groups use design standards and sublocal governance to resist market forces that might otherwise increase the availability and decrease the cost of housing in desirable neighborhoods.

### A. Cultural Stability in Practice: Zoning as Taxidermy<sup>62</sup>

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Conservation-district regulations codify aesthetic assessments grounded in a purported desire for stability.<sup>63</sup> For example, Cambridge's design-review process **\*1536** requires the neighborhood conservation-district commission to "consider, among other things, the historic and architectural value and significance of the site or structure, the general design, arrangement, texture and material of the features involved, and the relation of such features to similar features of structures in the surrounding area."<sup>64</sup> Existing buildings set the standard for determining whether a proposed development is aesthetically acceptable.<sup>65</sup> This context-based aesthetic review, intended, for example, to "preserve an area's cultural, architectural, and aesthetic ambience,"<sup>66</sup> is consistent with the scholarly call to incorporate aesthetics in land-use regulations so long as those aesthetic considerations are based in cultural preservation.<sup>67</sup>

Each neighborhood conservation district pursues the goal of cultural stability in one of two ways. "Preservation model" conservation districts subject new construction and alterations to a design-review process.<sup>68</sup> "Neighborhood planning model" conservation districts require new construction and alterations to be consistent with precise, detailed regulations that include but are not limited to typical-use and bulk regulations.<sup>69</sup> Both approaches require all new construction, alterations, and additions to be consistent with the existing built environment in the relevant district.<sup>70</sup>

A typical "preservation model" ordinance in Noank, Connecticut, requires that, prior to construction of any structure or exterior renovation, a local commission must determine that the overall architectural character of the proposed site and building design is in harmony with the neighborhood in which such activity is **\*1537** taking place, or accomplishes a transition in character between areas of unlike character; protects property values in the neighborhood, and preserves and enhances the beauty of the community, its historical integrity and architecture.<sup>71</sup>

Design review requires that a property owner consult applicable design guidelines in the process of designing a renovation or new building. The final design, including details regarding materials, roof design, site plans, landscaping plans, and window and door design, is often required to be submitted to a commission for review. Only upon favorable review by the design-review commission is a project eligible for issuance of a building permit. One representative ordinance, in Nashville, charges a local board with determining, among other things, "[t]he appropriateness of the exterior architectural design and features of, and appurtenances related to, any new structure or improvement" and "[t]he appropriateness of exterior alterations and repairs to an existing structure."<sup>72</sup> Even if a proposed structure meets all of the use, setback, height, floor-area ratio, and other requirements of the underlying zoning ordinance, it can be denied a building permit for failure to survive the design-review process.

"Neighborhood planning model" conservation districts do not require design review but, instead, impose detailed design standards based on existing context. In Dallas's M Streets East Conservation District, for example, the minimum front-yard setback for any given block is determined by averaging the setbacks of all the houses on the block on the date on which the district was established.<sup>73</sup> An appendix to the ordinance includes the address of each house in the district and its front yard setback. Based on that background information, it then establishes the setback that is applicable to each block. In the neighboring M Streets Conservation District, neighbors and the city's planning department determined that eight architectural styles (High Tudor, Tudor, Craftsman, Spanish Revival, Minimal Traditional, Neo-Colonial, Ranch, and Contemporary) prevailed in the neighborhood.<sup>74</sup> The M Streets ordinance identifies the architectural style of each and every house in the neighborhood. Much as Euclid set out a hierarchy of uses with single-family residences perched at the top and permitted in all zones, the M Streets Conservation District establishes a hierarchy of architectural styles. High Tudors, which sit at the top of the hierarchy, can be demolished "only if the cost of bringing the house into compliance with all applicable building code requirements using materials similar to the original materials is greater than 80 percent of the structure's value . . . ."<sup>75</sup> Any other style may be demolished at the owner's option.<sup>76</sup> Any new construction must be in the High Tudor style,<sup>77</sup> typical of houses built in the neighborhood in the 1920s, **\*1538** unless the new construction is replacing a demolished Craftsman-in which case the new construction can be in the Craftsman style.<sup>78</sup> Any house may be renovated, but it must be renovated according to its original style or the High Tudor style, per the definitions and guidelines set forth in the ordinance.<sup>79</sup> For example, "Minimal Traditional houses must have a cross-gabled roof with low to moderate roof slope between 30 degrees and 45 degrees, and a single projecting front-facing entryway." Such homes must include a "front porch entry."<sup>80</sup> The



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ordinance regulates materials, roof design, porch design, and any other characteristics that the city council determined to be essential elements of each style. These very precise standards are all based on the neighborhood study undertaken prior to passage of the ordinance.

The Dallas and Noank ordinances are concerned with consistency—that is, that new development be consistent with the past construction—but they take very different approaches. The Dallas ordinances define consistency in rigorous detail. There is no design-review process by which an administrative body has latitude to determine whether a proposed construction project is consistent with the existing neighborhood fabric. The regulations are, instead, enforced by staff within city hall charged with issuing zoning permits and building permits.

The Noank ordinance also requires consistency, but it does so with significantly less detail. Instead, it simply provides that new construction must be “in harmony with the neighborhood.”<sup>81</sup> Whether proposed renovation or construction is harmonious is determined at the discretion of the zoning commission. The zoning commission undertakes a design review in which eleven architectural elements are considered. The proposed construction or renovation must “relate to” the structures within two hundred feet on all eleven elements, which include scale, “[r]hythm of solids to voids in the facade,” and “[b]uildings and [s]tructures and [r]elationship of [m]aterials [t]o [b]e [u]sed.”<sup>82</sup> The Dallas M Streets ordinance provides detailed requirements as to roof shape, for example: “The roof of new houses must be side-gabled with a roof slope between 45 degrees and 70 degrees. Hipped roofs are not allowed. The maximum overhang for eaves is 18 inches.”<sup>83</sup> By contrast, Noank simply provides that the “[r]elationship of roof shapes . . . should be compared to the majority of roofs within two hundred feet of the lot.”<sup>84</sup> The regulations are, unlike those in Dallas, vague, perhaps purposefully.<sup>85</sup> The administrative body charged with design review has great latitude to determine whether a proposed construction project is permissible. While the Dallas ordinances are quite granular, the Noank ordinance is perhaps unconstitutionally vague.<sup>86</sup>

In both the planning and preservation models, neighborhood conservation districts, as their name suggests, provide for conservation of a neighborhood’s \*1539 existing architectural and land-use fabric without regard to historical or architectural merit. In some places, as in Noank, the regulations simply provide that design review should be undertaken with conservation as the primary goal.<sup>87</sup> In other places, as in the M Streets neighborhoods, the regulations consist of standards divined from the existing land-use and architectural patterns.<sup>88</sup> In both cases, the result is zoning regulations that do not take into account market dynamics, demand for housing, population growth, or demographic trends.

In an effort to impose an objective standard for aesthetic review, scholars have advocated “cultural stability” as a basis for any aesthetic regulation.<sup>89</sup> Neighborhood conservation districts, in their prioritization of conservation over competing goals, aspire to this approach. Neighborhood conservation districts are not historic districts, motivated by architectural-preservation goals and circumscribed by the strictures in historic-preservation statutes.<sup>90</sup> Nor are neighborhood conservation districts established to further traditional land-use planning goals such as protection of health and general welfare. Instead, their sole goal is to achieve stasis, to preserve the neighborhood as it exists on the day that the regulation is adopted.

The preservation movement has long struggled with the difficulty of attaining through regulation the same urban fabrics that grew organically from the market attributes of bygone eras. Jane Jacobs, the perhaps-unintentional matriarch of historic preservation and neighborhood conservation legislation, predicted the difficulty of preserving or conserving neighborhood fabric; she worried that regulation of urban environments might amount to taxidermy, which “goes too far when the specimens put on display are exhibitions of dead, stuffed cities.”<sup>91</sup> Jacobs argued that in a closed society, a technologically hampered society, or an arrested society, either hard necessity or tradition and custom can enforce on everyone a disciplined selectivity of purposes and materials, a discipline by consensus on what those materials demand of their organizers, and a disciplined control over the forms thereby created.<sup>92</sup>

Jacobs did not provide examples of “closed,” “technologically hampered,” or “arrested” societies, but she certainly did not believe that the modern United States or any of its cities qualified.<sup>93</sup> Instead, she believed that “to embody tradition or to \*1540 express (and freeze) harmonious consensus” is not the “constructive use” to which cities ought to be put.<sup>94</sup> Writing about historic-preservation laws more than thirty years ago and wrestling with this same problem, Carol Rose observed,

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Given the strong influence of urban renewal projects on historic districts, it is no surprise that the districts sometimes share with urban renewal projects an overplanned quality and an imperious suppression of variety that may ruin the liveliness and diversity of an urban neighborhood. Historic district regulation, by narrowing a builder's design choices to a few approved styles, can freeze a community's architectural character to reflect some quasi-mythic time in the past, at the cost of creative contributions by current residents.<sup>95</sup>

Neighborhood conservation regulations exacerbate this problem. While few neighborhoods are eligible for historic-district designation, conservation districts can be implemented almost anywhere.<sup>96</sup> Adoption of neighborhood conservation districts disrupts the process of creative destruction that has long characterized American city building.<sup>97</sup> Too often, policy makers and city residents assume that urban growth must happen outward- that after a neighborhood is developed, it is "built-out" and its density should not change. According to that understanding, new development accommodating population growth and immigration happens only in previously undeveloped areas, successive outer rings surrounding cities. But growing outward onto farmland is just one way in which urban areas accommodate new residents. Redevelopment and infill development have long been important to urban development patterns and have allowed cities and suburbs to accommodate population growth in the very places that are desirable for people to live.<sup>98</sup>

Redeveloping and rebuilding already-developed areas allows homeowners, renters, commercial interests, real-estate developers, and land-use planners to reimagine the highest and best use of land by anticipating future needs. A parcel of \*1541 land on what would later become Manhattan's Fifth Avenue may have been best used as a portion of a farm in 1800.<sup>99</sup> When it was first developed, Fifth Avenue above Fourteenth Street was a single-family neighborhood.<sup>100</sup> At that time, the best use of a Fifth Avenue parcel may have been as a mansion, a brownstone, or an attached single-family house. By the last decade of the nineteenth century, developers sought to change the Avenue's residential areas to commercial and mixed-use areas.<sup>101</sup> By 1910, half of the fifty-eight brownstones that had been located on Fifth Avenue between Thirty-Fourth and Forty-Second Streets in 1902 had been demolished.<sup>102</sup> The rest were demolished, and replaced with commercial buildings, by 1930.<sup>103</sup> Often, buildings were torn down just a few years after they were originally constructed.<sup>104</sup> Were it not for the constant rebuilding of Manhattan and infill development increasing the density of already-developed neighborhoods, the Upper East Side would not have existed in the state in which it was "preserved" in 1981, when it was designated a landmark. The Upper East Side has existed in a series of wildly differing iterations over the last three centuries. Rebuilding and redeveloping enabled Manhattan to meet evolving needs as New York City grew, architectural styles and technological capabilities evolved, and the needs of homeowners, renters, and commercial interests changed over time. Manhattan provides just one lens through which to view the importance of infill development to neighborhoods that many now consider historic. But the same pattern of development and redevelopment is apparent in urban areas across the country.<sup>105</sup>

Cultural stability does not exist in a vacuum, and it must be considered alongside other competing goals. Even if stability is a relevant consideration in policy making, it cannot be the only consideration. Indeed, changing cultural norms, immigration, population growth, increasing diversity, and other evolving factors will often require society to reconsider whether stability is a worthy policy goal.<sup>106</sup> Neighborhood conservation districts, particularly where they are adopted extensively across a city (as \*1542 is the case in Nashville and Cambridge),<sup>107</sup> render local and state governments unable to respond to changing demographics, growing populations, and variable market conditions. This inability to respond to change is an evil inherent in a land-use planning policy that prioritizes conserving neighborhoods in their present state to the exclusion of all other goals, goals that should be considered in the land-use planning process.

### **B. (Dis)empowering Communities Through Sublocal Governance**

Advocates argue that neighborhood conservation districts incorporate community- based decision-making processes.<sup>108</sup> The primary mechanism by which conservation districts incorporate community perspectives is sublocal governance. A neighborhood-level institution is entrusted with one or more of the following: the decision whether to adopt a neighborhood conservation district; the crafting of district regulations; and, less frequently, the administration of the neighborhood conservation district. Voices that may not be heard at the regional or local levels are more likely to be heard at the sublocal



level.

Unfortunately, neighborhood conservation districts amplify some voices but exclude others, thus diminishing, if not obliterating, their benefits in increasing participation. In particular, conservation districts often exclude the voices and preferences of renters and those who live outside of the proposed district but who may, nonetheless, be affected by its adoption.<sup>109</sup> In addition, conservation districts always exclude and, in fact, prohibit consideration of the needs of future housing consumers.<sup>110</sup> As a result, any supposed voice-enhancing benefits are undercut.

While zoning is adopted at the municipal level without formal input from each affected neighborhood, zone, or district, neighborhood conservation districts typically require sublocal approval. Neighborhood conservation districts are adopted at the municipal level, but sublocal initiation or approval is a condition precedent to adoption. For example, in Chapel Hill, the process of designating a neighborhood conservation district can be initiated either by the town council<sup>111</sup> or by a **\*1543** neighborhood-level petition.<sup>112</sup> Upon the affirmative vote of either fifty-one percent of the property owners (voting on a single-vote-per-parcel basis) or of the owners of fifty-one percent of the land area within the proposed district, the local government initiates the review process.<sup>113</sup>

Even where the authorizing ordinance does not require that conservation districts be formally approved at the sublocal level, municipalities in practice will require sublocal approval before adopting a design overlay. In Dallas, the ordinance does not require sublocal approval, but the city council will not entertain adoption unless the process is initiated at the sublocal level: “[N]eighborhood-initiated designation is in practice the only politically feasible route.”<sup>114</sup> Nashville’s local ordinance does not, on its face, require any neighborhood-level input in the adoption of a neighborhood conservation district.<sup>115</sup> As a practical matter, however, often local governments will not consider a neighborhood for designation unless there is sublocal support. In Cambridge, the citywide historical commission “may begin the study of a district, but, in general, neighborhood conservation districts develop out of residents’ concern over issues that threaten their neighborhood’s character,”<sup>116</sup> and the commission appointed to evaluate designation must include sublocal representation. Connecticut, likewise, does not require sublocal approval in order to adopt a village district, the Connecticut analog to the neighborhood conservation district.<sup>117</sup> As a practical matter, however, such approval is necessary. In one Connecticut town, the planning and zoning commission told village-district advocates that it would not take up a **\*1544** proposed design overlay unless the homeowners’ association in the affected neighborhood drafted and proposed the ordinance.<sup>118</sup> In another, though not required to do so by the authorizing state statute, the town appointed a committee to consider adoption of a village district and took care to ensure that the nine members included two homeowners and two business owners inside the proposed district.<sup>119</sup>

In addition to requiring sublocal input at the time of adoption, a subset of neighborhood conservation districts incorporate sublocal input in the course of exercising design review. For example, in Cambridge, the board responsible for design review must include three residents, two of whom must be homeowners, and a property owner, who may also be a homeowner.<sup>120</sup> In Nashville, the design-review board is set at the local level, but it must include at least two residents of overlay districts and two people who are either property owners or business owners in an overlay district.<sup>121</sup>

### 1. Sublocal Governance: Impacts on Efficiency

Sublocal structures allow residents and property owners to establish governance models at the neighborhood level.<sup>122</sup> Proponents of sublocalism argue that these structures allow each consumer of municipal services to choose that combination of service provision and taxation that best meets his or her needs, as originally modeled on the local level by Charles Tiebout.<sup>123</sup> Tiebout theorized that local governments, **\*1545** unlike the federal government, efficiently expend tax dollars on public goods because each “consumer-voter” can move to whichever municipality provides his or her ideal combination of service provision and taxation.<sup>124</sup> While Tiebout himself acknowledged that certain practical realities limit the real world application of his theory,<sup>125</sup> and economists and legal scholars have identified various limitations in his model,<sup>126</sup> that model has nonetheless served as the dominant theoretical baseline for local-government and land-use law scholarship in recent decades.<sup>127</sup>

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Tiebout's model assumes that a metropolitan area includes a large number of small municipalities, each with a set revenue and expenditure pattern.<sup>128</sup> Cities, being neither small nor homogenous, complicate application of Tiebout's model.<sup>129</sup> Richard Briffault proposes that, in this context, sublocal structures play a role in increasing Tieboutian efficiency.<sup>130</sup> In a large heterogeneous city, each sublocal area is smaller and more homogeneous than the city as a whole. Sublocal "institutions-which include enterprise zones, tax increment finance districts, special zoning districts, and business improvement districts- provide for a variety of territorially based differences in taxation, services, or regulation within individual cities."<sup>131</sup> As a result, proponents of sublocal institutions argue that these institutions provide the consumer of municipal services an array of choices within a given municipality.<sup>132</sup>

**\*1546** While Briffault does not consider neighborhood conservation districts, these districts fit neatly into his model. Like business improvement districts, tax- increment financing districts, special zoning districts, and enterprise zones-the institutions described by Briffault-a neighborhood conservation district "tends to treat the sublocal zone or district as a distinctive actor with a formal legal- political identity rather than as an undifferentiated part of the city."<sup>133</sup>

If neighborhood conservation districts work as theorists would hope, informed homebuyers or developers in Nashville, Cambridge, or Dallas can vote with their feet between a neighborhood with a conservation district and one without such a district.<sup>134</sup> And of the neighborhoods with conservation districts, the informed purchaser can choose a district with guidelines that are attractive to her. Fans of Craftsman bungalows can purchase homes in Nashville's Richland-West End Addition,<sup>135</sup> aficionados of "mid to late 19th-century workers' and suburban housing" will be especially attracted to Cambridge's Half Crown-Marsh Neighborhood Conservation District,<sup>136</sup> and the M Streets neighborhood will be particularly desirable to lovers of High Tudors.<sup>137</sup>

## 2. Sublocal Governance: Impacts on Policy

While many have considered whether sublocal structures produce efficiency by facilitating the Tieboutian model within a municipality, whether they better advance citizen preferences is a separate inquiry. Briffault describes the impact that sublocal governance can have on advancing "voice."<sup>138</sup> Proponents of sublocal governance argue that, procedurally, it gives voice to those who might otherwise be silenced in **\*1547** local, state, or national debates.<sup>139</sup> In advancing voice, sublocal governance might, provided it does not have exclusionary effects, result in substantive benefits.<sup>140</sup> It is possible that sublocal procedures can ensure that neighborhood conservation districts are grounded in community desires and values. The process of creating and interpreting the guidelines can itself result in community members coming together to tell the story of their neighborhood.<sup>141</sup> That storytelling takes regulatory form, and the regulations embody the community building that both impelled and resulted from the adoption of a neighborhood conservation district.<sup>142</sup>

**\*1548** The sanguine theoretical picture painted here is muddied by the fact that sublocal governance generally and neighborhood conservation districts specifically prioritize some community voices over others.<sup>143</sup> Unfortunately, neighborhood conservation districts' voice-enhancing benefits are undone by their exclusionary features. For example, Cambridge's ordinance prioritizes the involvement of property owners, and homeowners in particular, over that of renters in designation of a neighborhood conservation district and in developing the regulations applicable to that district.<sup>144</sup> The designation process in Cambridge, typical of the designation process elsewhere, must include a study of the proposed district, memorialized in a written report.<sup>145</sup> The study and report are conducted by an appointed committee that must include at least one resident of the proposed district and at least one property owner in the proposed district.<sup>146</sup> Once a district is designated, a sublocal commission is responsible for conducting a design review of each proposed construction or renovation project in the district. Property owners receive even more preference here than they do in the designation process. The five members must be (a) three district residents, two of whom must be homeowners; (b) a neighborhood property owner, who may be a homeowner; and (c) a member of the Cambridge Historical Commission.<sup>147</sup> By prioritizing property owners' voices and excluding renters as well as those who live outside of the proposed district, conservation districts undermine the participation benefits that might otherwise result from neighborhood-level decision-making processes. Furthermore, by emphasizing context to the exclusion of other policy goals, conservation districts prohibit consideration of the needs of future housing consumers, again excluding key voices and undermining the community-centered goals espoused by conservation-district

advocates.<sup>148</sup>

### C. A Tool for Resisting Development Pressures in Desirable Housing Markets

Advancing cultural stability through aesthetics results in land-use regulations that preserve existing architectural context. These regulations prevent property owners from developing buildings that might accommodate evolving preferences, thus disrupting the ability of the market to respond to consumer demand. Existing homeowners exert control over land-use regulations disproportionate to their numbers.<sup>149</sup> And they want their neighborhoods to remain untouched by development. After all, they expressed a preference for the existing neighborhood fabric when they purchased their homes. The neighborhood conservation district provides a regulatory mechanism for homeowners to freeze development patterns and to replicate private-law design-review standards typical in suburban \*1549 subdivisions.<sup>150</sup> Imposing private-law design-review standards would require all of the property owners to submit to a restrictive covenant that would require their unanimous consent. Some property owners may flat-out reject yielding control of the use of their land. Others will, quite reasonably, require compensation before they do so. Regulatory aesthetic review, on the other hand, requires neither unanimity nor compensation. In addition, it permits homeowners to resist market forces toward higher-density uses, whether those uses are multifamily rentals or large single-family homes.<sup>151</sup>

Neighborhood conservation districts have been used almost exclusively in residential areas.<sup>152</sup> As a result, conservation districts impact housing markets and, therefore, housing prices. That simple fact should worry those who believe that housing affordability is an appropriate goal for land-use policy. In some cases, the applicable local ordinance limits the adoption of neighborhood conservation districts to residential areas.<sup>153</sup> In other cases, commercial and office districts are eligible for designation, but no such designations have been made. If concern for historic preservation motivated adoption of neighborhood conservation districts, one would expect to see conservation districts in both residential and nonresidential areas.<sup>154</sup> Factors other than the desire to protect historic communities cause neighborhood conservation districts to be limited, largely, to residential areas. These same factors have led policymakers and scholars to defer to homeowners in the course of crafting land-use regulations.

First, there is a stronger compulsion to preserve residential neighborhoods, the places where people live. Our legal system recognizes and supports an attachment to owner-occupied homes that often exceeds their pure economic value.<sup>155</sup> Zoning, tax, and other laws treat owner-occupied homes favorably because they are bound up with the personhood of the owner-occupant.<sup>156</sup> Owner-occupied homes are “markers \*1550 of a homeowner’s identity.”<sup>157</sup> Even properties that appear to be interchangeable, like the mass-produced Cape Cods of Levittown, New York, are, over time, individualized to meet the particular needs and desires of their occupants “to the point where [decades after Levittown was first developed] the interiors and exteriors did not even resemble each other.”<sup>158</sup> By contrast, most commercial property is owned for the purpose of collecting rents. The initial design and any renovations are intended to maximize profitability and cash flows. The typical commercial-property owner should be indifferent as between owning his or her property and receiving, in its stead, an amount equal to the present value of the net cash flows the owner expects to receive from the property. As a result, the emotional response to architectural changes and development pressures in commercial districts, where property is fungible, is less potent, and commercial districts are less likely to be targeted by voters and lawmakers for conservation.

