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FINAL REPORT

**IOWA URBAN
POLICY STUDY**

Submitted to
Office for Planning and Programming
State of Iowa
December, 1970
by
Barbara K. Bailey and
Robert J. Martineau

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and
Regional Research**

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IOWA URBAN POLICY STUDY

Submitted to the Iowa Office for
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(revised edition)

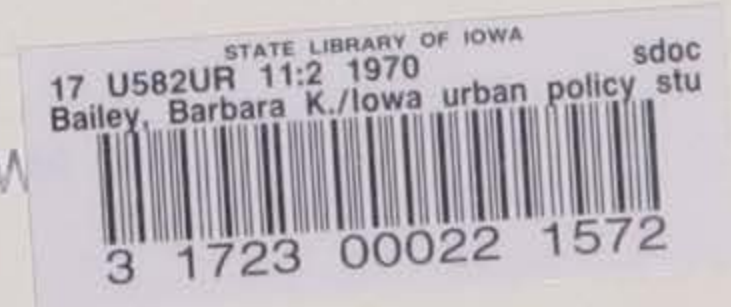
by

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The Institute of Urban and Regional Research
The University of Iowa
Iowa City, Iowa

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ROBERT D. RAY
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Director

December 22, 1970

TO: State and Local Government Officials

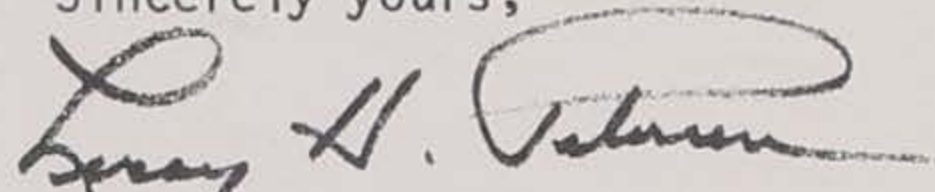
The Office for Planning and Programming has engaged the University of Iowa to conduct an Urban Area Policy Formulation Study for the State of Iowa. The purpose of the study is to evaluate present state-urban relations within Iowa and to formulate a statewide urban area policy.

Specifically the study is to:

- (1) inventory programs and activities being conducted by State agencies which serve the needs of metropolitan and local urban areas within the state;
- (2) analyze problems critical to the future growth and development of the State's urban areas and identify present efforts being made to resolve these problems; and
- (3) formulate a statewide urban area policy which will serve to identify and to delineate the role of the state in the future planning and development of its urban areas.

I urge you to read this report, and to consider seriously the recommendations made.

Sincerely yours,



LEROY H. PETERSEN

LHP:jw



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Abstract

This project, conducted by the Institute of Urban and Regional Research of the University of Iowa, is designed to develop a framework through which urban policy formulation within Iowa could become a forward looking and effective procedure. The emphases of the investigation are the study of the urbanization process in the state, Iowa urban problems, and the study of the local and state framework for urban problem solving.

Three surveys provide major sources of information for the study. The results of one survey indicate the level of concern of Iowa residents on selected urban problems. The second survey asks selected state

officials to comment on urban policies and the planning function. The third survey analyzes the Iowa Code for policies of the State of Iowa toward its urban areas.

The recommendations concern three major policy areas:

- 1) Policies for urbanization -- the growth and development of the urbanized areas of the state.

The major policies recommended are:

- a. that a State urbanization plan be formulated including the delineation of areas where future growth should and will occur,
 - b. that the State should provide the impetus for developing the growth areas indicated in the State's urbanization plan,
 - c. that new types of development ordinances and regulations be instituted on the local level and guide urbanizing areas.
- 2) Policies for governmental structure to respond more effectively to the problems of urbanization and urban areas. It is suggested that attention be given to the organization of urban functions reallocating some functions within state government, on a metropolitan basis or on the local level. A discussion of planning for urban areas is included in this section.
 - 3) Policies for improving the quality of the environment include recommended action for selected urban problems.

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INTRODUCTION

This project, conducted by the Institute of Urban and Regional Research of the University of Iowa, was designed to develop a framework through which urban policy formulation within Iowa could become a forward looking and effective procedure. The emphases of the investigation are the study of the urbanization process in the state, Iowa urban problems, and the study of the local and state framework for urban problem solving. The final report presents this framework, and also many of the specific findings and recommendations developed during the study. Five technical reports were prepared as a part of the overall study-design; primarily as reference material which persons interested in more detailed information might consider. The interim reports are:

- No. 1. Summary of Provisions of Iowa Code Affecting State Policy Toward Urban Areas.
- No. 2. The Policies of the State of Iowa Toward Its Urban Areas
- No. 3. Urbanization Patterns and Urban Problems in Iowa
- No. 4. State Framework for Urban Problem Solving in Iowa
- No. 5. Iowa Research Inventory

There were two major information sources for the study. First, literature on urbanization and urban problems including reports from State agencies and second, two surveys conducted as a part of the study. One survey indicated the level of concern of Iowa residents on selected urban problems. The other survey asked selected state officials to comment on urban policies and the planning function.

The project directors wish to acknowledge the valuable contribution of the research assistants. Special appreciation is extended to John Hultquist,

senior research assistant, who conducted several of the analyses and wrote segments of the project. The research assistants for the project were: Roland Burke, Stuart Frohm, Neil Paquette from the Graduate Program in Urban and Regional Planning and Constance Heneke, Lawrence Lynch, Larry Henry, and Jerry Rickard from the Law College. The interest of state and local officials and the many Iowa residents who took part in the surveys was invaluable to the study as was the Office for Planning and Programming.

Thanks are gratefully extended also to Linda Gray for extensive assistance in typing and research activities and to Anthea Craven for special concern and enthusiasm in typing the preliminary and final drafts. The Project Directors wish to thank Frank Horton, Director of the Institute of Urban and Regional Research, for his continuing encouragement.

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Summary of Recommendations

The following recommendations concern:

- 1) policies for urbanization--the growth and development of the urbanized areas of the state,
- 2) policies for governmental structure to respond more effectively to the problems of urbanization and urban areas,
- 3) policies for improving the quality of the environment with particular concern for crime, water and air resources, health services, poverty, housing, education, recreation and open space, and urban design.

Policies for Urbanization

There is growing recognition in the United States, that there must be urbanization policies developed to assure maximum benefits to society through the optimum use of state and national resources. This recognition is in large part due to the rapid urbanization of the nation. Iowa shares in the national trend toward increased urbanization. The state has become increasingly urbanized since 1950 and today about 70% of the state's population lives in urban areas. In order to ensure economic and social benefits to urban and rural areas in the State of Iowa urbanization policies must be adopted to guide state and local decisions affecting urban development.

There are two major reasons for the development of a coherent urban policy. First, the lack of policies and guidelines at the state level result in haphazard development which generate needless economic and social costs. Secondly, the trend toward direct Federal-local relationships, by-passing state governments, will increase unless states are willing to become active partners in the Federal-State-local governmental system.

State Urbanization Plan

A state urbanization plan must be formulated and should include the delineation of areas where future urban growth should and will occur, thereby identifying:

- 1) optimal metropolitan growth patterns, and
- 2) potential non metropolitan urban growth areas.

The state must recognize that most decisions and particularly State capital improvement programs have a decisive impact on urban areas. Decisions on highway location and water and sewage facilities directly influence urban growth. Thus, the allocation of these facilities should be consonant with statewide developmental policies. The State should, therefore, identify those areas where growth should be encouraged, and those areas where the resources should be redistributed.

Development of Growth Areas

The State should provide the impetus for developing those growth areas indicated in the State's urbanization plan by the following actions:

1. Locate public improvements such as public buildings and facilities in the growth areas.
2. Authorize State and local land development agencies to acquire land, to hold it for future use and to develop, sell or lease it to private or public agencies in concordance with State urbanization plan.
3. Coordinate highway planning with urbanization plan.
4. Provide tax incentives to induce development in designated areas.

Regulations to Guide Urbanization

Iowa should also require new types of development ordinances and regulations to guide urbanizing areas. Local governments should be compelled to adopt:

1. An "official map" reserving designated lands for specified periods of time for public uses such as public facilities, streets, parks and open space and schools.
2. Regulations requiring developers to dedicate land for park and school sites or cash payment in lieu of dedication if local government prefers (the latter might be more appropriate if, for example, the development is too small or if more suitable land would be in another tract.).
3. Regulations requiring developers to preserve specified proportions of tree cover.
4. "Planned unit development" regulations replacing conventional zoning standards but with detailed administrative review and site plan approval.
5. "Unmapped" or "floating" zones that are defined in text of zoning ordinance but are not specifically located on map.

Development policies have political, economic and social effects as well as the obvious physical effects. However, other actions essentially political and economic are necessary to effect the desired policies. Economic policies are discussed in detail in the Iowa Economic Policy Study in progress. Political policies are reviewed in the following section.

Governmental Organization

There are several advantages to organizing governmental responsibilities along functional lines. It is recommended that as a long-term objective

reorganization of the State government occur with emphasis on coordinating functions .

State authorization for area-wide government is another long-range recommendation. A one-county area may be the logical delineation of an area-wide government, in some cases, particularly when there is a major growth center in a non-metropolitan area. A metropolitan area may include several municipalities and could encompass more than one county. In rural areas it may be advantageous to consolidate several counties. The State should encourage consolidation of inefficient governmental units by increasing the State's financial assistance to those areas which voluntarily consolidate. Short-range recommendations include State authorization to local governments to:

1. Create metropolitan functional authorities with sharing of functions between cities, counties and state, and permit the formation of metropolitan governments.
2. Permit annexation by combined majority vote of city and annexed area residents.¹
3. Increase their sources of tax revenues by allowing local options to the property tax and to remove the thirty mill limitation.

Planning Function

The Office for Planning and Programming should be responsible for statewide planning which includes the preparation of a State Urbanization Plan

¹The wording of this section of the code (amendment to Sec. 362.26) requires a vote by both the city and the voters of the territory to be annexed, but appears not to require a combined vote, although it has not yet been judicially determined.

designating the areas for controlled urbanization patterns and those areas for increased governmental activities. State and area-wide planning bodies should be required to review the State's urbanization plan at regular intervals and to request and to review local comprehensive plans in relation to statewide development.

The state's planning functions should be coordinated by moving the Planning Division of the Iowa Development Commission to the Division of Municipal Affairs. It is suggested that this Division:

1. Provide technical planning assistance to cities and towns.
2. Provide information on funds and programs available both from the State and the Federal Government.
3. Be strengthened to include capabilities to make fiscal analyses of urban areas.

The preparation or review of 701 programs now under the aegis of the Iowa Development Commission should be the responsibility of the Division of Municipal Affairs. Clearly this will be of considerable benefit to smaller communities with limited or no planning capabilities.

Dissemination of information on available programs cannot be left to the initiative of the municipalities. Those communities that now engage a person to live in Washington or to travel there frequently should be able, instead, to rely on the Division of Municipal Affairs for accurate detailed information.

As shown in past reports fiscal analyses of local areas is difficult because of differing systems of municipal financing, and differing systems of accounts. A uniform fiscal reporting system needs to be adopted with the

coordination of the Division of Municipal Affairs and the State Auditor's Office.

Recommended Action for Selected Urban Problems

As suggested above one of the objectives of this study is to outline policy directions for urban areas. The planning process including program development must be undertaken by all affected parties to be truly effective. The Office for Planning and Programming and the Division of Municipal Affairs must have a major role in program development. Nine problems will be discussed with a policy for each. These problems were identified by Iowans in the Iowa Urban Problem Area Survey conducted as part of this study. They include: crime, air and water pollution, health services, economic development, responsiveness of government officials, poverty, housing, education, parks and recreation, and urban design. It should be noted that many or most of these problem areas are interrelated and are likely to be interdependent. One cannot, for example, isolate crime, housing, health and education from poverty. For purposes of this report however, the problem areas will be considered separately, but it must be kept in mind that they are highly interdependent. The recommendations below indicate the areas that warrant program development. The rationale for the program areas is stated more fully following the background material presented in the next section.

1. Crime

- a. Authorize Iowa Crime Commission to develop more accurate and uniform local reporting systems.
- b. Authorize the Iowa Crime Commission with the Office for Planning and Programming to develop additional indicators of the level of crime.

c. Program coordination by and through OPP to:

- 1). achieve more comprehensive view of crime prevention through Department of Social Services, Department of Public Instruction, Iowa Department of Public Safety.
- 2). achieve more comprehensive view of crime prevention on the local level through workshops by Division of Municipal Affairs and State and local agencies.
- 3). assure wide representation on state and regional councils including representatives of the courts, attorneys, social agencies and law enforcement officers.

2. Air and Water Pollution

- a. Coordination of air and water resource management agencies be achieved through the Office for Planning and Programming with State Conservation Commission, Iowa Natural Resources Council, the State Soil Conservation Committee, the Department of Health, and the Iowa Geological Survey.
- b. Comprehensive water resource planning and development through O.P.P. with participation of related departments and agencies, setting state goals and objectives.

3. Health services

- a. Authorization for studies of ways to provide more medical personnel.
- b. Authorization for studies to reduce the costs of medical care and to improve the delivery of services particularly to lower-income people and to low density areas.

- c. Incentives to coordinate area-wide health councils with sixteen state designated regions.

4. Housing

- a. Legislation to authorize a State non-profit housing agency to initiate low-income housing programs.
- b. Legislation to provide a uniform building code ordinance that reflects newer construction techniques.
- c. Legislation to authorize a rehabilitation program.
- d. Legislation to authorize minimum standards of locally provided low-income housing.
- e. Legislation to remove the local referendum for public housing programs.

5. Economic Development

- a. Regional economic analyses should be made by the Office for Planning and Programming.
- b. Goals for each region should be established by O.P.P. so that State capital improvements may be allocated accordingly as reflected in Statewide Urbanization Plan.

6. Education

- a. State-wide policies on education should be formulated in the Office for Planning and Programming with participation of the Department of Public Instruction, Higher Education Facilities Commission and the Board of Regents, and appointed commissions on education.
- b. Designation of physical facilities should be coordinated with the State Urbanization Plan.

7. Parks and Open Space

- a. Authorization for a State open space plan designating those areas to be preserved for public use.
- b. State enabling legislation to provide matching funds to

local areas for open space acquisition.

8. Urban Design and Community Development

- a. State authorization to use architectural competitions to encourage high levels of design for major public facilities.
- b. Increase staff of the Division of Municipal Affairs to include qualified staff to assist cities and towns in major aspects of urban design and community development.

9. Responsiveness of governmental officials

- a. Develop effective communication channels between state agencies.
- b. Develop effective communication channels between state and local agencies.
- c. Develop coordination along functional lines within the Office for Planning and Programming and the Division of Municipal Affairs to implement better communication and coordination.

URBANIZATION

The development of a state policy for the urban areas of Iowa is concerned with related but distinct phenomena: the continuing urbanization of and the pressing problems confronting Iowa's cities and towns. This report will first present a working definition of policy formulation and its application. A discussion of national urbanization policies will be followed by a section on Iowa's urbanization patterns. Urban problems will then be outlined both in terms of general descriptions and problems identified by Iowans. An administrative framework for urban problem solving will be suggested including discussions on functional reorganization of state administrative structure and local governmental reorganization. Finally, alternative urban policies will be presented with recommendations and summary.

A policy is a commitment by government to a particular goal or objective. Some policy, intended or otherwise, underlies every government action. Intelligent policy formulation can be described only in terms of decision-making within the context of the planning process. The planning process is here defined as the selection of goals and objectives and the development of alternative courses of action to achieve the agreed upon objectives, ultimately reflected in specific programming of activities and resources. One of the main values of this process is to enable the discussion of alternatives between all participants of the consequences of a proposed action. In addition, in going through this deliberative process, the possibility of the adoption of an unintended policy is lessened, and the utilization of available resources is maximized.

Decisions must be made at two points during the process: decisions as to the specific goals and objectives to be achieved, and decisions on which programs and activities should be undertaken to best achieve the objectives.

The role of the planner², is to aid the decision-maker by assisting in the development of goals and objectives among the various participating groups, delineating the broad range of alternatives available and by describing with specificity the consequences of these alternatives.

The Need for Policy Making on Urbanization

"The frontiers of communities have enlarged and expanded through time. They now cut across town and county boundaries because people and their activities do. . . In short--county, town, and city are one; they cannot be separated."³

In Society's efforts to deal with the process of urbanization and its resulting urban problems it is essential that the policies developed are not inadvertently contradictory and that the allocation of resources is designed to achieve the defined objectives.

Urbanization refers both to undeveloped or rural land becoming developed and to population centers acquiring a broad range of services available both to the urban area and the area within commuting distance. ✓

It is evident that governmental decisions have a great impact on urbanization. The location of public facilities is the greatest spur to development. Utilities, transportation facilities from the railroad in the country's frontier days to highways and airports today, schools, post offices, and government centers all encourage residential, commercial, and industrial development. Too often, however, these locational decisions are based on governmental policies developed within a predetermined effort to maximize their developmental potential toward objectives that are agreed

² Here defined as any professional participating in this process.

³ President's National Advisory Commission on Rural Poverty, The People Left Behind, Government Printing Office (Washington, D.C.: September, 1967), p. 105.

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³President's National Advisory Commission on Rural Poverty, The People Left Behind, Government Printing Office (Washington, D.C.: September, 1967), p. 105.

on by or compatible with other sectors of the public arena. Unfortunately, the need for long range policies in the public sector has not been recognized until relatively recently. In an article in Harper's, John Fischer, in an enthusiastic presentation on the critical need for long-range planning on the national level, says:

Until quite recently, the American credo held that planning was just dandy for businessmen, but was forbidden to politicians and civil servants.

