A Primer on California City Revenues
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A PRIMER ON CALIFORNIA CITY REVENUES

by Michael Coleman

Michael Coleman is principal fiscal policy advisor to the League and can be reached at coleman@muniwest.com. More information on city finance is available at www.californiacityfinance.com. Coleman comments on local government finance topics on Twitter (@MuniAlmanac) and Facebook (www.facebook.com/MuniAlmanac).
You don’t have to scratch any local government issue very deeply to find the question of money: What’s this going to cost? What are we going to get for that price? Is this project worth it?

How does your city pay its bills? What does the future hold for city service costs and funding? Though every city is different — each with its own needs, local economy, expectations, protocols, responsibilities and finances — some essential elements of city revenues and spending are common to cities throughout California.

AN OVERVIEW OF CITY REVENUE SOURCES

Revenue, the bread and butter of city budgets, comes from a variety of sources. Some revenue is restricted by law to certain uses; some revenue is payment from customers for a specific service. Other revenue requires voter approval for rate increases. Still other revenue comes from state and federal agencies, almost all of it with strings attached.

The California Constitution and state law provide some specific distinctions among municipal revenue sources.

This is a statewide aggregation of city revenues. Individual cities vary.

Source: Author’s computations using 2014–15 data from California state controller; does not include the City and County of San Francisco.
Local Tax and Revenue Limitations:
Proposition 13 and Its Siblings

Local officials have limited choices in governing, managing their finances and raising revenues to provide services needed by their communities. Voters have placed restrictions as well as protections in the state Constitution. The Legislature has acted in various ways both to support and provide and to limit and withdraw financial powers and resources from cities, counties and special districts.

Significant limitations on local revenue-raising include:

- Property taxes may not be increased except with a two-thirds vote to fund a general obligation bond (most local school bonds can now be passed with 55 percent voter approval);
- The Legislature controls the allocation of local property tax among the county, cities, special districts and school districts within each county;
- Voter approval is required to enact, increase or extend any type of local tax;
- Assessments to pay for public facilities that benefit real property require property-owner approval;
- Fees for services and the use of local agency facilities may not exceed the reasonable cost of providing those services and facilities; and
- Fees for services such as water, sewer and trash collection are subject to property-owner majority protest.

FEES, CHARGES AND ASSESSMENTS

A fee is a charge imposed on an individual for a service that the person chooses to receive. A fee may not exceed the estimated reasonable cost of providing the particular service or product for which the fee is charged, plus overhead. Examples of city fees include water service, sewer service connection, building permits, recreational classes and development impact fees.

Cities have the general authority to impose fees (as charges and rates) under the cities’ police powers granted by the state Constitution (Article XI, Sections 7 and 9).

State law sets specific procedures for fee and rate adoption. Proposition 218 provides special rules for property-related fees used to fund property-related services.

Special benefit assessments are charges levied to pay for public improvements or services within a predetermined district or area, according to the benefit the parcel receives from the improvement or services. The state Constitution requires

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property-owner approval to impose a benefit assessment. Other locally raised revenues include licenses and permits; franchises and rents; royalties and concessions; fines, forfeitures and penalties; and investment earnings.

**INTERGOVERNMENTAL REVENUE**

Cities also receive revenue from other government agencies, principally the state and federal governments. These revenues include general or categorical support monies called subventions, as well as grants for specific projects and reimbursements for the costs of some state mandates. Intergovernmental revenues provide 10 percent of city revenues statewide.

**OTHER CITY REVENUES**

Other sources of revenue to cities include rents, franchises, concessions and royalties; investment earnings; revenue from the sale of property; proceeds from debt financing; revenues from licenses and permits; and fines and penalties. Each type of revenue has legal limitations on what may be charged and collected as well as how the money may be spent.

**PUTTING MONEY IN ITS PROPER PLACE**

The law restricts many types of city revenues to certain uses. As explained earlier, a special tax is levied for a specific program. Some subventions are designated by law for specific activities. Fees are charged for specific services, and fee revenue may fund only those services and related expenses. To comply with these laws and standards, finance departments segregate revenues and expenditures into separate accounts or funds. The three most important types of city funds are special revenue funds, enterprise funds and the General Fund.

Special revenue funds are used to account for activities paid for by taxes or other designated revenue sources that have specific limitations on use according to law. For example, the state levies gasoline taxes and allocates some of these funds to cities and counties. A local government deposits gasoline tax revenue in a special fund and spends the money for streets and road-related programs, according to law.
Local Revenue Protections

The Legislature has enacted many complicated changes in state and local revenues over the past 30 years, which at times have had significant negative fiscal impacts on city budgets. In response, local governments and their allies drafted — and voters approved — state constitutional protections limiting many of these actions. At times, these protections have resulted in the Legislature undertaking even more complex maneuvers in efforts to solve the financial problems and protect the interests of the state budget.