Second, homeowners exert influence disproportionate to their numbers in local land-use policy making.<sup>159</sup> Homeowners’ outsized interest in local land-use policy motivates them to advocate and achieve policy goals that may be unavailable to others, such as commercial property owners or those who enjoy shopping in business districts.<sup>160</sup> Even where homeowners are a minority of the voting populace, their significant financial self-interest motivates them to assemble outsized political power.<sup>161</sup> As a result, they are in a strong position to advocate for any land-use tool that they believe will protect and enhance the value of their property. Private-law design-review processes are one such tool. These private agreements, imposed through restrictive covenants, are typical in subdivisions governed by homeowners’ associations, which “have rapidly proliferated in recent decades.”<sup>162</sup> These \*1551 developments impose on all property owners and residents a “community-wide set of conditions, covenants, and restrictions (CC&Rs) control[[ing] each homeowner’s use of her own property, the use and maintenance of common property and amenities, and other details of community life and

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governance.”<sup>163</sup> CC&Rs are more expansive, more detailed, and more onerous than traditional-use and bulk-zoning regulations. They control “not only types of land uses but also matters of aesthetics” including “the color of the house paint, the placement of trees and shrubbery, the size and location of fences, the construction of decks and other housing extensions, the parking of automobiles in streets and driveways, and the use and placement of television antennas, among others.”<sup>164</sup>

Neighborhood conservation districts are public-law forms of CC&Rs, historically private-law tools. Local legislators considering whether to adopt neighborhood conservation districts have expressly acknowledged that these districts are a public regulatory attempt to recreate CC&Rs.<sup>165</sup> As one local legislator described the issue in email correspondence preceding a vote on the Belmont-Hillsboro district in Nashville,

Although I think the potential effect that the [conservation district] overlay can achieve can be beneficial, I do think they still turn a city neighborhood into a virtual ‘subdivision,’ something I can understand some people not wanting to have imposed on them. Many people do not live in subdivisions because they do not want restrictive covenants, something that overlays do.<sup>166</sup>

Because it affects consumers’ expectations, the explosion of housing units located in private developments encumbered by CC&Rs affects the greater housing market, not just housing located in private developments. Even in neighborhoods not encumbered by restrictive covenants, homeowners expect to have the authority to control the appearance of their neighborhood based on the fact that such control has become commonplace in the market.<sup>167</sup> The homeowner who purchased a High Tudor home in the M Streets neighborhood in Dallas in the 1920s may never have \*1552 expected to be able to control the design of his neighbor’s house. The owner of that same High Tudor home in the year 2015 will have different expectations.<sup>168</sup>

Indeed, more than one legal scholar has advocated adopting a regulatory mechanism that will allow homeowners who live in older neighborhoods to provide services and to control their neighbors’ use of property in a way that is more typical of CC&R- encumbered suburban subdivisions.<sup>169</sup> Imposing CC&Rs on a mature neighborhood, where properties have already been developed and ownership has been conveyed to multiple individual homeowners, would require each individual property owner to consent to these new encumbrances on title. CC&Rs might result in a net benefit to the neighborhood. But each individual homeowner will have different preferences. A homeowner who does not value the predominant architectural style or who would prefer, for example, not to be required to remove an inoperable automobile from her front yard, will refuse to impose CC&Rs on her property. Alternatively, quite sensibly, she will require compensation for relinquishing rights to control her property. In such cases, the majority of neighbors can bypass the unanimity requirement and the demand for compensation from otherwise unwilling neighbors by proposing that their locality (or sublocality) adopt land-use regulations that mimic CC&Rs.<sup>170</sup> The proliferation of neighborhood conservation districts in older communities is a response to the proliferation of CC&Rs in newly developed communities.<sup>171</sup>

\*1553 That newer residential neighborhoods are already encumbered by homeowners’ association rules requiring design review may explain why neighborhood conservation districts are typically found in older residential neighborhoods.<sup>172</sup> There is, perhaps, another reason why this particular regulatory tool has gained a foothold in urban areas and streetcar suburbs, relatively dense residential communities developed beginning in the late nineteenth century around public transportation infrastructure.<sup>173</sup> Older neighborhoods face growing development pressures as they become increasingly desirable to families and empty nesters seeking walkable neighborhoods proximate to downtown commercial districts, public transit, and-in some towns-colleges and universities.<sup>174</sup>

The United States is now experiencing a shift in market demand for housing.<sup>175</sup> After decades of “white flight” and decreasing population in center cities, middle-class people and families are returning to urban neighborhoods.<sup>176</sup> Automobile usage, measured in number of cars owned per capita and vehicle miles traveled per capita, is in decline as people choose to live closer to their jobs or close to transit.<sup>177</sup> Pedestrian-friendly neighborhoods are in vogue, with brokers touting a \*1554 home’s “walk score” alongside granite countertops, en suite baths, and the local school district’s test scores in real-estate listings.<sup>178</sup> The development pressures building in urban residential neighborhoods and old streetcar suburbs manifest in two ways. First, developers seek to build rental apartments, marketed to young professionals and college students, in neighborhoods that

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previously were dominated by single-family residences.<sup>179</sup> Second, individuals and families want larger homes with the amenities that are typical in contemporary suburban subdivisions, in walkable places, close to downtown districts and transit. In order to procure that combination of amenities, homeowners and developers purchase lots with smaller homes, typical of the times in which they were constructed, and either alter the existing houses or replace them with larger structures.<sup>180</sup>

Conflict arises when existing homeowners, fearing change, resist new development. Advocates of neighborhood conservation districts suffer from a Goldilocks syndrome. Rental units are too small, resulting in too many units per acre. McMansions<sup>181</sup> are too big, resulting in too much built square footage per acre. The existing single-family homes are just right. The result is that existing homeowners embrace land-use regulations that are derived from the existing architectural context. Resisting development pressures is evident in various materials advocating the adoption of neighborhood conservation districts.<sup>182</sup> For example, a commission established by Cambridge to evaluate a new neighborhood conservation district celebrates the role the design overlay played to disrupt development and \*1555 redevelopment attempts in a nearby neighborhood: "In 1984, [the Half Crown area] was secured against further development when the City Council designated it as the Half Crown Neighborhood Conservation District."<sup>183</sup> A study considering adoption of a neighborhood conservation district in a small town in the heart of North Carolina's growing Research Triangle is explicit in its fear of development pressures: "[I]t is evident that the Town of Hillsborough will have to take action to prevent neighborhoods from being overrun by developers, ensuring that development projects are within the scale or nature of the existing homes."<sup>184</sup> A memorandum from Chapel Hill Town Manager Cal Horton, responding to a neighborhood petition to adopt a conservation district, stated, "It is reasonable to believe that the physical and social fabric of the Greenwood [neighborhood] is being affected by infill development pressures, [[and] the character of the neighborhood could be eroded by subdivision and new development which is unsympathetic to the existing neighborhood in form, massing and scale."<sup>185</sup> In Raleigh, North Carolina, a single-family neighborhood zoned for high-density residential development adopted a conservation district to prevent developers from constructing the sort of high-density residential development permitted by the zoning ordinance.<sup>186</sup>

Existing residents have long feared the development of rental housing.<sup>187</sup> The bias against rental housing is evident in the rhetoric of neighborhood conservation-district \*1556 advocates. Newspaper accounts and public-hearing testimony provide plentiful examples of conservation-district advocates expressing concern that single-family lots will be subdivided into two or more lots,<sup>188</sup> single-family homes will be turned into multifamily dwellings,<sup>189</sup> and existing homes will be razed and replaced with high-density development.<sup>190</sup> As one proponent of neighborhood conservation districts in Cambridge, Maryland, wrote in his local newspaper, "The residents in the [neighborhood conservation] district have worked very hard over the past 20 years to promote single family home ownership. This encourages property owners to live in and improve their properties. To allow apartment conversions would be a big step backward for the [neighborhood conservation] district."<sup>191</sup> Homeowners fear that renters will not invest in the neighborhood as homeowners would. One Chapel Hill advocate told a local newspaper, "It's important to take that distinction [between a short-term student renter and a long-term neighborhood resident] into account when looking at the issue. . . . My interest is in listening to the people who've invested in the community for decades."<sup>192</sup> Oftentimes, apartment-style condominiums are as troubling to existing homeowners as rental housing is.<sup>193</sup> Homeowners are concerned that apartment dwellers will not invest in their neighborhoods<sup>194</sup> and that the density of new housing threatens the "feel" of a neighborhood.<sup>195</sup> One neighborhood in \*1557 Minneapolis considered adoption of neighborhood conservation regulations when "land occupied by older workers' homes was recently rezoned to allow multi-story, mixed-use residential buildings, potentially threatening these smaller dwellings."<sup>196</sup>

McMansions are a newer form of a supposed nuisance.<sup>197</sup> When property theorists analyze the impact that a person's use of land has on his or her neighbors, they typically consider nuisances and noxious uses that impose identifiable economic externalities.<sup>198</sup> Manufacturing facilities that emit pollutants and attract heavy trucks, office complexes that cause rush-hour traffic jams, and even apartment buildings that unleash the horrors described in detail by Justice Sutherland in *Euclid* are common examples.<sup>199</sup> The assumption that rental buildings, whether duplexes or high-rises, compromise the quality of life in single-family neighborhoods is not new. It has persisted for at least a century.<sup>200</sup> In fact, Fischel traces the history of zoning in the United States and concludes that local \*1558 zoning has always been motivated by the desire to protect the value of single-family homes in residential areas.<sup>201</sup>

The pejorative term "McMansion" first appeared in common usage in the 1980s<sup>202</sup> but its use "was limited prior to 2000."<sup>203</sup>



The harms allegedly imposed by McMansions are myriad. They include increased housing prices,<sup>204</sup> suburban sprawl,<sup>205</sup> and-of particular note here-aesthetic affronts.<sup>206</sup> Where a McMansion replaces an older, smaller home, preservationists and neighbors take particular umbrage because the new structure undermines expectations of nearby homeowners. As early as 1999, one observer noted that “battles [against the construction of McMansions] are ongoing across the country as stock market money pours into trophy homes.”<sup>207</sup> The proliferation of neighborhood conservation districts in the 1990s and the first few years of the twenty-first century coincided with rising concerns in commentary and academia regarding McMansions.

As with rental housing, the evidence that conservation-district advocates are motivated by distaste for McMansions is plentiful. In the case of McMansions, advocates decry additions “that are not in harmony with the surrounding area”<sup>208</sup> and the razing of existing single-family homes to make way for larger homes. In Wellesley, Massachusetts, advocates argued for adoption of a neighborhood conservation ordinance by citing recent “out-of-scale” development.<sup>209</sup> In Edina, Minnesota, the \*1559 Edina Massing Task Force recommended neighborhood conservation districts to combat “massing,” a synonym for “mansionization.”<sup>210</sup> In San Antonio, residents considered adoption of a neighborhood conservation district to address the possibility that “[s]ome guy decides to build a two-story brick McMansion with a silly two-story arched entry right next to the two-car garage” in “a neighborhood of low-slung, wooden bungalows with shady wrap-around porches and detached garages.”<sup>211</sup>

The desire to prevent mansionization and exclude rental housing is not just evident in advocacy materials. It also manifests in conservation-district regulations. Guidelines applicable to the Hillsboro-West End district in Nashville require new buildings to be “compatible, by not contrasting greatly, with those of surrounding historic buildings” with respect to height, scale, materials, texture, details, material color, and roof shape.<sup>212</sup> Notably, new construction must be compatible with “historic buildings,” not with other new buildings, without regard to whether new construction or historic buildings are prevalent on a given block or in a given neighborhood. In addition, the regulations permit demolition only where a building “has irretrievably lost its architectural and historical integrity,” the building does not contribute to the local character, or the inability to demolish a building “will result in an economic hardship on the applicant.”<sup>213</sup> In the case of rental housing, while some districts take care to ensure that design guidelines themselves do not impact use, others expressly limit any increase in the amount of rental housing. For example, in Nashville’s conservation districts, property owners cannot build accessory units on single-family lots unless they record a restrictive covenant that requires the homeowner to live in either the original single-family home or the accessory unit.<sup>214</sup> For all eternity, the property owner cannot simultaneously rent out both the original home and the accessory unit; only one of the two units can be rented to another party. In Chapel Hill, neighborhood conservation-district regulations limit bedroom-to-bathroom ratios on the assumption that developers of rental housing and their tenants will want more bathrooms per bedroom than owner-occupants would normally require. In addition, two Chapel Hill neighborhood conservation districts prohibit homes occupied by unrelated persons from having more than two bedrooms.<sup>215</sup> Those same conservation districts ban the construction of new duplexes, though, in 2011, town planners “acknowledged creating the [conservation] district had failed to stop student-rental \*1560 conversions.”<sup>216</sup> Whether a unit is occupied by its owner or is rented is not typically in the province of zoning regulations, because it does not impact the use of the land. But much of the rhetoric supporting conservation districts involves encouraging home ownership, without regard to design or land use.<sup>217</sup>

Conservation-district regulations allow homeowners to resist market forces towards higher density uses, whether those uses are multifamily rentals or large, single-family homes. As a result, they artificially depress supply—a regulatory impact that merits serious critical analysis, an analysis undertaken in Parts III and IV of this Article.

### III. The Problem with Aesthetics: Hazards of Sublocal Contextual Regulations

As described in Part II of this Article, the recent proliferation of conservation districts is a response by homeowners to development pressures. Current residents seek to freeze or depress housing supply, thus excluding potential future residents. Advocates argue that neighborhood conservation districts advance cultural stability and that requiring aesthetic regulations to be grounded in context creates an objective standard by which to measure aesthetics. In fact, as this Part argues, grounding aesthetic regulations in existing architectural context exacerbates, rather than mitigates, certain exclusionary and inefficient

impacts.<sup>218</sup> Addressing those negative impacts—decreased affordability, increased exclusivity, and information asymmetries—should inform any future legislative and regulatory land-use action that incorporates aesthetics.

### A. The Affordability Conundrum

The evolution of land uses, which—as described in Part II—occurred so visibly in New York City,<sup>219</sup> takes place in cities and suburbs everywhere. Cities are in a moment of transition, in which older residential neighborhoods are increasingly **\*1561** desirable.<sup>220</sup> The supply of old, walkable neighborhoods close to fixed amenities is necessarily constrained. As a result, as urban residential neighborhoods become more desirable, they also become more expensive.

Many advocates of conservation districts argue that designation of a conservation district preserves affordability.<sup>221</sup> They argue that designation prevents new homeowners from tearing down smaller existing structures and replacing them with larger, presumably more expensive, structures.<sup>222</sup> And they argue that because designation prevents properties from being used for denser purposes, it preserves affordability.<sup>223</sup> As the argument goes, a one-half acre lot with a single-family house would be more valuable if it were redeveloped as a larger single-family house or if it were redeveloped to accommodate additional units. A regulatory cap on the size of the house or the number of units will prevent a property's value from escalating to reflect the denser potential use.

But there is more to the affordability story. The attempt to preserve affordability by restricting denser uses ignores the impact that artificial restrictions on supply will have on price.<sup>224</sup> If demand for urban-neighborhood housing is increasing and there is a limited supply of land that is proximate to central business districts and transit, coupled with regulatory constraints on the ability to develop and redevelop that land, prices will increase. Under those circumstances, a decrease in affordability is inevitable.<sup>225</sup> Neighborhood conservation districts suggest an intralocal version of a national problem, a spatial mismatch between housing demand and supply. Scholars and popular commentators have bemoaned the effect that restrictive land-use **\*1562** regulations have on housing costs in high-demand regions of the country.<sup>226</sup> The perverse effect is that migration now flows to low-housing-cost, low-wage areas of the country.<sup>227</sup> This Article suggests, however, even within those low-housing-cost, low-wage regions, restrictive land-use regulations prevent supply from meeting demand in the most desirable locations.

In short, the places where neighborhood conservation districts are common are the same places where increasing the density of housing stock is an appropriate measure to meet housing demand in a sustainable manner. Freezing these neighborhoods in time will not put an end to demand for housing. It will simply force would-be residents to live elsewhere,<sup>228</sup> perhaps somewhere further from public transit and from employment opportunities, thus increasing commuting times along with the well-documented environmental impacts of sprawl.<sup>229</sup> This dislocation of housing demand has significant deleterious effects on the economy.<sup>230</sup> Those forced to live far from transit and job opportunities suffer financial consequences and decreased economic opportunity.<sup>231</sup>

In the absence of empirical research specifically demonstrating that conservation districts contribute to the lack of affordable housing in urban and suburban areas, **\*1563** some might argue that it is premature to endeavor to solve this problem. But advocates of conservation districts routinely argue that these districts increase property values.<sup>232</sup> And, arguing by analogy, research demonstrates the impact of historic designation on housing prices.<sup>233</sup> Increasing property values for current residents necessarily increases housing prices, thus decreasing affordability for renters and for future residents. Certainly the impact of conservation-district adoption on housing prices is an area ripe for empirical analysis. But even in the absence of such empirical analysis, planners, policymakers, and residents should worry about housing-affordability issues.

Meeting demand for housing in cities and older suburbs and doing so in a way that is affordable will require those locations to evolve and adapt to accommodate different kinds of housing stock that respond to the desires of demographic populations that once spent decades depopulating urban centers. Neighborhood conservation districts commonly face strong development pressures. It should be no surprise that developers are attracted to these neighborhoods, which are close to universities, downtown areas, and other job centers. In addition, because these are older neighborhoods close to downtown urban areas,

they are walkable and well served- relative to the broader regions in which they are located-by public transit. \*1564 Protecting those characteristics by limiting supply of a product in high demand diminishes, rather than promotes, affordability.<sup>234</sup>

## B. The First-Equity Problem: Who Is the Community?

Sublocal governance structures prioritize the voice of those who live within or, in those cases where sublocal voice is limited to property owners, own property within the demarcated boundaries of the district. Other interests are diminished. As a result, any effects or impacts felt by renters, future housing consumers, and those who reside outside of the proposed district are ignored or discounted in the decision-making process.

### 1. Excluding Nonresidents

Sublocal administration allows those whose property values will be affected by the design guidelines to determine how vigilantly to apply them. At least one proponent of sublocal land-use control, building off of Fischel's work, argues that those most affected by their neighbors' land-use decisions will most efficiently exercise the power to control land use and, therefore, that zoning authority is properly exercised at the sublocal level, particularly in large cities.<sup>235</sup> Another purported benefit of sublocal administration is that a sublocal commission endowed with the authority to enforce a zoning ordinance can choose to enforce some measures vigorously while softening the impact of design guidelines considered harsh or costly.<sup>236</sup> When second-party enforcement takes place, it is nuanced in a way that is \*1565 not necessarily consistent with the strictures of design-review requirements.<sup>237</sup> Extrapolating this research to the neighborhood conservation-district realm, one would expect both negative and positive effects. Sublocal administration might result in more nuanced decision making that incorporates neighborhood-level understandings of the cost of compliance and individual homeowners' relevant circumstances.<sup>238</sup> In addition, however, it might result in unpredictable decision making that incorporates neighborhood politics and relationships.

Advocates of sublocal control ignore spillover effects that impact areas outside of the relevant sublocality. Where there are spillover effects or externalities affecting areas outside of the district, sublocal designation and administration excludes a subset of affected persons from the decision-making process. Tiebout's model of efficient provision of local services assumes that there are no externalities imposed by local decisions.<sup>239</sup> This assumption, as Tiebout himself acknowledged, is just that-an assumption-and will prove incorrect under most real-world circumstances.<sup>240</sup> The decision to adopt a neighborhood conservation district will have impacts on other parts of a municipality. Following adoption of a neighborhood conservation district intended to resist development pressures, other nearby \*1566 neighborhoods may feel those pressures more strongly. If a developer can no longer build duplexes in North Neighborhood, he or she may seek out development opportunities in South Neighborhood. Briffault recognizes this issue and argues that it can be addressed so long as sublocal institutions "lack true autonomy" and cannot act without local approvals.<sup>241</sup>

Typically, sublocal approval is necessary but not sufficient for adoption of a neighborhood conservation district. In most municipalities, neighborhood conservation districts require a sublocal referendum, petition, or other expression of sublocal support but then are formally adopted at the local level.<sup>242</sup> The two-step approval mechanism requires the consent of both the local government, whether it acts through a town council or a planning commission, and a majority or supermajority of property owners or residents in the affected district.

If adoption of a neighborhood conservation district will impose negative externalities on other neighborhoods, the requirement that the locality also approve the district can limit those externalities. If a neighborhood conservation district takes on a problem that is better served at the local level, the local government can refuse to adopt or revise the terms of the neighborhood conservation district. The residents of South Neighborhood have no voice in the North Neighborhood referendum, but they can exercise their political voice against approval of the district at the local level.



The local government represents all of the residents in the municipality, not just the property owners in the proposed district. It must respond to a much broader array of interests than may be present in the limited area that makes up the proposed neighborhood conservation district. It also has the ability to set priorities, plan for accomplishment of those priorities, and fund its activities on a local, rather than sublocal, scale. Where a locality includes numerous neighborhoods with varying income levels, preferences, and infrastructure needs, citywide planning can result in a more efficient result. In a different context, Vicki Been has noted that “[a] jurisdiction-wide approach to the local government’s needs is likely to be more comprehensive, better planned, and better integrated with the local government’s other initiatives.”<sup>243</sup>

As a result, the requirement that local adoption follow sublocal approval could, in theory, protect against the hazards that may be otherwise associated with sublocal governance. In practice, however, a review of neighborhood conservation districts \*1567 nationwide has not revealed any instances of local denial following sublocal approval.<sup>244</sup> Because conservation-district regulations are perceived as burdens only on local property owners and because local property owners are often heavily invested in their neighborhood’s character, local governments defer to the sublocal choice whether to adopt a neighborhood conservation district. In addition, advocates of neighborhood conservation districts are, as others have argued with respect to homeowners generally, a deeply vested interest group for whom political mobilization is facilitated by their geographic proximity to one another.<sup>245</sup> The residents outside the neighborhood conservation district who may suffer negative externalities are dispersed and more difficult to mobilize. They may not be aware of the negative impact that the district will have on them until after the district is adopted and those impacts are felt. As a result, the local check on sublocal governance is insufficient to protect those living outside of the district from the negative externalities resulting from creation of the neighborhood conservation district.

## 2. Excluding Renters

In addition to excluding nonresidents, conservation-district governance often also excludes renters.<sup>246</sup> In these districts, only property owners vote in the referenda necessary to adopt a neighborhood conservation district.<sup>247</sup> And only property owners are guaranteed seats on design-review boards.<sup>248</sup>

While developers might represent the interests of renters, sublocal governance, in effect, diminishes their voice. In large cities, the voice of each individual citizen is muted by the difficulties of deliberation and decision making by a large number of parties, spread out over a large area. When governance occurs at the county or state level or, in the case of large municipalities, at the local level, moneyed interests- including real-estate developers-play an outsized role. They are able to gather information, develop a coherent policy position, nurture relationships with decision \*1568 makers, and exercise influence that exceeds their vote count in a direct democracy. This is borne out in the literature on the influence exerted by real-estate developers at different levels of government: “Because of their larger size, which makes it more difficult for voters to know candidates’ positions, county governments were more often responsive to developer interests and thus were regarded as excessively permissive by owners of homes in existing neighbourhoods.”<sup>249</sup> In contrast, “[t]he small size of local units makes it easier for citizens to voice their views to their local government and their fellow local citizens, to respond to each other’s concerns, and to deliberate concerning important local public matters.”<sup>250</sup> As a result, sublocal adoption and administration of neighborhood conservation districts, particularly in areas dominated by homeowners, amplifies homeowner voice relative to developers.