Many agencies. . . are fiddling with bits and pieces of the problem; but they work at cross purposes, because they have no common goal.⁴

The mounting concern to achieve a balanced growth policy in rural and urban areas is expressed in the reports of presidential commissions. Arguments supporting a national policy dealing with urban growth are outlined in an Advisory Commission on Intergovernmental Relations report.⁵ One of the major points made by the Commission is that the many governmental programs are affecting the character of urban development and the location of population and economic growth. By "establishing overall policy. . . direction would be given to the efforts of these programs, making them consistent, and avoid having different programs overlap or work at cross-purposes. And ultimately major policy directives would avoid actually subsidizing ecologically and economically undesirable patterns of urban development."⁶ An example given by the Commission of how specific programs can be at cross-purposes, concerns welfare recipients. Although

⁴John Fischer, "Planning for the Second America", Harper's, November, 1969, Vol. 239, No. 1434, p. 21.

⁵ACIR, Urban and Rural America: Policies for Future Growth, (Government Printing Office, April, 1968), p. 125.

⁶Ibid.

State policy may favor the reduction of the welfare rolls, welfare recipients may be unable to obtain work because discriminatory housing and zoning practices do not permit them to live in the suburbs near job opportunities and then are unable to commute because of the failure to establish effective mass transit systems.

The Advisory Commission further states it is evident to many observers that although policies and processes affecting urban growth do exist, they are fragmented and uncoordinated, being initiated and separately carried out by numerous Federal, State, and local agencies and departments. States need to develop urbanization policies within a planning process to guide State and local planning and development programs. Hawaii with a State Zoning Plan begins the way toward developing a State urban development plan.

Urbanization in Iowa

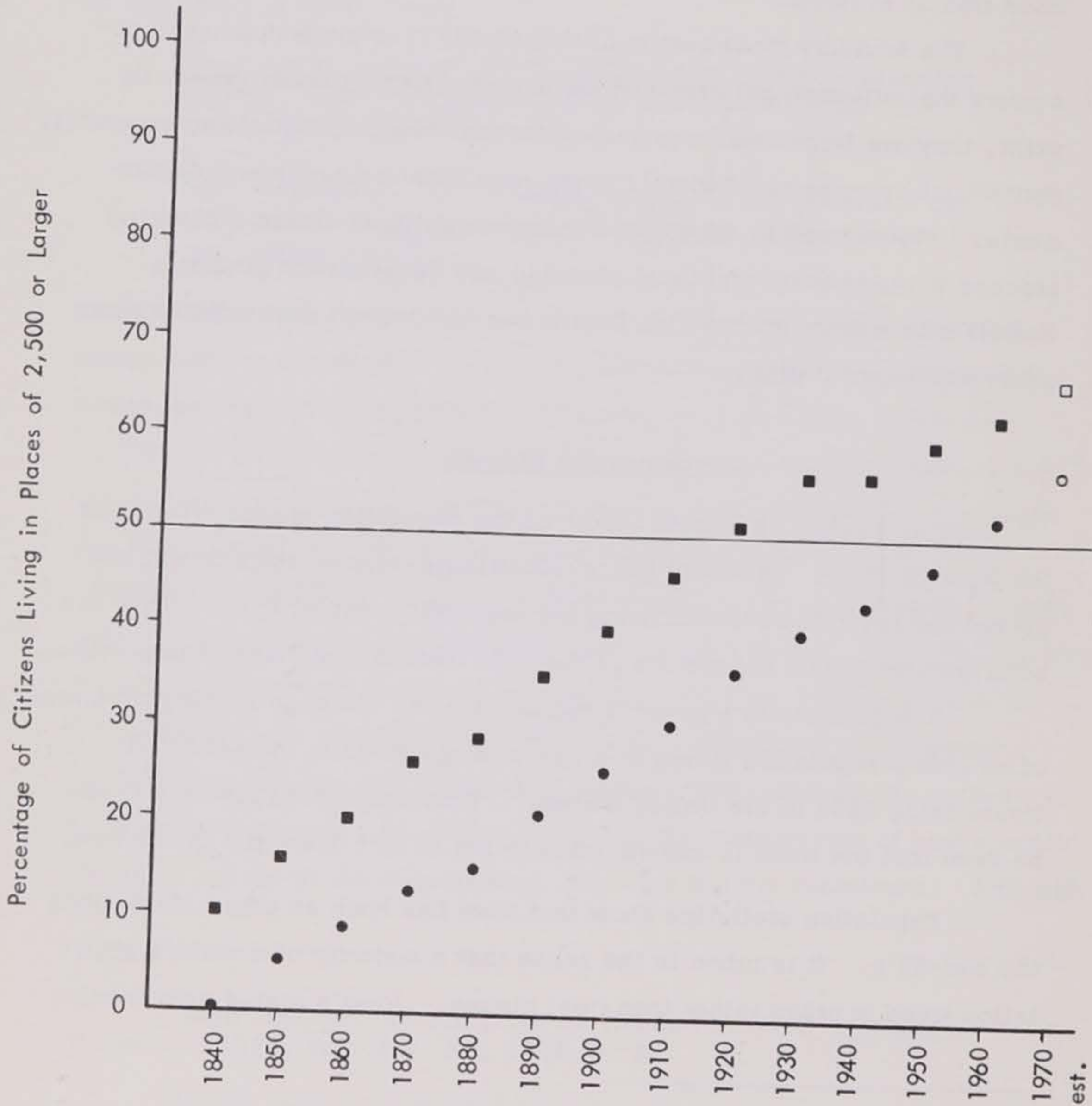
This section is a brief sketch of the population characteristics of the State of Iowa. In recent years redistribution rather than growth has played the key role in transforming the population map of Iowa. This has been documented by the results of the 1970 decennial census of population.

Urbanization is a process indicated by an increase in the percentage of an area's population living in cities of a given size, the accepted figure being 2500 in the United States.⁷ From inspecting Figure 1 it can be seen that the trend is toward urban living in both Iowa and the Nation.

Population statistics show that Iowa has been an urban state since the mid-50's. It is urban in the sense that a majority of a state's population lives in urban rather than rural places. Iowa's status as a leading

⁷For a thorough discussion of this process see Scientific American, Vol. 213, No. 3, September, 1965.

Figure 1: Urbanization Curves* - Iowa and the United States (1840 - 1970)



* Adjusted for changing Census definition

agricultural area obscures this character of the State despite the statistical dominance of its urban population. Even the economic importance of agriculture has diminished. Long the leading Iowa employer, it was pushed to second by manufacturing as recently as 1967, and then to third place by trade in 1968.

In past decades agricultural productivity was synonymous with rural living. The "rural image", however, has ceased to be a proper characterization of the State of Iowa. A beneficial aspect of the 1970 census is that its publication and the resulting discussion of its material can be utilized to provide a new image for the State. The Iowa press has already characterized Iowa as a "city-town-country community".⁸ This community, if it is to be the happy mixture depicted in the press, must be recognized as such by all citizens of the State. The 1970 census, coming at a time of national urban awareness, can provide the facts and the stimulus necessary for Iowa to adjust to urban and country living. But, all of the people of the State must realize that all of the parts of this community are interrelated and each must work together for the benefit of all.

The sections to follow will attempt to document more fully this "new Iowa" and discuss the implication of this development for policy considerations by the State government.

While the information shown in Figure 1 is quite important, it is not an indication of the maximum influence of urbanization on the State. The kind of information that can be read from such a graph may suggest that cities or towns of the given sizes are independent units, in some way

⁸Des Moines Sunday Register, "1970 Progress Edition", Section A, January, 1970.

separated from each other and from the remainder of the State. This interpretation misses the essential meaning of urbanization. Graphic displays of this type, as well as maps of population, present static impressions of distributions of people and say nothing (except as the viewer may imagine) about the human interaction patterns that are at the heart of complex social processes characteristic of an urbanized community. Statistical measures, such as displayed in Figure 1, can be made more meaningful if related to significant groups of the State's residents. The use of an arbitrary definition of a city to include only those municipalities with 2,500 or more cannot provide the insight in itself, for in 1960 nearly 7% of the State's people resided in places ranging from this size down to 1,000 people. Obviously, the influence of urban living must be affecting these citizens and in some sense all people of the State.

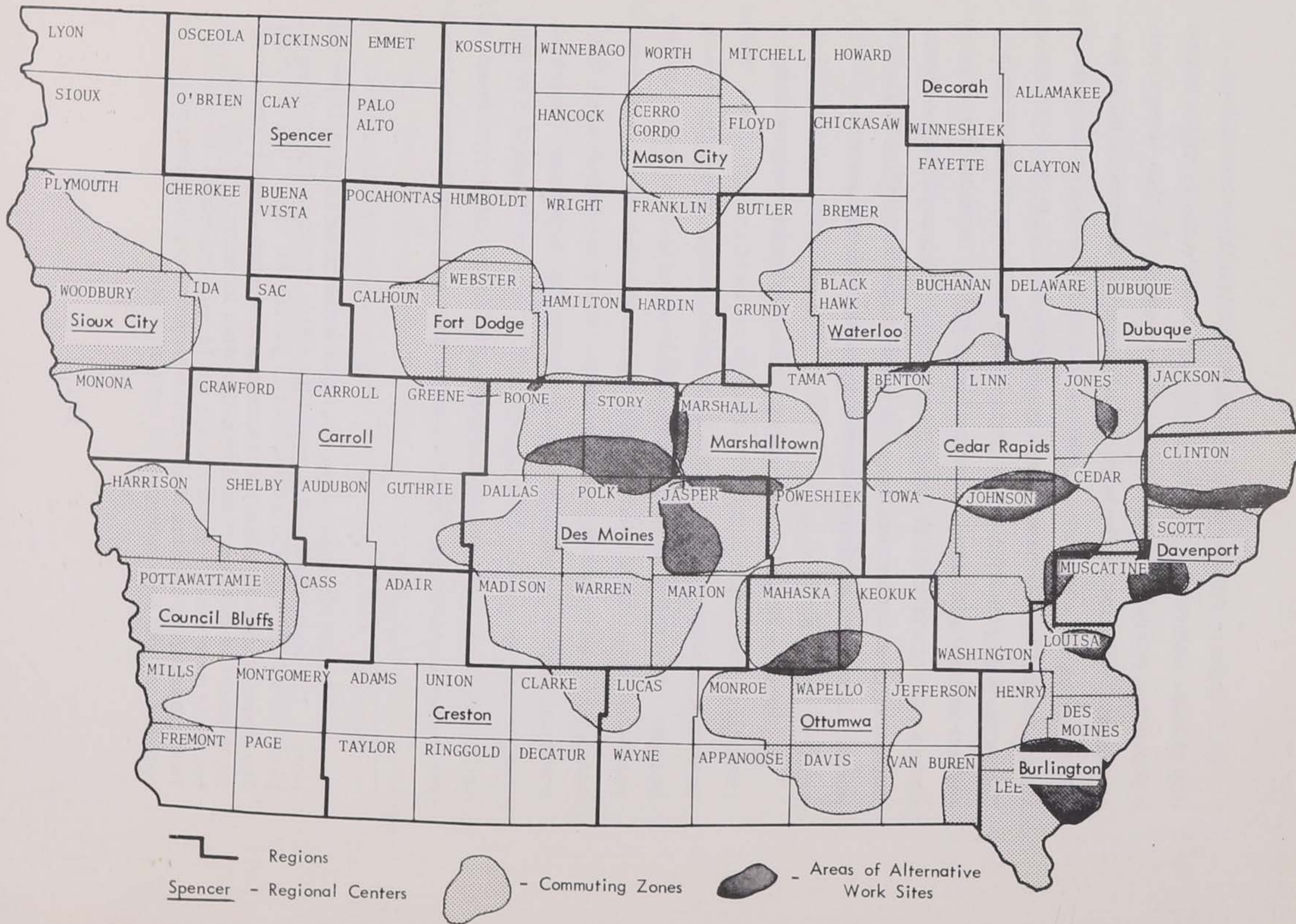
Some places are perceived as being more urban than others. Similarly, some urbanites are not living in urban places. The confusion exists because the previously strict break between town and country does not now exist between urban and rural areas. Thus urban problems are not only the burden of urban places as defined, but the burden of the entire society in which the urban areas exist. The existence of a large non-urban segment of society does not alter the fundamental fact that the services, goods, and organization of society filter down to the people through a system of urban places. Thus "urban problems" should not be narrowly defined in the sense of "problems of incorporated areas"; they should, in fact, be broadly defined in order to include the entire range of problems arising from a society living in central cities, city suburbs, rural to urban transition zones, towns, and rural areas served through the interrelated system of urban concentrations.

In order to provide some indication of urban influence on Iowa, a map of labor markets is presented in Figure 2. Only the 19 cities having a population of 10,000 or more in 1960 are portrayed.⁹ Two features are prominent. The first is the large geographic areas over which these few cities exert a daily influence. The second is the overlap of the commuting fields, indicating alternative employment sites for residents of these areas. The "city-town-country community" is clearly shown in the figure with respect to Iowa's 19 largest communities in 1960. With the industrial and commercial expansion of the past decade and the improved local access this pattern has been strengthened to where it received notice in the local press. Likewise, it can be expected to continue in the seventies.

Urbanization has been previously defined as an increase in the proportion of an area's population living in cities of a given size. Useful as such a measure is, it hides the distinction between population growth and population redistribution. Both must be considered as important processes shaping Iowa's future. Total state population growth has been quite consistent over the past several decades. There has been a small but continual increase, and there is no indication that significant change in this process will occur in the immediate future. A redistribution of population has taken place and this process, while more difficult to measure is, nevertheless, obvious. Figure 1, which shows continued urbanization does

⁹The 1970 census shows 27 cities with a population of 10,000 or more. The boundaries of the commuting fields shown in Figure 2 are based on 95% of the total employment in the central city. These levels have been chosen for clarity of exposition. A much greater area of the state would be covered if smaller cities were included or if the 100% boundary were used. Either change would only emphasize the pattern. The utilization of only the larger cities permits easy interpretation of the patterns without an overlapping of smaller cities.

Figure 2: 95% Commuting Zones for Central Cities Greater than 10,000



not show the source of the growth in urban population. Figure 2 indicates that one of the sources is the low population rural county. The nature of the population shifts is quite clear. The larger cities and adjacent areas are gaining population at the expense of the rural areas. This is not surprising in light of the small absolute growth of population in the State during the 1950-70 period and the known rise in the urban population. A substantial growth of the cities without rural to urban migration would cause a relative increase in the State's population similar to that of the curve in Figure 1. This has not been the case with Iowa. For the State of Iowa this change is very much a reflection of a net in-migration to urban areas. This can be seen by first noting that of the 99 Iowa counties, over half (57 of 99) actually lost population between 1950 and 1960, and the trend is accentuated between 1960 and 1970 when over two-thirds (79 of 99) lost population (see Figures 3 and 4). In contrast only a few of the urban places of 2,500 or more (13 of 113) lost population from 1950 to 1960. Thus, while only about 43% of the counties gained in population, approximately 90% of the towns and cities did so. Urban growth, in fact, could easily be underestimated since data usually given only for incorporated areas are thereby missing suburban populations. ✓

The redistribution process involves both age and area. It involves age in that the general trend is for the younger citizens to migrate to the opportunities of the larger urban areas, leaving the more elderly behind. Tables 1 and 2 confirm this situation. Table 1 lists those counties gaining significantly (10% or more) in population over the 1950-60 decade. Only 12 counties exhibited this level of growth. Each was well above the State level of 5.2% and together these counties accounted for a significant proportion (36.6%) of the State's total population. Table 2 presents the opposite side of the picture. Twenty-eight counties lost 10% or more of their population in the same period. The last column in each table indicates

Figure 3: Counties having Significant Population Change (1950 to 1960)

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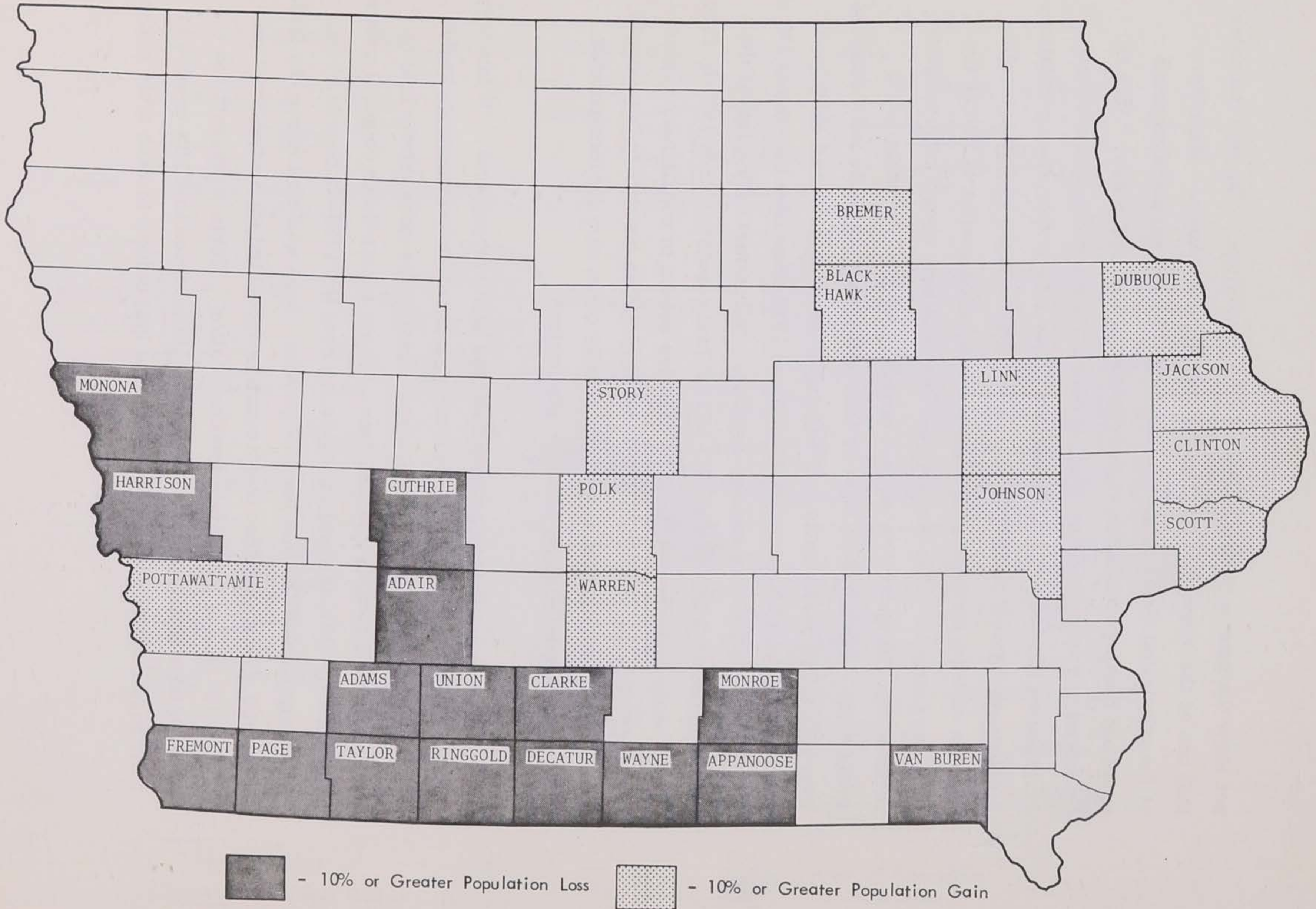


