6 Chapter Six
Financial Administration

Financial administration, simply stated, is matching dollars with needs. Financial administration is the small town mayor who notices that city hall has a leaky roof, and makes a mental note to have it replaced when the money is available. Financial administration is a million-dollar capital improvements program, a bond election preceded by a barrage of information disseminated through the news media, a bond sale, and a report to the taxpayers through the newspaper—all of this is part of financial administration.

Financial administration involves an understanding of the extent and limits of the economic resources of the city and the methods of tapping them to meet citizens' demands for city services. It begins with a thorough knowledge of revenue sources and ends with a proper accounting of all of the funds expended by the city. Much lies in between; it is all financial administration.

Revenue Sources

City revenues come from many sources, including utility systems, property taxes, sales taxes, user fees, federal grants, and street rentals. (The Texas Municipal League publishes a comprehensive *Revenue Manual for Texas Cities*.)

Utility Revenues

Most Texas cities own water and sewer systems, while comparatively few operate electric or gas systems. Among those that own water or sewer systems, the revenue produced by utility billings accounts for a substantial portion of all money taken in at city hall. This percentage is considerably higher among cities that own electric or gas systems.

Property Taxes

Municipal property tax revenue is growing each year, both in total dollars and on a per-capita basis. In many cases, however, the demands on city budgets have increased at a much greater rate than have property tax collections.

Maximum Property Tax Rates

The Texas Constitution establishes the maximum permissible property tax rate for cities at the following levels: (1) for Type B and small Type C general law cities—25¢ per $100 assessed valuation; (2) for other general law cities of less than 5,000 population—$1.50 per $100 assessed valuation; and (3) for cities with 5,000 or greater population—$2.50 per $100 assessed valuation.

Administrative Procedures

Over the years, the Texas system of property tax administration has undergone significant change.

Prior to 1980, the appraisal of property for tax purposes was fragmented among more than 3,000 cities and other local jurisdictions, and there were no uniform statewide standards governing the administration of local taxes. In 1979, however, the Texas Legislature changed this situation radically when it enacted a new State Property Tax Code that established uniform appraisal policies and procedures.

Under the code, county-wide appraisal districts are now responsible for preparing a unitary tax roll that encompasses all property within the county. Although cities and other jurisdictions retain the authority to set their own tax rates and collect their own taxes, they must use the tax roll prepared by the central appraisal district for all tax-related purposes.

The basic procedures for administering property taxes include the following:

(1) Appraisal: The taxable value of all property in the county is determined by the central appraisal district.

(2) Protest: Any property owner dissatisfied by the value fixed by the central appraisal district can appeal to the appraisal review board. Upon a convincing demonstration that the appraisal district's determination was erroneous, the review board has the authority to correct the error, including but not limited to ordering a reduction of the taxable value of the appellant's property.

(3) Assessment of Taxes: The tax roll prepared by the central appraisal district is furnished to cities and other taxing entities within the county; those entities use it as the basis for levying taxes for the coming fiscal year. The governing body must publish a statement that the adoption of a tax rate equal to the effective tax rate would result in an increase or decrease in the amount of taxes as compared to last year's levy. If taxes that fund maintenance and operation expenses increase more than eight percent, the city becomes subject to a tax rollback election at which local voters may reduce the tax levy increase to an eight-percent increase. A city may not adopt a tax rate that exceeds the lower of the rollback tax rate or the effective tax rate until it publishes a notice and holds two hearings. If the city has a Web site, it must give notice of the hearing on the Web site. The city must also give notice on television if it has

access to a television channel. A motion to adopt a tax rate that will exceed the effective or rollback rate must contain specific language, as must the tax rate ordinance itself.

(4) Collection: After the council has set the property tax rate for the coming fiscal year, the tax assessor-collector mails tax notices to all property owners in the city and initiates the collection of taxes.

Most of the procedures for assessing and collecting property taxes are prescribed by the Property Tax Code. Complete details regarding state requirements are available from the Property Tax Division of the Texas State Comptroller of Public Accounts.