In limiting participation to property owners, neighborhood conservation districts are similar to another sublocal institution, the business improvement district.<sup>251</sup> Business improvement districts, commonly known as BIDs, limit participation to property owners because they impose costs on property owners, assessments that are used to provide public goods and services-everything from street cleaning to marketing and advertising a downtown commercial district. “Because BIDs are financed by taxes on property or businesses within the districts, most state laws condition the formation of a district on some proof that the property or business owners endorse the supplemental taxation.”<sup>252</sup> While, as their name suggests, BIDs are commonly found in commercial districts, one influential scholar has advocated the adoption of an analogous institution, the Block Improvement District (BLID), in residential neighborhoods.<sup>253</sup> Arguing that small, block-level institutions will provide a rich opportunity for homeowners to engage in self- governance and to express their preferences for public goods, Robert

Ellickson argues that BLIDs could replicate in urban neighborhoods the residential community associations that are common in suburban subdivisions.<sup>254</sup> His framework for BLIDs requires that governance be limited to property owners because the value of sublocal public goods is capitalized into the price of their homes.<sup>255</sup> Ellickson argues that because property owners incur the costs of providing public goods and also benefit from the increase in their property values resulting from those public goods, they are in the best position to make decisions regarding public goods.<sup>256</sup> Conservation districts, unlike BIDs or BLIDs, are regulatory structures, not taxing districts that burden only \*1569 property owners. Nevertheless, some conservation districts have imported BID rules that limit voting rights to property owners.<sup>257</sup>

Limiting “the community” to property owners in the proposed district comports with a property-value preservation approach to land-use planning.<sup>258</sup> But it is not consistent with the goal of advancing community-based decision making. Community preservation is not a value or interest unique to property owners. If hyperlocal voting on neighborhood conservation districts excludes renters, these referenda inefficiently gauge local support for these restrictions-and the utility to be gained or lost from their adoption-by omitting a group directly and indirectly affected by the decision to adopt aesthetic regulations.<sup>259</sup> And if aesthetic land-use regulations will increase rents by raising the cost of property maintenance or by raising property values, renters will have another reason to voice their opinion on adoption of neighborhood conservation districts. Then, even if the sole rationale for aesthetic land-use regulations is property-value preservation, it is inequitable and inefficient<sup>260</sup> to ignore the preferences of the renter population when deciding whether to adopt such regulations.

### 3. Excluding Future Housing Consumers

Always omitted from the concept of “the community” in these discussions are those who would like to live in a neighborhood but who do not yet live there, or “future housing consumers.”<sup>261</sup> Zoning decisions-indeed, most policy making-often excludes the voices of future interests from consideration. But neighborhood conservation districts go a step further. By prioritizing consistency over all other policy goals, conservation districts not only exclude the voices of future housing consumers, they absolutely prohibit consideration of what future housing consumers’ preferences might be.

Choices made today will affect development patterns and inform infrastructure investments that are not easily undone. Land-use planning requires investing in \*1570 long-term decisions. If an environmentally sensitive wetland is filled and then developed-whatever the impacts of that development may be in future years-it is nearly impossible to undo the land-use permissions that allowed that development to occur in the first instance. Similarly, if an area proximate to a transit station is developed with single-family homes on large lots, despite the fact that more people will have better access to transit if the area around the station is densely developed, infill development is difficult. Land-purchase coordination problems, limitations on existing infrastructure, and residents’ settled expectations complicate efforts to densify an existing developed neighborhood. Land-use planning decisions are most efficient if they consider future needs. In the case of neighborhood conservation districts, the relevant future needs are the desires of those who would live in an area but do not yet live there, either because the current housing stock does not accommodate them or because they do not yet exist.

Future housing consumers are not easily identified. They do not vote in sublocal referenda, though, in the case of would-be residents, they may vote in local or statewide elections. A childless couple living in a downtown apartment may not be aware of their own interests (five years down the road) in affordable home-ownership opportunities in a residential neighborhood close to downtown. Future empty nesters may not be cognizant of their interest in the development of smaller homes in dense, walkable neighborhoods close to the suburban neighborhood where they raised their children. At the time a neighborhood conservation district is adopted, there are many who may be affected by the adoption of the district but who are unaware of the impact that that decision has on them.

Despite these impediments, divining future housing consumers’ preferences is not impossible. Planners are trained to consider and incorporate estimates of future demand in crafting land-use regulations.<sup>262</sup> The needs of future housing consumers are expressed in the form of market demand, and real-estate developers act based on their perception of market demand. The developer, motivated by potential profits, may, in effect, give voice to would-be residents barred from the neighborhood by exclusionary zoning policies. If the developer, because he or she does not already own property in the

neighborhood or is a minority stakeholder, is excluded from the decision whether to adopt a conservation district, the voices of future housing consumers are excluded. While developers may be excluded from sublocal decision making, they are not excluded from local- and state-level decision making,<sup>263</sup> though \*1571 their political clout, particularly at the local level, may be outmuscled by that of homeowners.<sup>264</sup>

### C. The Second-Equity Problem: Buyers Beware

Neighborhood conservation districts and related forms of design review restrictions pose consumer-protection problems. Hannah Wiseman notes that design overlay communities, which include neighborhood conservation districts, offer none of the three notice protections-whether those protections are real or merely theoretical-associated with private communities. There is no formal recording requirement for the rules contained within the overlay zone. Nor must the seller provide formal disclosure of the rules to the buyer at or before closing. Even those who actively attempt to learn of community rules before purchasing a home in overlay communities will have trouble identifying them. A quick visit to the city code will not reveal the neighborhood-specific zoning overlay absent vigilant research.<sup>265</sup>

As a result, a homebuyer's decision to purchase in a particular neighborhood may be uninformed, and her valuation of her new asset may not account for the restricted ability to use that asset. In his survey of homeowners in a design-review burdened local historic district<sup>266</sup> in New Haven, Tad Heuer found that about one-half of homeowners who had purchased their homes after the historic district was adopted did not know that their property was located in a local historic district.<sup>267</sup> Hannah Wiseman proposes that "incoming residents . . . should be formally alerted to the \*1572 existence of overlay rules in closing paperwork" in order to address this information failure.<sup>268</sup>

A mandate that closing paperwork disclose overlay requirements addresses the information failure in theory but may not have any real impact on a homeowner's actual knowledge. In part due to consumer-protection legislation in the home-finance arena, at residential real-estate closings homebuyers are inundated with information and disclosures, mostly relating to financing<sup>269</sup> and, where applicable, to common-interest ownership communities.<sup>270</sup> Homebuyers routinely sign and initial reams of documents without much understanding of what information is contained in those documents. It is unlikely that a homeowner will take much notice of yet another written disclosure at the closing table. In addition, closing may simply be too late. At that time, the homebuyer has incurred attorney's fees, loan-application fees, and appraisal fees and, moreover, is contractually obligated to purchase the property. In order to be effective, the disclosure must come earlier in the process, at the time the homebuyer is deciding whether to make an offer on a property. Ideally, the information would be disclosed in the real-estate listing itself.<sup>271</sup> Requiring sellers to disclose conservation district restrictions will also force homeowners to internalize the costs associated with the restricted ability to subdivide, expand, or renovate property even if the current homeowners do not desire to make those changes to their homes.

Even where a homeowner is aware that design controls exist, he or she may not understand what is permitted by those design controls. First, he or she simply may underestimate the extent of local control. Homebuyers in conservation districts are susceptible to the same problem of incomplete information. CC&Rs are often more restrictive than homebuyers had anticipated: "[O]nce residents have joined an association, they are often surprised at the extent of collective control."<sup>272</sup> In addition to being more restrictive than many homeowners might reasonably expect, design-review regulations are often vague. They affect the use and value of property but are not precise in how they limit changes and additions. Often, they list considerations and factors without providing guidance as to how those factors will be applied. For example, the guidelines applicable to the Mid Cambridge Neighborhood Conservation Districts are not guidelines at all but, instead, simply a list of questions to be asked of applicants.<sup>273</sup> The questions include, "What are the \*1573 architectural features of the buildings in the neighborhood? What are the architectural features of the proposed development (including materials, design, and setting)?" The implication is that the architectural features should be consistent with those in the neighborhood, but by what measure? Should they be identical, or is it sufficient for the new construction to incorporate some architectural elements while disregarding others? Are there certain architectural elements that are necessary, while others are optional?

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Even where guidelines purport to do more than simply list factors, the so-called regulations are imprecise. Inherently vague terms abound in neighborhood conservation-district regulations. These include words such as “considered,” “compatible,” “minimized,” and “encouraged.”<sup>274</sup> The vagueness of these regulations, even if it does not rise to the level of a due process violation,<sup>275</sup> is a \*1574 burden on homeowners and developers and results in information asymmetries in the housing market.<sup>276</sup> As a pair of homeowners stated at a public hearing during which they sought approvals to enlarge a home they had recently purchased in one of Nashville’s neighborhood conservation districts, “I think we [bought the house] without fully understanding what ‘historical’ meant.”<sup>277</sup> The pair is a young couple expecting a child. They had purchased this home with the expectation that they would be able to renovate it to meet their desires and needs for their family. Whatever the merits of their proposed architectural design might be, it is clear that their expectations were undermined by the neighborhood conservation-district guidelines. If so, they may have overpaid for their house and for associated costs, such as legal fees and architectural-design fees. The result, attributable to a lack of information, is an inefficient market for housing, where homes restricted by aesthetic controls may be overvalued, while those that are unrestricted may be undervalued. Again, the result is a decrease in housing affordability, this time arising from inefficiencies and transaction costs imposed by vague regulations in the housing market.

The vagueness inherent in conservation-district guidelines is evidence of two key problems for policymakers and scholars. First, the proverbial truth that beauty is in the eye of the beholder makes aesthetic rulemaking difficult. It is nearly impossible to regulate aesthetics with the degree of certainty that informed property buyers, good public policy, and properly functioning markets require. Second, the degree of vagueness misleads voters. If these guidelines were truly honest, they would look more like the M Streets East guidelines in Dallas.<sup>278</sup> The desire to avoid codifying the level of detail in the M Streets East guidelines is an indication that many are uncomfortable with purely aesthetic regulations. Codifying that level of detail would crystallize the degree to which these guidelines inhibit individual choice. That level of crystallization might give rise to greater skepticism among homebuyers and voters and a greater degree of scrutiny from courts. By leaving things vague, design-review boards and city-planning staff reserve for themselves the discretion to restrict truly aesthetic choices while maintaining the appearance that they will exercise their discretion only to further goals that are not aesthetic or that coexist with aesthetic goals.

#### IV. Preserving Change: Challenging the Community-Stability Model

This Article does not attempt to dethrone aesthetics as a proper consideration in exercising the police power. Even the most basic Euclidean ordinance serves aesthetic objectives. It is an impossible task to disaggregate aesthetic regulations from those that serve other legitimate police-power purposes. Instead, the more effective approach is to permit aesthetic regulations while limiting the adverse effects of those regulations. In the case of conservation districts, state legislators can cabin \*1575 those negative impacts by, first, requiring regulations to anticipate change and, second, embracing inclusivity when adopting and drafting regulations.

This Part proposes two major shifts in thinking about neighborhood conservation and cultural stability. First, lawmakers, regulators, and scholars should dissociate aesthetics from consistency. In particular, state zoning-enabling legislation should acknowledge the role that change plays in neighborhood culture by requiring aesthetic regulations to anticipate and accommodate housing demand, changing markets, and demographics. In this way, state enabling legislation can force residents and planners to imagine and develop land-use regulations that conserve cherished neighborhood features while also allowing for the possibility of more dense development in appropriate locations. For too long, neighborhood activists have assumed that increased density will tear apart neighborhood fabrics; they have thus refused to innovate regulations that preserve neighborhood fabric while also accommodating increased density. Imposing state-level limitations on local adoption of conservation districts will force that innovation to take place.

Second, state zoning-enabling legislation should require that those affected by spillovers are included in both the decision to adopt conservation-district regulations and the process of drafting those regulations. In essence, state zoning-enabling legislation should disrupt the inertia resulting from homevoter<sup>279</sup> control of local land-use regulation. State and local lawmakers, planners, and courts all have roles to play in requiring that conservation districts are dynamic and inclusive. But

just as externalities resulting from state-level lawmaking are properly addressed at the federal level, in the case of conservation districts, spillovers and exclusionary effects are properly addressed at the state level. State governments have an incentive to curtail restrictive land-use policies that raise housing prices, because a lack of affordable housing stymies economic development. Employers seek to locate where their employees will enjoy a low cost of living.<sup>280</sup> States, then, have an incentive to prevent local land-use policies from raising housing prices.

In most of the states discussed in this Article, there is no express state legislation authorizing localities to designate and regulate conservation districts. Instead, the authority to adopt conservation-district regulations derives from a locality's home-rule powers or from state statutes that authorize local zoning or historic preservation more generally.<sup>281</sup> State lawmakers should cabin conservation districts \*1576 by adopting state-level authorizing legislation that limits local discretion to impose de facto development moratoria using conservation districts. Revisions to state-level authorizing statutes should require conservation-district adoption processes to be inclusive and to limit spillover effects. Regulations should be required by state legislation to accommodate changing market dynamics, consumer preferences, and understandings of sustainability.

### A. Require Planning for Change

State authorizing statutes should require that aesthetic and contextual regulations anticipate change, specifically the task of meeting demand for housing within the district.<sup>282</sup> Addressing different forms of restrictions on development, others have posited procedural fixes intended to facilitate better land-use policy.<sup>283</sup> In the case of neighborhood conservation districts, substantive fixes, imposed by state governments in their zoning-enabling statutes, may be a more direct approach to cabin the negative impacts on affordability, inclusivity, and information asymmetries.

#### 1. Accommodate Future Demand

As discussed earlier, conservation districts are often adopted in response to increased demand for housing.<sup>284</sup> Developers and future housing consumers find these neighborhoods desirable in some measure for their existing neighborhood fabric but, more importantly, because these districts are close to important amenities and resources—the waterfront, a downtown commercial center, a college campus, or transportation infrastructure.<sup>285</sup> If it is not primarily neighborhood fabric that attracts new residents, developers and new residents do not have an interest in design regulations. They suffer the negative effects of those regulations, but they do not see any benefit from imposition of the regulations. In other words, there is no reciprocity of advantage. Because the benefits of the regulatory imposition accrue to some, but not to all, the regulations should be narrow so as to limit their cost to those who do \*1577 not benefit from the regulations. Accordingly, the purpose of design-review regulations should not be to halt development. If regulations are intended to impose a de facto development moratorium, the impact of those regulations will be to inflate housing prices within the district and to push development to areas that are less desirable. In housing markets, desirability is a function of location-proximity to employment centers, transportation infrastructure, and other amenities.<sup>286</sup> In this way, the most desirable locations are often the most sustainable because residents of these areas do not have to commute long distances by car on a daily basis. Regulations that force development into less desirable locations have the unintended consequence of forcing development into less sustainable locations.

Over the last thirty years, residents and planners crafting conservation-district regulations have undertaken to regulate land development so that neighborhoods do not change. In an attempt to preserve neighborhood character, they ignore both the inevitability of change and the positive role that change plays in creating neighborhood character. Instead, planners and residents should regulate land development so that, as change happens, the fabric of the neighborhood is not undone. State statutes should require conservation districts to identify areas that are appropriate for redevelopment, growth, and densification. Instead of being drafted to impose de facto development moratoria, design-review and conservation-district regulations should be crafted to accommodate densification while preserving neighborhood character.<sup>287</sup> In order to further their stated purpose of conserving neighborhood character, district regulations should describe how redevelopment projects can maximize consistency with existing character. Duplexes and triplexes can be required to be constructed to look like single-family homes. Row houses built with no front setback may be more appropriate than garden apartments set back



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twenty feet from the street, or vice versa. Areas close to commercial strips may be more appropriate for dense development than are blocks dominated by single-family homes. These are land-use choices appropriately made with public input. But they should be made in a way that does not prevent new development, thereby inflating housing prices and preventing future housing consumers from having the opportunity to reside in the neighborhood.

One criticism of this argument is that it applies not just to conservation districts but to zoning generally. All zoning should derive from a planning process that anticipates and accommodates future demand in desirable locations. In fact, “about half of the states compel their localities to prepare a comprehensive plan”<sup>288</sup> and “California and about a dozen other states require ‘consistency’ between a municipality’s land use \*1578 decisions and its comprehensive plan.”<sup>289</sup> In addition, a handful of states have half-heartedly adopted New Jersey’s Mount Laurel doctrine, which requires each municipality in the state to accommodate the development of affordable housing.<sup>290</sup> Nevertheless, communities across the country continue to engage in restrictive zoning, refusing to meet regional demand for housing and using land-use planning to exclude a range of housing types, particularly affordable rental units. In addition, these communities use planning to codify and freeze existing development patterns rather than to accommodate redevelopment. Oftentimes, communities shroud exclusionary land-use practices in purported desires to avoid overloading local infrastructure,<sup>291</sup> to preserve property values,<sup>292</sup> or to prevent traffic congestion.<sup>293</sup>

Conservation-district advocates make no such efforts to pretend that they are seeking to advance legitimate planning goals. The refusal to consider change is embedded in the regulations. It is codified in the applicable ordinances. In the case of conservation districts, identifying and cataloging the current architectural fabric passes for planning. Codification and embalment of existing land-use patterns passes for planning. The planning process simply does not take into account the possibility of change over time. That other land-use regulations, in practice, are characterized by this same failure to consider change does not detract from this problem and proposed solution in the realm of conservation districts. Indeed, conservation districts are perhaps an extreme example of common problems in land-use regulation-planning processes that ignore future housing consumers, zoning decisions that are made outside of a comprehensive planning process, and regulations intended to exclude renters and future housing consumers. These local and sublocal failures can be addressed by state legislatures in authorizing statutes.

## 2. Prohibit Regulation of Irrelevant Building Features

In addition, authorizing statutes should prohibit conservation districts from regulating (1) building features that are not visible from public rights-of-way and (2) \*1579 tenure.<sup>294</sup> These features are not relevant to neighborhood character and are not susceptible to regulation through aesthetic land-use regulation.

First, conservation districts should not be used to regulate building features unrelated to exterior design. The policy rationale underlying conservation districts is the preservation of a neighborhood aesthetic, which is a function of the appearance of public spaces and those portions of private buildings that are visible from public rights-of-way. Some design-review ordinances recognize this fact and restrict their reach to those elements of a building that are visible to the public.<sup>295</sup> Others, however, overreach. As described above, cities like Chapel Hill and Nashville have used conservation districts to regulate the number of bathrooms permitted per bedroom.<sup>296</sup> The number of bathrooms in a house is an interior feature unrelated to the public appearance of a building. And there are surely more efficient, more direct approaches to encouraging home ownership than to regulate bedroom-to-bathroom ratios or to prohibit parking in front yards. Similarly, the number of units in a building does not affect the exterior appearance of a building and should not be the subject of design restrictions.

Second, conservation districts should not be used to regulate tenure.<sup>297</sup> Policymakers have long cited encouraging home ownership as an important policy goal. But recently, in the wake of an economic crisis in which residential housing markets played an important role, economists and others have argued that home ownership is not an unqualified good.<sup>298</sup> Often, conservation districts are motivated by the desire to limit the conversion of owner-occupied homes to rental properties, but the regulations do not expressly regulate tenure. Tenure is sometimes restricted by private law in private covenants, deed restrictions, and common-interest ownership situations but is not typically governed by public regulations. In a few instances,

however, conservation districts expressly regulate tenure.<sup>299</sup> These tenure requirements are not related to design. Whether a home is occupied by its owner or a renter has no impact on a neighborhood's aesthetic. Where renters cause secondary impacts, such as loud parties held by college-student renters in Chapel Hill, those secondary impacts-not tenure itself-should be regulated and controlled.

### **\*1580 3. Correct Information Deficiencies**

Advocacy materials and press reports evidence conflicting accounts of the impact of conservation districts on affordability. On the one hand, residents are told that conservation districts will raise their property values.<sup>300</sup> On the other, they are told that conservation districts will preserve neighborhood affordability.<sup>301</sup> Both claims cannot be true. State authorizing statutes should be crafted to maximize the information available to local legislators and residents considering whether to adopt a conservation district and what the district regulations should limit.

First, state and local statutes that authorize conservation districts should require that aesthetic regulations be revisited periodically. Authorizing statutes should require that where a sublocal or local referendum is required to adopt a conservation district, the regulations will be in effect for a designated period of time, not to exceed five years, and a new referendum will be required in order to keep the regulations in place.<sup>302</sup> Where no referendum is required, authorizing statutes should require that the applicable regulatory or legislative body reconsider each conservation district at least once every five years and that, in connection with such reconsideration, the body convene two or more public hearings noticed citywide.

A sunset provision will force aesthetic regulations to be responsive to changing markets and changing public desires. If consumer preferences change over time, a sunset provision will give voters the opportunity to account for those changing preferences in a new referendum on the matter. With changing market conditions, voter preferences will shift. As gas prices increase, voters may be willing to live in smaller units in locations that are closer to employment so that they can avoid driving great distances. As a neighborhood becomes more desirable and more costly, property owners will have a financial interest in ensuring that they can construct an in-law unit that will yield rental income. If a city's schools improve and demand for housing increases among families, residents may wish to ease restrictions that limit expansion of existing homes.

Sunset provisions will also provide residents an opportunity to have input on the administration of design guidelines. In the initial adoption process, voters typically approve guidelines that are quite vague. Like the Noank regulations described above,<sup>303</sup> conservation-district guidelines are usually broad and subject to interpretation.<sup>304</sup> The degree to which regulations impede development depends on the way in which the local commission or municipal staff administers the regulation. After a conservation district has been in place for five years, local residents will be able to take into account the way in which the regulations have been administered. Perhaps the regulations have been administered rigidly, hindering renovations and redevelopment projects that voters did not originally anticipate would be restricted. **\*1581** If so, the sunset provision will permit voters to reconsider whether the conservation district is meeting their expectations.

Where renters are included in conservation-district referenda, a sunset provision will provide them crucial information regarding impacts on housing affordability. If rents increase over the course of the initial term of the conservation district, that fact may inform renters' votes at the time that the district is considered for renewal. Similarly, if local, in addition to sublocal, approval is required, a sunset provision will provide "future housing consumers"<sup>305</sup> with critical information that they may not have had at the time of initial adoption of a conservation district. After a conservation district has been in place for a period of time, voters may know whether the conservation district resulted in higher housing prices in the district and in areas surrounding the district. At the time of initial adoption, voters and legislators defer to the residents of a conservation district in deciding whether such a district is appropriate.<sup>306</sup> If, however, after a district has been adopted, it becomes clear that the adoption of the district is impacting housing prices or development patterns outside of the district, voters and legislators at the local level will be more willing to defy sublocal preferences and reject the continuation of a conservation district.

Some observers have expressed concern that sunset provisions create opportunities for rent seeking, particularly by legislators who can delay or prevent renewal of a provision scheduled to sunset.<sup>307</sup> In the case where a referendum determines

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whether a conservation district is renewed, the rent-seeking opportunities are diminished. Individual residents, unlike elected legislators, are unlikely to seek campaign contributions or other quid-pro-quo consideration in exchange for their votes. In addition, the possibility of rent seeking may be a risk worth taking in light of the potentially massive inefficiencies resulting from perpetual imposition of static land-use regulations on an otherwise dynamic housing market.

One might worry that sunset provisions create transaction costs that, in turn, create the risk of inefficient results.<sup>308</sup> A tax provision, for example, may be sound fiscal policy. Scheduled to sunset, however, that tax provision is not extended because the transaction costs associated with passage of new legislation are too high. The result is a suboptimal change in law that could have been avoided had the tax provision been passed in the first instance without a sunset clause. This argument assumes, however, that the expired provision was sound policy. If, instead, the original tax provision was, or became over time, unsound, the sunset provision has effectively limited the harm done by that provision. Of course, mere uncertainty can result in inefficiencies. But those inefficiencies, when they take the form of information costs, \*1582 are not waste. The initial presunset period provides information about the impact of the legislation that will inform the decision whether to renew the legislation.

Authorizing statutes can also address the information asymmetries by requiring city planning departments to issue impact statements prior to adoption of a conservation district. This approach would require the city planning department to conduct an analysis of the likely impacts of district designation. Authorizing statutes should require that impact statements address (1) housing prices and potential effects on affordability; (2) estimated future demand for housing in the proposed district, the locality, and the region; and (3) potential costs imposed on property owners to comply with district regulations. Each impact statement should be released in advance of one or more legislative or administrative public hearings. In addition, each statement should be disseminated widely—at a minimum, to anyone eligible to vote on the conservation-district referendum.

If the district regulations are drafted to accommodate all of the demand for housing within the district, then there should be no impacts felt outside of the district. If the district regulations, on the other hand, restrict supply below what might otherwise have been built to meet demand, the impacts of that restriction on the local housing economy should be estimated. Acknowledging these potential impacts will cause policymakers and planners to draft or redraft the district regulations to minimize negative impacts on housing affordability.

