

valid on its face; whether its application to diminish property values in any particular case was also valid would depend, the Court said, upon a finding that it was not “clearly arbitrary and unreasonable, having no substantial relation to the public health, safety, morals, or general welfare.”<sup>691</sup> A few years later the Court, again relying on due process rather than taking law, did invalidate the application of a zoning ordinance to a tract of land, finding that the tract would be rendered nearly worthless and that to exempt the tract would impair no substantial municipal interest.<sup>692</sup> But then the Court withdrew from the land-use scene until the 1970s, giving little attention to states and their municipalities as they developed more comprehensive zoning techniques.<sup>693</sup>

As governmental regulation of property has expanded over the years—in terms of zoning and other land use controls, environmental regulations, and the like—the Court never developed, as it admitted, a “set formula to determine where regulation ends and taking begins.”<sup>694</sup> Rather, as one commentator remarked, its decisions constitute a “crazy quilt pattern” of judgments.<sup>695</sup> Nonetheless, the Court has now formulated general principles that guide many of its decisions in the area.

In *Penn Central Transportation Co. v. City of New York*,<sup>696</sup> the Court, while cautioning that regulatory takings cases require “essentially ad hoc, factual inquiries,” nonetheless laid out general guidance for determining whether a regulatory taking has occurred. “The economic impact of the regulation on the claimant and, particularly, the extent to which the regulation has interfered with distinct investment-backed expectations are . . . relevant considerations. So too, is the character of the governmental action. A ‘taking’ may more readily be found when the interference with property can be characterized as a physical invasion by government than when

<sup>691</sup> 272 U.S. at 395. See also *Zahn v. Board of Pub. Works*, 274 U.S. 325 (1927).

<sup>692</sup> *Nectow v. City of Cambridge*, 277 U.S. 183 (1928).

<sup>693</sup> Initially, the Court’s return to the land-use area involved substantive due process, not takings. *Village of Belle Terre v. Boraas*, 416 U.S. 1 (1974) (sustaining single-family zoning as applied to group of college students sharing a house); *Moore v. City of East Cleveland*, 431 U.S. 494 (1977) (voiding single-family zoning so strictly construed as to bar a grandmother from living with two grandchildren of different children). See also *City of Eastlake v. Forest City Enterprises*, 426 U.S. 668 (1976).

<sup>694</sup> *Penn Central Transp. Co. v. City of New York*, 438 U.S. 104, 124 (1978). The phrase appeared first in *Goldblatt v. Town of Hempstead*, 369 U.S. 590, 594 (1962).

<sup>695</sup> *Dunham, Griggs v. Allegheny County in Perspective: Thirty Years of Supreme Court Expropriation Law*, SUP. CT. REV. 63 (1962). For an effort to ground takings jurisprudence in its philosophical precepts, see Michelman, *Property, Utility, and Fairness: Comments on the Ethical Foundations of ‘Just Compensation’ Law*, 80 HARV. L. REV. 1165 (1967).

<sup>696</sup> 438 U.S. 104 (1978). Justices Rehnquist and Stevens and Chief Justice Burger dissented. Id. at 138.