Delinquent Property Taxes

For obvious reasons, it is to the city's advantage to collect as much as possible of the amount of property taxes owing. In this regard, financial analysts are inclined to criticize cities that fail to consistently collect at least 95 percent of the taxes levied. In many Texas cities, a 98-percent collection rate is the norm.

The more successful city tax offices are assisted by an attorney who is skilled in collecting delinquent taxes. In some cases, this may be the city attorney, but the more common practice is for the city to hire a lawyer who specializes in the delinquent tax field. Most outside lawyers charge a fee that is paid by the delinquent taxpayers on the basis of a percentage of the delinquent taxes they owed.

City Sales Tax

As a result of legislation initiated by the Texas Municipal League, the general, one-percent city sales tax became available to Texas cities in 1968 and has become almost universal, with virtually all cities in the state having adopted it.

Most cities in which the combined local sales tax (city, county, special district) has not reached two percent can consider the imposition of certain additional sales taxes for purposes that include economic development, crime control, property tax relief, and street maintenance. Additional information regarding the sales tax for economic development is available from the Texas Municipal League and the municipal affairs division of the office of the attorney general in a publication titled *Handbook on Economic Development Laws for Texas Cities.*

User Fees

Charges for the use of city services are an increasingly popular method of generating revenues. In addition to charging for solid waste collection and water and sewer services, cities impose fees for the use of a variety of facilities, including swimming pools, golf courses, and airports. In the average Texas city, fees account for about 20 percent of total revenues.

Federal Grants

Despite cutbacks in recent years, federal aid is still an important part of the municipal revenue picture. For individual cities, federal aid as a proportion of all revenues fluctuates widely, with "distressed" cities receiving large amounts of federal money, and the more prosperous cities receiving comparatively little.

Street Rentals

A portion of an average city's revenue is produced by rental charges collected from private firms—such as cable TV companies, telecommunications providers, and gas and electric utilities—in return for allowing them to use streets and other public rights-of-way. Municipal street rental charges for electric, gas, and water utilities are authorized under the state Tax Code, which allows cities to impose such charges on utility and transportation enterprises in return for the privilege of using the city's streets and alleys to string lines, bury pipes, and otherwise use public property to conduct business. The provisions for collecting compensation from telecommunications providers are contained in Local Government Code chapter 283, and those relating to cable and video providers are in chapter 66 of the Utilities Code.

Fines

Under state law, a city may assess a fine of up to $2,000 per day for violations of ordinances dealing with fire safety, zoning, or public health-related matters. For ordinances dealing with other violations, the maximum fine is $500 per day.

The amount of revenue from fines as a proportion of city revenues usually varies in direct proportion to city size. In larger cities, fines generate a comparatively small proportion of total revenues; in most small cities, fine revenues play a much more important role in the city budget.

State law limits the amount of revenue that a city under 5,000 population may derive from fines for violations of traffic laws.

License and Permit Fees

Under their police powers, cities regulate a wide variety of activities in order to promote the health, safety, and welfare of local citizens. Permit and license fees provide the revenues necessary to finance the cost of these regulatory programs. Examples of permit fees include those charged for examining subdivision plats and inspecting electrical or plumbing installations. Examples of license fees include those for registering dogs and licensing electricians.

The amount of a permit or license fee must bear a reasonable relationship to the cost of the particular regulatory program. Under the law, excessive fees may not be imposed in order to create "profits." Also, the city may not assess a fee or require a permit for which no bona fide regulatory function is performed.

Hotel-Motel Tax

Chapter 351 of the Tax Code authorizes most cities to levy an occupancy tax of up to seven percent on the price of a hotel or motel room. Other cities, depending on population, may levy an even higher tax. Under the law, proceeds from this tax must be earmarked for certain specified purposes, including the advertising and promotion of the city and its vicinity to attract tourism, arts and cultural activities, historical restoration and preservation activities, registration of convention delegates, operation of visitor information centers, the construction of civic centers and auditoriums, certain sporting events, and tourist buses. Cities must maintain a written list of all projects funded by the hotel-motel tax.