#### 4. Distinguish Between Conservation Districts and Local Historic Districts

Authorizing statutes should distinguish between historic districts and conservation districts.<sup>309</sup> Conservation districts should not simply be historic districts lite<sup>310</sup> but, instead, should be clearly distinguishable from historic districts. Local historic districts mummify neighborhoods. Any demolition, construction, exterior renovation, or exterior decoration is subject to review by a local historic-district commission. The commission is charged with ensuring that any alterations comport with well-defined architectural standards.<sup>311</sup> The externalities resulting from mummification, however, are limited, provided the number of historic districts is low. And, while there is no cap on the number of local historic districts, that number is effectively limited because both the substantive and the procedural bars for adopting historic districts are high.

In contrast, conservation districts require fewer procedural hurdles and need not meet the same substantive requirements that apply to historic districts.<sup>312</sup> Not every \*1583 urban neighborhood is eligible for historic-district status. On the other hand, typically, there are no eligibility standards for conservation-district designation. And adoption is not subject to the same strictures as is adoption of historic districts. As a result, it is much easier for a locality to adopt a conservation district than it is to adopt a historic district.<sup>313</sup> The ease of adoption increases the potential number of conservation districts.<sup>314</sup> The more districts designated, the greater the negative spillover effects imposed on the residents of the city in which the conservation districts are located.

In those cases in which there is reciprocity of advantage, historic districts are appropriate, and regulations can be more stringent.<sup>315</sup> Areas heavily dependent on tourism, such as the French Quarter in New Orleans or downtown Charleston, South Carolina, were among the first areas to adopt historic districts.<sup>316</sup> In such areas, the historic quality of the architecture fuels the



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dominant industry. As a result, each property owner benefits from the assurance that every property in the district will maintain its historic character. Owners of hotels, restaurants, and entertainment venues benefit because they are frequented by visitors who are drawn to the area due to its historic architecture. Other businesses benefit because they service tourism organizations and provide other goods and services to those organizations' employees and to tourists. And property owners benefit because the demand for space to construct hotels, restaurants, and entertainment venues drives up property values.<sup>317</sup> If the district is narrowly defined to include a limited geographic area, impacts on housing demand and affordability in the larger region can be muted. Historic districts may invite the same questions raised by neighborhood conservation districts, but where there is a strong reciprocity of advantage and the geographic area of the district is limited, the benefits outweigh the costs.

**\*1584** Most conservation districts are not defined by a strong tourism industry. In fact, as described above, typically, these districts are rather ordinary residential neighborhoods. The imposition of restrictive design regulations does not result in reciprocal advantages enjoyed by all property owners, much less by all residents and business owners. Instead, conservation-district regulations, even when adopted by a supermajority of property owners, impose restrictions on a substantial minority of property owners. And advocates of affordability should worry that where conservation districts are not limited to a few, discrete areas, selected for their historic integrity or tourism value, the impacts on citywide affordability will be exponentially higher. As a result, conservation districts should be much less restrictive, and interpreted much more narrowly, than are historic districts or other regulations that are properly characterized as resulting in reciprocal advantages for all property owners, if not residents.

While it might be appropriate to allow local governments to freeze a limited number of historic districts in time, the same is not true for conservation districts. Accordingly, it is critical that state statutes draw meaningful distinctions between these two classifications so that conservation districts cannot be used as Trojan horses, introducing strict historic district-type design-review processes to neighborhoods that would not otherwise meet the requirements for historic-district designation.

## **B. Internalize Spillover Effects**

In order to mitigate negative spillover effects outside of a conservation district, designation processes should be inclusive and should include nonresidents and renters. Inclusivity will permit some of the out-of-district impacts to be internalized into the conservation-district adoption process. State legislation is the appropriate vehicle for limiting the spillover effects associated with local and sublocal land-use decisions.<sup>318</sup> These recommendations are procedural in nature and prioritize inclusivity. Admittedly, the outsized power of homeowners and neighborhood-level interests suggests that procedural fixes will be insufficient to meaningfully limit conservation districts. Even where renters and local governments are included in conservation-district adoption and implementation, homeowners are likely to exert disproportionate power and to continue to depress housing supply. As a result, these procedural recommendations are important, but they are secondary to the substantive fixes described in Part IV.A.

### **1. Include Renters in Referenda**

Where standard practice or authorizing statutes require a referendum or petition in order to designate a conservation district, the referendum or petition is intended both to confirm community support for preservation of the "icon"<sup>319</sup> and also to solicit neighborhood-wide consent to imposition of increased restrictions on use of **\*1585** private property. Because the referendum is playing this dual role, it should not be limited to property owners. All residents, not just property owners, have interests in or against community stability and the values purportedly advanced by aesthetic regulations. And renters have their own interest in preserving and furthering housing affordability, an interest not shared by property owners and, therefore, wholly excluded from referenda that are limited to property owners.

Where renters are excluded from a sublocal or local referendum required for adoption of a conservation district, the relevant local or state law should be revised to remove the property ownership requirement for voters. In a case study examining a

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failed attempt to adopt a historic district by referendum in a neighborhood in New Haven, Connecticut, Thomas W. Merrill argues in favor of direct voting by property owners.<sup>320</sup> Merrill favors limiting land-use referenda to property owners because they “have a powerful incentive to inform themselves about any issue that will affect local property values, either positively or negatively.”<sup>321</sup> But limiting the franchise to property owners introduces an element of bias into the voting scheme. The vote is limited to those with an interest in property-value maximization and entirely excludes any voter who might instead prefer housing affordability. Both are legitimate policy goals. Neither should be eliminated from consideration before the votes have been cast. Limiting the franchise to property owners effectively eliminates from consideration the goal of making housing more affordable. So long as the vote is limited to property owners, that bias cannot be exorcised from the referendum, and the referendum itself is skewed in favor of a result that will increase housing prices, a result contrary to the interest of the full one-third of the nation’s population that rents.<sup>322</sup>

In the BID or BLID context, where taxes are based on property ownership and on the value of the property owned, the utility enjoyed by renters’ use of public services is captured in the form of increased rents. As the argument goes, better provision of public services by the BID or BLID will result in higher rents, which will in turn result in higher property values, driving property owners’ votes. But even if one believes that owner-only voting is appropriate in taxing districts, in the regulatory context, there is no reason to create two classes of citizens by limiting voting in this way. In Ellickson’s BLID model, the utility gained by a renter from a well-maintained park or efficiently plowed streets is not considered in the decision whether to provide those services.<sup>323</sup> Similarly, where renters are excluded from a \*1586 neighborhood conservation-district referendum, the decision-making process ignores their desires. The simple fact that they do not own property does not mean that they have no legitimate perspective on whether to preserve a culturally or historically significant area. If renters are excluded from a sublocal referendum, the vote may undercount, or overcount, desire for cultural stability. In addition, renters may have other preferences that will be affected by the adoption of a neighborhood conservation district. For example, if the imposition of design criteria will increase the cost of property upkeep by, for instance, prohibiting vinyl windows, and will thereby increase rents, renters will have a preference that is not capitalized into home values and that remains unrepresented in the neighborhood conservation-district referendum.

Ellickson describes those who would challenge voting based on property ownership as hyperegalitarians, and he argues that their fears for the wellbeing of renters are unfounded.<sup>324</sup> He argues that tenants have low costs of exit and, therefore, the risk that they will suffer expropriation when excluded from the democratic process is low.<sup>325</sup> If they do not like the referendum results, they can simply leave.<sup>326</sup> But housing markets are notoriously imperfect. The primary market input-land-is strictly limited, and housing markets are heavily regulated by zoning codes that discourage the provision of rental housing and tax codes that prefer owner-occupied housing. Rarely are supply and demand in equilibrium, though scarcity of land and regulations might impose a status quo (based on fixed supply) that results in ever-increasing rents. A tenant may be unable to locate another housing option that meets his or her needs. And even for renters, exit can be expensive. Leaving one neighborhood for another may require other major life changes, such as changing school districts or, where a tenant is leaving a neighborhood close to his or her employment or one well-served by public transportation, incurring significant additional transportation costs. Even the simple cost of moving furniture and household items is substantial.

Notably, while Ellickson is not concerned with excluding renters’ voices in BLIDs- entities primarily concerned with service provision-he acknowledges that were a BLID to take on regulatory authority, its formation should be approved by a majority of both owners and residents.<sup>327</sup> Land-use regulations are markedly different from the sorts of services Ellickson proposes that BLIDs should provide.<sup>328</sup> A renter typically does not control how his or her landlord chooses to procure services. A renter is indifferent as to whether a landlord shovels the snow off of the sidewalk herself, hires a contractor to shovel the snow, or, with other local property owners, negotiates a preferred rate for a contractor to shovel the snow from all of the sidewalks on the block. In the case of land-use regulations, however, a renter may be more impacted than his landlord by regulations that permit a neighbor to construct a 4500 square-foot house on a 2000 square-foot lot. If the new house blocks a pleasant \*1587 view or decreases natural light into the renter’s home, it affects the renter’s daily existence. It may not affect the landlord at all.<sup>329</sup>

As Ellickson describes it, “American law rightly is more tolerant of grass-roots deregulation than of grass-roots regulation.”<sup>330</sup> This analysis militates against adopting neighborhood conservation districts solely based on the input of property owners.

Renters, like property owners, are affected by the decision to adopt neighborhood conservation districts. If neighborhood conservation districts are efforts to ensure cultural stability, renters may be as invested in cultural stability as property owners are. Interest in stability is more likely to be a function of the length of one's tenure in the neighborhood than whether that tenure is as a renter or a homeowner. In fact, because renters have less control over the places where they live than owner-occupants do, renters may have an enhanced interest in a regulatory scheme that preserves their neighborhoods. To omit them from the decision to adopt a neighborhood conservation district ignores the utility that they may gain from the adoption, or not, of design-review guidelines. It also ignores and omits from any public policy discussion those ends that are valued by renters but detrimental to property owners, such as affordable rents.

## 2. Require Local Approval

In order to capture spillover effects and to include at least some future housing consumers, authorizing legislation should require that each conservation district be approved at both the sublocal and local levels. Underlying conservation-district legislation is an assumption that the impact on conservation-district designations is felt only by residents of the district. But these neighborhoods do not exist in a vacuum. They are part of larger municipalities and regions. The local housing market is certainly larger than a single conservation district. If imposition of a conservation district constrains supply of housing in that district, the attendant impacts on price are felt not just in the conservation district but also in the larger region.

In recognition of the impact that conservation-district designation has on the larger housing market, approval of a conservation district should rest not just on the district's property owners but also on the residents of the municipality in which the proposed district is located.<sup>331</sup> In localities where a sublocal referendum is required, the referendum should be administered citywide. In order for the district to be approved, the referendum must be passed by a majority, or supermajority if so required by the authorizing ordinance, of voters citywide and in the proposed district. In localities where a referendum is not required but the local planning agency designates conservation districts, administrators typically require evidence of sublocal support in the form of petitions, nonbinding referenda, or testimony \*1588 received at public hearings.<sup>332</sup> In these cases, soliciting input from those who do not reside in the proposed district will be more difficult. Nevertheless, where those who do not reside in the district testify at public hearings, write letters, and otherwise participate in the public process to express a viewpoint on whether a conservation district should be adopted, these viewpoints should be considered just as valid as those held by property owners in the conservation district.

It is appropriate to require local authorization of each individual conservation district in addition to a local enabling ordinance permitting adoption of conservation districts generally. The fact that the local legislative body adopted the authorizing ordinance making conservation-district designation possible is not sufficient protection of the interests of those who live outside of the proposed district. First, when adopting authorizing legislation, legislators and voters may not have complete information on what proposed conservation-district regulations will look like. They may wish to authorize conservation districts generally but not to authorize particular types of regulations. It may simply be impractical to identify and prohibit every type of objectionable regulation in the authorizing legislation. Second, local government may choose to permit adoption of conservation districts but balk at adoption of a city's fifteenth conservation district.

Requiring local approval is necessary to cabin spillover effects, but as discussed in Part III, it is not sufficient.<sup>333</sup> For that reason, it is crucial that conservation districts be required to meet the substantive requirements described in Part IV.A so that spillover effects are addressed in the substance of conservation-district regulations and not only in the procedures required to adopt those regulations.

## 3. Impose Minimum Voter Turn-Out Requirements

Conservation districts present a vocal minority / silent majority problem. This problem is not unique to conservation districts and affects policy making in all realms.<sup>334</sup> In the context of conservation districts, however, the problem is acute.

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First, in the sublocal context, a small absolute number of voters can constitute a simple majority. In practice, these neighborhoods can be quite small. Nashville's South Music Row neighborhood conservation district consists of just seventy properties.<sup>335</sup> Because neighborhood conservation districts require new construction to be "contextual," the smaller the district, the more limiting the regulations will be. There is a stark difference between a requirement that a home's design be architecturally consistent with five thousand nearby homes and a requirement that \*1589 the context be defined by the five closest homes.<sup>336</sup> In addition, the small size of a neighborhood conservation district might result in a few property owners being greatly affected by the district designation.<sup>337</sup> In the Glen Lennox neighborhood of Chapel Hill, the movement to adopt the conservation district was spurred by a single property owner's desire to raze a fifty-year-old, low-density, one-story apartment complex close to two major highways. The developer sought to replace the existing complex with a shopping center, movie theater, hotel, parking structure, and almost one thousand housing units.<sup>338</sup> Neighbors, objecting to the scale of the proposed changes, rallied to adopt a neighborhood conservation district, thus granting themselves a greater degree of control over the redevelopment project. In 2011, Brookline, Massachusetts, adopted its first neighborhood conservation district under very similar circumstances. Troubled by a single property owner's plan to redevelop a postwar, low-rise, multifamily housing complex, neighbors voted to adopt a conservation district by a ten-to-one ratio.<sup>339</sup>

A land-use regulation that affects the ability to use one's home can have deleterious effects on quality of life. Because the vocal minority / silent majority problem is so acute, the process of adopting conservation districts should be structured to maximize the likelihood that the referendum will accurately represent community sentiment. To avoid the possibility that a vocal minority will prevail over the desires of a silent majority, minimum voter turn-out requirements should be imposed. These requirements are not intended to do away with conservation districts altogether and can be set with reference to actual voter turnout in local elections in the relevant municipality. But a conservation district should not be adopted based on a voter turnout significantly less than that experienced in regular municipal elections.

Despite a culture that otherwise espouses free-market ideology and the importance of free expression, the outsized role played by risk-averse homeowners in the land-use arena and their desire to control perceived risks to their property values has given us aesthetic context-based regulation in a majority of states. But the conservation-district process is flawed. Planners, legislators, and courts should subject it to heightened scrutiny. First, it overemphasizes the voice of existing homeowners, to the exclusion of renters, nonresidents, and future housing consumers. And because the impacted communities are, almost by definition, \*1590 desirable, conservation districts-by restricting density and, therefore, the total number of housing units-cut off the supply of a valuable good and artificially inflate the price of housing located near fixed amenities, such as downtown business districts and transportation nodes. Land-use policy is characterized by decades of exclusionary motivations and impacts. Local governments should not empower sublocal groups to perpetuate these policies through conservation districts.

A generation ago, a scholarly consensus emerged to explain the movement of courts toward accepting aesthetics as a basis for exercise of the police power. This consensus relied on context, or cultural stability, as a legitimate rationale for aesthetic regulation. But cultural stability is no more a legitimate or widely held value than is cultural change. And while a powerful voting bloc might prefer to establish a conservation district, often voices that prefer change to stability are excluded from that decision. Because of evolving market dynamics and demographics, change is inevitable in the land-use arena, and desirable neighborhoods should not be frozen in time and walled off from would-be residents in the name of "conservation."

Footnotes

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<sup>1</sup> See, e.g., *Vill. of Euclid v. Ambler Realty Co.*, 272 U.S. 365 (1926); 1 Arden H. Rathkopf, Daren A. Rathkopf, Sara C. Bronin & Dwight H. Merriam, *Rathkopf's The Law of Zoning and Planning* § 1:5 (4th ed. 2014).

<sup>2</sup> 3 Rathkopf et al., *supra* note 1, § 54:2.

<sup>3</sup> Throughout this Article, the term “aesthetics” is used just as J. J. Dukeminier used the term in his 1955 article on aesthetic zoning to mean “[o]f or pertaining to the appreciation or criticism of the beautiful” limited to “phenomena evident to sight only, not discernible by the other senses.” J. J. Dukeminier, Jr., *Zoning for Aesthetic Objectives: A Reappraisal*, 20 *Law & Contemp. Probs.* 218, 218 n.2 (1955).

<sup>4</sup> The ordinances described and analyzed in this Article go by many names, including village districts, design overlay districts, neighborhood conservation districts, and neighborhood preservation districts. They all establish design standards based on the context existing in the district on the day of the regulation’s adoption and are adopted, implemented, or administered sublocally. See *infra* Part II.A. Given that the shared mission of these various districts is to “conserve” the existing architectural and cultural fabric of already-developed neighborhoods, this Article will use the terms “conservation district” or “neighborhood conservation district.”

<sup>5</sup> Phx., Ariz., *Zoning Ordinance ch. 6, § 649(J)(5)* (Supp. 2015) (outlining which building materials should be incorporated into commercial buildings within a Mixed Use Agricultural District).

<sup>6</sup> Cambridge, Mass., *Avon Hill Neighborhood Conservation Dist. Designation Order § V(C)(4)-(5)* (Dec. 14, 2009), available at [http://www2.cambridgema.gov/historic/AHNCD\\_order.pdf](http://www2.cambridgema.gov/historic/AHNCD_order.pdf) (amended order).

<sup>7</sup> Groton, Conn., *Zoning Ordinance for the Noank Fire District § 2.26.3.5*, at 11 (2012) (on file with author).

<sup>8</sup> Dall., Tex., *Ordinance 25,116* (Nov. 12, 2002).

<sup>9</sup> See *infra* text accompanying notes 47-59.

<sup>10</sup> To date, scholarship on neighborhood conservation districts is quite limited. More than three hundred articles archived on Westlaw discuss business improvement districts, another form of sublocal governance structure, while just twenty-two articles mention neighborhood conservation districts. There are a few noteworthy exceptions, each of which tackles discrete elements of the conservation- district concept and none of which challenges the role played by cultural stability and neighborhood context in land-use regulations. See William A. Fischel, *Neighborhood Conservation Districts: The New Belt and Suspenders of Municipal Zoning*, 78 *Brook. L. Rev.* 339 (2013) (addressing the use of conservation districts to replicate covenants, conditions, and restrictions (CC&Rs) in already-developed neighborhoods); Hannah Wiseman, *Public Communities, Private Rules*, 98 *Geo. L.J.* 697 (2010) (arguing that while design overlays play an important role in permitting communities to establish community aesthetics, these overlays should be reformulated to permit revision over time and to put new homeowners on notice of existing restrictions); Adam Lovelady, *Comment, Broadened Notions of Historic Preservation and the Role of Neighborhood Conservation Districts*, 40 *Urb. Law.* 147 (2008) (advocating for neighborhood conservation districts as preservation tools and useful alternatives to historic districts).

<sup>11</sup> See David Schleicher, *City Unplanning*, 122 *Yale L.J.* 1670, 1674 n.7 (2013) (collecting sources).

<sup>12</sup> See *infra* notes 224, 226 and accompanying text.

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- <sup>13</sup> These competing interests in property usage and maintenance drive the contemporary use of CC&Rs in residential developments. See *infra* notes 163-70 and accompanying text.
- <sup>14</sup> 272 U.S. 365, 397 (1926) (holding that zoning is a proper exercise of the police power). Euclidean zoning, so named for Euclid, Ohio, the defendant in that 1926 Supreme Court case, divides a municipality into various sections and designates which uses are permissible in which sections. A simple Euclidean zoning ordinance separates residential, commercial, and industrial uses. See Robert C. Ellickson, Vicki Been, Roderick M. Hills, Jr. & Christopher Serkin, *Land Use Controls: Cases and Materials* 95-100 (4th ed. 2013).
- <sup>15</sup> Samuel Bufford, *Beyond the Eye of the Beholder: A New Majority of Jurisdictions Authorize Aesthetic Regulation*, 48 *UMKC L. Rev.* 125, 126 (1980).
- <sup>16</sup> Meg Stevenson, *Aesthetic Regulations: A History*, 35 *Real Est. L.J.* 519, 520 (2006).
- <sup>17</sup> *Id.* at 530-34. This Article saves for another day the question whether the construction of an edifice of aesthetic case law on a foundation of junkyard and billboard cases has created bad policy. Allowing land-use authorities to single out junkyards and billboards is surely distinguishable from allowing the same authorities to limit the number of dormers on a home or to require developers and homeowners to use a gabled rather than a hip roof. In the case of aesthetic regulations, it is possible that easy cases have made for bad law.
- <sup>18</sup> 2 Rathkopf et al., *supra* note 1, § 16:4 (citing cases).
- <sup>19</sup> *Id.* § 16:2.
- <sup>20</sup> John J. Costonis, *Law and Aesthetics: A Critique and a Reformulation of the Dilemmas*, 80 *Mich. L. Rev.* 355, 374 (1982); see also Dukeminier, *supra* note 3, at 223.
- <sup>21</sup> Dukeminier, *supra* note 3, at 223. In a footnote, Dukeminier noted that a then-recent U.S. Supreme Court case might provide the guidance and direction necessary for state courts to conclude, finally, that aesthetics is an entirely proper consideration when crafting and enforcing zoning ordinances. *Id.* at 237 n.70. The case to which Dukeminier referred dealt not with zoning but, instead, with eminent domain. In 1954, the U.S. Supreme Court held, in *Berman v. Parker*, that the condemnation of a blighted property was a proper exercise of the police power. In other words, a municipality could take a privately held property simply because that property did not meet aesthetic standards without finding itself in contravention of the Fifth Amendment to the U.S. Constitution. 348 U.S. 26 (1954). As Dukeminier predicted, twenty years later, the Supreme Court, in dicta, found expressly that aesthetics is a proper consideration in zoning. *Vill. of Belle Terre v. Boraas*, 416 U.S. 1, 9 (1974) (“The police power is not confined to elimination of filth, stench, and unhealthy places. It is ample to lay out zones where family values, youth values, and the blessings of quiet seclusion and clean air make the area a sanctuary for people.”).
- <sup>22</sup> Bufford, *supra* note 15, at 127-28; see also Georgette C. Poindexter, *Light, Air, or Manhattanization?: Communal Aesthetics in Zoning Central City Real Estate Development*, 78 *B.U. L. Rev.* 445, 483 (1998). One influential scholar, John Costonis, argued that the wholesale shift in judicial thinking on aesthetics was inevitable. “This silliness had to end. Americans wanted and were entitled to aesthetics regulation even if they seemed unable to state and, perhaps, to understand why.” John J. Costonis, *Icons and Aliens: Law, Aesthetics, and Environmental Change* 23 (1989).