Figure 4: Counties having Significant Population Change (1960 to 1970)

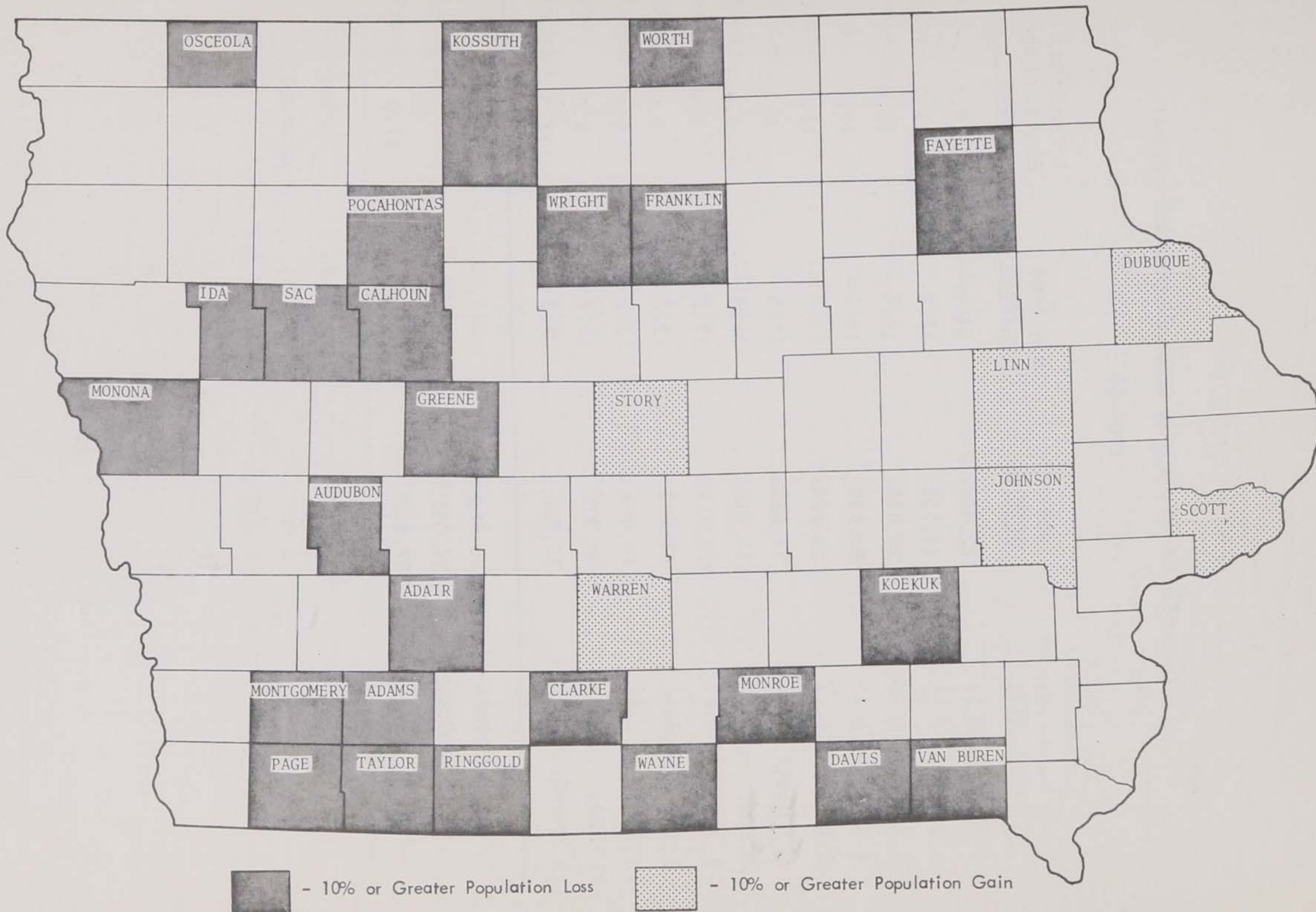


TABLE 1

Counties Having a 10% or Greater Population Increase

1950-60

	<u>Pop. 1960</u>	<u>1950-1960 % increase</u>	<u>% Population 65 yrs. of age 1960</u>
1 Blackhawk	122,482	21.9	8.7
2 Bremer	21,108	11.8	11.3
3 Clinton	35,060	10.9	11.4
4 Dubuque	80,048	12.2	10.3
5 Jackson	20,754	11.4	12.0
6 Johnson	53,663	17.3	8.3
7 Linn	136,899	31.3	9.9
8 Polk	266,315	17.8	9.7
9 Pottawattamie	83,102	19.3	9.9
10 Scott	119,067	18.2	9.8
11 Story	49,327	11.4	9.9
12 Warren	20,829	17.3	11.3
<hr/>			
TOTAL	1,008,654		
AVERAGE	84,055		
STATE:	2,757,537	5.2	11.9

TABLE 2

Counties Having a Loss of 10% or More

1950-60

	<u>Pop., 1960</u>	<u>1950-1960 % decrease</u>	<u>% Population 65 yrs. of age 1960</u>
1 Adair	10,893	11.4	14.9
2 Adams	7,468	14.7	14.9
3 Appanoose	16,015	18.6	19.3
4 Clarke	8,222	12.2	16.8
5 Decatur	10,539	16.4	16.6
6 Fremont	10,282	16.6	14.7
7 Guthrie	13,607	10.5	15.8
8 Harrison	17,600	10.0	14.3
9 Monona	13,916	14.6	13.9
10 Monroe	10,463	11.4	16.3
11 Page	21,023	12.1	16.6
12 Ringgold	7,910	17.0	15.8
13 Taylor	10,288	17.2	18.6
14 Union	13,712	12.4	17.3
15 Van Buren	9,778	11.2	16.9
16 Wayne	9,800	16.5	19.1
<hr/>			
TOTAL	191,516		
AVERAGE	11,970		
STATE:	2,757,537	5.2	11.9

the percentage of the population that was over 65 years of age for that year. In the first table all percentages in this column are slightly below the State average, and in Table 2 every percentage is well above this figure. This data implies the redistribution of lower age groups toward the larger urban regions. It should be noted that the twelve counties in Table 1 average nearly seven times the population size of those of Table 2. In the decade between 1950 and 1960 twelve counties experienced an increase in population of ten percent or greater. In the 1960 to 1970 decade only half of those counties gained population at a ten percent or better rate: Dubuque, Johnson, Linn, Scott, Story, and Warren (Table 3.)

There were sixteen counties in the 1950 to 1960 period which lost population at a rate of ten percent or more (Table 2). Twenty-six counties, however, decreased in population at a rate of ten percent or more from 1960 to 1970 (Table 4). Of the ninety-nine counties a total of fifty-seven experienced a substantial decline in population from 1950 to 1960. In the next decade the number increased to seventy-nine counties with declining populations.

On a regional basis all regions which experienced declining population from 1950 to 1960 continued the trend in the next decade with the addition of six additional regions losing population. From 1950 to 1960 five of the sixteen regions had declining populations and from 1960-1970 eleven of the sixteen regions showed decreases (see Tables 5 and 6).

The growth areas are shown on the map of Figure 3. Significant growth is occurring in or near the larger urban centers generally in the eastern region. Conversely, the areas of out-migration are in the south-southwestern region and are more geographically contiguous. In general the pattern of population change is positive in areas of urban influence;

TABLE 3

Counties Having a 10% or Greater Population Increase

		1960-70			
<u>County</u>	<u>Pop.</u> <u>1960</u>	<u>Pop.</u> ¹ <u>1970</u>	<u>Pop.</u> <u>Increase</u>	<u>1960-1970</u> <u>% Increase</u>	
1 Dubuque	80,078	89,017	3,969	11.2	
2 Johnson	53,663	71,968	18,305	34.1	
3 Linn	136,899	161,903	25,004	18.3	
4 Scott	199,067	141,355	22,288	18.7	
5 Story	49,327	62,092	12,765	40.1	
6 Warren	20,829	27,090	6,261	30.1	

¹ 1970 Unofficial total

TABLE 4

Counties Having a Loss of 10% or More

1960-70

<u>County</u>	<u>Pop</u> <u>1960</u>	<u>Pop</u> <u>1970</u>	<u>Pop</u> <u>Loss</u>	<u>1960-1970</u> <u>% Decrease</u>
1 Adair	10,893	9,491	1,402	12.9
2 Adams	7,468	6,306	1,162	15.6
3 Audubon	10,919	9,627	1,292	11.8
4 Calhoun	15,923	13,987	1,936	12.2
5 Clarke	8,222	6,770	1,452	17.7
6 Davis	9,199	8,108	1,091	11.9
7 Fayette	28,581	25,656	2,925	10.2
8 Franklin	15,472	13,171	2,301	14.8
9 Green	14,379	12,836	1,543	10.7
10 Guthrie	13,607	12,081	1,526	11.2
11 Ida	10,269	9,187	1,082	10.5
12 Keokuk	15,492	13,572	1,920	12.4
13 Kossuth	25,314	22,481	2,833	11.1
14 Monona	13,916	12,106	1,810	13.0
15 Monroe	10,463	9,109	1,354	12.9
16 Montgomery	14,467	12,859	1,608	11.1
17 Osceola	10,064	8,739	1,325	13.2
18 Page	21,023	18,384	2,639	12.6
19 Pochahontas	14,234	12,716	1,518	10.7
20 Ringgold	7,910	6,261	1,649	20.8
21 Sac	17,007	15,288	1,789	10.1
22 Taylor	10,288	8,713	1,575	15.3
23 Van Buren	9,778	8,510	1,268	13.0
24 Wayne	9,800	8,187	1,613	16.5
25 Worth	10,259	8,737	1,522	14.8
26 Wright	19,447	16,933	2,514	12.9

TABLE 5

Percent Population Change 1950-1960
and 1960-1970 for the Sixteen Regions in Iowa

<u>Region</u>	<u>Pop. change 1950-1960</u>	<u>% change 1950-1960</u>	<u>Pop. change 1960-1970</u>	<u>% change 1960-1970</u>
1	-1,288	-1.7	- 4,192	- 5.7
2	9,624	6.2	-12,242	- 7.5
3	- 338	-0.3	- 6,035	- 5.4
4	1,082	.5	-11,679	- 5.4
5	1,511	1.2	- 8,404	- 6.4
6	2,369	2.4	- 471	- 0.5
7	25,100	11.6	6,114	2.5
8	11,592	10.8	8,839	7.4
9	25,457	13.9	26,499	12.7
10	43,881	18.0	39,650	13.8
11	50,866	12.4	38,230	8.3
12	-4,750	-4.6	- 6,241	- 6.2
13	3,559	1.9	- 6,870	- 3.6
14	11,582	-14.4	- 8,726	-12.6
15	13,579	-7.5	-16,148	- 9.7
16	2,322	2.0	791	- 0.7

Table 6. Composition of the Iowa Planning and Administrative Regions

<p><u>Region 1--Decorah</u> Counties: Allamakee Clayton Howard Winneshiek</p>	<p><u>Region 5--Fort Dodge</u> Counties: Calhoun Hamilton Humbolt Pocahontas Webster Wright</p>	<p><u>Region 10--Cedar Rapids</u> Counties: Benton Cedar Iowa Johnson Jones Linn Washington</p>	<p><u>Region 14--Creston</u> Counties: Adair Adams Clarke Decatur Ringgold Taylor Union</p>
<p><u>Region 2--Mason City</u> Counties: Cerro Gordo Floyd Franklin Hancock Kossuth Mitchell Winnebago Worth</p>	<p><u>Region 6--Marshalltown</u> Counties: Hardin Marshall Poweshiek Tama</p>	<p><u>Region 11--Des Moines</u> Counties: Boone Dallas Jasper Madison Marion Polk Story Warren</p>	<p><u>Region 15--Ottumwa</u> Counties: Appanoose Davis Jefferson Keokuk Lucas Mahaska Monroe Van Buren Wapello Wayne</p>
<p><u>Region 3--Spencer</u> Counties: Buena Vista Clay Dickinson Emmet O'Brien Osceola Palo Alto</p>	<p><u>Region 7--Waterloo</u> Counties: Black Hawk Bremer Buchanan Butler Chickasaw Fayette Grundy</p>	<p><u>Region 12--Carrol</u> Counties: Audubon Carroll Crawford Greene Guthrie Sac</p>	<p><u>Region 16--Burlington</u> Counties: Des Moines Henry Lee Louisa</p>
<p><u>Region 4--Sioux City</u> Counties: Cherokee Ida Lyon Monona Plymouth Sioux Woodbury</p>	<p><u>Region 8--Dubuque</u> Counties: Delaware Dubuque Jackson</p>	<p><u>Region 13--Council Bluffs</u> Counties: Cass Fremont Harrison Mills Montgomery Page Pottawattamie Shelby</p>	
<p><u>Region 9--Davenport</u> Counties: Clinton Scott Muscatine</p>			

that is, the cities, their suburbs, and commuting fields, and also areas in which the labor markets of two or more urban areas overlap. The more mobile members of the population are generally first to migrate and, as has been shown, the age distribution of the remaining population then reflects those less prone to move--the elderly and those tied to the land. But while the out-migration may be less regional in character, (see Figure 4) the large urban areas remain the focal point of this migration. Both situations should be of major significance in the formulation of a state policy toward Iowa's urban areas.

The product of the trends discussed in the preceding sections is a pattern of thinly settled regions with numerous small towns and a few very large concentrations of population. If all of Iowa's citizens are to share in the benefits of modern society this pattern presents special problems. This society will be organized and served through its system of large urban places, but as the local influence of these cities wanes in the more remote rural areas so do a variety of other social and economic characteristics. Furthermore, the larger cities are not evenly distributed over the entire state, thus making the functions which they provide inaccessible to a large minority of the residents of the State. While the dispersed population suffers with respect to the services offered by the large population centers, they also reap the disadvantages of having to support many of societies' organizations with a much smaller population and economic base. It has been demonstrated elsewhere¹⁰ that some of Iowa's counties with small population pay ten times the per capita costs for some county elected officials than do the larger counties. These are both a result of the

¹⁰ Donald E. Boles and Herbert C. Cook, "An Evaluation of Iowa County Government", (Iowa College-Community Research Center, m.p., 1959).

functions which the officials may choose to serve and of the varying efficiency with which these duties are transacted.

It is clear that imbalances exist with respect to the services and offerings of large urban centers and with respect to other features of society which must be supported in all areas of the State. It is also clear that the process of urbanization cannot be reversed. Thus, the "city-town-country community" of Iowa's future must find a means of correcting these imbalances.

IOWA URBAN PROBLEM SURVEY

The following section presents a description and analysis of a general survey of residents with respect to possible problems associated with the quality of life in the State of Iowa. The survey consisted of a mail questionnaire.¹¹ The cover letter expressly stated that the responses were to be made with regard to the seriousness of the problems in the respondent's local area. The survey period extended over the months of March and April, 1970.

Perception of Urban Problems¹²

The survey was designed to uncover urban problem areas felt by Iowans to be important or of some concern. It was not designed to determine the specific action or types of programs that might be employed to alleviate problems.

Responses of "definitely a problem" were totaled for each of the nineteen problem areas and the percentages were calculated and used to rank these problems. The result of this procedure is shown on Table 7. A similar ranking based on both levels of problem recognition i.e. "definitely a problem" and of "some concern", is also included in this table.

¹¹A description of the survey may be found in Interim Report #4, in Barbara K. Bailey and Robert J. Martineau, Urbanization Patterns and Urban Problems, (Iowa City, Iowa: Institute of Urban and Regional Research).

¹²For a detailed discussion of the results of the Iowa Problem Survey see Barbara K. Bailey and Robert J. Martineau, Iowa Urbanization Patterns and Problems, op. cit. It is important to note the likely influence of public attention to pollution problems at the time of the survey. The communications media were all involved in presentations of environmental problems. There has been, however, statewide concern and attention to water pollution in recent years on the issue of feedlot pollution, for example.