Taxes on Alcoholic Beverages

Under the Texas Alcoholic Beverage Code, the state levies a gross receipts tax on the sale of all mixed drinks served in clubs, saloons, and restaurants. Some of the state's total collections are remitted back to the cities on a pro rata basis.

Additionally, cities are authorized by Section 11.38 of the Texas Alcoholic Beverages Code to levy fees not to exceed one-half of the state fee for a variety of alcoholic beverage-related permits, including permits for package stores, distributors, brewers, and others issued within the city.

Occupation Taxes

Cities are authorized under Section 302.101 of the Texas Tax Code and Article VIII, Section 1, of the Texas Constitution to levy an occupation tax on certain businesses and professions, such as operators of pinball machines and other coin-operated devices. The rate of the city tax may not exceed an amount set by statute and may not exceed 50 percent of the rate of the occupation tax levied by the state on the same businesses, if no statutory amount is set. A city may not levy a tax on a business or profession not subject to state occupation taxation.

Special Assessments

A "special assessment" is a charge imposed by the city on a limited group of properties to finance public improvements that specifically benefit those properties and enhance their value. Special assessments are most frequently used to finance the construction of sidewalks or reconstruction of streets. The cost of improvements is apportioned among all the owners of property abutting the improvement according to relative benefit. Costs are divided between property owners and the city according to the state law applicable to the particular type of improvement.

Miscellaneous Revenues

Miscellaneous income is derived from many different sources, such as rental charges for the use of the city's property, the sale of city property, the sale of water and other utility services to other jurisdictions, and interest income on idle city funds.

Budgeting

For many councilmembers, budgeting represents the most wretched and tiresome aspect of city government. Budgeting begins amid cries from some citizens for "tax relief" and demands from others that their "essential" programs be funded. Upon its adoption, the budget is dismissed with a sigh: "Now that that dreadful chore is behind us, we can get on with the 'fun' part of the city's business."

Financial management is indeed unglamorous, and budgets are poor leisure reading. However, it is also true that among all the functions performed by the city council, budgeting is the most important.

In its simplest definition, budgeting is a plan for utilizing the city's available funds during a fiscal year to accomplish established goals and objectives. Within a broader context, the budget also serves to:

(1) Provide the public with an understandable financial plan that plainly describes activities that will be undertaken during the next fiscal year and the extent and specific types of services that will be performed.

(2) Establish priorities among city programs, particularly new or expanded programs.

(3) Define the financial framework that will be used to periodically check the status of city operations.

(4) Determine the level of taxation necessary to finance city programs.

Budgeting is the forum for making the most of the council's key decisions about the future of the city. It is a process for determining the community's standard of living—what local residents need and want, what they are willing and able to pay for, and what services they can expect to receive for their tax dollars.

The council can use the budget to restore an ailing municipal government to financial health, or misuse it to drive a healthy government to insolvency. It can be used to nurture community development or freeze growth. The budget is everything. It is, in the words of one mayor, "the World Series of municipal government."

Statutory Requirements

The budgeting process in every Texas city, regardless of size, must comply with the requirements of the Texas Uniform Budget Law (Sections 102.001 et seq., Local Government Code). Under the statute:

(1) The city council must adopt an annual budget and conduct the financial affairs of the city in strict conformance with the budget.

(2) The budget for each fiscal year must be adopted prior to the first day of such fiscal year. In most Texas cities, the fiscal year begins on October l; therefore, the budget must be adopted by September 30 or earlier.

(3) The city's budget officer must prepare a proposed budget for the consideration of the city council. In mayor-council cities, the law requires that the mayor serve as budget officer; in council-manager cities, the city manager is the budget officer.

(4) Copies of the proposed budget compiled by the budget officer must be filed with the city clerk/secretary and made available for public inspection. The initially proposed budget must be filed no later than thirty days prior to the date upon which the city council sets the property tax rate for the next fiscal year.