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- 23 See Kenneth Pearlman, Elizabeth Linville, Andrea Phillips & Erin Prosser, *Beyond the Eye of the Beholder Once Again: A New Review of Aesthetic Regulation*, 38 *Urb. Law.* 1119, 1120 (2006).
- 24 *Id.* at 1147-49, 1181.
- 25 “Modern doctrine . . . requir[es] that regulation reflect a widespread pattern of community preference and not simply the aesthetic tastes of a narrow elite . . . .” 2 Rathkopf et al., *supra* note 1, § 16:7, at 16-31; see also *United Adver. Corp. v. Borough of Metuchen*, 198 A.2d 447, 449 (N.J. 1964) (“We refer not to some sensitive or exquisite preference but to concepts of congruity held so widely that they are inseparable from the enjoyment and hence the value of property.”); *State ex rel. Carter v. Harper*, 196 N.W. 451, 455 (Wis. 1923) (“The rights of property should not be sacrificed to the pleasure of an ultra- sthetic taste. But whether they should be permitted to plague the average or dominant human sensibilities well may be pondered.”).
- 26 See Pearlman et al., *supra* note 23, at 1163-67.
- 27 See *id.*
- 28 See *id.* at 1167-80.
- 29 See Costonis, *supra* note 20, at 359-60; Dukeminier, *supra* note 3, at 237; Poindexter, *supra* note 22, at 488; Edward H. Ziegler, Jr., *Aesthetics in Ohio Land Use Law: Preserving Beauty in the Parlor and Keeping Pigs in the Barnyard*, 19 *Akron L. Rev.* 1, 33 (1985).
- 30 Costonis, *supra* note 22, at 84. Costonis defines “icons” as “features invested with values that confirm our sense of order and identity.” *Id.* at xv. Conversely, “‘aliens’ threaten the icons and hence our investment in the icons’ values.” *Id.* at xv-xvi. Costonis defines “cultural stability” as a resistance to “rapid or fundamental changes” that threaten fundamental institutions including “[f]amily, religion, education, language, and government.” Costonis, *supra* note 20, at 418. The environment, playing a “socially integrative and, hence, identity- nurturing role,” is another such fundamental institution. *Id.* Hence, for our purposes, policies advancing cultural stability seek to curtail rapid or fundamental changes to the built environment.
- 31 See 2 Rathkopf et al., *supra* note 1, § 16:7 n.9 (citing Costonis for his analysis and finding it consistent with modern case law on aesthetic zoning); Dukeminier, *supra* note 3, at 231 (“Zoning restrictions which implement a policy of neighborhood amenity should be voided, if at all, not because they are for aesthetic objectives but only because the restrictions are unreasonable devices of implementing community policy.”); Poindexter, *supra* note 22, at 505-06 (finding that zoning based on aesthetics serves a public good because it encourages community participation). In an article that appeared a few years after *Law and Aesthetics* and a few years before *Icons and Aliens*, Edward H. Ziegler, Jr. made a plea similar to that made by Costonis and Dukeminier. He argued that aesthetics ought to inform land-use and zoning regulations only where:  
(1) There is a reasonable basis to believe that those features of the visual environment selected for protection reflect and embody widely shared human meanings and associations that the regulation is intended to preserve; (2) There exist reasonably intelligible standards for regulation derived from those existing features of the visual environment selected for protection; and (3) That the regulation as applied is reasonably related to preventing a “patently offensive” harm to those features of the visual environment selected for protection.  
Ziegler, *supra* note 29, at 33. The protection of buildings and landscapes that “reflect and embody widely shared human meanings and associations” and the development of standards based on existing features or context are examples of regulating cultural stability. See *id.*
- 32 Judges, citing property-value protection as a proper rationale for regulation, also assume that property owners have a right to preservation. See, e.g., *Bd. of Supervisors v. Miller*, 170 N.W.2d 358, 361 (Iowa 1969) (holding that preservation of a

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neighborhood is a valid concern for zoning, in part because such preservation can stabilize property values). One observer, discussing neighborhood outrage sparked by a proposed redevelopment project, described this outrage in terms of residents' "psychological ownership" of the neighborhood. Sadia Latifi, Growth Foments a Fuss in Chapel Hill, News & Observer (Raleigh, N.C.), August 3, 2008, at 1A (quoting an observer of a battle between a developer and local residents as commenting that the developer may have "underestimated the community's psychological ownership" of the area).

33 See, e.g., Costonis, *supra* note 20, at 437, 440.

34 See Poindexter, *supra* note 22, at 486.

35 One of the two defining features is procedural in nature. As Carol Rose has argued, procedure is crucial in designing aesthetic land-use regulations. Carol M. Rose, Preservation and Community: New Directions in the Law of Historic Preservation, 33 Stan. L. Rev. 473, 517-18 (1981). As discussed further below, Richard Briffault popularized the use of the term "sublocal structures" to refer to neighborhood-level institutions that "provide for a variety of territorially based differences in taxation, services, or regulation within individual cities." Richard Briffault, The Rise of Sublocal Structures in Urban Governance, 82 Minn. L. Rev. 503, 508 (1997).

36 Jessie McClurg, Neighborhood P'ships for Cmty. Research, Alternative Forms of Historic Designation: A Study of Neighborhood Conservation Districts in the United States (2011), available at <http://www.cura.umn.edu/sites/cura.advantagelabs.com/files/publications/NPCR-1331.pdf>.

37 See Cambridge Historical Comm'n, Neighborhood Conservation Districts in Cambridge (2002), available at [http://www2.cambridgema.gov/Historic/ncd\\_brochure.pdf](http://www2.cambridgema.gov/Historic/ncd_brochure.pdf).

38 Lovelady, *supra* note 10, at 158-59 ("Then, in 1985, in an effort to protect neighborhoods that did not support full historic zoning, city officials introduced the NCD. Lockeland Springs-East End was the first . . .").

39 Dall., Tex., Ordinance 19,910 (Mar. 23, 1988) (establishing "Conservation District No. 1," the Kings Highway Conservation District).

40 Miami, Fla., Miami 21 Code app. A (2012) (describing neighborhood conservation districts and their regulations).

41 City of Boise Planning & Dev. Servs., Boise City Historic Preservation Plan 2010, at 26 (2010), available at [http://pds.cityofboise.org/media/210354/draft\\_preservation\\_plan.pdf](http://pds.cityofboise.org/media/210354/draft_preservation_plan.pdf) ("Conservation Districts are another tool that the City of Boise has implemented to preserve certain neighborhood's characteristics. . . . In 2010, there [were] two adopted conservation districts in the City of Boise.").

42 Northside Neighborhood Conservation Dist. Comm., Design Guidelines 1 (2004), available at <http://www.townofchapelhill.org/home/showdocument?id=729> ("The Town of Chapel Hill Land Use Management Ordinance adopted by the Town Council on January 27, 2003 includes a provision for creating Neighborhood Conservation Districts."). The Town of Chapel Hill temporarily suspended the creation of new neighborhood conservation districts in 2012. See Town of Chapel Hill, A Resolution Temporarily Suspending Processing of Proposed Neighborhood Conservation Districts (2012), available at <http://chapelhillpublic.novusagenda.com/AttachmentViewer.aspx?AttachmentID=9029&ItemID=1687>.

43 See, e.g., City of Topeka Planning Dep't, Notice of Neighborhood Information Meeting & Public Hearing 1 (2013), available at



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[http:// www.topeka.org/pdfs/WestboroNCDNIM.pdf](http://www.topeka.org/pdfs/WestboroNCDNIM.pdf) (notifying affected property owners of a proposal to create a neighborhood conservation district); Andreae Downs, Brookline OK's Tighter Zoning Bylaw, New District Is Applied to Apartment Complex, Bos. Globe, Nov. 20, 2011, at 2 (describing the adoption of the first neighborhood conservation district in Brookline, Massachusetts); Felipe Azenha, Upper Eastside Neighborhood Conservation District, Miami Urbanist (June 13, 2012), <http://www.miamiurbanist.com/upper-eastside-neighborhood-conservation-district/> (giving notice of a meeting to discuss the City of Miami's proposal for a new neighborhood conservation district); Tere O'Connell, Saving the Good Stuff, Preservation Austin (April 1, 2013), [http:// www.preservationaustin.org/blog/saving-the-good-stuff](http://www.preservationaustin.org/blog/saving-the-good-stuff) (citing Raleigh's and Dallas's experience with neighborhood conservation districts as possible models for Austin rezoning).

44 See supra note 10.

45 See, e.g., Julia Miller, Protecting Older Neighborhoods Through Conservation District Programs (2004).

46 See, e.g., McClurg, supra note 36.

47 See infra notes 56-57 and accompanying text.

48 See, e.g., N.C. Gen. Stat. Ann. § 160A-400.3 (West 2000) (defining historic districts, in part, as areas deemed to have special historical, prehistorical, architectural, or cultural significance).

49 Such laws incorporate the definition of "historic" used by the National Park Service's National Register of Historic Places Program. That definition requires a property to be "old enough to be considered historic (generally at least 50 years old)." National Register of Historic Places Program: Fundamentals, Nat'l Park Service, [http://www.nps.gov/nr/national\\_register\\_fundamentals.htm](http://www.nps.gov/nr/national_register_fundamentals.htm).

50 See, e.g., N.C. Gen. Stat. Ann. § 160A-400.3 (defining historic districts as having "integrity of design, setting, materials, feeling, and association"). This requirement in state and local laws incorporates National Register of Historic Places criteria evaluating "whether the area retains the spatial organization, physical components, and aspects of design and historic associations that it acquired during its period of significance." City of Austin Historic Pres. Office, City of Austin Local Historic District Nomination Application & Instructions 4 (2012), available at [http:// www.austintexas.gov/sites/default/files/files/Planning/Historic\\_Preservation/lhd\\_zoning\\_application.pdf](http://www.austintexas.gov/sites/default/files/files/Planning/Historic_Preservation/lhd_zoning_application.pdf).

51 Miller, supra note 45, at 2 (advocating neighborhood conservation-district adoption where "an area may not be old enough to qualify as historic; the houses in the area, although representative of a particular era of development, may be distinctive but not sufficiently noteworthy to merit full protection; or the area may have been compromised through incompatible development").

52 Lovelady, supra note 10, at 154; see also Wilmington, Del., Code of Ordinances § 48-422(d) (2014) ("Neighborhood conservation districts may be designated where traditional city historic district protection is not feasible due to . . . [a] built environment whose resources do not meet the qualification criteria of either the National Register of Historic Places or city historic districts."); Miller, supra note 45, at 1 ("[T]hese neighborhoods tend not to merit designation as a historic district . . .").

53 Iowa City, Iowa, City Code § 14-3B-2(C) (Supp. 2015); see also McClurg, supra note 36, at 16 ("After many years of establishing historic districts, cities began to create conservation districts in order to protect the character of neighborhoods that may not have been eligible for historic designation, but that had distinct characteristics worth preserving.").

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- 54 Conn. Gen. Stat. Ann. § 7-147b(i) (West Supp. 2014).
- 55 Conn. Gen. Stat. Ann. § 8-2j(a) (West Supp. 2014). Most Connecticut municipalities do not require the zoning ordinance to be approved by the local legislature. See Conn. Gen. Stat. Ann. § 8-1 (West 2010).
- 56 See, e.g., Lori Salganicoff, Pres. Alliance of Greater Phila., Neighborhood Conservation Districts Survey 2 (2003), available at <http://www.preservationalliance.com/publications/Conservation%20District%20Description.pdf> (“Very generally, Conservation District programs can be divided into two categories: ‘historic district-lite’ and zoning/land use.”); Lisa Sorg, Demolition Derby; Preservation Texas Designates Five SA Neighborhoods as Threatened, Current (San Antonio, Tex.), March 8, 2006, at 12 (“Once a refuge for downtown denizens fleeing floodwaters, Beacon Hill has been designated a Conservation District . . . (Think of it as Historic District lite.)”); O’Connell, *supra* note 43 (“Zoning policies such as Raleigh’s historic district ‘lite’ and Dallas’ use of neighborhood stabilization overlays were presented as alternative ways to preserve community character without as many regulations.”); Thomas J. Walsh, Penn Treaty Tower, Navy Yard Updates, PlanPhilly (Feb. 19, 2008), <http://planphilly.com/articles/2008/02/19/2740> (quoting a city planning official who describes conservation districts as “Historic District Lite”). Local legislatures, zoning commissions, and neighbors also choose to adopt neighborhood conservation districts in lieu of historic districts when they perceive historic-district regulations as onerous. McClurg, *supra* note 36, at 7-8 (recounting that residents “grew concerned that local historic designation . . . would essentially bring an end to a long tradition of architectural creativity” and that residents thus considered whether a neighborhood conservation district might better serve their needs); Eric R. Danton, New Panel To Consider Creating Village District, 7 Members To Include Property Owners in Area Studied, Hartford Courant, January 3, 2001, at B1 (“[T]he committee recommended against creating [a historic] district because of stringent requirements that home and business owners would have to follow. Instead, committee members suggested studying a village district that would give property owners more latitude in how they use their land and buildings.”).
- 57 Lovelady, *supra* note 10, at 148.
- 58 See *infra* notes 87-88 and accompanying text.
- 59 See Lovelady, *supra* note 10, at 154-55 (“Some districts amount to a traditional [historic district] with rigorous design review and guidelines based on the Secretary of the Interior’s Standards for the Treatment of Historic Properties.”); *id.* at 157 (“[T]he line between historic and conservation districts is not always easy to draw.”).
- 60 Advocates and regulators make no secret of their intentions in adopting neighborhood conservation districts. They aim to “conserve neighborhoods” through zoning and, in their attempt to do so, they design neighborhood conservation zoning regulations to mirror existing neighborhood land use and architecture. This Part, based on a close reading of a few conservation-district schemes, examines how those regulations work to conserve existing land use and architecture patterns, with the ultimate goal of understanding what the intended and unintended consequences of these regulations might be.
- 61 These attempts to involve the “community” succeed and fail to varying degrees. Conservation districts vary as to how the “community” is defined. As discussed further below, because some neighborhood conservation districts require a majority or supermajority of property owners rather than residents to approve a neighborhood conservation district, the “community” that adopts and controls a neighborhood conservation district may not include everyone who lives, works, or spends time in the proposed district. See *infra* Part III.B.
- 62 This use of the term “taxidermy” is borrowed from Jane Jacobs. See *infra* note 91 and accompanying text.
- 63 Proponents routinely cite “neighborhood preservation” or “cultural heritage” as their primary motivation for adoption of a neighborhood conservation district. See, e.g., Kan. City, Mo., Zoning & Dev. Code § 88-205-03-B (Supp. 2015) (“Neighborhood

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overlay districts seek to preserve an area's cultural, architectural, and aesthetic ambience."); Dall., Tex., Dev. Code § 51A-4.505(b) (Supp. 2014) ("[T]he conservation district is established to provide a means of conserving an area's distinctive atmosphere or character by protecting or enhancing its significant architectural or cultural attributes."); Susan Hanzlik, City of Topeka, Kan., Neighborhood Conservation Districts, available at <http://www.topeka.org/pdfs/NCDBrochure.pdf> ("Helping to preserve your neighborhood's unique character and architectural heritage."); Community Planning and Design, Scenic Pittsburgh, <http://www.scenicpittsburgh.org/community-planning-and-design.html> ("Neighborhood conservation districts are an effective way of . . . emphasizing a neighborhood's cultural attributes . . .").

64 Cambridge, Mass., Code of Ordinances § 2.78.220(A) (Supp. 2012) (emphasis added).

65 Id. ("In the case of new construction or additions to existing structures a commission shall consider the appropriateness of the size and shape of the structure both in relation to the land area upon which the structure is situated and to structures in the vicinity . . . ." (emphasis added)).

66 Kan. City, Mo., Zoning & Dev. Code § 88-205-03-B.

67 See, e.g., Costonis, supra note 22; Costonis, supra note 20, at 395-418, 430-32; Rose, supra note 35, at 494. In fact, in a brief section of *Icons and Aliens*, Costonis is explicitly supportive of the then-nascent neighborhood conservation movement. Costonis, supra note 22, at 24-25; see also McClurg, supra note 36, at 15 ("In the category of the classic is lawyer John Costonis' book *Icons and Aliens: Law, Aesthetics and Environmental Change*, which examines the legal basis of aesthetic control, as well as its often subjective nature.").

68 Lovelady, supra note 10, at 157.

69 Id. at 161-62.

70 Miller, supra note 45, at 8 (quoting a planner in the Dallas, Texas, planning department as saying that Dallas's conservation-district regulations "are meant to be 'tailor-made to the neighborhood and what it collectively wants to conserve'"). The line between the two categories is not fixed, and some districts include elements of both categories: "Over time, the distinctions between preservation and planning-based conservation districts are becoming blurred as communities look for and develop solutions that respond to the specific needs of individual neighborhoods." Rebecca Lubens & Julia Miller, *Protecting Older Neighborhoods Through Conservation District Programs*, 21 *Preservation L. Rep.* 1001, 1011 (2002-03).

71 Groton, Conn., Zoning Ordinance for the Noank Fire District § 2.26, at 9 (2012) (on file with author).

72 Nashville and Davidson County, Tenn., Code of Ordinances § 17.40.410(C)(1), (3) (Supp. 2014).

73 Dall., Tex., Ordinance 25,474 exhibit A § d(3) (Jan. 13, 2004). The ordinance also contains a list of the average front yard setbacks of buildings on each block. Id. exhibit B, app. D.

74 See Dall., Tex., Ordinance 25,116 exhibit A (Nov. 12, 2002).

75 Id. exhibit A § g.

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76 Id. exhibit B § 6.

77 Id. exhibit A § e(2).

78 Id. exhibit A § i(1)(A).

79 Id. exhibit A § h.

80 Id. exhibit A § k(3), (5).

81 Groton, Conn., Zoning Ordinance for the Noank Fire District § 2.26, at 9 (2012) (on file with author).

82 Id. §§ 2.26.3.4, .6, at 10-11.

83 Dall., Tex., Ordinance 25,116 exhibit A § e(5).

84 Groton, Conn., Zoning Ordinance for the Noank Fire District § 2.26.3.8, at 12.

85 See *infra* notes 274-77 and accompanying text.

86 See *infra* note 275 and accompanying text.

87 See *supra* notes 71-72 and accompanying text.

88 See *supra* notes 73-80 and accompanying text.

89 See *supra* notes 30-31 and accompanying text.

90 See *supra* text accompanying notes 47-59.

91 Jane Jacobs, *The Death and Life of Great American Cities* 373 (Vintage Books 1992) (1961) (“[T]axidermy can be a useful and decent craft. However, it goes too far when the specimens put on display are exhibitions of dead, stuffed cities. Like all attempts at art which get far away from the truth and which lose respect for what they deal with, this craft of city taxidermy becomes, in the hands of its master practitioners, continually more picky and precious.”); see also Karrie Jacobs, *Jane Jacobs Revisited*, *Metropolis* (Aug. 2006), <http://www.metropolismag.com/August-2006/Jane-Jacobs-Revisited/>.

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92 Jacobs, *supra* note 91, at 373.

93 See *id.* at 373-74 (“But this [hardened control of architectural materials and forms] is not the case with us. . . . We can’t be like that because the limitations on possibilities and the strictures on individuals in such societies extend much beyond the materials and conceptions used in creating works of art from the grist of everyday life. . . . [W]e are too adventurous, inquisitive, egoistic and competitive to be a harmonious society of artists by consensus, and, what is more, we place a high value upon the very traits that prevent us from being so. Nor is this the constructive use we make of cities or the reason we find them valuable: to embody tradition or to express (and freeze) harmonious consensus.”).

94 *Id.* at 374. Jacobs cautioned against approaching a city or neighborhood as “a larger architectural problem, capable of being given order by converting it into a disciplined work of art . . . .” *Id.* at 373. Her writings on the subject do not leave much doubt about what she would think of the M Streets East ordinance in Dallas, for example.

95 Rose, *supra* note 35, at 509 (footnote omitted).

96 See *supra* text accompanying notes 51-53.

97 See generally Max Page, *The Creative Destruction of Manhattan, 1900-1940* (1999).

98 See, e.g., Edward Glaeser, *Triumph of the City: How Our Greatest Invention Makes Us Richer, Smarter, Greener, Healthier, and Happier* 223-46 (2011) (discussing the development of Chicago and Atlanta, among other cities); Virginia McConnell & Keith Wiley, *Infill Development: Perspectives and Evidence from Economics and Planning* (Res. for the Future, Discussion Paper No. 10-13, 2010) (describing state and local policies to promote infill development).

99 Fifth Avenue did not exist above Fourteenth Street until the 1850s. Page, *supra* note 97, at 26.

100 *Id.* at 28.

101 *Id.* at 24-28.

102 *Id.* at 26.

103 *Id.*

104 See *id.* As historian Max Page carefully details in *The Creative Destruction of Manhattan, 1900-1940*, the breathtaking pace of redevelopment in Manhattan in the early twentieth century was fraught and not without growing pains. Entrenched interests, including the Vanderbilt family, sought (unsuccessfully, in the case of Fifth Avenue) to prevent demolitions and rebuilding in favor of preserving Midtown Manhattan as a neighborhood of single-family homes—both brownstones and freestanding mansions. One wonders what the result might have been had the Vanderbilts had at their disposal the land-use regulatory tools available today.

105 See Glaeser, *supra* note 98, at 231-38, 241-44 (describing the development patterns of several American cities).

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- <sup>106</sup> See generally 3 Rathkopf et al., *supra* note 1, § 38:27 (“The policy considerations-and, derivatively, the legal principles-governing rezonings can be usefully conceptualized as attempts to reconcile the competing and conflicting goals of promoting, on the one hand, desired stability and, on the other hand, desired flexibility in zoning.”).
- <sup>107</sup> Cambridge, Massachusetts, has four neighborhood conservation districts. See *Historic Districts and Neighborhood Conservation Districts in Cambridge, MA*, Cambridge Hist. Commission, [http:// www2.cambridgema.gov/Historic/districts.html](http://www2.cambridgema.gov/Historic/districts.html). Nashville, Tennessee, has eleven neighborhood conservation districts. See McClurg, *supra* note 36, at 73.
- <sup>108</sup> See Miller, *supra* note 45, at 1 (“[N]eighborhood conservation districts offer community-based solutions aimed at protecting an area’s distinctive character.”); *id.* at 5 (“[H]igh emphasis is placed on neighborhood participation . . . .”); *id.* at 8 (“[M]ost communities require that the process for initiating conservation district status include a significant level of neighborhood involvement.”); *id.* at 9 (“A key aspect of neighborhood conservation district programs is mandatory public participation.”). The attraction to community-based, neighborhood-level planning is so attractive that even Edward Glaeser, a leading advocate of land-use deregulation, falls into the trap of advocating in favor of some limited sublocal land-use powers. See Glaeser, *supra* note 98, at 162.
- <sup>109</sup> See *infra* Part III.B.1-2.
- <sup>110</sup> See *infra* Part III.B.3.
- <sup>111</sup> In at least one instance, the Chapel Hill Planning Board petitioned the town council to consider creating a neighborhood conservation district. See Memorandum from W. Calvin Horton, Town Manager, Town of Chapel Hill, to the Mayor and Town Council (May 15, 2006), available at [http:// townhall.townofchapelhill.org/agendas/2006/05/15/1/greenwood\\_ncd.htm](http://townhall.townofchapelhill.org/agendas/2006/05/15/1/greenwood_ncd.htm).
- <sup>112</sup> As of February 2012, Chapel Hill suspended designation of new neighborhood conservation districts. Neighborhoods that had initiated the process prior to that date can proceed. Neighborhood Conservation District (NCD) Zoning Overlays, Town Chapel Hill, <http://townofchapelhill.org/town-hall/departments-services/planning-and-sustainability/resources/neighborhood-conservation-district-ncd-zoning-overlays>.
- <sup>113</sup> Chapel Hill, N.C., Code of Ordinances app. A § 3.6.5(c)(1)(A) (Supp. 2014). A bill recently defeated in the General Assembly of North Carolina would have required the unanimous consent of property owners in the proposed district prior to adoption of any regulations “relating to building design elements.” H.R. 150, 2013 Gen. Assemb. (N.C. 2013). Senate Bill 139 was substantially similar. See S. 139, 2013 Gen. Assemb. (N.C. 2013). Both bills defined “building design elements” as “exterior building color; type or style of exterior cladding material; style or materials of roof structures or porches; exterior nonstructural architectural ornamentation; location or architectural styling of windows and doors, including garage doors; the number and types of rooms; and the interior layout of rooms.” *Id.*; see also *infra* note 263.
- <sup>114</sup> Miller, *supra* note 45, at 8 (citing conversation with Jim Anderson, a historic preservation planner with the Dallas planning department).
- <sup>115</sup> See Nashville and Davidson County, Tenn., Code of Ordinances §§ 17.36.100-.120 (Supp. 2014).
- <sup>116</sup> Cambridge Historical Comm’n, *supra* note 37; see also Elizabeth Durfee Hengen & Carolyn Baldwin, *Neighborhood Heritage Districts: A Handbook for New Hampshire Municipalities* 9 (2008), available at [http://www.nh.gov/nhdhr/documents/neighbor\\_hert\\_handbook.pdf](http://www.nh.gov/nhdhr/documents/neighbor_hert_handbook.pdf) (“[E]ven with [the support of city officials], the citizens’ group needs

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to be prepared to take the lead on undertaking a public awareness and education program. The importance of such a campaign is integral to the successful establishment of a neighborhood heritage district ordinance.”).