Table 7

Questionnaire Summary Statistics

Returned:

<u>Sent to Area</u>	<u>Number</u>	<u>Useful Number Returned</u> ¹	<u>Useful % Returned</u>
Des Moines	200	63	31.5
Sioux City	150	37	24.7
Waterloo	150	49	32.7
State Remainder	<u>2960</u>	<u>725</u>	24.5
STATE TOTAL	3460	874	25.3

Age Classification:

	<u>Number</u>	<u>Per Cent</u>	<u>State Distribution (1960) Per Cent</u>
less than 29	91	10.4	49.7
30 to 39	151	17.3	12.1
40 to 49	162	18.5	11.8
50 to 59	204	23.3	10.5
60 to 69	140	16.0	8.6
70 to 79	88	10.1	5.5
80 to 89	20	2.3	1.8
Did not specify	<u>18</u>	<u>2.1</u>	
TOTAL	874	100.0	100.0

Income Classification:²

	<u>Number</u>	<u>Per Cent</u>
low	211	24.1
medium	434	49.5
high	184	21.0
Did not specify	<u>45</u>	<u>5.4</u>
TOTAL	874	100.0

County Size Classification:³

	<u>Number</u>	<u>Per Cent</u>
small	319	36.6
medium	323	36.9
large	<u>232</u>	<u>26.5</u>
TOTAL	874	100.0

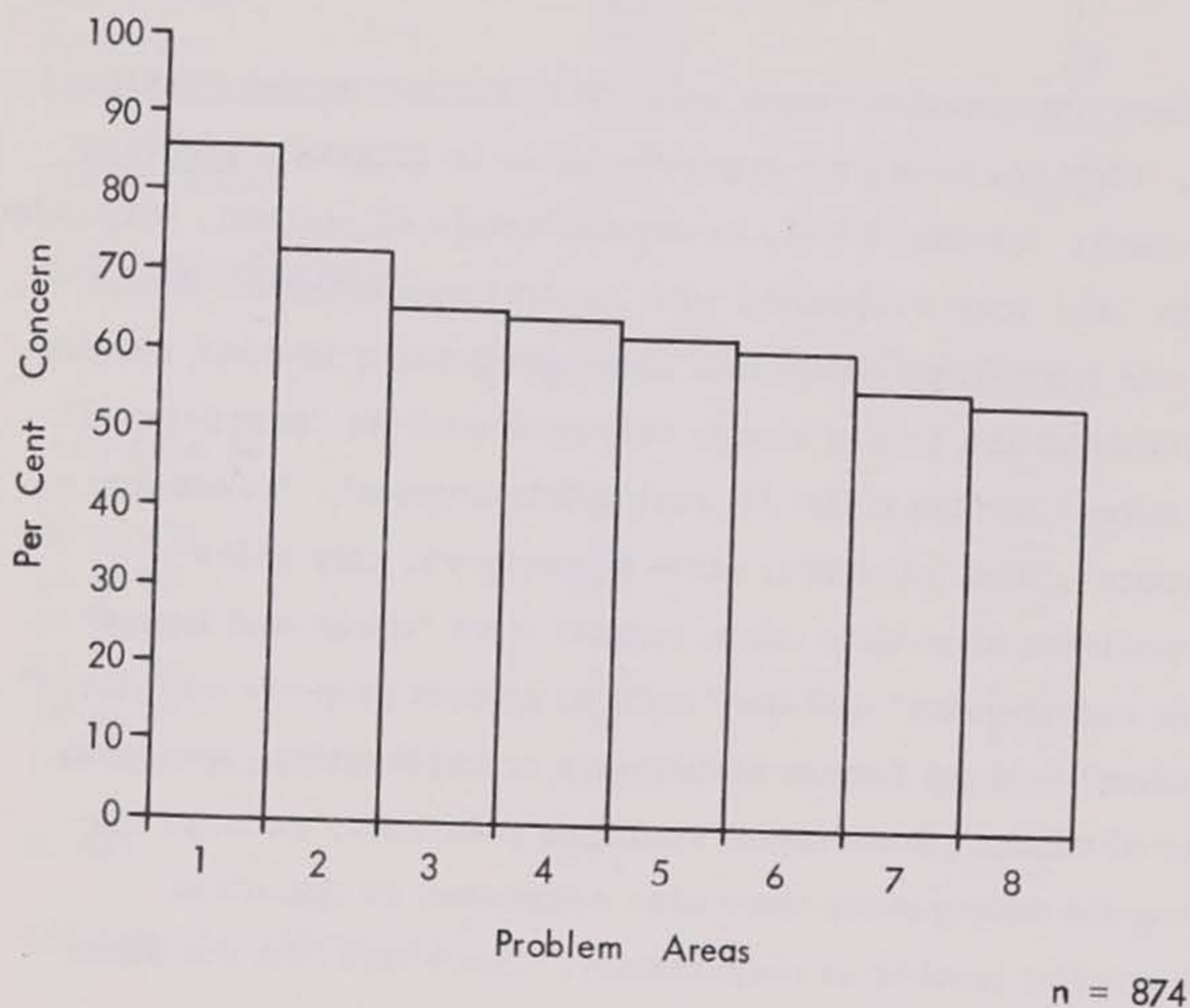
¹ 43 questionnaires were returned as non-deliverable.² low: less than \$5,000-\$12,000; high: over \$12,000³ small: less than 20,000; medium: 20,000-50,000; large: over 50,000

The five problem areas ranked in order of highest response were: 1) crime, 2) water pollution, 3) responsiveness of Government Officials, 4) sewage and 5) industrial development (see Figure 5).

Two follow-up questions were asked with respect to the possible problem areas. First we asked for suggestions as to important problems omitted on the card. A total of 364, or approximately 42 percent, responded to this question, and some responded with several suggestions. About one third of those responding wrote in a response dealing in some manner with taxes. These varied from a simple response such as "taxes-taxes" or "yes, high taxes" to "tax relief for real estate owners", "taxes for local school costs", and "taxation, state property vs. city sales". Other topics receiving more than token support were "drugs and liquor" problems, "law enforcement" and the "right to protect property with force". The "farm problem" without further elaboration or explanation, was also cited a number of times. Government spending practices, garbage disposal, and juvenile delinquency were also suggested as important problems by a smaller number of respondents. There was, on the other hand, no reference to disturbances on college campuses.

We next asked "Which problem should receive attention first if only one area can be solved?" The highest omission rate, except for the previous question, occurred on this question. Twelve percent of the entire sample did not answer and nearly fourteen percent suggested their own write-in response to the previous question to be the problem most in need of solution. Among those answering the previous question, over one third believed their response to be more pressing than any suggested by the questionnaire. The request for an indication of priority generated the response shown in Table 8 for the nineteen problem-areas suggested on the questionnaire card. The column at the far right of Table 8 indicates

Fig. 5. The Eight Highest Ranking Problem Areas



<u>Ranking</u> *	<u>Problem Areas</u>
1	Crime
2	Water Pollution
3	Responsiveness of Government Officials
4	Streets and Roads
5	Sewage
6	Industrial Development
7	Air Pollution
8	Education

*Ranking is based on the percentage of people responding to a problem area as "of some concern" or "definitely a problem"; thus, a recognized problem in either sense.

Table 8

Comparison of Priority Ranking and Combined Level of Response Ranking

<u>Question Number</u>	<u>Question Label</u>	<u>Priority Response</u>		<u>Overall Concern Rank (Table 2)</u>
		<u>Per cent</u>	<u>Rank</u>	
8	Crime	24.4	1	1
14	Water Pollution	8.9	2	2
1	Health Services	5.3	3	12
4	Education	4.9	4	8
10	Industrial Development	4.0	5	6
5	Air Pollution	3.8	6	7
17	Responsiveness of Government Officials	3.8	7	3
2	Poverty	3.4	8	9
3	Housing	3.3	9	14
18	Sewage	3.2	10	5
11	Streets and Roads	2.4	11	4
6	Job Training	2.2	12	10
9	Civil Rights	1.7	13	15
16	Water Supply	0.8	14	18
7	Quality of Life in Cities and Towns	0.7	15	11
15	City Parking	0.6	16	16
13	Parks and Recreation	0.5	17	19
12	Traffic Congestion	0.2	18	17
19	Beautification	0.1	19	13

*Percentages are based on total sample of 874. Note that 12% did not respond to this question and 13.8% replied to their own write-in response of the previous question.

the ranking of problems derived from the combination of response levels as in Table 9. While general agreement is obvious between these two rankings several differences are noteworthy. First, the shift of "Health Services" from twelfth to third position in the rankings is of considerable significance. This can be interpreted that health services do not present a problem for many people of the State, yet Iowans generally recognize the need for supplying and maintaining these important services. The problem area "Housing" has gained considerably in this ranking based on priorities and a similar shift has occurred for "Education". Having less significance in the priority ranking are "Responsiveness of Government Officials", "Sewage", and "Streets and Roads". Interestingly, "Beautification" lost whatever overall concern this topic generated and shifted to last position in the priority ranking.

The Major Problems

It is frequently asserted that many so-called "urban problems" are only more intense in densely settled areas. In order to examine this statement, the problem profiles for three county size classes are shown in Figure 6. For the small, medium, and large size (population) counties the level of concern is recorded for each of the 19 problems. These size classifications approximate population density classes because of the size uniformity of Iowa counties. The problem profiles for respondents from the low and medium size counties are quite similar, with the noteworthy exceptions of streets and roads (11) and beautification (19). The third profile, derived from the responses of those in counties having over 50,000 people, is similar in many respects to the others, but it is also generally higher indicating an overall greater perception of problems. Several problems in this profile exhibit marked variations from the previous two classifications; notably poverty (2), housing (3), air pollution (5), civil rights (9), and traffic congestion (12). These are problems which are traditionally manifest in large urban areas. Quite clearly, however, the problems selected for

TABLE 9

Ranking of Problems

Problem and (number on card)	"Definite Problem"		"Some concern + Definite problem"	
	Percent	Rank	Percent	Rank
Crime (8)	54.3	1	86.2	1
Water Pollution (14)	38.7	2	72.2	2
Resp. of Govt. Off. (17)	28.3	3	65.6	3
Sewage (18)	27.7	4	61.9	5
Ind. Development (10)	23.9	5	60.1	6
Air Pollution (5)	23.5	6	55.8	7
Streets and Roads (11)	22.9	7	64.2	4
Education (4)	21.7	8	55.8	8
City Parking (15)	16.9	9	45.8	16
Civil Rights (9)	16.2	10	47.9	15
Health Services (1)	16.0	11	52.7	12
Job Training (6)	16.0	12	53.9	10
Housing (3)	15.9	13	49.2	14
Poverty (2)	14.0	14	54.3	9
Quality of Life in towns (7)	13.4	15	53.8	11
Water Supply (16)	13.2	16	41.5	18
Traffic Congestion (12)	11.7	17	43.9	17
Beautification (19)	11.8	18	49.9	13
Parks and Recreation (13)	7.4	19	39.0	19

inclusion on the questionnaire are not restricted to the densely populated counties appearing in the classifications of Figure 6 still exceeds the 30% response from the 319 returns from the smaller counties. The data indicate a general increase in problem intensity with population density, but specific instances are more variable than others.

There is yet another interesting but unexplained disclosure when the level of concern for problems is examined between the sub-groups defined by the answers to the question "Where is the best place to live?". There were four suggested answers to this question but 45 people did not respond. The number of responses for each answer are recorded in Table 10. There is an obvious disenchantment with the prospect of living in a large city, but being near a large city seems a much better fate.

TABLE 10

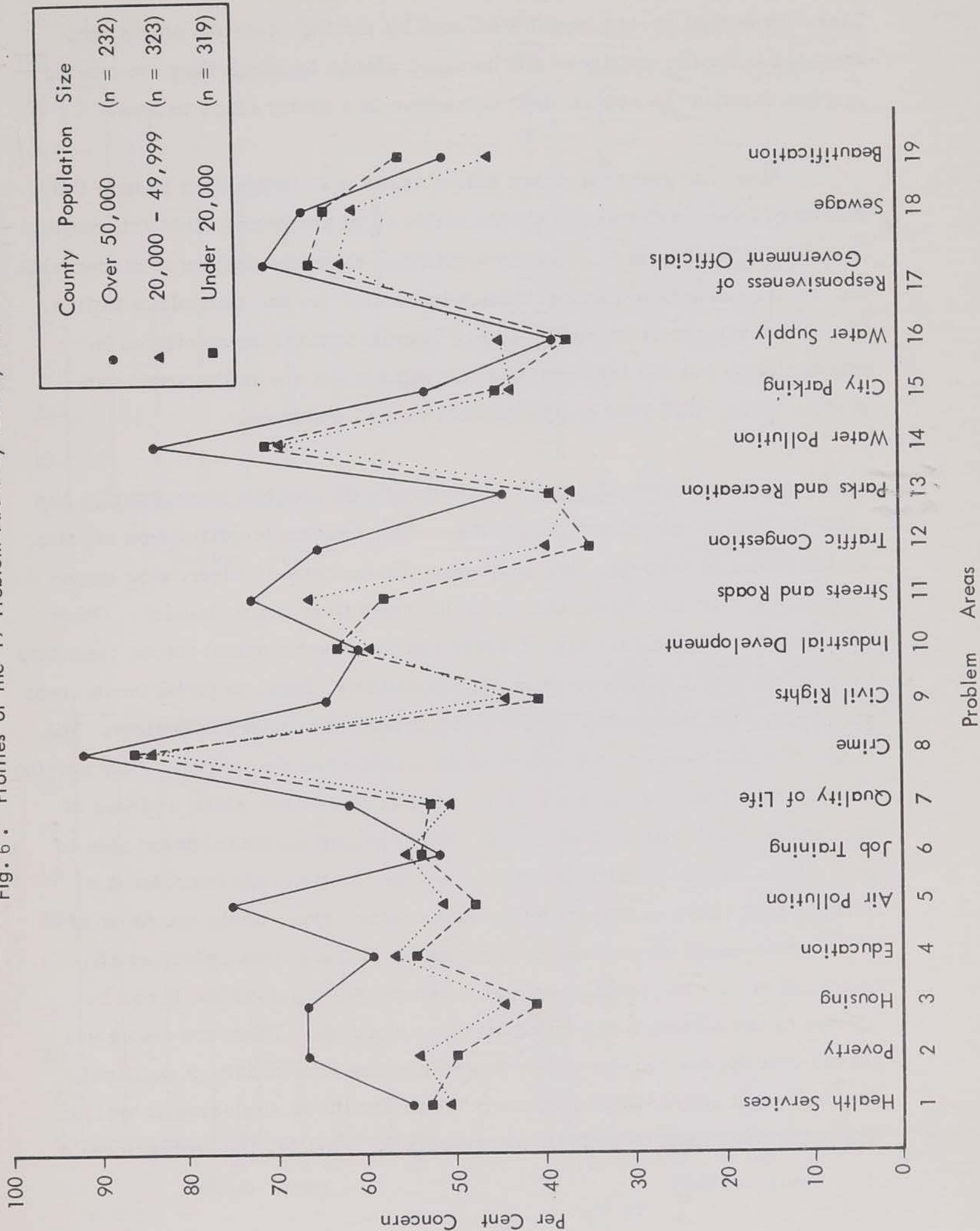
Response to "Where is the best place to live?"

	#	%
in the country	343	39.3
in a small town	337	38.5
near a large city	118	13.5
in a large city	31	3.6
no answer	45	5.1

) 17.1%

While 404 or 46% of the respondents did not feel "The Quality of Life in Cities and Towns" warranted any concern as a problem and only 14% thought this was definitely a problem, only about 17% (118 + 31) would prefer living in a large city. Yet population redistribution from rural areas and small towns to larger cities continues. The expression with respect to the "best place to live" must be considered as reflecting a psychological