(5) If the budget will raise more total property taxes than in the prior year, it must contain a cover page giving notice of that fact. A budget calling for such a property tax increase must be posted on the city's Web site, if it operates one.

(6) The city council must hold a public hearing on the budget after the 15th day that the budget has been filed with the city clerk or secretary. Notice of the public hearing must be given in a newspaper of general circulation in the county not less than ten nor more than thirty days prior to the adoption of the budget. The notice must identify a proposed property tax increase.

(7) Upon adoption of the final budget by majority vote of the council, copies must be filed with the county clerk and city clerk/secretary and made available for public inspection. A budget that raises total property taxes requires a separate ratification vote.

(8) After the new fiscal year has begun and the budget has been put into effect, no expenditure "shall thereafter be made except in strict compliance with such adopted budget," nor may the council amend the budget except for reasons of "grave public necessity" requiring "emergency expenditures to meet unusual and unforeseen conditions, which could not, by reasonable diligent thought and attention, have been included in the original budget..."

(9) The budget and any amendments to it must be filed with the county clerk.

(10) The governing body of the city may levy taxes only in accordance with the budget.

For obvious reasons, the Uniform Budget Law is generally interpreted to prohibit deficit financing—that is, budgeting expenditures for which no offsetting revenues are provided.

Charter Requirements in a Home Rule City

All city charters establish a framework for budget preparation, adoption, and implementation. While the details of these provisions vary from city to city, charter requirements generally prescribe a timetable for preparing the budget, require a public hearing(s), and require the council to adopt the budget by a certain time.

Many charters also prescribe the format of the budget, including requirements that it contain a message describing the budget officer's proposed fiscal plan for the city and significant features of the budget for the forthcoming fiscal year; a general summary, with supporting data, which shows proposed expenditures and anticipated revenues for the next fiscal year and their relationships to corresponding data for the current budget year; and details of proposed expenditures and anticipated revenues.

Basic Budget Information

Adoption of a plan of city services for the next fiscal year begins with a budget document containing certain basic information. The budget document should identify all services currently provided and proposed to be provided (or terminated) during the coming fiscal year. For each service, the following information should be furnished:

★ An itemization of expenditures for each service during the previous fiscal year, a projection of actual expenditures for the current year, and proposed expenditures for the next fiscal year.

- ★ A statement of objectives for each service to be funded during the next fiscal year. "Objectives" do not mean organizational objectives—such as "to add new police officers" or "to purchase a new street sweeper." Rather, these statements should describe the benefits the community will derive from a particular service, such as "to reduce average police response time to emergency calls by three minutes," or "to clean X number of miles of streets."

- ★ The proposed level of each service for the next fiscal year, together with a description of performance standards for each. In the case of the solid waste budget, for example, service levels and performance can be expressed in terms of the numbers of customers served and the volume of refuse collected. Street maintenance can be expressed in terms of lane miles resurfaced, maintenance requests, and number of complaints concerning street quality, and so on. This approach will help the council focus on community benefits that will be produced by a given expenditure, rather than on such details as whether a particular department is requesting too much money for supplies or travel.

- ★ A brief description of the methods by which the services will be delivered.

- ★ An itemization of the cost components of proposed services.

- ★ Sources of funding for the proposed services.

- ★ A description of factors that could affect the cost of proposed services.

The budget also should contain a summary of the city's financial condition for the prior year and current year, and a projection of its anticipated condition for the coming fiscal year and beyond. This summary should indicate:

- ★ Outstanding obligations of the city.

- ★ Beginning balance of all cash funds.

- ★ Actual revenues, broken down by source, collected in the preceding year and anticipated for the ensuing year.

- ★ Estimated revenue available to cover the proposed budget.

- ★ Estimated tax rate required to cover the proposed budget.

Properly organized, this information will enable councilmembers to gain a comprehensive understanding of the city's financial condition and give them the tools they need to establish the scope and direction of municipal services for the coming year.