117 See Conn. Gen. Stat. Ann. § 8-2j (West Supp. 2014).

118 Ann DeMatteo, Hamden PZC Lets Residents Take Lead on Village District, *New Haven Reg.*, Apr. 18, 2009, at B1.

119 Danton, *supra* note 56. Similarly, the Indianapolis Historic Preservation Commission “requests the residents to get seventy-five percent of the property owners to sign in support of the conservation district; this is not required by the ordinance, but is done in practice.” McClurg, *supra* note 36, at 45. And in Iowa City, “[i]n order to create a conservation district, residents must get signatures on petitions and letters of support from the neighborhood. This is compiled with information about the neighborhood, the issues that threaten the character of the area, and an argument for designation.” *Id.* at 49.

120 Cambridge, Mass., Code of Ordinances § 2.78.160(A) (Supp. 2012).

121 The historic zoning commission is responsible for design review in neighborhood conservation districts as well as in historic preservation districts, historic landmark districts, and historic bed-and-breakfast homestay districts. See Nashville and Davidson County, Tenn., Code of Ordinances §§ 17.36.110, 17.40.400 (Supp. 2014).

122 To date, neighborhood conservation districts have largely escaped the notice of scholars interested in sublocal governance structures. See *supra* note 10. One proponent of sublocal zoning ignores them entirely. See Kenneth A. Stahl, *Neighborhood Empowerment and the Future of the City*, 161 *U. Pa. L. Rev.* 939 (2013). In a recent symposium, William A. Fischel notes that neighborhood conservation districts are akin to sublocal structures such as BIDs, but he does not consider whether sublocal governance structures facilitate participation, nor does he consider the possible negative implications of allowing sublocal structures to assume elements of zoning authority. Fischel, *supra* note 10, at 350.

123 Charles M. Tiebout, *A Pure Theory of Local Expenditures*, 64 *J. Pol. Econ.* 416 (1956). By no means is this Article intended to contribute to the overreliance on Tiebout to explain local government phenomena. Nor does this Article purposefully avoid addressing more recent economic scholarship that displaces or complicates the Tiebout model. Instead, this Article posits that the extent to which Tiebout’s theory pervades thinking about zoning and land use, not the inherent correctness of that theory, is a possible explanation for the rising popularity of sublocal zoning power and design-review authority.

124 *Id.* at 418; see also Richard Briffault, *The Rise of Sublocal Structures in Urban Governance*, 82 *Minn. L. Rev.* 503, 503 (1997) (Tiebout argues that “[t]he multiplicity of local governments in an area means that, as long as each locality is free to adopt its own mix of services, regulations, and taxes, area residents will have a variety of packages of local government actions to choose among in determining where to live.”).

125 Tiebout, *supra* note 123, at 418-19 (model assumes that governmental “revenue and expenditure patterns” are fixed, “consumer-voters” are mobile, their movements are not restricted by employment or other factors, there are a large number of diverse communities from which each “consumer-voter” can choose, “consumer-voters” have all necessary knowledge to make an informed choice, and there are no externalities resulting from any one municipality’s choices); see also Richard Briffault, *Our Localism: Part II-Localism and Legal Theory*, 90 *Colum. L. Rev.* 346, 415 (1990) (“Tiebout’s theory is one of interlocal movement. It does not address the internal operations of urban government, local political institutions or local political activity.”).

126 See, e.g., William W. Bratton & Joseph A. McCahery, *The New Economics of Jurisdictional Competition: Devolutionary Federalism in a Second-Best World*, 86 *Geo. L.J.* 201 (1997) (describing theoretical and practical problems with Tiebout’s model);

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David Schleicher, Local Government's "Law and \_\_\_" Problem, 40 Fordham Urb. L.J. 1951, 1964 (2013) (decrying the failure of local-government scholars to look beyond the Tiebout model when discussing "the economic study of local government and cities").

127 See, e.g., William A. Fischel, The Homevoter Hypothesis 39-71 (2001); Stahl, supra note 122, at 942 n.4 (noting the influence of Tiebout's theory).

128 Tiebout, supra note 123, at 418-19.

129 Briffault, supra note 124, at 504-06.

130 Id. at 530.

131 Id. at 508.

132 Id. ("The more recent development of new forms of submunicipal political institutions, however, suggests new possibilities for ameliorating the basic tension between the assumptions of the Tiebout model and the position of big cities in the local government system." (footnote omitted)); Stahl, supra note 122, at 943 (describing sublocal institutions as "efforts to import into the city the most attractive features of suburban governance by devolving power to the smaller scale of the neighborhood").

133 Briffault, supra note 124, at 524.

134 But see infra notes 266-68 and accompanying text (regarding the problem of uninformed consumers and the lack of transparency inherent to neighborhood conservation districts).

135 See Metro. Historic Zoning Comm'n, Metro. Gov't of Nashville & Davidson Cnty., Richland-West End Addition Neighborhood Conservation Zoning 6 (rev. ed. 2012), available at [http://www.nashville.gov/Portals/0/SiteContent/MHZC/docs/Preservation%20Permits/Maps%20and%20Guidelines/RWE%20Addition%202012\\_revised.pdf](http://www.nashville.gov/Portals/0/SiteContent/MHZC/docs/Preservation%20Permits/Maps%20and%20Guidelines/RWE%20Addition%202012_revised.pdf).

136 See Half Crown-Marsh Neighborhood Conservation Dist. Consolidation Study Comm., Half Crown-Marsh Neighborhood Conservation District Consolidation Study 5 (2006), available at [http://www2.cambridgema.gov/historic/hc\\_marsh\\_consol\\_report.pdf](http://www2.cambridgema.gov/historic/hc_marsh_consol_report.pdf).

137 See Dall., Tex., Ordinance 25,116 exhibit A § g (Nov. 12, 2002), available at [http://dallascityhall.com/departments/sustainabledevelopment/historicpreservation/\\_layouts/15/WopiFrame.aspx?sourcedoc=/departments/sustainabledevelopment/historicpreservation/DCH%20documents/pdf/MStreet\\_GreenlandHills.pdf&action=default&DefaultItemOpen=1](http://dallascityhall.com/departments/sustainabledevelopment/historicpreservation/_layouts/15/WopiFrame.aspx?sourcedoc=/departments/sustainabledevelopment/historicpreservation/DCH%20documents/pdf/MStreet_GreenlandHills.pdf&action=default&DefaultItemOpen=1).

138 Briffault, supra note 124, at 505 ("The small size of local units makes it easier for citizens to voice their views to their local government and their fellow local citizens, to respond to each other's concerns, and to deliberate concerning important local public matters. . . . The resulting sense of 'citizen effectiveness' may lead to more participation, which, by reinforcing the sense of effectiveness, can maintain and increase participation." (footnote omitted)).



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- <sup>139</sup> See, e.g., Stephen Breyer, Madison Lecture, Our Democratic Constitution, 77 N.Y.U. L. Rev. 245, 257-58 (2002) (noting that limitations on federal power serve to facilitate democracy because state and local governments are easier for citizens to hold accountable); Roderick M. Hills, Jr., Is Federalism Good for Localism? The Localist Case for Federal Regimes, 21 J.L. & Pol. 187, 209 (2005) (“The extraordinary plethora of plebiscitary procedures, neighborhood consent requirements, lay boards and elected bodies that govern local governments under state law . . . indicates a level of public participation at an entirely different level than that provided by federal administrative law.”); Matthew J. Parlow, Civic Republicanism, Public Choice Theory, and Neighborhood Councils: A New Model for Civic Engagement, 79 U. Colo. L. Rev. 137, 145 (2008) (“[L]ocal governments constitute the most viable avenue for engaging the public in the decision- and policy-making processes . . . .”); Lovelady, *supra* note 10, at 175 (“When preservationists desire neighborhood protection but encounter opposition from property rights advocates or residents fearing increased costs, NCDs offer a compromise . . . .”).
- <sup>140</sup> But see *infra* Part III.B.
- <sup>141</sup> “Procedurally, the very process of community self-definition, including the procedures of modern historic preservation law, brings neighbors together in mutual education and mutual aid, helping to prevent a paralyzing sense of individual powerlessness.” Rose, *supra* note 35, at 494. Costonis, on the other hand, ignores process and, instead, places the burden on legislators to determine whether a proposed aesthetic regulation is truly accomplishing a widely supported community interest in cultural stability: “[P]olicy-makers should examine the claimed associational bonds between the resource and the community to determine whether protecting the resource will advance community-wide identity and stability values.” Costonis, *supra* note 20, at 434. For Costonis, this examination requires legislators’ confirmation that the desire to protect an aesthetic resource must be widely held. As he says, “[i]f the ‘objectivity’ of aesthetic standards resides in their consistency with patterns of community preference, the inquiry should focus upon the prevalence or absence of these patterns.” *Id.* at 435. But Costonis does not propose any check, other than the standard legislative process, to ensure that aesthetic land-use regulations meet the otherwise rigorous standard he establishes. He entrusts legislators and regulators to make a determination that a preference for a proposed aesthetic regulation is widely held in precisely the same way that legislators approach any policy decision, by reviewing “evidence marshalled through hearings, staff studies, and similar sources [to determine whether] the claimed concordance of the initiative with actual or reasonably likely community-wide preferences” can be verified. *Id.* Costonis acknowledges that he requires of aesthetic regulations no more process-related checks and balances than are required of legislative action generally: “The inquiry, in short, should parallel the one regularly conducted by legislators in the zoning and eminent domain fields to determine whether a proposed initiative accords with a ‘public’ purpose or merely advances the ‘private’ interest of an individual or a group.” *Id.* at 435-36 (footnotes omitted).
- <sup>142</sup> See Rose, *supra* note 35, at 494.
- <sup>143</sup> The inevitable question raised in this section—“Who is the community?”—is discussed in Part III.B, *infra*.
- <sup>144</sup> See Cambridge, Mass., Code of Ordinances § 2.78.160 (Supp. 2012).
- <sup>145</sup> *Id.* § 2.78.180.
- <sup>146</sup> *Id.*
- <sup>147</sup> *Id.* § 2.78.160(A). Delegating design-review authority to a sublocal commission raises constitutional questions. These are discussed in greater detail in note 241, *infra*.
- <sup>148</sup> See *infra* Part III.B.

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- 149 See *infra* note 159 and accompanying text.
- 150 See *infra* notes 162-64 and accompanying text.
- 151 See *infra* notes 181-82 and accompanying text.
- 152 Miller, *supra* note 45, at 1.
- 153 See, e.g., Boise, Idaho, Boise Municipal Code § 11-05-02(1)(A) (permitting adoption in nonresidential neighborhoods but stating that “[a] conservation overlay district is usually applied to residential neighborhoods”); Chapel Hill, N.C., Code of Ordinances app. A § 3.6.5 (Supp. 2014).
- 154 Cf. Rose, *supra* note 35, at 504-06 (noting that a major impetus for the establishment of historic districts was to encourage business investment in particular areas and to protect the tourism industry).
- 155 See Margaret Jane Radin, Property and Personhood, 34 *Stan. L. Rev.* 957, 996-1002 (1982) (discussing homes and cars as paradigmatic examples of “personhood property” that are given greater protections than other forms of property).
- 156 “[I]n our social context a house that is owned by someone who resides there is generally understood to be toward the personal end of the continuum. There is both a positive sense that people are bound up with their homes and a normative sense that this is not fetishistic.” *Id.* at 987 (footnote omitted). But neighborhood conservation districts cannot be analyzed solely as a form of protection of personhood property. Certainly, conservation districts arise out of a desire to protect some people’s personhood property (i.e., owning a home in a neighborhood with certain defined characteristics). They accomplish that goal, however, by limiting others’ personhood property (i.e., owning a home that can be demolished, renovated, and altered as one likes). This tension can be seen in design-review meetings, in which regulators consider relevant whether a property belongs to an owner-occupant or a nonresident landlord. Cf. Robert C. Ellickson, Three Systems of Land-Use Control, 13 *Harv. J.L. & Pub. Pol’y* 67, 72 (1990) (“[Z]oning officials tend to be insensitive to the interests of nonresidents, such as housing consumers and owners of undeveloped land . . .”).
- 157 Brian J. Miller, Competing Visions of the American Single-Family Home: Defining McMansions in the New York Times and Dallas Morning News, 2000-2009, 38 *J. Urb. Hist.* 1094, 1096 (2012).
- 158 *Id.* (citing John Archer, Architecture and Suburbia: From English Villa to American Dream House, 1690-2000 (2005); Barbara M. Kelly, Expanding the American Dream: Building and Rebuilding Levittown (1993)).
- 159 Fischel, *supra* note 127, at 80-81. According to Fischel’s analysis, homeowners are heavily invested in the value of their homes. For most homeowners, their home is their largest asset, by far, and their wealth is not diversified. The typical homeowner simply cannot afford to risk the value of his or her home. As a result, homeowners are unlikely to favor new development that they perceive as a threat to their property values or that is likely to increase the cost of public- services provision, thereby increasing local property taxes. *Id.* at 4. Whether rental housing has these deleterious effects is not a question Fischel tackles, nor is it one that I attempt to answer here. Two things are clear: homeowners perceive that rental housing has negative impacts, and they act on that perception.
- 160 See *id.*

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- <sup>161</sup> See Vicki Been, Josiah Madar & Simon McDonnell, *Urban Land-Use Regulation: Are Homevoters Overtaking the Growth Machine?*, 11 *J. Empirical Legal Stud.* 227 (2014).
- <sup>162</sup> Lee Anne Fennell, *Contracting Communities*, 2004 *U. Ill. L. Rev.* 829, 829; see also Gerald Korngold, *The Emergence of Private Land Use Controls in Large-Scale Subdivisions: The Companion Story to Village of Euclid v. Ambler Realty Co.*, 51 *Case W. Res. L. Rev.* 617, 619 (2001) (citing statistics that 2.58% of housing units were located in homeowners' association developments in 1975, a percentage that increased to 14.67% in 1998).
- <sup>163</sup> Fennell, *supra* note 162, at 830.
- <sup>164</sup> Robert H. Nelson, *Privatizing the Neighborhood: A Proposal To Replace Zoning with Private Collective Property Rights to Existing Neighborhoods*, 7 *Geo. Mason L. Rev.* 827, 831 (1999).
- <sup>165</sup> See, e.g., *Johnston v. Metro. Gov't of Nashville & Davidson Cnty.*, 320 S.W.3d 299, 304 (Tenn. Ct. App. 2009); see also *infra* note 171.
- <sup>166</sup> *Johnston*, 320 S.W.3d at 304 (citing council members' e-mail correspondence in advance of designation of the Belmont-Hillsboro neighborhood conservation district in Nashville).
- <sup>167</sup> Homeowners who have the desire to control their neighbors' behavior and land-use choices have a strong financial incentive to do so. "Studies consistently demonstrate that just about any change in the character of one's neighborhood can have a quantifiable impact-either positive or negative-on local property values." Stahl, *supra* note 122, at 948.
- <sup>168</sup> The notion that the desire to control one's neighbor's architectural and aesthetic choices is a modern one is not uncontested. One neighbor testified before the Noank Zoning Commission, which was acting in its capacity as a sublocal design- review board, I would propose that you only have to look as far as New England literature of the 18th and 19th Century, starting with the Scarlet Letter, which everybody read in tenth grade, to understand that though they were not written laws, there were certainly social strictures, there were social behaviors-this is the land of shunning and social regulation on what people would build, what people would wear.  
Application of Thomas and Elizabeth Halsey for a Certificate of Design Appropriateness To Construct a New Single Family Dwelling at 28 Potter Court, at 30 (Noank Fire Dist. Zoning Comm'n July 17, 2012). Perhaps the desire is not a modern invention, but the use of regulations and public law to effectuate that desire certainly is.
- <sup>169</sup> See, e.g., Robert H. Nelson, *Private Neighborhoods and the Transformation of Local Government* 4 (2005); Robert C. Ellickson, *New Institutions for Old Neighborhoods*, 48 *Duke L.J.* 75 (1998); Fischel, *supra* note 10; Stahl, *supra* note 122, at 949-50 (arguing in favor of sublocal zoning regulations); Wiseman, *supra* note 10, at 702 ("Several scholars have accordingly suggested that public communities should be able to form their own private homeowners' associations and covenants."). The sources cited by Wiseman generally advocate for creation of sublocal institutions that provide services, however, rather than regulate land use.
- <sup>170</sup> See Fischel, *supra* note 10, at 342-49; Wiseman *supra* note 10, at 732.
- <sup>171</sup> See, e.g., *Johnston*, 320 S.W.3d at 304; Town of Chapel Hill, North Carolina, *Frequently Asked Questions About Neighborhood Conservation Districts*, available at <http://www.townofchapelhill.org/home/showdocument?id=755> (comparing neighborhood conservation districts to restrictive covenants); Rob Warren, *Urbana City Council Discusses Tax Rate, Neighborhood Plan*, *Daily Illini* (Oct. 24, 2006, 12:00 AM), [http://www.dailyillini.com/news/article\\_a2680e69-4314-5579-8287-0bdd6423d9ed.html](http://www.dailyillini.com/news/article_a2680e69-4314-5579-8287-0bdd6423d9ed.html) (quoting city council member decrying similarity between proposed conservation district plan and "the restrictive covenant of

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sub-divisions”).

- <sup>172</sup> Even homeowners in subdivisions encumbered by restrictive covenants may seek to adopt neighborhood conservation districts if they are dissatisfied with the protections offered by the restrictive covenants. For example, restrictive covenants must be enforced privately, in litigation initiated by neighbors or homeowners’ associations. Neighborhood conservation districts are instead enforced by a local government, even where administration may be sublocal. See *infra* note 238 and accompanying text. As neighborhood conservation districts continue to proliferate, it is likely that they will become more common in newer suburban subdivisions that are also encumbered by restrictive covenants. This phenomenon will echo the evolution of zoning at the beginning of the last century. Fischel points out that early twentieth century suburbs utilized both early zoning ordinances and restrictive covenants to prioritize the development of owner-occupied single-family homes. William A. Fischel, *An Economic History of Zoning and a Cure for Its Exclusionary Effects*, 41 *Urb. Stud.* 317, 325 (2004) (“[T]here is evidence that covenants and zoning developed side-by-side. . . . Even where they are comprehensive, covenants may not convey enough control over development to satisfy its residents.”).
- <sup>173</sup> See Dolores Hayden, *Building Suburbia: Green Fields and Urban Growth, 1820-2000*, at 71-96 (2003); Kenneth T. Jackson, *Crabgrass Frontier: The Suburbanization of the United States* 20-44 (1985).
- <sup>174</sup> See Eric Jaffe, *The Suburbs are Dead, Long Live the Suburbs*, Atlantic CityLab (Aug. 27, 2013), <http://www.theatlanticcities.com/housing/2013/08/suburbs-are-dead-long-live-suburbs/6680/>. Jed Kolko, chief economist at Trulia, a real-estate website, recently observed that price gains on the website in 2013 were stronger in urban neighborhoods. Jed Kolko, *Home Prices Rising Faster in Cities Than in the Suburbs-Most of All in Gayborhoods*, Trulia Trends (June 25, 2013), <http://trends.truliablog.com/2013/06/home-prices-rising-faster-in-cities/>.
- <sup>175</sup> Ellickson et al., *supra* note 14, at 4 (“[H]ouseholds are locating in larger cities at an increasing rate . . . although the majority of the population in urbanized areas lives in the suburbs, in recent decades, the central city has seen small relative gains.”).
- <sup>176</sup> *Id.*
- <sup>177</sup> See, e.g., Emily Badger, *America’s Driving Less, and This Evidence Suggests It’s Not About the Economy*, Atlantic CityLab (Aug. 29, 2013), <http://www.theatlanticcities.com/commute/2013/08/americas-driving-less-and-evidence-suggests-it-cant-be-just-about-economy/6706/> (citing U.S. Pub. Interest Research Grp., *Moving off the Road: A State-by-State Analysis of the National Decline in Driving* (2013), available at [http://www.uspirg.org/sites/pirg/files/reports/Moving\\_Off\\_the\\_Road\\_USPIRG.pdf](http://www.uspirg.org/sites/pirg/files/reports/Moving_Off_the_Road_USPIRG.pdf)); Emily Badger, *Yet More Evidence of Peak Car*, Atlantic CityLab (July 23, 2013), <http://www.theatlanticcities.com/commute/2013/07/yet-more-evidence-peak-car/6299/> (citing Michael Sivak, Univ. of Mich. Transp. Research Inst., *Has Motorization in the U.S. Peaked? Part 2: Use of Light-Duty Vehicles* (2013), available at <http://deepblue.lib.umich.edu/bitstream/handle/2027.42/98982/102950.pdf>).
- <sup>178</sup> See, e.g., Louise Keely, Bart van Ark, Gad Levanon & Jeremy Burbank, Demand Inst., *The Shifting Nature of U.S. Housing Demand* 25-26 (2012), available at <http://www.demandinstitute.org/sites/default/files/blog-uploads/tdihousingdemand.pdf> (“[A] trend toward accessible locations, reflecting householders’ preference for living in areas where they can walk to local stores and other amenities, makes certain urban areas more attractive than the suburbs and rural areas.”).
- <sup>179</sup> See, e.g., Jenny Surane, *Chapel Hill Works To Increase Affordable Rental Housing*, Daily Tar Heel (Aug. 26, 2013, 6:31 PM), <http://www.dailytarheel.com/article/2013/08/affordable-rental-0827> (quoting local housing advocate who argued that “the problem with the availability in affordable rental housing for Chapel Hill’s workforce began when students moved into low-income neighborhoods throughout the town and rented homes originally slated as single-family units”).