Fig. 6. Profiles of the 19 Problem Areas by County Size

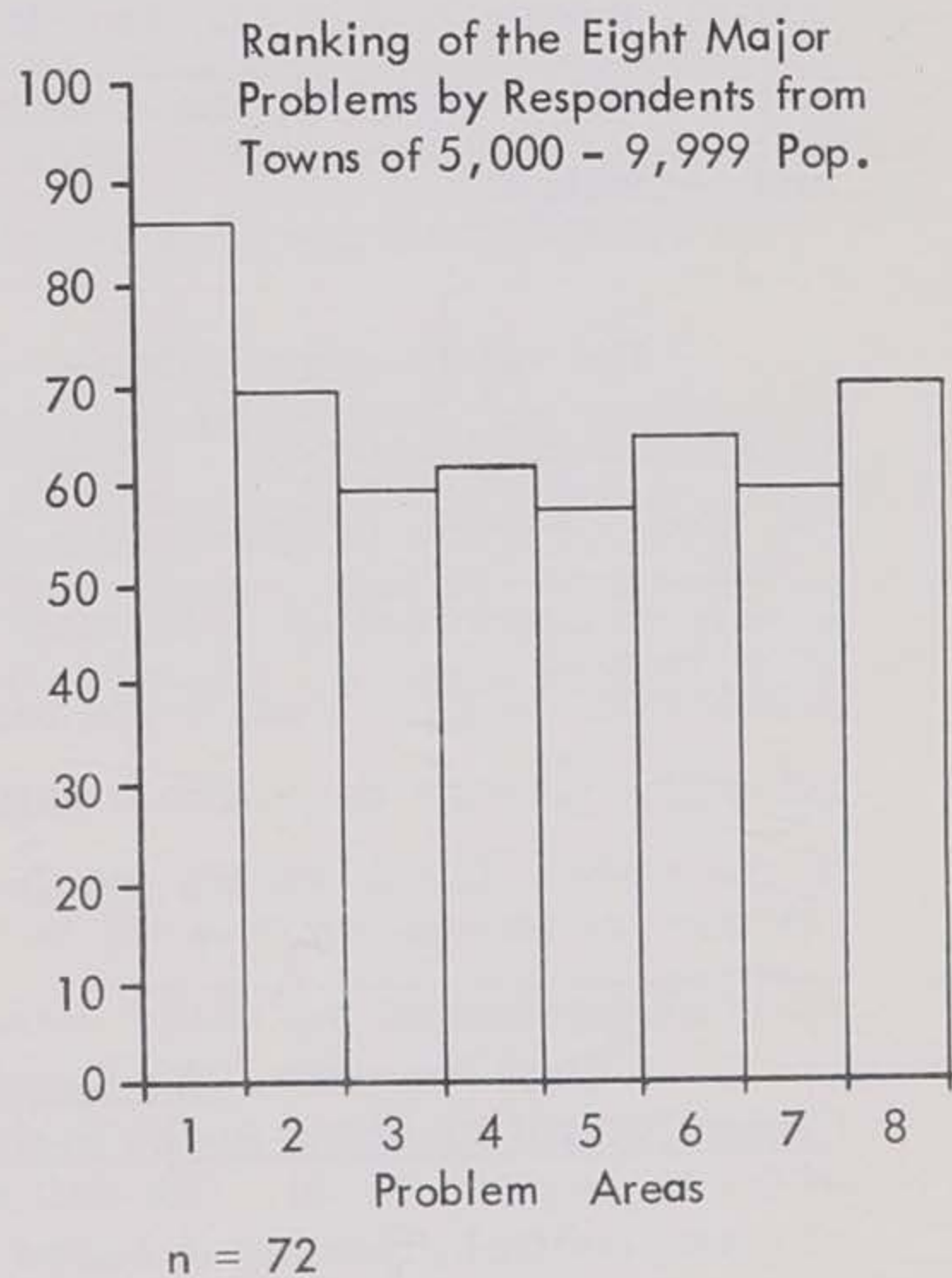
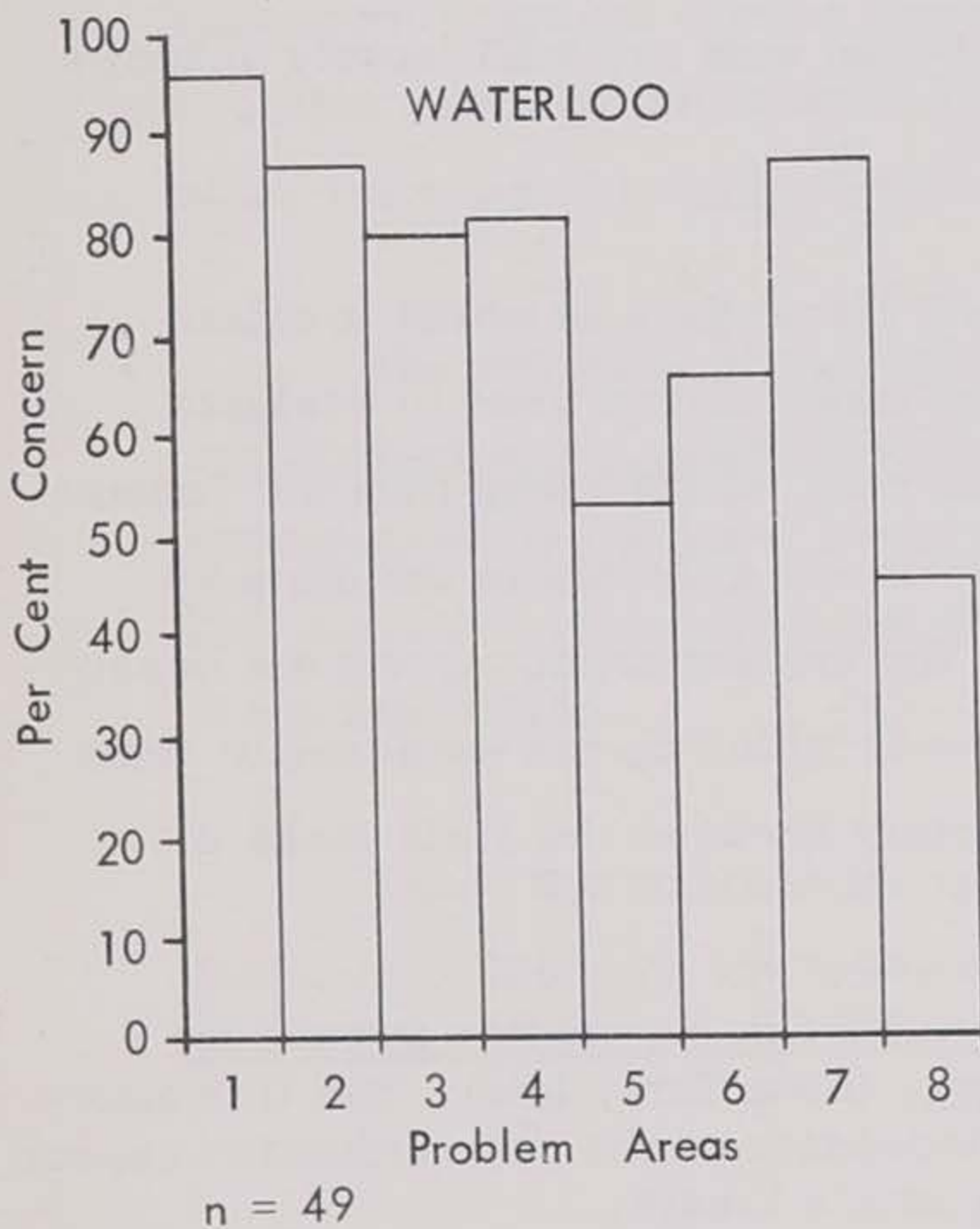
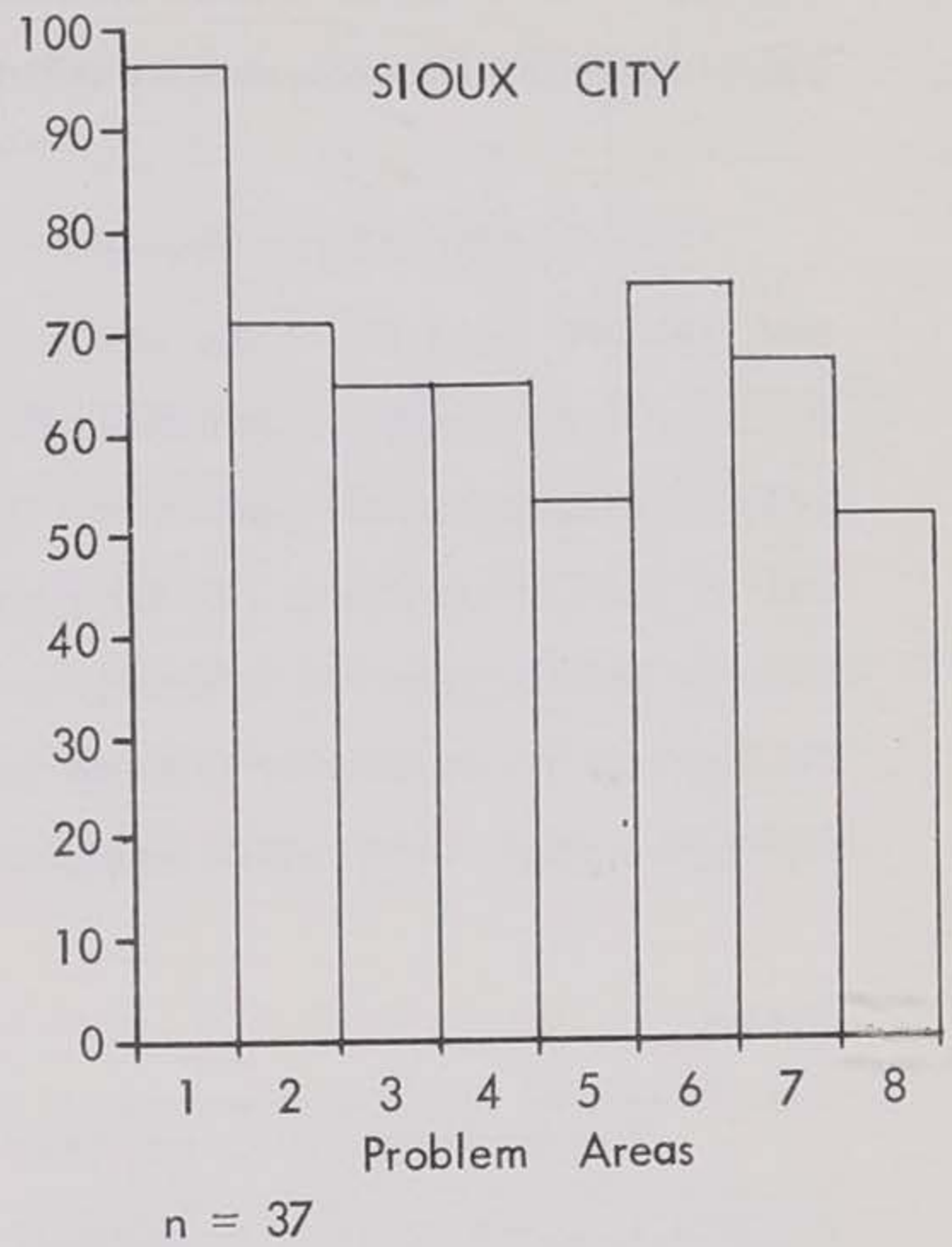
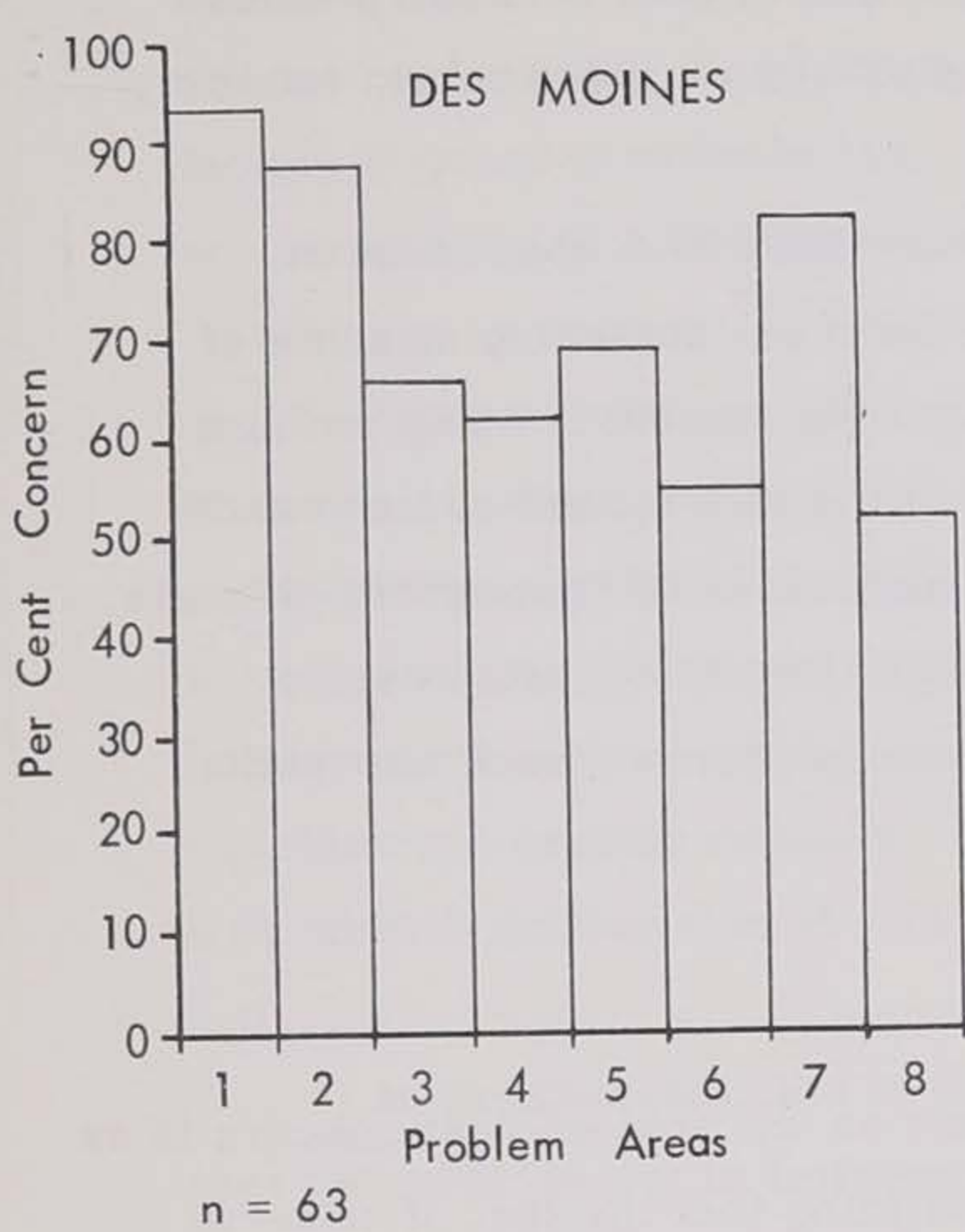


bias. How else could a population vote by moving, express only slight trepidation for the quality of life in those places to which they are moving, and yet express the opinion that elsewhere is a better place to live.

Also with regard to these sub-classes it is interesting to note the degree of concern expressed for the major eight problems. This information is displayed in Figure 7. Clearly a different response pattern is discernable for the respondents selecting "near a large city" as the best place to live. The responses are of greater intensity overall besides being altered in relative order but the latter is of minor importance due to the small variability of the third through the seventh ranked problems.

There are several factors associated with problem identification and analysis that should be examined when using problem identification as data for the planning process. We know from the success of advertising mechanisms, as well as others, that it is possible to promote "needs". Other factors to be weighed are one of scale and the psychological forces operating in areas of public concern. It is not the purpose, here, to probe these areas profoundly, but they would appear to be important enough to consider. The factor of scale refers to the effect of experience and perception. City parking for example, ranks relatively high on the list of problem areas and was of concern in communities of all sizes. When people remember being able to park within fifty or a hundred feet of their destination they consider it a definite imposition to park several blocks away today, while residents of large cities count themselves as fortunate to find a parking place at all. The point is that the problem is real to the people involved but it can be viewed in the perspective of comparative situations. There are also some issues that appear to have undue importance due to a variety of political, psychological and/or local reasons. These should be evaluated as well in analyzing responses to problem identification. Finally, the professional's

Fig. 7. Ranking of the Eight Major Problems by Des Moines, Sioux City, and Waterloo Respondents



Note: See Fig. 5 for Problem Area Identification.

ability to anticipate trends in urbanization and effects of urban problems should be used to interpret public responses and to direct public interest.

Urban problems are recognized when there is a consensus of perception; that is, some problem areas have an increasing measure of concern for variety of psychological and social reasons. Many problem areas deserve special attention because of the widespread concern such as: crime, education, housing and responsiveness of government officials. Others should receive attention even though they do not often have a vociferous constituency but are shown to be meritorious such as: parks and open space and urban design.

Crime

The widespread consensus on crime as the area of most concern is as evident in Iowa as it is nationally. In realizing that the fear of crime is a part of the concern, it will be necessary to conduct massive research on social, psychological and economic aspects of the environment in which crime exists. That is, the causes for criminal acts are still largely unknown and untreated.

The relationship between crime and the society in which it exists is not well-understood.¹³ At present, the major source used to evaluate the level of crime in the state is the crime rate, either taken from the Federal Bureau of Investigation uniform crime reports and adjusted to the state by population, or from local crime reports. The uniform crime reports are unsatisfactory because they reflect national trends which do not necessarily apply to the state. Local reports are unsatisfactory because the state lacks a

¹³ Neil Paquette, The Development of a Communication System for Crime Control Planning in the State of Iowa, (Iowa City, Iowa: The University of Iowa, August, 1970). The following discussion of the communication aspect of crime control planning is based on Paquette's thesis.

system of uniform crime reporting, and reports from different localities are not comparable. In addition, the crime rate, in itself, is unsatisfactory because it reflects law enforcement policy, i.e. which crimes are perceived and acted upon, rather than the level of criminal acts.

Another problem in the crime control planning effort is the structure of the communication network. In general, the emphasis is on vertical communication between the state and local levels, and is usually limited to technical considerations of specific problems. Horizontal communication between local crime commissions is poorly developed. Local crime commissions are usually unaware of the activities of other local commissions, with limited cooperation at this time.

In the investigation of the local crime commissions it was found that the major factor in influencing the types of programs which were implemented was the background of the members. Counties in which the crime commission comprised predominantly law enforcement officers, tended to implement programs related exclusively to law enforcement agencies. In counties in which the commissions contained a more representative membership, the programs implemented were more varied and comprehensive.

The evidence of the investigation indicated there was a lack of a coordinated set of goals for crime control in the state. As a result, programs implemented by the local commissions were fragmented rather than integrated. This situation also makes the setting of priorities for crime control difficult, if not impossible.

Since the composition of the local crime commissions is a major factor in influencing the types of programs which are implemented, it is

recommended that the state establish guidelines to insure that the local commissions are representative of all areas of crime control and not only law enforcement.

The state should initiate the development of a truly integrated set of goals and objectives for crime control in the state. Although the state planning agency will be primarily responsible for coordinating these goals and objectives, the local crime commissions should play an active role in their development. The distribution of funds for programs should be based on the compatability of the programs with the overall goals and objectives for the state. Without an integrated set of goals and objectives it is probable that the efforts toward crime control will remain fragmented, and this will reduce the impact that can be made on the conditions conducive to crime in the state.

Housing

Housing problems are directly associated with poverty, the neighborhood, and segregation problems. Most of the federal aid programs have been geared to providing housing for the middle income groups. It is increasingly clear that the government should also subsidize housing or supplement income to enable the lower-income people to obtain adequate housing without having to pay a disproportional share of their income for housing. The housing needs of elderly people need special attention in Iowa.

Neighborhood quality can be improved with immediate results as has been shown in Model Cities programs with improved garbage collection, the addition of playgrounds and neighborhood centers, improved streets and sidewalks and code enforcement. There is increasing evidence that the quality of housing and the neighborhood affect the self-perception of residents and therefore, have impact on both their physical and psychological well-being.

Economic Development

Economic development is the focus and concern of the Iowa Economic Policy Study.¹⁴ As discussed above, it is recommended that the State analyze its sixteen regions as suggested in Economic Report to the Governor State of Iowa - - 1969 by the Office for Planning and Programming. The Office for Planning and Programming should in cooperation with the regional agencies and governments, identify goals for each region and identify those urban areas that are potential growth centers to ensure that State investment in capital improvements be consistent with a statewide urbanization plan.

Education

There is no other area of local functions where local concern and interest is as high as in education. There has been a long tradition, too, of organized interest groups such as the Parent-Teachers Associations and of interest by taxpayer associations. Although local support and interest is traditional, so too is State responsibility for public education. In recent years State supervision has increased as has direct state aid. A Governor's Education Advisory Committee has been appointed to identify and study particular educational issues. Begun in 1970, this study will be continued in 1971. Among its objectives are formulation of state policy on: early childhood education, organization of school districts, post-high school education, financial support of education, the future of non-public education, and adoption of innovative techniques.¹⁵

¹⁴Thomas Pogue, et.al., Iowa Economic Development Policy Study, (Iowa City, Iowa: Institute of Urban and Regional Research, in progress).