For a more in-depth discussion of budgets, the Texas comptroller, with the help of the Texas Municipal League, has published the *Budget Manual for Texas Cities*. Copies are available on the comptroller's Web site.

Implementation

After the budget has been approved, regular monitoring by the city council can help ensure that municipal services are carried out in accordance with budget objectives and within expenditure ceilings. In most cities, the budget officer is required to furnish the council with periodic reports that show the prior month's expenditures and total expenditures to date for each budgeted activity. Using these reports, the council can identify deviations from budget plans, anticipate financial trouble spots, and determine whether the various departments are functioning properly.

On a periodic basis, perhaps quarterly, the council should be furnished with a written description of significant budgetary developments during the current fiscal year. For each activity, this statement should describe progress to date in comparison with objectives, and should provide reports on expenditures by budget category and revenue collections. Revised estimates of revenue also should be presented, together with revised surplus or deficit projections. These reports will give the council the basis for determining how well the city is meeting its service targets with the funds available. Also, it can help the council determine whether budget modifications are needed during the year.

Municipal Borrowing

It is a rare case when a city is able to carry out a capital improvements program of any consequence without using its credit. More often, the city borrows money, and in doing so, offers future tax collections or utility revenues as security for the loan.

Loans fall into two categories: short-term and long-term—or, stated differently, loans to be repaid within the current fiscal year versus those to be repaid in future years. This section briefly reviews the two types of loans.

Short-Term Borrowing

Most short-term loans are made with local banks. Their purpose is to provide funds of a temporary nature, and they are made with the expectation of repayment within the current fiscal year. A bank loan made in August to avoid an overdraft in the general fund pending receipt of tax collections in September is a good example of a short-term loan.

A short-term loan differs from a long-term loan in two respects: (1) it will mature within the current fiscal year; and (2) it can be approved by the city council without the necessity for voter approval at a referendum election.

Short-term loans should be used sparingly. An excessive amount of short-term debt can adversely affect the city's bond rating and impair its ability to accomplish long-term borrowing for major capital improvement programs. Frequent use of short-term borrowing reflects deficiencies in the quality of the city's management of its financial resources.

Long-Term Borrowing

Unlike short-term loans, which can be repaid with general fund dollars derived from a variety of revenue sources, long-term loans require that the specific source of revenue that will be used to repay the debt be identified and, in certain cases, pledged.

Long-term loans secured by a pledge of property taxes are called "general obligations" and include ad valorem tax bonds, time warrants, and certificates of obligation. Long-term loans secured by a pledge of revenue from an income-producing facility are called "revenue bonds."

General Obligation Debt

General obligation debts are payable from, and are secured by, a pledge of future property tax collections. Under standards promulgated by the attorney general of Texas, a city with a maximum permissible tax rate of $1.50 per $100 assessed valuation may not incur general obligation debt that will require the levy of a tax at a rate higher than $1.00, after allowing ten percent for delinquencies in collection and for the payment of maturing principal and interest.

General obligation debt is commonly expressed as a percentage of the city's total assessed valuations. For example, a city that has a total assessed valuation of $10 million and outstanding general obligation debt in the principal amount of $500,000 is said to have a debt ratio of five percent. Three common forms of general obligation debt are ad valorem tax bonds, time warrants, and certificates of obligation.

Ad Valorem Tax Bonds

Ad valorem tax bonds are commonly referred to as general obligation, or G.O. bonds. They are issued pursuant to an ordinance adopted by the city council, typically following approval of the bonds at a referendum election. The bonds are examined as to legality by the attorney general of Texas, and then delivered by the city to the successful purchaser or bidder for payment in cash. This cash is then used by the city to pay for libraries, police buildings, city halls, and other public facilities with a long, useful life.

G.O. bonds usually are issued in $5,000 denominations, and the bond issue usually provides serial maturities, with a certain amount of principal maturing each year over a period not to exceed forty years.