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- 180 See Adrian Scott Fine & Jim Lindberg, Taming the Teardown Trend, F. News (Nat'l Trust for Historic Pres., Wash., D.C.), July-Aug. 2002, available at [http://www.preservationnation.org/information-center/sustainable-communities/creating/teardowns/teardowns\\_executive\\_summary.pdf](http://www.preservationnation.org/information-center/sustainable-communities/creating/teardowns/teardowns_executive_summary.pdf).
- 181 For a discussion of McMansions, see *infra* notes 202-11 and accompanying text.
- 182 See, e.g., Miller, *supra* note 45, at 2 (“[N]eighborhood conservation districts provide a means to protect character-defining streetscapes in older areas threatened by new development . . .”).
- 183 Half Crown-Marsh Neighborhood Conservation Dist. Consolidation Study Comm., *supra* note 136, at 12 (emphasis added).
- 184 Hilary Schoendorf, A Closer Look at Neighborhood Conservation Districts: West Hillsborough Neighborhood, NC 7 (Apr. 13, 2007) (unpublished Master’s paper) (emphasis added), available at <https://cdr.lib.unc.edu/record?jsessionid=0142327F050AE462337D6E782236784C?id=uuid%3A5032e816-4bbb-445c-a3d0-4c6bd81eb14f>.
- 185 Rob Shapard, Greenwood Residents Fight Splitting of Lots, Herald-Sun (Durham, N.C.), Apr. 15, 2005, at 1 (alterations in original) (emphasis added), available at 2005 WLNR 6815119.
- 186 Lovelady, *supra* note 10, at 166-67; see also Elizabeth Sappenfield, Dealing With Development Pressure: Preservation Strategies for Desirable Neighborhoods, Preservation N.C. (2008), <http://web.archive.org/web/20090618142746/http://www.presnc.org/Features/Dealing-with-Development-Pressure> (“Recently the City of Raleigh Planning Department conducted a survey of the best management practices for protecting neighborhood character and concluded that rezoning, neighborhood conservation districts, and local historic districts are at the top of the list.”).
- 187 Conventional zoning’s distaste for apartment buildings dates back to the first zoning ordinances adopted in the United States. Despite the fact that restrictions on apartment buildings were not at issue in the Supreme Court’s seminal zoning case, the Court nevertheless seized the opportunity to denounce the development of apartment buildings in single-family residential neighborhoods and, in an oft-cited diatribe against dense housing, the Court worried that allowing even a single apartment building could act as a “parasite” and do irreversible damage to a previously bucolic suburban setting. *Vill. of Euclid v. Ambler Realty Co.*, 272 U.S. 365, 394-95 (1926). In fact, Fischel argues that “[t]he attraction of city-wide zoning was the security it gave to early 20th-century home-builders and home-owners [that] [o]nce zoning was adopted, they were no longer completely uncertain whether the nearby tract of undeveloped land or land ripe for redevelopment would be put for some use that was incompatible with their own.” Fischel, *supra* note 172, at 318. While Fischel recognizes the role that apartment buildings and rental housing played in the ubiquitous adoption of zoning codes in municipalities across the country, he does not question the underlying assumption that single-family houses and apartment buildings are “incompatible.” *Id.*
- 188 See, e.g., Matt Dees, Resident’s Plans Divide Historic Neighborhood, News & Observer (Raleigh, N.C.), Apr. 19, 2005, at B1 (“The proposed rezoning would prevent the type of ‘minor subdivision’ for which [one local developer] has applied.”); Joe Schwartz, Freeze in Chapel Hill Halts Development, *Indep. Weekly* (Durham, N.C.), June 22, 2011, at 5, available at 2011 WLNR 13073237; Shapard, *supra* note 185 (“Greenwood residents started organizing [in support of a conservation district] in earnest this year in reaction to a building company’s plans to tear down a home at 907 Greenwood Road and divide the lot into two for new homes.”).
- 189 See, e.g., Eric Damian Kelly, Neighborhood Integrity and Rental Housing, College Station Texas: Consultant’s Synthesis of Issues from Meetings 2 (Feb. 4, 2008) (unpublished manuscript), available at <http://www.cstx.gov/Modules/ShowDocument.aspx?documentid=3963> (“Most who spoke appeared to accept the concepts of

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neighborhood petitions and some degree of neighborhood self-determination, policies that underlie the City's new Neighborhood Conservation District; many seemed to believe that the Neighborhood Conservation process could be expanded to include limitations on future rental housing.").

- <sup>190</sup> See, e.g., Mark Schultz & Meiling Arounnarath, Glen Lennox Wants Meeting, *Chapel Hill News* (Raleigh, N.C.), June 11, 2008, at A1 ("Previous requests for NCDs have sought protections against long-term trends-duplexes, teardowns, tree clearing . . .").
- <sup>191</sup> Ron Berman, Reaction to Cambridge's Comprehensive Rezoning Proposal, *Banner* (Cambridge, Md.), Aug. 7, 2013, at 5, available at 2013 WLNR 19481399.
- <sup>192</sup> Katelyn Ferral, Rules Target Student Rentals-Coalition Wants To Limit Temporary Residents in Pine Knolls, Northside, *Chapel Hill News* (Raleigh, N.C.), Nov. 9, 2011, at 1A.
- <sup>193</sup> See, e.g., Miller, *supra* note 45, at 2, 12 (discussing Annapolis conservation district intended to prevent construction of waterfront condominiums); Joe Schwartz, A Delicate Balance, *Indep. Weekly* (Durham, N.C.), June 16, 2010, at 16, available at 2010 WLNR 13214345.
- <sup>194</sup> See, e.g., Schwartz, *supra* note 188.
- <sup>195</sup> See Schwartz, *supra* note 193 ("We're not fighting the students [who make up the majority of renters], what we're fighting for is preservation of our neighborhood. . . . We're trying to keep that feel, and [tightening conservation- district regulations] is the only way we know how."); see also Latifi, *supra* note 32 (quoting an observer of a battle between a developer and local residents as commenting that the developer may have "underestimated the community's psychological ownership" of an area).
- <sup>196</sup> McClurg, *supra* note 36, at 33.
- <sup>197</sup> The term McMansion typically refers to homes that are large by historic standards and are located on suburban-sized lots, a half-acre or more, far from center cities. In the context of neighborhood conservation districts, however, the term McMansion takes on a slightly different meaning. Neighborhood conservation districts are not designed to address homogenous subdivisions consisting of large homes on suburban lots, a phenomenon commonly known as sprawl. Instead, they are designed to address teardowns and "mansionization."  
"[M]ansionization is formally defined as 'replacing (or constructing additions to) smaller dwellings within established neighborhoods with significantly larger homes,' and is synonymous with residential infill development." Institute for Regional Excellence, Metro. Wash. Council of Gov'ts, *What To Do About . . . Mansionization . . . Encourage, Prohibit or Simply Manage? Community Impacts & Policy Alternatives 2* (2006), quoted in Paul J. Weinberg, *Mansionization and Its Ordinances: How's That Working Out for You?*, *Zoning & Plan. L. Rep.*, Feb. 2013, at 1, 2. Infill development is new construction that typically increases density or changes existing land-use patterns after an area is initially developed. Conservation districts provide a mechanism for residents to stymie their neighbors' efforts to maximize the square footage of existing homes. While regulations resisting mansionization are new, complaints about mansionization are not. Henry James, for example, famously decried the demolition of his childhood home just north of Washington Square to make way for "marble mansions and baroque ornamentation." Page, *supra* note 97, at 41.
- <sup>198</sup> See Gideon Parchomovsky & Peter Siegelman, *Cities, Property, and Positive Externalities*, 54 *Wm. & Mary L. Rev.* 211, 222-23 (2012) (summarizing major contributions to the development of property-law theory on negative externalities, illustrated by all of the described theorists through examples of individual property owners polluting the natural environment).

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- 199 See supra note 187 and accompanying text.
- 200 See supra note 187 and accompanying text. In recent years, that assumption has faced serious scrutiny by planners, particularly those who ascribe to the New Urbanism. The original Awahnee Principles that are the foundation of the New Urbanist movement provide that “[a] community should contain a diversity of housing types to enable citizens from a wide range of economic levels and age groups to live within its boundaries.” Local Gov’t Comm’n, *The Ahwahnee Principles for Resource-Efficient Communities 2* (1991) (emphasis added).
- 201 Fischel, supra note 172.
- 202 Nate Berg, *The Wildly Variable Definition of ‘McMansion,’* Atlantic CityLab (Apr. 20, 2012), <http://www.theatlanticcities.com/housing/2012/04/does-word-mcmansion-actually-mean-anything/1813/>.
- 203 Miller, supra note 157, at 1095. Miller identifies four common definitions for the term McMansion: “a large home, a home that is large compared to others, a home lacking architecturally or in its design, and a symbol for other concepts such as sprawl and excessive consumption.” Id. at 1099.
- 204 Catherine Durkin, Comment, *The Exclusionary Effect of “Mansionization”: Area Variances Undermine Efforts To Achieve Housing Affordability*, 55 *Cath. U. L. Rev.* 439, 439-41 (2006). While the resistance to McMansions might suggest that conservation districts are not motivated by desires to preserve property values, the rhetoric is not quite so clear. Some advocates of conservation districts argue, for example, that McMansions decrease the value of existing homes by reducing that value to “lot value.” These advocates argue that prohibiting McMansions will, as a result, preserve or increase home values. See, e.g., *Frequently Asked Questions, Belmont Addition Conservation District*, <http://belmontconservation.com/ordinance-and-forms/frequently-asked-questions/>.
- 205 Tamara Mullen, Comment, *The McMansion: Architecture’s Role in Facilitating Urban Sprawl and Farmland Loss*, 12 *Drake J. Agric. L.* 255, 257-59 (2007).
- 206 Leigh Gallagher, *The End of the Suburbs: Where the American Dream Is Moving* 69 (2013) (quoting the Oxford English Dictionary’s definition of McMansion, “a large modern house that is considered ostentatious and lacking in architectural integrity”).
- 207 Dwight H. Merriam, *The 1999 ZiPLeRs: The Fifth Annual Zoning and Planning Law Report Land Use Decision Awards*, *Zoning & Plan. L. Rep.*, Feb. 2000, at 9, 15 (noting a homeowners’ association’s attempt to block construction of a “15,000 square-foot cottage”).
- 208 Daniel Goldberg, *Coker Hills District Wins OK-The Neighborhood Conservation Rules Will Take Affect Jan. 1*, *Herald-Sun* (Durham, N.C.), Oct. 9, 2007, at 1 (“Supporters [of adopting a conservation district] have said that the new rules will guard against people subdividing larger lots and constructing additions that are not in harmony with the surrounding area.”).
- 209 Lisa Keen, *Voters Approve Districts To Help Limit McMansions*, *Bos. Globe*, May 6, 2007, at 3, available at 2007 WLNR 8775763.
- 210 Adam Johnson, *Minnetonka Could Become First MN City To Implement So-Called “McMansion Policy,”* *Fin. & Com.* (Minneapolis, Minn.), Aug. 29, 2006, available at 2006 WLNR 27176787.



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- 211 Mike Greenberg, Design Rules Could Match Neighborhood, San Antonio Express-News, Nov. 24, 2000, at 01B, available at 2000 WLNR 9685253.
- 212 Metro. Historic Zoning Comm'n, Metro. Gov't of Nashville & Davidson Cnty., Hillsboro-West End Neighborhood Conservation Zoning 13-14 (rev. ed. 2012), available at <http://www.nashville.gov/Portals/0/SiteContent/MHZC/docs/Preservation%20Permits/Maps%20and%20Guidelines/HWE2012.pdf>.
- 213 Id. at 21.
- 214 See Nashville & Davidson Cnty., Tenn., Code of Ordinances § 17.16.030(F)(10) (Supp. 2014).
- 215 Ray Gronberg, Bill Targets Neighborhood-Protection Zones, Herald-Sun (Durham, N.C.), Mar. 17, 2013, at A1, available at 2013 WLNR 6629454; Schwartz, supra note 188.
- 216 Ferral, supra note 192.
- 217 See Fischel, supra note 172, at 332.
- 218 Asking whether neighborhood conservation districts are efficient is really asking two different questions. First, do these districts effectively and without unnecessarily wasting resources meet their own stated goal-to protect and conserve existing neighborhoods? Conservation districts vary in this regard, and it is difficult to generalize across districts. Chapel Hill's first neighborhood conservation district, for the Northside neighborhood, was adopted in February 2004. See Chapel Hill Town Council, Northside Neighborhood Conservation District Plan (2004), available at <http://www.townofchapelhill.org/home/showdocument?id=12179>. Six years later, however, the local planning board and neighborhood residents presented a petition to the city council protesting that the conservation district was ineffective at stemming development pressures in the neighborhood. Town of Chapel Hill, Northside and Pine Knolls Community Plan 7 (2012), available at <http://www.townofchapelhill.org/home/showdocument?id=11921>. Second, do these districts result in or exacerbate inefficiencies in the housing market? Given conservation districts' shared characteristics, as described in Part II, supra, it is possible to draw some conclusions about this second question.
- 219 See supra notes 99-105 and accompanying text.
- 220 See supra notes 175-80 and accompanying text.
- 221 See, e.g., Chapel Hill, N.C., Code of Ordinances app. A § 3.6.5 (including the promotion and retention of affordable housing as one purpose for the creation of neighborhood conservation districts), reprinted in Sample Conservation District Ordinance Provisions, 21 Preservation L. Rep. 1059, 1078 (2002-03); San Antonio, Tex., Unified Development Code § 35-335 (Supp. 2014) (including promotion and retention of affordable housing as a goal of neighborhood conservation districts); see also infra note 232.
- 222 See Malachi Reid Peacock, Neighborhood Conservation Districts and Their Relevance to Historic Preservation in the 21st Century 12 (2009) (unpublished Master's thesis), available at [https://getd.libs.uga.edu/pdfs/peacock\\_malachi\\_r\\_200908\\_mhp.pdf](https://getd.libs.uga.edu/pdfs/peacock_malachi_r_200908_mhp.pdf) ("Affordable housing and property values are protected by neighborhood conservation districts because teardowns-to-McMansions are not permitted to gentrify neighborhoods and negatively influence the property values of existing residents.").



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- 223 Cf. Schoendorf, *supra* note 184, at 57 (“Without any protective mechanism in place, West Hillsborough may fall victim to large out of scale development . . . [L]ow-income or fixed-income residents will be priced out, and the neighborhood will start to gentrify . . . Consequently, Hillsborough’s supply of affordable housing will be reduced.”).
- 224 See Edward L. Glaeser & Joseph Gyourko, *The Impact of Building Restrictions on Housing Affordability*, Fed. Res. Bank N.Y. Econ. Pol. Rev., June 2003, at 21 (“[H]ousing is expensive because of artificial limits on construction created by the regulation of new housing.”); see also Matthew Yglesias, *The Rent is Too Damn High* (2012).
- 225 As discussed in note 257, *infra*, preservation of property values is an oft-cited rationale for aesthetic land-use regulations. Given the impact that aesthetic regulations have on restricting supply, aesthetic land-use regulations preserve property values in part simply because they artificially restrict supply, thus inflating prices—not, as advocates often argue, because the regulations themselves add value.
- 226 See, e.g., Edward L. Glaeser, Joseph Gyourko, & Raven E. Saks, *Why Have Housing Prices Gone Up?* (Nat’l Bureau of Econ. Research, Working Paper No. 11129, 2005); Matthew Yglesias, *Housing Affordability Is Blue America’s Greatest Failing*, *Vox* (Dec. 15, 2014, 10:45 A.M.), <http://www.vox.com/2014/8/28/6063679/the-biggest-thing-the-blue-states-are-screwing-up>; see also John Mangin, *The New Exclusionary Zoning*, 25 *Stan. L. & Pol’y Rev.* 91, 93 n.10 (2014) (collecting sources).
- 227 Mangin, *supra* note 226, at 93.
- 228 Glaeser, *supra* note 98, at 147 (“Indeed, opposing new building is the surest way to make a popular area unaffordable.”).
- 229 See generally Samuel Brody, *The Characteristics, Causes, and Consequences of Sprawling Development Patterns in the United States*, 4 *Nature Educ. Knowledge*, no. 5, 2013, at 2, available at <http://www.nature.com/scitable/knowledge/library/the-characteristics-causes-and-consequences-of-sprawling-103014747> (“[N]egative impacts include, among others, air pollution resulting from automobile dependency, water pollution caused in part by increases in impervious surfaces, the loss or disruption of environmentally sensitive areas . . . reductions in open space, increased flood risks, and overall reductions in quality of life.”).
- 230 These effects occur on both the micro- and macroeconomic levels. See Schleicher, *supra* note 11, at 1692-93 (collecting sources).
- 231 See, e.g., Paul Krugman, *Op-Ed, Stranded by Sprawl*, *N.Y. Times*, July 29, 2013, at A17 (“[D]isadvantaged workers often find themselves stranded; there may be jobs available somewhere, but they literally can’t get there.” (citing Raj Chetty, Nathaniel Hendren, Patrick Klein & Emmanuel Saez, *The Equality of Opportunity Project* (2013), available at <http://obs.rc.fas.harvard.edu/chetty/website/IGE/Executive%20Summary.pdf>)). The use of design regulations to exclusionary effect is not limited to the housing sphere. Beaver Creek, Ohio, a suburb of Dayton, applied design criteria to refuse to install bus stops necessary to the introduction of regional bus service, which would allow Dayton residents access to a hospital, large shopping center, and employment in Beaver Creek. Ultimately, advocates succeeded in forcing Beaver Creek to accept bus service only by invoking Title VI of the Federal Civil Rights Act. See Anita Hairston, *Transportation Equity: A Civil Rights Issue*, Remarks for the Leadership Conference Education Fund (July 1, 2014), transcript available at [http://equitycaucus.org/sites/default/files/Transript%20for%20TEC%20Jul%201%202014%Webinar\\_1.pdf](http://equitycaucus.org/sites/default/files/Transript%20for%20TEC%20Jul%201%202014%Webinar_1.pdf).
- 232 Advocates often argue that adoption of a neighborhood conservation district will increase property values. See, e.g., Sappenfield, *supra* note 186 (“[I]t makes sense to protect your neighborhood character and, by doing so, protect your own property value.”); Michael Benham, *Conservation District Not Right for Settlement Neighborhood*, *Wicked Local* (Nov. 10, 2012, 10:14 A.M.),

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[http://www.wickedlocal.com/brookline/news/x481717181/Column-Conservation-district-not-right-for-Settlement-neighborhood?z\\_c\\_p=1](http://www.wickedlocal.com/brookline/news/x481717181/Column-Conservation-district-not-right-for-Settlement-neighborhood?z_c_p=1) (“I have heard claims that this NCD will increase our property value, but have not seen any type of study or actual evidence of that.”); Frequently Asked Questions, Kessler Neighbors United, <http://kesslerpark.org/about/conservationdistrict/cdfaq/> (“We believe that becoming a conservation district can protect and possibly increase property values.”); Laura Ward, The Lower Jefferson Conservation District, Univ. Mo., <http://web.missouri.edu/~wardla/lowerjeffersonconservationdistrict.html> (last revised Aug. 9, 2009) (“A neighborhood conservation district helps a neighborhood . . . stabilize and improve property values . . .”). The inherent contradiction apparent in much of conservation district advocacy—that conservation districts will simultaneously increase property values and increase affordability—is discussed in Part IV.A.3, *infra*.

<sup>233</sup> See, e.g., N.Y.C. Indep. Budget Office, *The Impact of Historic Districts on Residential Property Values* 8 (2003), available at <http://www.ibo.nyc.ny.us/iboreports/HistoricDistricts03.pdf> (“IBO found clear evidence that after controlling for property and neighborhood characteristics, market values of properties in historic districts were higher than those outside historic districts for every year in our study.”); Robin M. Leichenko, N. Edward Coulson & David Listokin, *Historic Preservation and Residential Property Values: An Analysis of Texas Cities*, 38 *Urb. Stud.* 1973, 1973 (2001) (“Results suggest that, in most cases, historic designation is associated with higher property values.”); Dan S. Rickman, *Neighborhood Historic Preservation Status and Housing Values in Oklahoma County, Oklahoma*, 39 *J. Regional Analysis & Pol’y* 99, 99 (2009), available at <http://ageconsearch.umn.edu/bitstream/132429/2/09-2-1.pdf> (“Neighborhood historic designation is found to be associated with significant relative appreciation of housing values in most districts.”); M. Keivan Deravi, *Property Value Appreciation for Historic Districts in Alabama 1-7* (July 31, 2002) (unpublished report submitted to the Alabama Historical Commission summarizing literature assessing the impact of historical districts on property values).

<sup>234</sup> The lack of affordable housing in urban and suburban areas and the negative impacts resulting from that lack of housing are well-documented. See, e.g., Gabriella Chiarenza, *Fed. Reserve Bank of S.F., Challenges for Affordable Housing in a New Era of Scarcity*, *Community Investments*, Spring 2013, at 3, 3-4 (collecting statistics demonstrating the current lack of affordable housing and projections of increased demand pressure in the future); Lance Freeman, *America’s Affordable Housing Crisis: A Contract Unfulfilled*, 92 *Am. J. Pub. Health* 709, 709 (2002) (“[I]n many expensive urban centers even used housing is beyond the means of many low-income households.”).

<sup>235</sup> Stahl, *supra* note 122, at 948-50 (advocating sublocal zoning but ignoring the history of neighborhood conservation districts); see also Stephen R. Miller, *Legal Neighborhoods*, 37 *Harv. Envtl. L. Rev.* 105, 149-52 (2013) (describing favorably rezoning processes that incorporate neighborhood-level input but omitting from discussion any reference to neighborhood conservation districts).

<sup>236</sup> Tad Heuer, in an article on a historic district in New Haven, Connecticut, describes “second-party enforcement, defined for these purposes as the enforcement of communal standards by other members of the community, relying on the community’s own internal social norms rather than on external ‘third-party’ enforcement by official governmental entities.” Tad Heuer, *Living History: How Homeowners in a New Local Historic District Negotiate Their Legal Obligations*, 116 *Yale L.J.* 768, 802 (2007). “First-party enforcement” is self-enforcement, where property owners simply obey the strictures of the historic-district regulations. With respect to second-party enforcement, Heuer found that “all violations [are] not deemed to be equal.” *Id.* at 803. In the words of one property owner, “I like the idea of the historic district a lot, but I do think that they need to be a bit more flexible on things like windows, particularly for some of the elderly on fixed incomes. Oil is becoming so expensive, and people really need to be able to save money on their fuel costs, and making sure you have insulated windows is a big part of that.” *Id.* at 804.

<sup>237</sup> *Id.*; cf. Heather K. Gerken, *The Supreme Court, 2009 Term—Foreword: Federalism All the Way Down*, 124 *Harv. L. Rev.* 4, 28-33, 47 (2010) (arguing that substate and sublocal institutions can serve as vehicles for minority rule and promote democratic values by initiating dialogue with other institutions).

<sup>238</sup> Alternatively, a neighborhood may choose to adopt a neighborhood conservation district because it prefers public-local-rather than private-sublocal-administration of design guidelines. In Coker Hills, a neighborhood in Chapel Hill, the local homeowners’ association successfully advocated for adoption of a neighborhood conservation district to replicate the association’s own design

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guidelines, embodied in a restrictive covenant. See Town of Chapel Hill, Comparison of Neighborhood Covenant Restrictions and Current Zoning Regulations (2006). The homeowners' association had tired of the time, expense, and neighborhood discord borne of privately enforcing the restrictive covenant. The neighborhood conservation district provided a mechanism for imposing that cost and bad will on the municipality. Conservation-district advocates told the town council that they "merely want the covenant to be reflected in town law. This would shift enforcement responsibility to the town from the neighborhood association, whose only recourse is to sue an offending property owner." Matt Dees, Zoning Rancor Saddens Council, News & Observer (Raleigh, N.C.), May 16, 2006, at B1. Houston, Texas, will enforce violations of restrictive covenants. This use of public resources and authority to enforce private property interests and contracts replicates a kind of zoning authority despite the oft-cited claim that there is no zoning in Houston. Teddy M. Kapur, Land Use Regulation in Houston Contradicts the City's Free Market Reputation, 34 *Env'tl. L. Rep.* 10045, 10050 (2004). It is far from clear why a municipality would willingly take on an assignment of responsibility to incur costs and bad will to enforce private contracts. This fact suggests that there is a vocal-minority, silent-majority problem here.

239 Because the model assumes that there are no externalities, the sorts of regional problems that would be best addressed at the national, state, or regional level are unaccounted for in the basic Tiebout model. Tiebout, *supra* note 123, at 419; see also Bratton & McCahery, *supra* note 126, at 231 ("The Tiebout model unrealistically assumes the absence of externalities.").

240 Tiebout, *supra* note 123, at 423.

241 Briffault, *supra* note 124, at 528.

242 This bifurcation of the adoption process may be in response to case law that suggests that pure assignment of zoning authority to a sublocal district would be an unconstitutional delegation of legislative authority. *Washington ex rel. Seattle Title Trust Co. v. Roberge*, 278 U.S. 116 (1928); *Thomas Cusack Co. v. City of Chicago*, 242 U.S. 526 (1917); *Eubank v. City of Richmond*, 226 U.S. 137 (1912); see also Stahl, *supra* note 122, at 957-62 (discussing the cases); Frank I. Michelman, *Political Markets and Community Self-Determination: Competing Judicial Models of Local Government Legitimacy*, 53 *Ind. L.J.* 145, 164-77 (1977-78) (reconciling the cases). The bifurcated process is also consistent with Briffault's description of sublocal institutions' operations. See generally Briffault, *supra* note 124.