¹⁵Office for Planning and Programming, 1970-75 Overall Program Design: Comprehensive Statewide Planning Program State of Iowa, (Des Moines, Iowa: The Office, May, 1970), pp. 301-2.

State allocations of school improvements should be consistent with the statewide urbanization plan and school consolidation should be effected with consideration for potential growth centers. The designation for an area school should coincide with a designated growth center, potential or existing. Educational goals should be a carefully considered part of the fabric of social and economic goals both for metropolitan areas and for less populated regions.

Parks and Open Space

Open space has three major functions in urbanizing areas: providing parks and recreation areas, controlling floods, and controlling urban sprawl.

One of the major tools to contain and direct urban development is to designate major networks of open space, particularly near major urban centers. An open space system in a metropolitan area provides visual relief from the man-made environment and provides major recreation areas close to metropolitan residents as well as giving form to the urbanizing areas.

The state should adopt a policy to encourage major land acquisitions adjacent to urban areas as well as in outlying parts of the counties and "give impetus to localities' recognition of open space activities as an important part of the local parks and recreation function, and not just a tag-end activity".¹⁶ State aid on a matching basis is one form of assistance many states are using to encourage local areas to acquire major open space areas.

Urban Design

The quality of the urban environment is dependent on the adequacy of

¹⁶ACIR. Performance of Urban Functions: Local and Area - Wide, (Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, September, 1963) p. 93.

its functional components including housing, streets and roads, and public facilities. The human response to town and cities is based on functional efficiency and whether or not these and a multitude of details are pleasing. The visual impact of the form-giving elements of cities and towns are most often left to chance with predictable results--they become a visual hodge podge.

States can have a profound impact on this aspect of the environment by hiring good designers for all major capital improvements. The use of architectural competitions for major buildings would create interest in architecture and the quality of the physical environment. The Division of Local Affairs should provide assistance and direction by professional designers to local areas on good design aspects of the major elements of the city-scape:

1. approaches to the city and town
2. parking facilities
3. public buildings
4. local landmarks
5. urban detail including street furniture (trash receptacles, streets signs, poles, etc.) and plantings.

This is an area where private and public cooperation is particularly effective. Good designers however, must be employed to provide adequate guidance and ensure results worthy of the effort and inspiring to communities.

The Responsiveness of Government Officials

In both the surveys of Iowans over the state and of local and state officials "responsiveness of government officials" was an area of decided concern. It is evident that this concern stemmed from inadequate communication and inadequate delivery of services, that is, there appeared to be a sense of frustration of whom to go to for particular services and of not being

satisfied with level of service rendered.

The previous recommendations for the sharing of functions between levels of government are designed to improve the ability of local governments to perform services, to improve forms at each level of government. Increased attention should be given to communication, to the dissemination of information of available services at the local, regional and state levels. The consolidation of state offices at the regional level is one aspect of the problem that will help in making services and programs more readily available. The study in progress by the Institute of Urban Affairs at the University of Iowa on "Iowa Local Government Research Project" is concerned with responsiveness of government officials and problem identification at the local level. It is suggested also that increased effectiveness in coordination and communication may be achieved by special attention to functional areas. Vertical communication should be considered a responsibility of the Office for Planning and Programming, and when applicable by the Division of Municipal Affairs.

Policies for Urban Areas

The quality of the urban environment is determined by those institutions that make up cities and towns as well as the physical elements of urban areas. Although there are good reasons for designating minimal sizes of urban areas to assure efficient levels of major functions, each city and town should have the opportunity and assistance to improve some elements of its environment. It is necessary to analyze those components of smaller communities and realistically assess their advantages and problems. Those functions that can be better performed by larger units of government should be transferred to them while those elements that can be handled well by the smaller communities should be handled at that level with technical assistance

provided by the State when necessary.

The existing housing, retail service, street and utility systems, and the aesthetic and historic aspects of smaller towns should be enhanced. In many smaller towns the level of facilities is deplorably low. The housing is inadequate, range of retail services is lacking, and the condition of streets and utility systems is often poor. The historic aspects of smaller towns could be identified, preserved and promulgated. Developing aesthetic improvement programs could also significantly affect the life of smaller towns and the overall environmental quality of the State.

Strategies and Priorities

One possible strategy in outlining state policies for urban areas is to identify the major problems, review programs pertaining to these problems, adjust the programs, add new programs where need is shown, and allocate resources according to agreed on priorities. Resources would then be distributed on a pro rata basis.

Another possible strategy, and the one recommended, is to assign priorities and identify a small number of functional or problem areas and allocate a disproportionately large amount of available resources to those areas. For example, North Carolina identified one function as the object of major state aid in 1961 and set improvement of education as the major state priority. The new programs in that instance were the provision of a school of arts for gifted children, catch-up school for under-privileged and underachievers and a state anti-poverty program.

A major advantage of this method is that the concentration of resources toward one major objective results in significant and highly apparent measures

of success. It also affords those services or functions that have in the past received a lower priority of attention to catch up to those that have traditionally enjoyed a large share of resources for some time.

It is time to elevate health services and housing to the top of the list of state priorities for resources and action in Iowa. In strengthening these functions some programs in existing agencies must be augmented to assure that significant progress will occur. Coordination of currently adequate programs is also necessary.

The process of reviewing programs with the goals of improving health services and housing on a state-wide basis should be an integral part of the planning process and, therefore, should be done by the Office for Planning and Programming, the Comptroller's Office and the various state agencies. The Division of Municipal Affairs should also make a concerted effort to involve local governments in the process of formulating as well as implementing programs.

LOCAL FRAMEWORK FOR URBAN PROBLEM-SOLVING

It seems clear that the Iowa State governmental administrative structure does not now provide a considered focus on urban problems. Administrative reorganization of state government along functional lines and sharing of functions by local and regional levels of governments are recommended to serve statewide needs. However, it must be pointed out that restructuring itself does not effect solutions. The restructuring has the potential of improving communication, coordination, and a forceful probing of common problems. But restructuring in itself does not guarantee achieving there ends. Reorganization alone is not the solution to urban problems, but it can be a useful vehicle to examine and implement the statewide policies.

The assignment or allocation of urban functions has been of increasing concern to administrators and planners in the many interrelated fields. The two major reports dealing with the allocation of urban functions to the several governmental levels are primarily concerned with metropolitan areas, because in these areas the conflicts of numerous jurisdictions have become increasingly evident. Many of the described factors for the allocation of functions are just as appropriate for urban areas not included in metropolitan areas. In 1963, the Advisory Commission on Intergovernmental Relations published a report on this topic in which it developed a set of political and economic criteria "for deciding whether a function should be performed on local, intermediate, or area-wide basis."¹⁷ These criteria the commission felt, were "likely to receive widespread acceptance as tending, if followed, to foster local government in metropolitan areas capable of resolving conflicts, providing a setting for personal development in a democratic atmosphere, and providing public goods and services required by the citizenry."¹⁸

¹⁷ ACIR, Performance of Urban Functions: Local and Area-Wide, op. cit., p. 41.

¹⁸ Ibid.

Seven general criteria for allocating functions were delineated by the Advisory Commission. Of the seven criteria, the first two are economic and the remaining five essentially political.

1. The governmental jurisdiction responsible for providing any service should be large enough to enable the benefits from that service to be consumed primarily within the jurisdiction.
2. The unit of government should be large enough to permit realization of the economies of scale.
3. The unit of government carrying on a function should have a geographic area of jurisdiction adequate for effective performance.
4. The unit of government performing a function should have the legal and administrative ability to perform the services assigned to it.
5. Every unit of government should be responsible for a sufficient number of functions so that it provides a forum for resolution of conflicting interests, with significant responsibility for balancing governmental needs and resources.
6. The performance of functions by a unit of government should remain controllable by and accessible to its residents.
7. Functions should be assigned to that level of government which maximizes the conditions and opportunities for active citizen participation and still permits adequate performance.¹⁹

In February, 1970, the Committee for Economic Development recommended allocation of urban functions to two levels of government. Although there are shifts in emphasis from the ACIR report to the CED report, both assign functions to a metropolitan government. The major difference between the two approaches is that the Committee for Economic Development also recommends that functions that can be performed by smaller units of government be carried out at that level.

¹⁹Ibid.

The major objectives of this combination of centralization and decentralization are described as follows:

...we recommend as an ultimate solution a governmental system of two levels. Some functions should be assigned in their entirety to the area-wide government, others to the local level, but most will be assigned in part to each level. More important than the division of functions is the sharing of power. Local communities will be assigned some power over functions placed at the area-wide level of government. Further, state and federal governments must be involved in most functions. This two-level system will not provide neatness and symmetry, but effectiveness, responsiveness, and adequate resources.²⁰

The report also includes a summary of major aspects of the metropolitan Toronto experience and pointed out that of the eighteen major functional areas only five--public transit, air pollution control, welfare, administration of justice and civil defense--are assigned to one level of government. They are all the responsibility of the metropolitan level. This framework is applicable to areas other than metropolitan. The continuing problems of overlapping jurisdictions and the multiplicity of governments involved in the same functions, with increasing inability to finance or provide services, can be better handled using the concept of the sharing of functions by area-wide governments (county or regional) and local governments.

²⁰Committee for Economic Development, Reshaping Government in Metropolitan Areas, (New York, The Committee, February, 1970), p. 19.

THE CRISIS IN FINANCING LOCAL GOVERNMENT

The financial problems now faced by the local governments in Iowa's urban areas can be summarized in one phrase--not enough money. It has become almost trite to describe the overwhelming tasks which face our nation's urban areas and the financial inability of the local governments of these areas to perform these tasks. Some may think that this situation exists only in the old, overpopulated urban areas of the eastern seaboard and that it is not applicable to Iowa. The facts are that the urban areas of Iowa must face most if not all of the same problems confronting the larger eastern cities, with the only difference being in degree rather than in kind. This point was made emphatically in February, 1970, when the Governor's Committee on Cities and Towns stated: "The inescapable fact which emerges from the study of the . . . Committee is that most cities, and many of the towns of Iowa are faced with an increasingly urgent and immediate financial problem." The League of Iowa Municipalities in supporting the Report of the Governor's Committee has said that, although "the magnitude and severity of the problems of local government which sparked the national studies. . . in the 1960's may not have been present in Iowa at that time, they are present now." (Emphasis in original).²¹

These descriptions of the plight of local government in Iowa, grim as they are, concern only the legal and physical restrictions on the ability of local government to finance the services it provides. A more recent and more ominous development has been the so-called "taxpayers revolt" which is directed almost exclusively at the steady rise in the property tax, the only tax which local government can levy. Whatever the revenue problems of local governments were heretofore, these have

²¹ League of Iowa Municipalities, Financing Municipal Government (Des Moines, Iowa: The League, 1970), unpagged.

been compounded several times by this adverse taxpayer reaction to property taxes. A solution must be found, or local government will become paralyzed.

In understanding why local government is now faced with a revenue shortage, it is necessary to review the development of the taxing powers of local government in Iowa. Historically, it has been true in Iowa, as in other states, that local governments, whether they be cities, counties, townships, school districts or other special districts, have not had any inherent taxing power but, rather, have had only that taxing power expressly granted by the state legislature. These grants of power have been limited in two ways; one, in the type of tax that can be imposed, and two, in the level of the tax that can be imposed. The only tax which any local government has ever been authorized to levy has been the property tax, i.e. a tax on real and tangible personal property measured by the value of the property. The legislature has both authorized a local government to levy the property tax for general governmental purposes (in the case of cities, towns and counties) and has also authorized the levy of a property tax for special purposes such as education (in the case of school districts and community colleges). In most instances the legislature has imposed a limit on the number of mills (\$.001) per dollar of assessed valuation (27% of fair market value) that can be imposed. Cities and towns, for example, may not levy a tax in excess of 30 mills for general government purposes and counties may not exceed three to four and one-half mills (the exact amount depending upon assessed valuation of property in the county). Most special purpose taxing districts are also limited in the amount of mill levy but school districts, as most property owners are aware, are not so limited. The 1968 constitutional amendment granting home rule to Iowa's cities and towns did not change this situation for those units of local government because the amendment expressly continued

the requirement that the taxing powers of cities and towns come directly from the legislature.

The Governor's Cities and Towns Committee has made an extensive review of the present financial situation of Iowa's cities and towns. Some of the more prominent facts set forth in its Report are the following. From 1963 to 1968 the total annual revenue of all cities and towns increased from \$182.4 million per year to \$301.5 million per year, an annual increase of 10.9%. Revenue from the property tax in this same period went from \$80.7 million to \$103.1 million, an increase of only 4.6% per year. Thus the major increase came from other sources such as user charges, licenses, and permits. State and federal aid is also included in this other revenue, but it does not make up a large portion of it. In 1969, for example, direct state aid to cities and towns amounted to only \$34 million. This contrasts with the \$175.2 million in state aid received by school districts and the \$103.3 million received by counties. The direct state aid to cities and towns comes from only two sources, the road use tax fund and gross liquor sales. The cities and towns receive 15% of the road use tax fund, allocated on the basis of population. The use of these funds is limited to street related projects. Ten percent of the gross proceeds of the state owned liquor stores is also distributed on a population basis to cities and towns. These funds do not have to be used for problems related to the consumption of alcohol. The Governor's Committee classified tax credits as a source of state aid to local government but it is not correct to so classify them because they are in actuality aid to individual taxpayers rather than aids to local governments. In Iowa a tax credit is a payment by the state of a part of the property tax bill of an individual taxpayer. The extent of federal aid to cities and towns is more difficult to ascertain but it does not appear to exceed \$20 million per year.

The Report also states that many cities and towns are at or near the 30 mill limit and that an increasing number will reach this point soon. The Report explains why the property tax has not been able to keep up with the rising cost of local government, and why this cost is increasing so dramatically. It makes it clear that the only alternatives open to a city or town, once it reaches the 30 mill level, is to obtain funds from other sources or to cut back on the type or quality of services rendered. A number of communities have already been forced to resort to the latter.

The Governor's Committee did not suggest any remedies for the problems it so graphically demonstrated. The reason for this is that it did not consider that it was charged with the responsibility for doing so. Remedies have, however, been suggested by others for the revenue problems facing urban communities both in Iowa and in other states. These remedies are of four basic types: (1) direct financial aid from the federal and state governments; (2) assumption by the state and federal governments of one or more functions now performed by local government; (3) authorizing local government to impose higher or different kinds of taxes; (4) reducing the number of local governmental units.²²

The crisis in the financing of local government in Iowa has resulted from the refusal of the leadership of the State Government to recognize that it is imperative that one or more of these four solutions be adopted or, in the words of the Governor's Cities and Towns Committee, "bankruptcy will not wait for debate." Unfortunately, the 1970 session of the General Assembly took no action to meet this crisis except to appoint a Tax Study

²²Advisory Commission on Intergovernmental Relations, State Aid to Local Government, (Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1969); Bahl, "State Taxes, Expenditures and the Fiscal Plight of the Cities," in The American Assembly, The States and the Urban Crisis 85 (1970).

Committee. Also, there is no sign of any leadership being exerted which will produce a different result in the 1971 session. If nothing is done in the very near future, the prediction of the Governor's Committee will come true.

STATE FRAMEWORK FOR URBAN PROBLEM-SOLVING

This section is concerned with three interrelated segments of the state framework:

- 1) the State administrative framework, including the general state climate toward urban areas, the state administrators' views on urban policy and reorganization proposals.
- 2) the local administrative framework, and
- 3) the State Planning function, with discussions of the roles of state planning and the Division of Municipal Affairs.

The State Climate toward Urban Areas

The general climate of thinking in the state has very real effects of how problems are presented and what the public and private expectations are toward solving them. The legislative, executive, and the administrative point of view toward state development of human and other resources permeates the environment in which public and private decisions are made. It must be recognized and believed that government is a partnership of all levels working for the common goal of improving conditions in the State.

On the executive level it is essential that a strong sense of direction for the ship of state be established and promulgated. When goals are arrived at and priorities established, it is the responsibility of the chief executive and his office that the sense of direction and dedication to the objectives guide and influence all levels of state government. Positive policy statements should be presented to the public along with the objectives and programs to effect these policies. The attitude of the Legislature also contributes significantly to the state environment.

The Policies of the State of Iowa toward its Urban Areas as Reflected in the Iowa Code

Little can be accomplished by the executive branch without the aid and cooperation of the legislative branch. The legislature is the principal policy maker in our form of government, both through its law making authority and through power over the purse. It is in the Iowa Code, the compilation of the permanent State laws, that the main policies of the State are expressed. In analyzing the policies of the State of Iowa toward urban problems as reflected in the provisions of the Iowa Code three steps to approach this topic will be used: first, the history of the relationship between the State of Iowa and its cities and towns is summarized; second, a brief discussion of the general problems of local governments is used to set a background; and third, an analysis of the Iowa statutes is made to determine what, if any, clear state policies exist in reference to its urban problems and in particular to its cities and towns. This section is meant only to give a brief overview of the problem rather than an in-depth study.²³ A further study would require that research must branch out of the legal sphere and into the political science realm. It is also impossible at this time to calculate the effect of the adoption of the Home Rule Amendment by Iowa voters in 1968. There has not been any judicial interpretation of this amendment to date so its impact upon the Iowa Code is not known. It should be noted that the Municipal Laws Study Committee appointed pursuant to a resolution of the 1969 session of the General Assembly is now considering a complete revision of the laws relating to Iowa municipalities.

²³For a more complete discussion see Barbara K. Bailey and Robert J. Martineau, The Policies of the State of Iowa Towards Its Urban Areas as Reflected in the Iowa Code, (Iowa City, Iowa: Institute of Urban and Regional Research, Technical Report No. 2, April, 1970).