In response to actions of the Legislature and the deterioration of local control of fiscal matters, local governments placed on the ballot and voters approved Proposition 1A in 2004 and Prop. 22 in 2010. Together, these measures prohibit the state from:

- Enacting most local government mandates without fully funding the costs (the definition of a state mandate includes the transfer of responsibility for a program for which the state was previously fully or partially responsible);
- Reducing the local portion of the sales and use tax rate or altering its method of allocation, except to comply with federal law or an interstate compact;
- Reducing the combined share of property tax revenues going to the cities, county and special districts in any county; and
- Borrowing, delaying or taking motor vehicle fuel tax allocations, gasoline sales tax allocations or public transportation account funds.

Enterprise funds are used to account for self-supporting activities that provide services on a user-charge basis. For example, many cities provide water treatment and distribution services to their residents. Users of these services pay utility fees, which the city deposits in a water enterprise fund. Expenditures for water services are charged to this fund.

The General Fund is used to account for money that is not required legally or by sound financial management to be accounted for in another fund. Major sources of city General Fund revenue include sales and use tax, property tax and locally adopted business license tax, hotel tax and utility user taxes.
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MAJOR CITY REVENUES

Sales and Use Tax. The sales tax an individual pays on a purchase is collected by the state Board of Equalization and includes a state sales tax, the locally levied Bradley-Burns sales tax and several other components. The sales tax is imposed on the total retail price of any tangible personal property. State law provides a variety of exemptions to the sales and use tax, including resale, interstate sales, intangibles, food for home consumption, candy, bottled water, natural gas, electricity and water delivered through pipes, prescription medicines, agricultural feed, seeds, fertilizer and sales to the federal government. A use tax is imposed on the purchaser for transactions in which the sales tax is not collected.

Sales and use tax revenue received by cities is general purpose revenue and is deposited into a city’s General Fund.

SALES TAX: HOW MUCH GOES TO YOUR CITY?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Component</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Add-On Transactions &amp; Use (e)</td>
<td>varies</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>City or County (a)</td>
<td>1.00%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>County Transportation (b)</td>
<td>0.25%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Prop. 172 Public Safety (c)</td>
<td>0.50%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>County Realigned Programs (d)</td>
<td>1.5625%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>State General Fund</td>
<td>3.9375%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

a. The local 1 percent rate is allocated based on a “point of sale” or “situs” of the sales transaction. The local rate goes to the city or unincorporated county area where the transaction occurs.

b. The 0.25 percent rate for county transportation programs is allocated to the county in which the transaction occurs.

c. Proposition 172 of 1993 established a 0.5 percent state sales tax to fund public safety programs (sheriff, police, fire, district attorney, etc.) to mitigate the impacts on those programs of state shifts of property tax revenues.

d. In 1991 the California Legislature enacted a realignment of state and county programs, assigning various health and welfare program responsibilities to counties and providing funding for those programs including a 0.5 percent portion of the state-imposed sales and use tax rate. In 2011 the California Legislature enacted another realignment of state and county programs, assigning various corrections and rehabilitation program responsibilities to counties and providing funding for those programs, including a 1.0625 percent portion of the state-imposed sales and use tax rate.

e. Some counties and some cities have imposed additional “transactions and use” tax rates, which may total no more than 2 percent in counties other than Los Angeles, Contra Costa and Alameda. In Los Angeles, Contra Costa and Alameda counties, the maximum combined additional rate is 2.5 percent.

continued
Although cities vary widely, sales and use tax revenue provides on average 30 percent of city general purpose revenue — and often as much as 45 percent.

Cities and counties may impose additional transaction and use taxes in increments of 0.125 percent with two-thirds city council approval and majority voter approval for a general tax; a special tax requires two-thirds voter approval. The combined rate of the city and county transaction and use taxes is capped at 2 percent in most counties.

**Property Tax.** The property tax is an ad valorem (value-based) tax imposed on real property and tangible personal property. State law provides a variety of exemptions to the property tax, including most government-owned property; nonprofit, educational, religious, hospital, charitable and cemetery properties; the first $7,000 of an owner-occupied home; business inventories; household furnishings and personal effects; timber; motor vehicles, freight and passenger vessels; and crops and orchards for the first four years.

California Constitution Article XIXA (Proposition 13) limits the property tax to a maximum 1 percent of assessed value, not including voter-approved rates to fund debt. The assessed value of property is the base year value plus the value of any improvements, plus annual inflation capped at 2 percent per year. The base year value is the value at the most recent sale or the 1975–76 market value. Property that declines in market value may be temporarily reassessed at the lower value. Property is reassessed to current full value upon change in ownership (with certain exemptions). Property tax revenue is collected by counties and allocated according to state law among cities, counties, school districts and special districts.

The share of property tax revenue allocated to a city varies depending on a variety of factors, including:

- The service responsibilities of the city (for example, in a city where fire services are provided by a special district, the city receives a lower share, with a portion of the property tax revenues going instead to the special district); and
- The historic (1978) tax rates of the city in relation to other local taxing entities. City property tax revenues are also affected by local property values.