243 Vicki Been, *Community Benefits Agreements: A New Local Government Tool or Another Variation on the Exactions Theme?*, 77 *U. Chi. L. Rev.* 5, 26 (2010) (comparing neighborhood-level planning to local planning in the context of neighborhood-level negotiation of community-benefits agreements).

244 See, e.g., Hengen & Baldwin, *supra* note 116.

245 See, e.g., Schleicher, *supra* note 11, at 1731.

246 While renters may not be represented during the sublocal approval process, they will be represented when citywide approval is considered. If, in practice, the local government simply defers to the sublocal decision to adopt a conservation district, then either (1) there is no local interest that is negatively affected by adoption of the district or (2) the local adoption process fails to account for negative impacts on the local community. The latter explanation is consistent with the homevoter hypothesis and newspaper accounts of conservation-district adoption. In addition, notably, where design-review commission members must be property owners- even if renters participate in the decision to adopt a conservation district-renters will be excluded from administration of that district.

247 See, e.g., Chapel Hill, N.C., Code of Ordinances app. A § 3.6.5(c)(2)(A) (Supp. 2014) (empowering owners representing fifty-one percent of the land area within a district, or fifty-one percent of property owners, to initiate the process for a neighborhood conservation district by referendum).

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248 See, e.g., Cambridge, Mass., Code of Ordinances § 2.78.160(A) (Supp. 2012) (guaranteeing seats on neighborhood conservation district commissions to at least two homeowners and limiting representation of those who do not live within the district). The Cambridge ordinance also prioritizes homeowners over other property owners, such as landlords or owners of commercial properties.

249 Fischel, *supra* note 172, at 326.

250 Briffault, *supra* note 124, at 505.

251 See *id.* at 519-20.

252 *Id.* at 519.

253 Ellickson, *supra* note 169, at 77.

254 *Id.* at 81-82.

255 *Id.* at 92-93.

256 To the extent that costs are passed on to tenants in the form of increased rents, tenants may, in effect, incur these costs. They will not see a benefit in the form of enhanced property values. Whether any one tenant enjoys any benefits will depend on the nature of the service provided (does the tenant appreciate the increased service provision?) and his or her ability to relocate if he or she does not value the increased service provision in an amount equal to or greater than the increase in rent, thus allowing a renter who does value the increased service provision to occupy the unit.

257 See *infra* Part IV.B.1.

258 That deploying land-use powers to increase property values, rather than to decrease rents, is a proper use of the police powers is widely accepted, though debatable. It is also a topic beyond the scope of this Article.

259 See *infra* Part IV.B.1.

260 The inefficiency results from a regulatory environment that prioritizes ever-escalating prices rather than providing an array of price points that represents the preferences of the full range of potential buyers. Because the supply of land is constrained and because housing, as a result of zoning and building codes, is a highly regulated market, there are many fewer entry-level units than there are potential entry-level buyers and renters.

261 Dallas restricts conservation districts to neighborhoods that are “stable.” According to the Dallas code, “STABLE means that the area is expected to remain substantially the same over the next 20 years with continued maintenance of the property. While some changes in structures, land uses, and densities may occur, all such changes are expected to be compatible with surrounding

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development.” Dall., Tex., City Code § 51A-4.505(a)(8) (Supp. 2014). In this way, Dallas attempts to accommodate future housing consumers by limiting conservation districts to neighborhoods that are not experiencing significant change. The development pressures that provoke neighborhood activists to adopt conservation districts, however, suggest that the term “stable” is applied liberally.

262 Typical required courses in graduate urban-planning programs include economic analysis and dynamic modeling.

263 Developers, acting in their own financial interest, can counteract sublocal land-use planning efforts by advocating for state and local restrictions on the exercise of sublocal authority. A hazard of overreaching aesthetic regulations is that those with an economic interest in unfettered development will react to the overreach by advocating for repeal of those aesthetic regulations and, perhaps, repeal of similar land-use regulations that are not overreaching. During the 2013 legislative session, North Carolina state legislators introduced two bills that would have invalidated the neighborhood conservation districts established in Chapel Hill and elsewhere in North Carolina. H.R. 150, 2013 Gen. Assemb. (N.C. 2013); S. 139, 2013 Gen. Assemb. (N.C. 2013). Both bills would have required one hundred percent of affected property owners to consent to the regulation of “building design elements” in one- and two-family homes unless the affected structures or lots were located in local historic districts. The bills defined “building design elements” broadly to include “exterior building color; type of style of exterior cladding material; style or materials or roof structures or porches; exterior nonstructural architectural ornamentation; location or architectural styling of windows and doors, including garage doors; the number and types of rooms; and the interior layout of rooms.” N.C. H.R. 150 § 1; N.C. S. 139 § 1. The North Carolina Home Builders Association, an affiliate of the National Association of Home Builders, lobbied legislators to support the bill. Though ultimately unsuccessful, the bill garnered bipartisan support. On March 20, 2013, the bill passed overwhelmingly in the house of representatives, but it later died in the senate. See House Bill 150 (= S139), N.C. Gen. Assembly, <http://www.ncleg.net/gascripts/BillLookUp/BillLookUp.pl?Session=2013&BillID=H150> (showing last action on bill as rereferral to committee). Chapel Hill Mayor Mark Kleinschmidt remarked to a Durham newspaper that the issue did not break down on party lines but, instead, on geographic lines. Gronberg, *supra* note 215. Urban legislators rallied around neighborhood conservation districts, while suburban and rural legislators voted for their demise, supporting the claim made above that neighborhood conservation districts are creatures of cities and older suburbs-areas developed prior to the proliferation of deed-restricted subdivisions and homeowners’ associations. See *id.*

264 See Been et al., *supra* note 161.

265 Wiseman, *supra* note 10, at 749 (footnote omitted).

266 For discussion of the differences between historic districts and conservation districts, see *supra* text accompanying notes 47-59.

267 Heuer, *supra* note 236, at 790.

268 Wiseman, *supra* note 10, at 760.

269 The Real Estate Settlement Procedures Act imposes various disclosure requirements in connection with residential home mortgages. 12 U.S.C. §§ 2601-2617 (2012).

270 Connecticut’s Common Interest Ownership Act imposes disclosure requirements in connection with the sale of residential condominium and cooperative units. See, e.g., Conn. Gen. Stat. Ann. §§ 47-262 to -281 (West 2009 & Supp. 2014).

271 There is some precedent for this requirement. For example, in Connecticut, whether a residential property is located in a village or

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historic district must be disclosed in the residential-condition report, a document that must, by statute, be provided by the seller to the buyer before the buyer executes either a contract to purchase or a lease with an option to purchase. Conn. Gen. Stat. Ann. § 20-327b(d)(1)(C) (West Supp. 2014).

272 Nelson, *supra* note 169, at 4.

273 Memorandum from the Mid Cambridge Neighborhood Conservation Dist. Comm'n to Applicants to the Mid Cambridge Neighborhood Conservation Dist. Comm'n (Feb. 2, 1988), available at [http://www2.cambridgema.gov/historic/MCNCD\\_guidelines.pdf](http://www2.cambridgema.gov/historic/MCNCD_guidelines.pdf).

274 See, e.g., Napa, Cal., Municipal Code § 15.52.050(D) (Supp. 2015) (“No certificate of appropriateness shall be issued unless the following findings are made: . . . The project shall be compatible with those neighborhood characteristics that result from common ways of building.” (emphasis added)); Cambridge, Mass., Code of Ordinances § 2.78.220(A) (Supp. 2012) (“In passing upon matters before it, the Historical Commission or neighborhood conservation district commission shall consider, among other things, the historic and architectural value and significance of the site or structure, the general design, arrangement, texture and material of the features involved, and the relation of such features to similar features of structures in the surrounding area. In the case of new construction or additions to existing structures a commission shall consider the appropriateness of the size and shape of the structure both in relation to the land area upon which the structure is situated and to structures in the vicinity, and a Commission may in appropriate cases impose dimensional and setback requirements in addition to those required by applicable provision of the zoning ordinance.” (emphases added)); Chapel Hill, N.C., Code of Ordinances § 3.6.5 (Supp. 2014) (“The purposes of a neighborhood conservation district in older town residential neighborhoods or commercial districts are as follows: . . . To encourage and strengthen civic pride; and [t]o encourage the harmonious, orderly and efficient growth and redevelopment of the Town.” (emphases added)); Cambridge, Mass., Avon Hill Neighborhood Conservation Dist. Designation Order § V(C)(1) (Dec. 14, 2009), available at [http://www2.cambridgema.gov/historic/AHNCD\\_order.pdf](http://www2.cambridgema.gov/historic/AHNCD_order.pdf) (amended order) (“Impacts on significant landscape features and mature plantings should be minimized.”).

275 Others have considered the question of whether design guidelines violate the Fifth Amendment because they are overly vague. Most courts to consider the question have concluded that design guidelines are not unconstitutionally vague. Compare *Morristown Rd. Assocs. v. Mayor of the Borough of Bernardsville*, 394 A.2d 157, 163 (N.J. Super. Ct. 1978) (holding design-review standards unconstitutionally vague), and *Anderson v. City of Issaquah*, 851 P.2d 744, 752 (Wash. Ct. App. 1993) (striking down a municipality’s design requirements as unconstitutionally vague), with *Novi v. City of Pacifica*, 215 Cal. Rptr. 439, 441 (Ct. App. 1985) (“California courts permit vague standards because they are sensitive to the need of government in large urban areas to delegate broad discretionary power to administrative bodies . . . .” (internal quotation marks omitted)), *State ex rel. Stoyanoff v. Berkeley*, 458 S.W.2d 305, 312 (Mo. 1970), *Nadelson v. Twp. of Millburn*, 688 A.2d 672, 677-78 (N.J. Super. Ct. 1996) (upholding design-review standards within a historic district), *A-S- P Assocs. v. City of Raleigh*, 258 S.E.2d 444, 452 (N.C. 1979), *Vill. of Hudson v. Albrecht, Inc.*, 458 N.E.2d 852, 857 (Ohio 1984), *Pinecrest Homeowners Ass’n v. Glen A. Cloninger & Assocs.*, 87 P.3d 1176, 1183 (Wash. 2004) (en banc) (distinguishing *Anderson v. City of Issaquah* while upholding design-review standards), and *State ex rel. Saveland Park Holding Corp. v. Wieland*, 69 N.W.2d 217, 224 (Wis. 1955).

276 See Nicole Stelle Garnett, *Redeeming Transect Zoning?*, 78 *Brook. L. Rev.* 571, 584 (2013) (giving examples of aesthetic, form-based codes that may be constitutional yet may present practical difficulties for property owners).

277 MetroGovNashville, 06/19/13 Historic Zoning Commission Meeting, YouTube (June 20, 2013), [https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=6cPR\\_HAatU0](https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=6cPR_HAatU0) (testimony at 00:31:41).

278 See *supra* note 73 and accompanying text.

279 See *supra* note 127 and accompanying text.



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280 Keith Wardrip, Laura Williams & Suzanne Hague, Ctr. for Hous. Policy, *The Role of Affordable Housing in Creating Jobs and Stimulating Local Economic Development* 10-13 (2011), available at <http://www.nhc.org/media/files/Housing-and-Economic-Development-Report-2011.pdf> (summarizing surveys showing that the availability and cost of housing are important considerations for employers deciding where to locate their businesses).

281 Of the states featured in this Article (California, Connecticut, Iowa, Massachusetts, Minnesota, North Carolina, Tennessee, and Texas), only Connecticut has a state authorizing statute that expressly authorizes adoption of conservation districts. Conn. Gen. Stat. Ann. § 8-2j (West Supp. 2014) (permitting zoning commissions to establish “village districts,” another name for neighborhood conservation districts). In the remainder of the states, municipalities derive the power to enact conservation districts from historic districting statutes, the general grant of zoning authority, or home-rule status. See, e.g., *Bell v. City of Waco*, 835 S.W.2d 211, 214 (Tex. App. 1992) (upholding a neighborhood conservation district as a valid exercise of the city’s police powers authorized by state law); Brief of Defendant-Appellee at 10, *Patmore v. Town of Chapel Hill*, 757 S.E.2d 302 (N.C. Ct. App. 2014) (No. 13-1049), 2013 WL 6516982 (defending parking regulations in neighborhood conservation districts as authorized under the general grant of zoning authority to North Carolina municipalities).

282 While this Article’s primary audience is state legislators, courts as well as local and sublocal actors may have roles to play as well. On the local and sublocal levels, as design-review regulations are being crafted for a particular district, planners and lawmakers must work to ensure that the regulations, in addition to meeting the strictures of authorizing statutes, anticipate change and the possibility of growth. Courts, of course, will play a role in ensuring that local governments comply with authorizing statutes and ordinances at the state and local levels.

283 See, e.g., Roderick M. Hills, Jr. & David N. Schleicher, *Balancing the “Zoning Budget,”* 62 Case W. Res. L. Rev. 81, 112-18 (2011); Schleicher, *supra* note 11, at 1720-21.

284 See *supra* notes 172-217 and accompanying text.

285 See *supra* notes 228-34 and accompanying text.

286 See, e.g., Sofia Becker, Scott Bernstein & Linda Young, Ctr. for Neighborhood Tech., *The New Real Estate Mantra: Location Near Public Transportation* (2013) available at <http://www.apta.com/resources/statistics/Documents/NewRealEstateMantra.pdf>.

287 Boise, Idaho, provides one example of a conservation-district ordinance that anticipates redevelopment. The ordinance states, in relevant part, that one purpose of the Near North End Conservation District shall be to “[a]llow for adaptive reuse of existing structures for multiple-family residential and office uses.” Boise, Idaho, City Code § 11-05-02(3)(A)(4) (Supp. 2013).

288 Ellickson et al., *supra* note 14, at 74 (noting, however, that the state statutes are not easy to classify).

289 *Id.* at 69.

290 *S. Burlington Cnty. NAACP v. Twp. of Mount Laurel*, 336 A.2d 713, 728 (N.J. 1975) (“[B]roadly speaking, the presumptive obligation arises for each such municipality affirmatively to plan and provide, by its land use regulations, the reasonable opportunity for an appropriate variety and choice of housing . . . .”); see also Conn. Gen. Stat. Ann. § 8-30g (West Supp. 2014) (describing the state’s affordable housing appeals procedure); Mass. Ann. Laws ch. 40B, § 21 (LexisNexis 2006) (same). But see Brian R. Lerman, *Mandatory Inclusionary Zoning-The Answer to the Affordable Housing Problem*, 33 B.C. Envtl. Aff. L. Rev.

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383, 402 (2006) (“The number of affordable units created by 40B-in a process that penalizes municipalities for lacking affordable developments-has been rather small.”).

- 291 See, e.g., *Builders Serv. Corp. v. Planning & Zoning Comm’n*, 545 A.2d 530, 533 n.5 (Conn. 1988) (“Zoning regulations may be made with reasonable consideration for the protection of historic factors and shall be made with reasonable consideration for the protection of existing and potential public surface and ground drinking water supplies.”).
- 292 See *Bd. of Supervisors v. Miller*, 170 N.W.2d 358, 361 (Iowa 1969) (holding that stabilization of property values is a legitimate concern of zoning).
- 293 See *First Hartford Realty Corp. v. Plan & Zoning Comm’n*, 338 A.2d 490, 496 (Conn. 1973) (“One of the proper purposes of zoning . . . is to ‘lessen congestion in the streets.’”).
- 294 See supra notes 214-17 and accompanying text.
- 295 See, e.g., Dall., Tex., City Code § 51A-4.501(e)(4), .505(c)(2) (Supp. 2014); Cambridge, Mass., Avon Hill Neighborhood Conservation Dist. Designation Order (Dec. 14, 2009), available at [http://www2.cambridgema.gov/historic/AHNCD\\_order.pdf](http://www2.cambridgema.gov/historic/AHNCD_order.pdf) (amended order).
- 296 See, e.g., Chapel Hill Town Council, Northside Neighborhood Conservation District Plan 3 (2004), available at <http://www.townofchapelhill.org/home/showdocument?id=12179> (regulating bedroom-to-bathroom ratios); see also supra note 215 and accompanying text.
- 297 Tenure, in this context, refers to whether property is owned or rented. See, e.g., Megan Glasheen & Casius Pealer, *Continuing the Conversation with Policy Makers: A Review of the Brookings Institution Report on HOPE VI*, 15 J. Affordable Housing & Community Dev. L. 104, 105 (2005).
- 298 E.g., Robert J. Shiller, *Owning a Home Isn’t Always a Virtue*, N.Y. Times, July 14, 2013, at BU6; Richard Florida, *The Link Between High Levels of Homeownership and Unemployment*, Atlantic CityLab (May 9, 2013), <http://www.theatlanticcities.com/jobs-and-economy/2013/05/link-between-high-levels-homeownership-and-unemployment/5520/>.
- 299 See supra notes 214-16 and accompanying text.
- 300 See supra note 232 and accompanying text.
- 301 See supra notes 221-22 and accompanying text.
- 302 Cf. Melissa J. Mitchell, Comment, *Cleaning Out the Closet: Using Sunset Provisions To Clean Up Cluttered Criminal Codes*, 54 Emory L.J. 1671, 1679 (2005) (arguing for the importance of regular re-examination of criminal codes).
- 303 See supra Part II.A.



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304 See supra notes 274-76 and accompanying text.

305 See supra note 261 and accompanying text.

306 See supra Part II.B.

307 E.g., Manoj Viswanathan, *Sunset Provisions in the Tax Code: A Critical Evaluation and Prescriptions for the Future*, 82 N.Y.U. L. Rev. 656 (2007).

308 Transaction costs can easily be minimized by automating certain aspects of the renewal process. For example, typically before a referendum is held, proponents must collect signatures demonstrating that some percentage of eligible voters support the referendum. That requirement need not be met for renewal of conservation districts. Instead, the municipality could automatically initiate a referendum on renewal of the conservation district one year before the conservation district would otherwise expire.

309 For discussion of the differences between historic districts and conservation districts, see supra text accompanying notes 45-57.

310 See supra note 56 and accompanying text.

311 Local historic-district ordinances, rules, and practices often require renovation and construction to comport with the Secretary of the Interior's Standards for the Treatment of Historic Properties. Compare 36 C.F.R. § 68.3 (2014) (federal standards), with Mich. Comp. Laws Ann. § 399.201-215 (West 2010), R.I. Gen. Laws § 45-24.1-1 to -10 (2009), and Savannah, Ga. Zoning Ordinances § 8- 3030 (2015). See also *Local Preservation: Local Historic District Zoning*, R.I. Hist. Preservation & Heritage Commission, [http://www.preservation.ri.gov/local/local\\_zoning.php](http://www.preservation.ri.gov/local/local_zoning.php).

312 E.g., Kevin E. McCarthy, *Village Districts Vs. Historic Districts*, Conn. Off. Legis. Res. (Dec. 22, 2003), <http://www.cga.ct.gov/2003/rpt/2003-R-0921.htm> ("A municipality can establish a [neighborhood conservation district] by amending its zoning regulations. . . . Establishment of a local historic district requires the passage of an ordinance following a study of the proposed district and the vote of property owners in the affected area in which at least two-thirds vote in favor of creating the district.").

313 Lovelady, supra note 10, at 175 ("Conservation districts are tailored to reach more neighborhoods" than are historic districts.). By "tailored," Lovelady, of course, means quite the opposite. Because these ordinances are not tailored, they are available for use in almost all neighborhoods.

314 Consider Nashville, which has six local historic districts and seventeen neighborhood conservation districts. See *MHZC District Boundaries and Design Guidelines*, Metro Gov't Nashville & Davidson County, Tenn., <http://www.nashville.gov/Historical-Commission/Services/Preservation-Permits/Districts-and-Design-Guidelines.aspx>.

315 Thomas Merrill proposes applicable criteria where direct voting by property owners is appropriate. Some of those criteria support my conclusion that property-owner voting is inappropriate in the context of neighborhood conservation districts (i.e., such districts differ from historic districts in relevant ways). See Thomas W. Merrill, *Direct Voting by Property Owners*, 77 U. Chi. L. Rev. 275, 275 (2010).

316 Rose, supra note 35, at 505.

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- 317 This is not to say that everyone benefits from designation of a historic district. Renters who prefer low rents to preserving architectural history are disadvantaged, as are property owners who value the ability to renovate a building more than they value an increase in property values due to historic-district designation.
- 318 See, e.g., 1 Rathkopf et al., supra note 1, § 1:9 (“State courts generally have ruled that the authority to enact zoning ordinances, the matters which may be regulated thereunder, and the manner in which they may be enacted or amended, must be specifically delegated to local governments for them to exercise the power to zone.”).
- 319 See supra note 30 and accompanying text.
- 320 Merrill, supra note 315.
- 321 Id. at 294. Merrill acknowledges that property ownership is a weak tool for assuring that voters are well informed. Id. (“Some residents who are not property owners, such as long-term tenants, may also be well informed about developments that affect the quality of neighborhood life . . .”).
- 322 See id. at 284 n.31 (noting the work of scholars who argue that limits on housing construction have caused increases in housing prices).
- 323 Ellickson, supra note 169, at 94-95. Where property values are driven by potential rents, the renters’ preferences impact local property value and, therefore, may affect the homeowners’ decisions regarding public-service provision. The psychic value of home ownership and the various tax benefits available to homeowners cause many homes in owner occupant-dominated neighborhoods to exceed the value that one would expect based on the present value of a rental income stream. A sales comparison will result in a higher property valuation than would an income-capitalization approach. As a result, in many neighborhoods dominated by single-family homes, renters’ preferences, even if they increase the rent that can be charged to tenants, may not be reflected in home values.
- 324 Id.
- 325 Id.
- 326 Id. at 94.
- 327 Id. at 99.
- 328 See id. at 77.
- 329 The value of living next to a small house that does not block air and light may be capitalized into the rental value. It may be outweighed by the value to the landlord of having the ability to construct a larger house, like that on the neighboring lot, and collect a higher rent for the additional square footage.

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330 Ellickson, *supra* note 169, at 99.

331 Where the relevant housing market is larger than the municipality, state legislators may wish to take a broader approach and require approval of a regional governance structure (such as a county or even the state itself) or of neighboring municipalities.

332 See *supra* Part II.B.

333 See *supra* Part III.B.1.

334 See Kevin R. Johnson, *Los Olvidados: Images of the Immigrant, Political Power of Noncitizens, and Immigration Law and Enforcement*, 1993 B.Y.U. L. Rev. 1139, 1160 (discussing silent-majority problem in the context of immigration enforcement but acknowledging that the vocal minority / silent majority problem “might be characteristic of a number of subject areas where strong (often referred to pejoratively as ‘special’) interest groups might prevail over a majority”).

335 South Music Row, Metro Gov’t Nashville & Davidson County, Tenn., <http://www.nashville.gov/Historical-Commission/Services/Preservation-Permits/Districts-and-Design-Guidelines/South-Music-Row.aspx>.

336 That the context might be dictated by five nearby homes is not an extreme example. The Noank ordinance discussed in Part II.A, *supra*, requires, for example, that context be defined by the homes within two hundred feet of the proposed structure.

337 E.g., Glen Lennox Area Neighborhood Conservation District Development (CD- 8)-Background and Process, Town Chapel Hill, <http://www.townofchapelhill.org/town-hall/departments-services/planning-and-sustainability/resources/neighborhood-conservation-district-ncd-zoning-overlays/glen-lennox-ncd-background> (“The Committee continued meeting from September of 2011 to March of 2012 to develop NCD zoning overlay regulations, design guidelines, and Guiding Principles for the Glen Lennox apartment and commercial property which are referred to as CD-8C.”).

338 Mark Schultz, *Plan ‘Done Hastily,’ Developer Says*, *News & Observer* (Raleigh, N.C.), June 26, 2008, at B1; Schultz & Arounath, *supra* note 190.

339 See, e.g., Downs, *supra* note 43 (“Community activist William Pu said that in designating Hancock Village as a conservation district . . . [the town] was acting ‘to preserve the public good from the actions of a single entity.’”).

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