Iowa began with a most permissive attitude toward its cities and towns. Between 1838 and 1846 the Territorial Legislature of Iowa created cities and towns by special enactment. This same procedure was followed under Iowa's first constitution from 1846 to 1857. A total of forty cities were specially chartered in these two periods. At the present time only Davenport, Muscatine, Wapello and Comanche still operate under special charters. As early as 1851, however, the Iowa Legislature began thinking in terms of home rule by enacting a law which set forth a model charter under which an individual city or town could incorporate. Apparently, few cities or towns took advantage of this procedure. After the adoption of the 1857 Constitution, which includes a provision that the General Assembly may not pass local or special laws for the incorporation of cities and towns, the legislature repealed the model charter law and passed general incorporation statutes and all of its legislation since then has had to comply with the constitutional prohibition against special legislation.

Quite early the Iowa Supreme Court adopted and has consistently followed the principle that the cities and towns of Iowa had no inherent right of self government but only such powers as were expressly bestowed by the state legislature. This rule received its classic expression by Chief Justice Dillon in Merriam v. Moody's Executors, 25 Iowa 170 (1868):

"It must be taken for settled law, that a municipal corporation possesses and can exercise the following powers and no others: First, those granted in express words; Second, those necessarily implied or necessarily incident to the powers expressly granted; Third, those absolutely essential to the declared object and purpose of the corporation - not simply convenient, but indispensable; Fourth, any fair doubt as to the existence of a power is resolved by the courts against the corporation - against the existence of the power."

This statement is included almost verbatim in Section 237 of Dillon's

Municipal Corporations and has become known as the Dillon Rule. For over one hundred years it has been an albatross around the necks of not only the cities and towns of Iowa but of political subdivisions throughout the country.

Even though Iowa was still following the Dillon Rule in the 1960's, it was no longer in the mainstream of political thinking. By 1960 thirty-six states had adopted home rule provisions either by statute or by constitutional amendment. In 1962, under the leadership of the League of Iowa Municipalities, it was proposed that the Iowa Constitution be amended to grant home rule to cities and towns. An amendment similar to a home rule amendment recently adopted in Kansas was introduced in both houses of the 1963 session of the General Assembly. It passed the Senate but failed to get out of committee in the House. While the Senate was still considering the constitutional amendment, it was decided to attempt to gain home rule by statute. To achieve this, a bill was passed by the General Assembly that became Section 368.2 of the Code. This statute was an attempt to repeal the Dillon Rule by providing that the Iowa laws relating to cities and towns were to be construed liberally and that the granting of one power to a city was not to be presumed to be a denial of other powers. This statute proved unavailing, however, because the Supreme Court in Richardson v. City of Jefferson, 257 Iowa 709 (1965) held that it failed to grant Iowa cities and towns any additional power or authority and thus solved nothing. The result was the Home Rule Amendment which was passed by the 1965 and 1967 sessions of the General Assembly and ratified by the people in 1968.

Present Problems

The major concern facing all local governments today is revenue,

and in this area the Home Rule Amendment offers no relief from state domination and control. The revenue shortage is only, however, the end product of many problems of present day society. Some of these include: an expanding population, a strong tendency toward urbanization, increasing demand for services because of an increased standard of living, and inflation. Along with these problems pressing local governments from the bottom, they feel pressure from state and federal governments which are combating the same problems by requiring local governments to provide new services and new facilities as well as mandating improvements in current services and facilities without substantial additional financial aid or enlarging their taxing powers.

All of these problems are forcing the local government unit to spend more and more money. However, it does not have the authority to levy different kinds of taxes to provide the needed services. The only tax local governments are permitted to impose is the property tax and even with regard to this tax cities and towns cannot go beyond the 30 mill limit for general fund purposes. The property tax itself is objectionable for several reasons. First, property is no longer the measure of a person's wealth and real property values have not increased as fast as expenditures. The tax has been described as regressive and thus increasing property taxes would tend to discriminate against the poorer section of our society. And in the same light, the poor do not receive greater services for their larger percentage of taxes.

These limits on revenue sources are inherited from the mid-nineteenth century and from the depression period of the 1930's when the great mistrust of local government officials arose because of wide-spread corruption, extravagance and the amateur status of most officials. The limits were placed to ride herd on the local officials. Another restriction imposed for the same

reasons as the expenditure limitations was the debt limitation. Neither the tax nor the debt limit reflects the true tax and debt-carrying ability of a particular community. If the cities and towns and other local governments are to meet the new and pressing needs of our society, they must be permitted to obtain the funds to provide the services and programs demanded of them. The current local revenue and taxation system does not permit local governments to fulfill its functions. This has been dramatically stated in the recent report of the Governor's Cities and Towns Committee which was appointed to study this problem.

The Iowa Code and State Policy

Even the most cursory examination of the Iowa Code as it relates to Iowa's urban areas and in particular to its cities and towns indicates that to an overwhelming degree the State, or at least the General Assembly, has been distrustful of the residents of cities and towns and of their local governments. For this reason state law governs the minutia of municipal government to an amazing degree, both as to governmental structure and as to the manner in which the local government may carry out its functions. The very number of pages of the Code devoted to cities and towns--almost 300--is indicative of the content.

The General Assembly in recent years has been quite willing to pass enabling legislation authorizing local governments to engage in programs aimed at current social problems. Some of these laws concern urban renewal, low rent housing, industrial financing, water pollution, metropolitan planning, regional airports, and health facilities. In each instance, however, the enabling legislation imposes a multitude of requirements that restrict the ability of the local community to answer its own local needs.

Thus, the impact of the code is to restrict, to limit, to deny to local communities, particularly the major urban areas, effective self government. It would be difficult to ascribe this situation to a conscious, deliberate policy on the part of the State because it is a situation that has existed for over one hundred years, and each new General Assembly merely accepts it as it finds it. Notwithstanding this, to the extent that a body of law developed over a century can reflect a policy, the policy of the State of Iowa towards its urban areas appears to be one of distrust of local self government, distrust of local officials and a distrust of large concentrations of population.

One final point should be made. The provisions of the Code specifically dealing with local governments are not the only indices of a state policy toward urban areas. A policy is also indicated by the programs which are to be carried out by state agencies. To the extent that these programs concern problems associated with urban areas, they demonstrate a favorable policy toward these areas. Few such programs are specifically authorized by the Iowa Code. Even more important are the laws concerning the distribution of state revenues. A policy can be found in the distribution of road use tax funds according to an apportionment more favorable to rural areas than to urban areas. A policy can also be found in the lack of any direct state aid to municipalities other than the road use tax fund and a portion of the liquor receipts. A policy can also be found in the continued maintenance of a multitude of local governments with overlapping boundaries and fragmented powers and taxing authority. But most important of all, state policy can be found in the inadequate amount of state money being spent in urban areas to help solve urban problems.

The current fiscal crisis of the cities and towns and the lack of understanding and responsiveness by the legislature contributes to the present climate of discouragement expressed by the League of Iowa Municipalities and community officials all over the state.

State Administrators' Views of Urban Policy

Administrators of eight state agencies²⁴ were selected to be interviewed to determine the level of concern of state administrators toward urban problems, urban policy formulation and the state planning and programming functions. The questions asked were for the most part open-ended to elicit informal responses on the general areas above. The respondents were agency directors, officials charged with the agency planning or budgeting functions. There was a total of fifteen interviews conducted in May, 1970.

Although one of the respondents has been in his present position for twenty-three years the majority of respondents have held their present position less than three years with four respondents serving less than one year.

Reapportionment was felt to have little or no potential for affecting state urban policies especially in the immediate future. Some administrators thought there might be some improvement in 5 or 6 years.

²⁴ Iowa Crime Commission, Iowa Development Commission, Office of Economic Opportunity, Department of Health, Iowa Highway Commission, Office for Planning and Programming, Department of Public Instruction, Department of Social Services.

The state administrators were almost unanimous in feeling there were no expressed state policies for urban areas, and that although there must be unexpressed policies, they were difficult to define very explicitly except for the "old battle of rural versus urban" or "farm orientation", "rural bias of legislature".

When asked about the "most important policies for urban areas that your agency has developed" most answered that frankly there were not many. In some instances, specific programs were mentioned but not overall policies.

There was the feeling that there have been few changes in urban policy over the past five years naming "encouraging regionalism", "home rule", and "Federal Programs for urban areas" as isolated expressions of change.

However, there was a strong opinion expressed that state-urban relations could be improved. The areas named in which improvement could take place were:

1. better coordination and cooperation
2. more money to local areas
3. communication: meetings, newsletters
4. closer working relations
5. change in tax structure
6. reapportionment: toward urban areas
7. restructuring of local government

Funding and communications were mentioned most frequently by the administrators.

The response to questions concerning the role of the Office for Planning and Programming was varied. Many respondents were not sure of the functions the Office now performs, with some specific programs named by a few

administrators who work with the Office on the named programs. For those who had ideas on additional functions the Office could perform, there was a consensus on "policy-making", "long-range programming" and "coordination". There were several respondents who felt that more effort on planning rather than on "details of operation" would be desirable. Also expressed was the suggestion that computerized data systems and analysis relating "wants and needs" by the Office would be valuable. A related question asked was "What specific activities do you feel the department or office charged with State Planning should undertake?" "Work with various agencies on who sets state goals", "coordination", need for "structure for implementation", and "future development and programs" were specifically mentioned.

There was a wide range of responses on the general objectives the State should be pursuing. There were several answers discussing the problem of coordinating each agency's goals since presently "each agency chugs away on its own". County and administrative consolidation or reorganization were mentioned by several administrators to increase the quality of living and to encourage economies of scale in urban areas. Industrial development was discussed with two major points recurring. First, there were several respondents who expressed the need for industrial development to be encouraged on a regional basis, rather than on the basis of each town and city trying to attract industry. And secondly, that the quality of life should not be jeopardized by the desire to increase population for its own sake, and the suggestion that perhaps encouraging industrial development will contribute adversely to the quality of life in the state. Also the general view was expressed that services on all major problem areas include health and medical services, housing, recreation, and others, are areas in which the state planning agency should develop policies.

It was generally recognized that planning, programming and budgeting should be done by agencies and then coordinated at some point. Some respondents were concerned that they are "building in more and more duplication". "I don't really think the treasurer or comptroller has full knowledge" and "the larger departments should discuss how allocations should be made" were two responses on budgeting. Also expressed by one administrator was the opinion that the current procedure works.

Most agencies evaluated programs informally, checking by infrequent visits. All agencies felt this to be an important area to develop. In some cases the lack of policies was again stated to be a problem since overall evaluation could not be made meaningfully in their absence. Two departments have apparently established comprehensive review and evaluation procedures and several operate under required evaluation procedures for specific programs.

Reorganization of the Executive Branch of the Iowa State Government

The 1966-67 Public Administration Service (P.A.S.) study, Administrative Organization of the Executive Branch of the State of Iowa, after noting that "Iowa's administrative structure is confused and weak, with the responsibility for state programs and activities distributed among some 120 departments, boards, and commissions, "proposed a rational streamlining of the Iowa executive branch into 13 major departments, each headed by a director appointed by the governor for a term coinciding with the governor's term.

To establish a more efficient state executive branch in which the duplication of efforts are avoided; to give the chief executive the authority to implement successfully policies and to coordinate departments; and provide for the effective oversight by the legislature of a presently chaotic executive branch, the executive branch must be reorganized by function into a small

number of departments with clear lines of authority running from the governor at the top of the hierarchy through the entire organization. In this hierarchy, multi-headed commissions performing administrative roles must be eliminated as they tend toward indecision and lethargy.

Many reasons, all brought to the fore in the 1967 reorganization proposal and in proposals in previous years, should impel the state legislature of Iowa to take strong, positive executive reorganization steps. First, while the governor is expected to exert leadership and while the public holds him responsible for the successful implementation of state programs, quite often he is unable to exert the direction of the executive establishment to desired ends. As the P.A.S. study observed:

his (the governor's) authority will be circumscribed because the agency head is not his appointee, because agency procedures and processes are prescribed by statute, or because of any number of other limitations that divide and confuse the exercise of executive power.

Rather than provide for a strong executive responsible to the people and capable of providing leadership for the policy and administration of the executive branch of government, the statutory and constitutional provisions have diffused the executive power under the Madisonian principle: "Ambition must be made to counteract ambition". Hence, the governor of Iowa is forced to share power with other elected officials of the executive branch: the attorney general, secretary of state, auditor, treasurer, secretary of agriculture, and a combination of the above in the Executive Council. Often, the executive power of the governor is reduced to his personal persuasive ability, his ability to marshal the forces of public opinion, and his power as leader of his party. Further, his short two year term does not permit him enough time to plan a program push for its adoption by the legislature, and to implement that policy successfully. Likewise, many departments established by statute are headed

by officials whose terms are not coextensive with that of the governor. Some of these officials were appointed by a predecessor and support policies in opposition to those of the present governor. The P.A.S. study, in noting the existence of statutory, multi-headed agencies with memberships of overlapping terms, charges that: ". . .the appointing power (is) almost meaningless for Iowa's governor." As the Iowa governor has little real authority to remove administrative officers, the governor is rather emasculated as administrators may choose to disregard his policies.

The legislative strategies of both diffusing power and of creating haphazardly from time to time, a new agency for a new area of public concern, have resulted in an unwieldy number of agencies, departments, and commissions--with concomitant costly duplication of effort and authority overlap. It is impossible to direct effectively an administrative establishment of over one hundred units. In the words of the P.A.S. study "small, uncoordinated agencies deal with bits and pieces of total problems that call for broad-scale attack." A notable example of the proliferation of unmanageable governmental units is the citation of those agencies with responsibilities concerning the natural environment: the State Conservation Commission, the Geological Survey Board, the Iowa Water Pollution Control Board, the Iowa Natural Resources Council, the State Advisory Board for Preserves, and the State Soil Conservation Committee, not to mention other agencies with secondary duties concerning the natural environment.

The P.A.S. study called for such a manageable executive branch -- one which could be dominated by a chief executive, coordinated by an office such as the Office for Planning and Programming, and effectively "overseen" by the state legislature. However, the Iowa legislature has only begun to implement the proposed reorganization and the opposition of the state agencies and pressure groups who perceived that they might lose power in the

reorganization shuffle has been strong. The ultimate result of the proposal has been that some remedial efforts have been agreed upon, but the changes have been only a beginning when considering the totality of the administrative functions of State Government. Possibly a strategy with somewhat of a greater chance for acceptance would have proposed the implementation of the executive branch reorganization in a manner parallel to the statute which reorganized the Wisconsin State Government, (Chapter 75 of the Laws of 1967) rather than the wholesale abolition of governmental units. This law, providing for the reorganization of Wisconsin's executive branch along functional lines (from 105 agencies to 28), established five different explicit types of "transfers" of agencies in the reorganization process. The "transfers" ranged from continuing an existing agency with certain identifiable subunits transferred in and others transferred out, to providing for department mergers, to the termination of an identifiable activity. The transfer clauses in the legislation further provided for the personnel of governmental units transferred and the funds of those units under the different types of transfers.

Under the present Iowa constitution it is assumed that the legislature has the sole power to reorganize the executive branch. Experience in Iowa and other states has shown that the legislature is not willing to make an effective reorganization of the executive branch. Thus it is proposed that the legislature pass a law or that the Iowa Constitution be amended to permit the governor to reorganize the executive department subject to a legislative veto within a limited period of time. As one political scientist has suggested, this is "an attempt to put inertia and indecision on the side of change."²⁵

²⁵Karl A. Bosworth, "The Politics of Management Improvement in the States", American Political Science Review, March, 1953, p. 97.

Congress in the 1949 Reorganization Act gave the President the same power. The Advisory Commission on Intergovernmental Relations, in suggesting this strategy to the states in 1967, argued that "this links the responsibility for the efficient day-to-day operation of the government with the power to propose revision of antiquated structure and methods."²⁶

While seven states have adopted forms of this provision, three of these (Alaska, Massachusetts, and Michigan) have provided for it in their state constitutions. For example, Alaska's constitution gives to the governor the power to make changes "in the organization of the executive branch or in the assignment of functions among its units which he considers necessary for efficient administration." Unless the legislature of Alaska expressly disapproves of the reorganizational changes in sixty days, they become law. The different states have used this procedure with varying effects. Alaska has used it to create two new departments while Puerto Rico, in a sweeping reorganization of its bureaucracy in 1950, had 13 of 14 proposed departments accepted.

Only with the placing of this type of authority in the governor of Iowa can come an executive branch so structured that the chief executive can control the state bureaucracy while the state legislature can effectively overview the executive branch.

²⁶ACIR, Fiscal Balance in the American Federal System, Volume I, (Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, October, 1967).

State Planning Function and Policy Formulation

Over the four decades of state planning, there has been substantial change in its concepts and functions. A recent federal policy statement includes a current description of state planning functions:

The primary tasks of State comprehensive planning are: (1) to articulate goals and objectives for the development of the State; (2) to identify and analyze significant development problems and opportunities facing the State; and (3) to propose alternative courses of action to be taken by the State to solve the problems or realize the opportunities. The consequences of each alternative course of action should be presented in terms of its relation to the goals and objectives for State development, to the efficient allocation of resources for State development, and to specific programs, activities, and proposals.²⁷

The HUD document discusses where the planning function should be located:

State comprehensive planning is most effectively employed as an element of the executive function of State government. The Governor, therefore, is the official primarily responsible for its conduct and execution. The State comprehensive planning program should be conceived as a continuing process to provide central policy formulation for the inter-related social, economic, and physical aspects of State development, to give direction to the various governmental programs involved, and to effect coordination of departmental or functional agency activities and programs.