**Property Tax in Lieu of Vehicle License Fee (VLF).** The VLF is a tax imposed by the state on the ownership of a registered vehicle in place of taxing vehicles. Cities receive additional property tax to replace VLF revenue that was cut when the state permanently reduced the VLF in 2004. This property tax in lieu of VLF grows with the change from the prior year in gross assessed valuation of taxable property in the jurisdiction. Property tax in lieu of VLF allocations is in addition to other property tax apportionments.

Property tax revenue (including property tax in lieu of VLF) accounts for more than one-third of general revenue for the average full-service city. For cities that do not fund fire service, property tax revenue represents on average 25 percent of general revenue.

**Business License Tax.** Most cities in California levy a business license tax. Tax rates are determined by each city, which collects the taxes. Business license taxes are most commonly based on gross receipts or levied at a flat rate but are sometimes based on the quantity of goods produced, number of employees, number of vehicles, square footage of the business or some combination of factors. In all cases, cities have adopted their tax as a general tax. On average, the business license tax provides about 3 percent of city general revenue and often as much as 6 percent. For businesses that operate in more than one city, state or county, cities can impose a business license tax on only that portion of the business transacted in that city.

**Transient Occupancy Tax (TOT) or “Hotel Bed” Tax.** More than 400 cities in California impose TOT on people staying for 30 days or less in a hotel, inn or other lodging facility. Rates range from

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**Responsibilities Differ Among Cities — and Consequently, So Do Budgets**

Comparing revenues and expenditures of different cities can be difficult because cities vary according to the needs of their constituents, the nature of the local economy and the city’s service and financial responsibilities. Less than 25 percent of California cities are full-service cities, responsible for funding all of the major city General Fund-supported services such as police, fire, library, parks and recreation and planning. In about three out of 10 California communities, a special district provides fire services with property tax revenue that would otherwise go to the city. In six out of 10 California cities, another public agency provides and funds library services.

Allocations of property taxes among local agencies vary from place to place due to differences in the service responsibilities among agencies serving different areas and differences in the tax rates enacted by those agencies prior to Prop. 13, which passed in 1978. Full-service cities generally receive higher shares than those that do not provide the complete range of municipal services. For example, in a city where fire services are provided by a special district, the city gets a lower share, and a portion of the property tax revenues goes instead to the special district.

Property tax revenues among jurisdictions are also, of course, dramatically affected by differences in the assessed value of properties.
3.5 to 15 percent of the lodging cost. In nearly all cases, cities have adopted these as general taxes, but some cities make a point of budgeting the funds for tourism or business development-related programs. Among cities that impose a TOT, it provides 7 percent on average of a city’s general revenues and often as much as 17 percent.

**Utility User Tax (UUT).** More than 150 cities (collectively representing a majority of the state’s population) impose a utility user tax. UUT rates vary from 1 to 11 percent and are levied on the users of various utilities, which may include telephone, electricity, gas, water and cable television. For cities that impose the UUT, it provides an average of 15 percent of general revenue and often as much as 22 percent.

**continued**
Parcel Tax. This is a special non-value-based tax on property, generally based on either a flat per-parcel rate or a variable rate depending on the size, use or number of units on the parcel. Parcel taxes require two-thirds voter approval and are imposed for a variety of purposes, including police and fire services, parks, libraries and open space protection. Parcel taxes provide less than 1 percent of city revenues statewide.

Rents, Royalties and Concessions. Examples of revenues generated through the use of city property include royalties from natural resources taken from city property, the sale of advertising in city publications, payments from concessionaires operating on city property, facility rentals, entry charges, on- and off-street parking charges and even golf fees.

Franchises. In lieu of rent, franchise fees are collected from refuse collectors, cable television companies and utilities for the use of city streets. Some franchise charges are limited by statute.

Fines, Forfeitures and Penalties. Cities receive a share of fines and bail forfeitures from misdemeanors and infractions committed within city boundaries. State law determines the distribution and use of state-imposed fines and forfeitures, but cities determine penalties for violations of their municipal codes.

Service Charges and Fees. Cities have authority to impose fees, charges and rates for services and facilities they provide, such as plan checking or recreation classes. Use of these revenues is limited to paying for the service for which the fees are collected, but may include overhead, capital improvements and debt service.

Regulatory fees pay for the cost of issuing licenses and permits, performing investigations, inspections and audits and the administrative enforcement of these activities. Examples include a fee to pay for the cost of processing pesticide license applications or a fee to inspect restaurants for health and safety compliance.

City utilities and enterprises supported by service fees constitute a substantial portion of most city budgets. These include water, sewer, electricity and solid waste services. In some cities, a public or private agency other than the city provides and funds these services.

**And There’s More**

City budgets can be bewildering. Myriad laws and limitations make city funding a very complicated subject. Understanding the essentials of city finance is critical for any city decision-maker. Elected officials find their job is made easier when they are able to explain the basic elements of municipal finance to their constituents.

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