General obligation bonds have the highest degree of investor acceptance of any type of municipal indebtedness, and they command the lowest interest rates. Therefore, unless exceptional circumstances dictate otherwise, G.O. bonds are the preferred means of borrowing against a pledge of tax revenues.

Time Warrants

Time warrants are also general obligation debts and are payable from ad valorem taxes. Unlike G.O. bonds, which are sold for cash, time warrants are issued directly to vendors to pay for construction, equipment, and services. Also unlike G.O. bonds, time warrants do not require voter approval, although the law does require that the city council publish notice of its intent to issue them and that the council call a referendum election upon presentation of a petition signed by ten percent of the taxpaying voters.

The procedures for issuing time warrants are cumbersome and expensive and will result in the city paying a higher rate of interest than if the borrowing were accomplished with bonds. Nevertheless, time warrants can occasionally be advantageous—for example, to complete the construction of a public works project where there has been a cost overrun and bond funds have been exhausted.

Certificates of Obligation

The third form of general obligation debt payable from ad valorem taxes is certificates of obligation (COs). Like time warrants, COs can be issued without voter approval—except that upon notice of the city's intent to issue certificates, five percent of the qualified voters can force an election on the issue by submission of a petition.

Certificates of obligation can be issued directly to vendors to pay for construction work, equipment, machinery, materials, supplies, land, or professional services furnished to the city. Also, under certain circumstances COs can be sold, like bonds, for cash, in which case they must he approved by the attorney general in the same manner as bonds.

Revenue Bonds

There is only one type of bond secured by a pledge of revenues from an income-producing facility such as a utility system. These obligations are revenue bonds and usually are designated with the name of the system that pledges the revenues (for example, Waterworks System Revenue Bonds, Waterworks and Sewer System Revenue Bonds, and so on).

When utility revenues are pledged to support revenue bonds, the pledge is made of the system's net revenues—that is, gross revenues minus operating and maintenance costs. Such bonds are payable solely from these revenues and include a statement on their face that the holder shall never be entitled to demand payment from property taxes.

In determining whether the amount of pledged revenues is sufficient to repay the outstanding revenue bonds of a utility system, analysts will look at the ratio between the system's net earnings and the requirements of principal and interest maturities over a period of years. As a rule, net revenues should be at least 1.25 times larger than the average annual debt service requirements of the system. This ratio is called "coverage," and revenue bonds are said to have 1.25X coverage, or 2.23X coverage, and so on. The higher the coverage, the better the security for the bonds and, all other things being equal, the lower the rate of interest at which the bonds can be issued.

In pledging the revenues of a utility system, it is common to make a "cross pledge," or "combined pledge." This is a pledge of the revenues of one system to repay bonds issued for improvements to a different system; for example, pledging the net revenues of the water system to the payment of bonds issued to improve the sewer system. On the other hand, the revenues of a utility system may not be cross pledged to the payment of bonds issued on behalf of a non-revenue-producing facility. For instance, water system revenues cannot be pledged to the payment of bonds issued to build a city hall.

Bond Ratings

As the annual volume of long-term debt incurred by state and local governments has grown over the years, competition between cities and other borrowers for the investor's dollar has increased correspondingly. A municipal bond rating is one of the methods used to help alleviate the problems arising from this competitive situation.

A bond rating gives a quick indication of the quality of a new issue being offered, so that prospective bidders may know if they want to develop a bid. But a bond rating has greater value than a mere screening device: it also influences the rate of interest payable on bonds. Therefore, it is desirable that the city maintain a good rating for its bonds, because it can mean the difference between a good bid and a poor one, and a difference in interest charges to the city running into many tens of thousands of dollars.

Most Texas cities have more than one bond rating. Each bond issue is rated separately, based on the source of revenue that has been pledged to secure payment. General obligation bonds, therefore, are rated separately from water or sewer revenue bonds.

In determining the rating of a bond issue, analysts focus on the nature of the particular security. In the case of general obligation bonds, prime importance is attached to relationships among the city's debt, wealth, population, and tax collection experience. The economic base of the city, the stage of its development, and the quality of its government also are important factors. Finally, analysts examine the exact nature and strength of the legal obligation that the bonds represent.