The suggested methodology is one of a systems approach using Planning, Programming and Budgeting systems. The latter part of the HUD policy directive suggests that the primary tasks of State planning are to articulate goals, to develop various alternatives after studying problems and

²⁷ Office of the Assistant Secretary, Department of Housing and Urban Development, "Urban Planning Program Guide", Chapter 5, State Comprehensive Planning, (Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, December 12, 1966).

opportunities, and finally to present the consequences of each alternative both in terms of their relationship to the goals and objectives agreed upon and in terms of the programs and proposals necessary to achieve them. A cost-benefit analysis of the alternatives then should be worked out by the chief executive weighing both resources, social and political costs and benefits--"the real point of PPBS is to establish a process for bringing the relevant tools to bear at the right moment so that decisions are made in the light of maximum information about present and future consequences of alternative courses of action."²⁸

In instituting PPBS in the Department of Health, Education and Welfare an effort was made to begin a regular process to enumerate major alternative ways to allocate resources over a period of years, then to decide on which major directives would be recommended and finally to translate departmental decisions into budgetary and legislative decisions. This method replaced an older approach of "building on the previous year's base and adding additional funds where administration priorities, Congressional interest, or the bargaining power of program managers dictated." And significantly, "new legislation was handled separately, usually after the budget was put to bed, and with little explicit consideration of trade-offs between funding old programs and adding new ones."²⁹ The emphasis is on systematic decision-making with full enumeration of various alternatives and with full understanding of the results, costs, and priorities involved in achieving explicit goals and objectives. With a periodic built-in review function to

²⁸ Alice M. Rivlin, "The Planning, Programming, and Budgeting System in the Department of Health, Education and Welfare: Some Lessons from Experience", Reprint 162, (Washington, D.C.: The Brookings Institution, 1969), p. 919.

²⁹ Ibid.

test for effectiveness, the administrative agency, the legislator, the chief executive and the general public can make meaningful future decisions based on the explicit presentation of the results of past decisions.

This process should be applied to the development of state goals and objectives. The state process should include the widest possible participation of interests from local officials, citizen advisory groups, legislative bodies, and state agencies and departments. These goals and objectives and the studies, reports, and information describing them must be disseminated widely and regularly.

"Currently, the primary characteristics of the planning requirements of state government fall into three distinct classifications:

1. Planning dealing with facility construction or other physical improvements;
2. 'Plans' which represent administrative control agreements and program workplans; and
3. Multi-year functional program planning, in which both policy discretion and long-term incentives are vested."³⁰

Dr. Slavin, Director of the State of Washington's Planning and Community Affairs Agency, continues by discussing the frustration of state planning being asked to become "a public advocate of long-term goals involving the general public and the legislative function and . . . at the same time . . . is expected to be an integral part of the central management of state government." He feels from his experience that planning goals can best be accomplished if the planning and programming done by functional agencies is "coordinated

³⁰Richard H. Slavin, "State Planning--A Neo-Classical Synthesis", paper presented before the Ninth Annual Meeting, Western Regional Science Association, San Diego, California, February 27, 1970.

by officials whose terms are not coextensive with that of the governor. Some of these officials were appointed by a predecessor and support policies in opposition to those of the present governor. The P.A.S. study, in noting the existence of statutory, multi-headed agencies with memberships of overlapping terms, charges that: ". . .the appointing power (is) almost meaningless for Iowa's governor." As the Iowa governor has little real authority to remove administrative officers, the governor is rather emasculated as administrators may choose to disregard his policies.

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²⁵Karl A. Bosworth, "The Politics of Management Improvement in the States", American Political Science Review, March, 1953, p. 97.

There has been in recent years a beginning effort to formalize policies toward urban areas. In 1964 the Governor's Commission on State and Local Government was formed with the expressed purpose of encouraging intergovernmental cooperation. The major recommendation of this Commission was for the authority for state and local governments to enter into contracts for the joint use of facilities and services. This recommendation was enacted into law by the 61st General Assembly. More use should be made of this law.

In 1966 the Iowa Intergovernmental Relations Commission was created, with 105 members including state, county and municipal officials, representatives of school districts, state legislators, state universities, private citizens, and the Director of the League of Iowa Municipalities and the Director of the Central Iowa Regional Planning Commission. This commission was to find new approaches to intergovernmental cooperation and problems at the state and local levels.³⁷ This unwieldy group met only four times, twice in 1966, and once each in 1967 and 1968 without substantial results.

The Office for Planning and Programming was created by executive order in 1966 and its director was designated the coordinator of intergovernmental relations for state government. In 1968 the Governor held a series of six meetings entitled "Crisis Cities" to coordinate state resources in assisting the sixteen major cities to alleviate some social problems. Recommendations were formulated but were not followed up in subsequent years.

³⁷ Ibid., p. 15.

The Location of the State Planning Function

Concerning the location of state planning function in the state government hierarchy, the Advisory Commission on Intergovernmental Relations stated:

The planning unit's administrative location varied. Of the 44 planning units surveyed in 1967 by the Council of State Planning agencies, 16 are in the State department of development, 16 in a staff unit attached to the Governor's office, 5 by a separate planning agency, 5 by the department of finance or administration, and 2 by an interdepartmental committee.³⁸

Yet while no consensus of state planning structure exists, all commissions and texts are in agreement that the state planning agency must be directly responsible and immediately accessible to the Governor who must be able to use planning as a management tool to guide programs and policies. The ACIR goes so far as to suggest the designation of the Governor as the State Planning Officer to insure the close relationship between the State planning staff and the Governor.³⁹

In Iowa, the Office for Planning and Programming has an excellent structural location. The office can be more effective however, for reasons which are set forth in the next section.

³⁸ ACIR, Fiscal Balance in the American Federal System, Volume I, op. cit., p. 233. See also 1968 survey: Council of State Governments, Summary of Budgets and Functions of State Offices of Community Affairs, (Washington, D.C.: The Council, January, 1969), Introduction.

³⁹ ACIR, 1970 Cumulative ACIR State Legislative Program, (Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1969), p. 2.

Office for Planning and Programming

The Office for Planning and Programming, an independent unit directly under gubernatorial control, was established by Executive Order in 1966 after a recommendation in the Public Administration Service (P.A.S.) Executive Branch study and was formally created by the state legislature by Chapter 70 of the Acts of 1969, now Chapter 7A of the Iowa Code. To meet its main responsibility "to coordinate the development of physical, economic, and human resource programs" O.P.P. was provided with the following functions:

1. prepare with the aid of consultants, state-wide plans and coordinate these plans with the comptroller.
2. submit economic reports, as directed by the governor.
3. provide technical assistance to other agencies and to the general assembly and its committees, as requested.
4. establish and maintain a state information system.
5. coordinate the planning activities of other agencies.
6. couple and maintain current information concerning federal and private aid available to the state agencies and local governments-- and help those governmental units with applications for aid.

O.P.P., as with any new agency, has many problems. Staffing alone is a rather serious problem--as there has been a constant and rather significant turnover of personnel. This has had and will continue to have a direct effect upon current projects because of lack of continuity. Perhaps the high turnover rate would be checked if there were a significant state commitment to O.P.P. and a resulting increase in the financial security and importance of its personnel. It is suggested that, while the director should be appointed by the Governor, the future personnel in O.P.P. should meet certain professional and technical standards to be established by the Merit Employment Office.

It appears that O.P.P. has an identity problem not of its own making. Instituted "to coordinate the development of physical, economic, and human resources," O.P.P. has been able to respond primarily in those areas where federal grants are available. Yet in coordinating the efforts of many agencies in federal programs, not only have resource and time limitations impeded coordination efforts, but the structure of the executive branch of the Iowa state government virtually defies coordination. With 100 plus governmental units, including many with duplicated, overlapping functions, often with multi-headed executive bodies of overlapping terms, and many under the control of other elected officials in the executive branch, coordination is difficult. Governor Ray has said: "O.P.P. needs and deserves the full cooperation of all other agencies of government." His statement is notable insofar as he is only capable of using his "chief executive" status as a basis of persuasion to ask other agencies to cooperate.

The dearth of power of O.P.P. is intimately related to O.P.P.'s lack of involvement in the budgeting process. The P.A.S. study noted:

Patently, planning and budgeting are clearly related. Long-range planning without regard to the realities of annual budget implementation of an academic exercise.⁴⁰

Likewise, ACIR, in 1967, in recommending changes designed to strengthen the state executive branch, "as an effective partner in the federal system," not only noted the need for a strong planning agency in the office of the governor, but recommended that the planning agency be part of the budgeting process so as to be capable of coordinating agencies and implementing programs. If the state legislature and the governor actually desire O.P.P.

⁴⁰Public Administration Service, Administrative Organization of the Executive Branch - State of Iowa: A Survey Report, Part II (Chicago, Ill: P.A.S., November, 1966), p. 1-14.

to fulfill its statutory functions, and if O.P.P. is to become the powerful tool for coordination, reorganization, and planning and implementation of programs of which it is capable, an excellent step would be the involvement of O.P.P. with the comptroller in the budgeting process. A recent South Carolina study concluded that its Office for Planning and Programming should be located in the State Budget and Control Board where it can both advise the governor and perform a key role in budgeting priorities. Until such a step is taken in Iowa, O.P.P. will probably continue as a relatively impotent organization in relation to its potential as well as actual ability to plan and implement policies - with little functional value to the Iowa state government other than its role of clearinghouse for federal funds.

Division of Municipal Affairs

Chapter 70 of the 1969 Laws, which formally created the Office for Planning and Programming, also created within O.P.P. the Division of Municipal Affairs to "provide planning assistance and coordination, upon request, to local and area planning officials", and "to perform such other functions and activities as are not inconsistent with the several purposes of this act." The creation of the Division of Municipal Affairs is part of a national trend in which the states, have instituted a state department of municipal affairs to aid communities in meeting the problem of urbanization.

The Iowa legislature has made a gesture to alleviate the problems of Iowa's municipalities by the creation of the Division of Municipal Affairs. In its first year the Division has been handicapped by lack of personnel. At the present time the Division has only a director and one secretary. Obviously, they can do little for Iowa's 950 municipalities, almost every one of which has urbanization problems requiring varying degrees of state assistance.

Contributing to the fragmenting the state planning operation is the present location of a planning division in the Iowa Development Commission. This division administers the "701" planning assistance programs to local and area planning units.

The following conclusions concerning the present status of the Office for Planning and Programming are based on the results of interviews conducted with administrators of state agencies, officials of county and municipal government, and newspaper editors. The most outstanding characteristic of the interviews is the degree of confusion and ambiguity concerning what the role of the Office for Planning and Programming is, and what it should be. A small percentage of those interviewed did not see the need for overall coordination of activities at the state level. More significant is the confusion which exists on the part of the majority who do see the need for overall coordination. These respondents do not consider the Office as performing this function, and some do not feel that it can perform this function. Beyond this was the lack of a clear picture of what the Office does do. There were several respondents who felt the Office did nothing and ⁴¹ in addition to the views of those outside the Office for Planning and Programming, the staff of the Office appear to lack a clear conception of the function of the Office. This tends to destroy the validity of the Office as an information source and as a source of technical assistance. Since the Office is not sure of its role it is limited in the types of information and assistance it can provide.

The most frequent reason given for the lack of effectiveness of O.P.P. was inadequate staffing and funding. Most of the respondents did not feel that O.P.P. had a sufficient number of personnel to fulfill the functions for

⁴¹ Several had not heard of the Division of Municipal Affairs.

which it was established. The results of this Study support this opinion. Another frequently given reason was the program orientation of O.P.P. It was felt that the staff was preoccupied with specific programs, and did not have the time for overall coordination. This orientation is supported by evidence from communications surveys. Only a few agencies listed O.P.P. among their top five communications terminals, either as source or receiver of information. In addition, the purpose of the contact, when present, was for a specific purpose, e.g. statistics or budgeting information, and not of sufficient breadth to allow for meaningful coordination. Unless the Office maintains sufficient communications with state agencies and units of local government it cannot have sufficient knowledge to act in the position of an effective coordinating agency. The absence of these lines of communication deprives the Office of its means of establishing a recognized role in the functioning of the state.

Also found was a lack of ability to set broad policy and goals at all levels of organization. This has two primary effects on the operation of O.P.P. First, the lack of a clear idea as to the function of O.P.P. on the part of the staff members of O.P.P. creates an ambiguous image of the office. Since the Office itself fails to transmit a clear image of its function, this reduces the motivation on the part of other agencies to communicate with it, other than for limited purposes. The lack of overall goals and policies on the part of the other agencies and units of government results in the absence of a substantive basis upon which O.P.P. can operate as a coordinating unit. An overall goal for state programs will exist only when the individual divisions of the state form their own goals. Until then there will only be diverse program objectives, and these cannot be effectively coordinated without an overall set of goals to use as a frame of reference.

Most of those interviewed felt that there was a lack of expressed policy of government at the state level, and all agreed that there was definitely a lack of policy in regard to urban areas. As stated at the outset, urban and rural areas of the state are interdependent and problems in one area have repercussions in the other. The lack of an adequate urban policy raises the question that there may also be a lack of an adequate rural policy. Many of the problems identified in a survey of both government officials and the general public of the state are most noticeable in the rural areas of the state, e.g. the problems of inadequate health services.

State administrators expressed the need for an increased coordination of state services. This need for coordination of effort was expressed particularly in regard to federal programs, and information and technical assistance with regard to federal programs. Local officials expressed the need for coordination of the activities of state and local government. Local officials felt that the state did not provide adequate guidelines when state programs were authorized. Local officials tend not to go to the state for technical assistance, since they do not know which agency to contact to receive the required assistance.

The development of a communications system will not of itself provide the coordination necessary for effective state government. An adequate communication system will, however, provide the mechanism through which effective coordination can be accomplished.

It is suggested that the Office for Planning and Programming increase the effectiveness of its own office in defining its roles and functions to its own personnel as well as to other agencies and departments. In order

to insure the effective operation of the information function, it is recommended that O.P.P. carry through on its project to establish and maintain an information system for the state.⁴² It is not sufficient simply to collect data, nor is it recommended that information which is presently collected simply be assembled at a single point and computerized. Information should be collected to satisfy the needs of the potential receivers, and assembled in a way that is comprehensible and usable to these receivers. The Office for Planning and Programming should undertake a survey of state agencies and local governments to determine what their information needs are. This survey should also determine in what forms the potential users are likely to need information, e.g. categories of aggregation of statistical data, summary reports. Attention should also be focused on delivery systems for information and mechanisms for informing potential receivers of the availability of the information system and how it can be used.

One of the functions for which O.P.P. was established was to serve as a coordinating agency for state activities. It is recommended that O.P.P. undertake a program of collecting information concerning federal and state programs and procedures of application for these programs. The Office should also determine what agencies and local units of government are using federal and state funds, under what programs these funds are obtained, and where different agencies and units of government can engage in cooperative efforts to ensure greater coordination of effort.

⁴²For a detailed development of a communication model in a planning framework see, Barbara K. Bailey and Robert J. Martineau, State Framework for Urban Problem Solving, (Iowa City, Iowa: Institute of Urban and Regional Research, Technical Report No. 5, July, 1970).

The recommendations concerning communication presented above would be an initial step in giving O.P.P. an established and recognized role in the operation of state activities in Iowa. This would establish the Office's validity and utility as an information source. It will also be an initial step in accepting the function of developing state wide planning and coordination.

The final recommendation is that O.P.P. initiate the establishment of a communication system for state wide planning and coordination of the activities of state and local government.

Basically there are two approaches to accomplish this objective. One would be a centralized approach, in which individual agencies would submit developed plans and programs to O.P.P., and O.P.P. would coordinate these plans and programs. The second approach, which is recommended in this report, would follow a decentralized approach. Under this approach, O.P.P. would possess information regarding the agencies and local governments working in related areas. O.P.P. would bring these agencies and units together, through correspondence, conferences, workshops, and other means to allow them to develop integrated plans and programs. This approach has a number of advantages over the centralized approach. It allows different agencies and units of government to come together in the initial stages of the planning effort, which will produce more integrated and coordinated problem solving. This will allow the effective operation of the integrative function of communication to produce an overall, systematic, and coordinated functioning of state activities. Secondly, it tends to reduce the effect of information ownership, and allows the free flow of information to those individuals and agencies who need this information for their effective functioning. This will also allow for the

development of common goals and policies which will provide the basis for broad state policies for action and development. These state wide goals and policies can be used in the development and implementation of state wide planning.

As mentioned above, the various state planning and budgetary functions should be coordinated. Two alternatives are presented. In one, which is recommended, the Office for Planning and Programming would continue to be, in the Governor's Office with a direct functional relationship with the Office of Comptroller. The Office would direct three divisions: the Division of Municipal Affairs, the Planning Division (presently in the Iowa Development Commission) and the Functional Planning Division with responsibility for coordination of programs and information.

The other alternative is to locate both the Office for Planning and Programming and the Division of Municipal Affairs in the Governor's Office with the Planning Division of the Iowa Development Commission providing the technical staff for the Division of Municipal Affairs. In this alternative both O.P.P. and the Division of Municipal Affairs would be concerned with policy formulation and program development.

There are other possible arrangements. Which ever is selected, the objective should be a clear understanding of the roles, functions and interrelatedness of the various entities involved in State Planning.

Other short range policies while more basic restructuring of state government is awaited include:

1. conducting Bureau of Budget Circular A-95 review function
2. initiating programs of dispersing high quality urban services to

sparsely populated areas e.g. health, higher education, social services.

3. initiating programs for larger municipalities including setting state standards and allowing local financing options
4. organizing the Office for Planning and Programming with adequate power over the following functions: a) state planning, b) data and information, c) coordination, and d) local affairs and technical planning assistance.

CONCLUSION

Several conclusions can be drawn from this study. First, Iowa has been changing from predominately rural to predominately urban and this trend will continue in the future. Second, urbanization brings with it not only advantages but also problems different in both kind and intensity than those of our rural past and require more effective governmental action for their solution. Third, neither the structure of Iowa government, both state and local, nor the attitudes of the policy makers in Iowa government, have responded adequately to this new situation.

The purpose of the Iowa Urban Policy Study was to propose strategies to meet the problems of urbanization. These strategies are set forth in this Report. The implementation of these strategies, however, must come through the political process. The burden, thus, falls upon the leadership of our political institutions. It is hoped that this Report will assist them in meeting their responsibilities so that Iowa can look with confidence to the future.

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