The bond ratings of two particular firms are universally accepted in investor circles. These are Moody's Investors Service and Standard & Poor's Corporation, both of which are based in New York City. The four investment grade ratings granted by these services are as follows:

Moody's Investors Service

Aaa:	Best quality, carrying the smallest degree of investment risk
Aa:	High quality (together with Aaa comprise "high-grade bonds")
A:	Higher medium-grade (many favorable investment attributes)
Baa:	Lower medium-grade (neither high-quality nor high-risk)

Standard & Poor's Corporation

AAA:	Highest rating, with extremely strong capacity to repay loan
AA:	Only a small degree below AAA in the capacity to repay the loan
A:	Strong capacity to repay loan, although more susceptible to adverse effects in economic conditions
BBB:	Adequate capacity to repay loan

In offering newly issued bonds for bids, the city should apply to one or both of the rating agencies to obtain a rating on the issue being offered. The nominal cost of obtaining a rating can be recovered many times over by minimizing interest costs on the basis of a favorable bond rating, as opposed to the sale of non-rated bonds.

Bond Elections

If it has been determined by the city council that a bond election is required, the first step—and the key step—in a successful campaign is citizen participation. The tried-and-true elements of a successful bond election include the following:

★ Let private citizen volunteers, rather than the city council, conduct the campaign to persuade local voters to vote for the bonds.

★ Enlist the support of community and civic organizations.

Installment Obligations

An ever increasing number of Texas cities are financing municipal purchases through installment sales or lease-purchase agreements. However, an installment sale or lease-purchase obligation in excess of $1 million issued by a city with a population of less than 50,000 must be approved by the attorney general in the same manner as bonds.

Anticipation Notes

Certain cities may have authority to borrow against anticipated revenue (typically federal grant money) by issuing anticipation notes. Anticipation notes may be appropriate for borrowing relatively small amounts of money when the issuance of bonds would be cost prohibitive. State agencies may be authorized to purchase anticipation notes from cities, thus speeding the grant process to fund city projects. The law relating to anticipation notes may be found in chapter 1431 of the Texas Government Code.

Capital Improvements Programming

It is a financial fact of life in every city that the demand for new streets, water lines, and other public works will always exceed the supply of current funds. Capital improvements programming is the primary method used by most cities to cope with the perpetual imbalance between capital demands and limited financial resources.

A capital improvements program (CIP) is a long-term plan, usually spanning five to six years, for financing major cost items that have a long useful life, such as buildings, land, streets, utility lines, and expensive equipment. The CIP document lists all the capital items scheduled for construction or acquisition during the next five or six years, the time when construction or acquisition is to occur, the amount expected to be spent during each year of the CIP, and the source of funding for each expenditure.

Preparation of a CIP involves five major steps. First, a list of proposed capital improvements is prepared on the basis of recommendations from the city council, staff, and citizen groups. The city's comprehensive plan will be the source of many CIP items, but whatever the source, each item included in the list should be supportive of the community goals expressed in the plan.

Second, cost estimates are developed for all proposed CIP items. In addition to stating the up-front cost of each item, these calculations usually include a description of savings that will result from its acquisition or construction, as well as the impact the item would have on future revenues or operating costs.

Third, a determination is made of the city's ability to pay for the items included in the draft CIP, together with a description of the method by which each will be financed. Ability to pay will be determined by a financial analysis of past, current, and future revenue, expenditure, and debt patterns. Options for financing particular items include special assessments, state or federal grants, additional fees or taxes, current revenues (pay-as-you-go), reserve or surplus funds, general obligation or revenue bonds, and certificates of obligation. The objective of this step is to determine, for each year, the minimum costs the city will incur before any new capital expenditures can be financed.

Fourth, all proposed CIP items are organized by the staff for orderly presentation to the city council. Each is ranked in recommended priority order. Items that overlap or duplicate previously approved projects or that are inconsistent with the city's comprehensive plan are identified and perhaps downgraded.

Finally, the tentative CIP is discussed at public hearings, thoroughly reviewed by the council, and then finally approved by formal council action.

Based on information contained in the CIP, a capital budget is prepared to show all capital expenditures in priority order, together with summaries of the financial activities planned for each year, including the amounts of bonds to be issued, amounts of operating funds required, and so forth.

The capital budgeting process normally takes place on a cyclical basis. Under a six-year CIP, year one is the current capital budget adopted by the city council at the same time it approves the operating budget. Many times, the capital budget is included as a component of the operating budget.

Years two through six, having been approved by the council when it adopted the CIP, remain in the record as expressing the council's intent to carry forward with the balance of the CIP.

At the conclusion of year one, the council approves another one-year capital budget and extends the CIP, with revisions, for another year. Thus, year two of the previous CIP becomes year one of the new six-year program, and the cycle begins anew.

Capital improvement programming offers several advantages. By scheduling ample time for construction or acquisitions, costly mistakes can be avoided, as is the case when streets have to be dug up repeatedly because they are not planned in relation to other facilities. Also, by working with a list of planned projects, sites can be purchased at lower cost than on a "crash" basis, and by spacing out projects over several years, the city's tax and debt load can be stabilized, and balance can be maintained between debt service and current expenditures.

Financial Reporting

Financial reports prepared periodically throughout the fiscal year are an essential part of the control system necessary to permit the city council to determine whether funds are being expended in accordance with the budget and to identify discrepancies between anticipated and actual revenues. Financial reports fall into three general categories—internal budgetary reports, annual financial reports, and annual audits—each of which is briefly discussed next.

Internal Budgetary Reports

Internal budgetary reports are prepared on a monthly basis and are distributed to the city council and department heads. These reports illustrate the financial condition of the city as it unfolds from month to month and answer such questions as: Are city services being provided as planned? Are expenditures exceeding budgeted levels? Is the cash inflow at the expected level? By determining the answers to these and related questions on a regular basis, the council can identify problem areas and initiate corrective actions accordingly.

Annual Financial Report

The annual financial report is compiled at the conclusion of the fiscal year and shows, item by item, budgeted versus actual revenues and expenditures, together with other information that describes the city's year-end financial condition. The financial report should be prepared by an independent certified public accountant appointed by the city council and made available to the department heads, the news media, and other interested parties.

Annual Audit

Sections 103.001-103.004 of the Local Government Code require each city to have an annual audit of its financial records and accounts. The audit can be performed either by a certified public accountant or a qualified city employee, and must be made available for public inspection no later than 120 days after the close of the city's fiscal year.

The audit involves examination of three aspects of the city's financial operations: (1) internal controls; (2) statements, records, and accounting transactions; and (3) compliance with statutory and budgetary requirements. Properly conducted, the audit provides a double check on the city's financial status, a method for communicating with the citizenry, and a bona fide statement of the city's financial condition, which will improve its ability to issue bonds.

Investments

In 1995, the Texas Legislature enacted the Public Funds Investment Act, which requires the governing body to adopt a written investment policy. A city may contract with an independent investment advisor to provide investment and management services. The city investment officer must attend one investment training session within twelve months of taking office and must attend ten hours of training once every two years thereafter. The treasurer and the chief financial officer (if the treasurer is not the chief financial officer) must also attend ten hours of training every two years. The Texas Municipal League offers comprehensive public funds investment training.

Financial Warning Signals

In recent years, increasing attention has been given to monitoring the financial health of cities. Although most of the chronic financial problems of cities tend to slowly snowball over an extended period of time, they usually result from a standard set of problems, including: (1) a decline in revenues or tax base; (2) an eroding capital plant; (3) a faltering local or regional economy; (4) growing debt burden; (5) accumulation of unfunded pension liabilities; (6) a sudden loss of substantial federal funds; (7) an increase in spending pressures; and/or (8) ineffective financial management practices.