



Department of Revenue

**Property Tax Increment Financing in Iowa
Program Evaluation Study**

December 2023

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Preface

[Iowa Code Section 2.48](#) directs the Department of Revenue to review certain tax expenditures it administers. The schedule provided in this section requires a review in 2023 of property tax revenue divisions for urban renewal areas under section 403.19; this is also called tax increment financing. This is the Department of Revenue's third evaluation study completed for this expenditure. Prior studies of property tax revenue divisions for urban renewal areas, or tax increment financing, were completed in 2013 and 2018.

As part of the evaluation, an advisory panel was convened to provide input and advice on the study's scope and analysis. We wish to thank the members of the panel:

Lucas Beenken	Iowa State Association of Counties
Biswa Das, PhD	Iowa State University
Carrie Johnson	Iowa Department of Management
Erin Mullenix	Iowa League of Cities
Ted Nellesen	Iowa Department of Management
Mike Owen	Common Good Iowa

The assistance of an advisory panel implies no responsibility for the content and conclusions of the evaluation study. This report was also reviewed by Robin Anderson, PhD, State Chief Economist and Division Administrator of the Research and Policy Division. This study and other evaluations of Iowa tax credits can be found in [the evaluation study web page](#) on the Iowa Department of Revenue website.

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Executive Summary

Tax Increment Financing (TIF) is a property tax funding mechanism available to cities and counties in Iowa for the purposes of financing urban renewal projects promoting economic development and addressing slum or blight within urban renewal areas. The objective of this evaluation study is to describe and analyze the economic aspects of TIF with attention to their state-level policy implications. This study does not evaluate any individual urban renewal projects using TIF taxing districts.

The major highlights of the study are below:

Background of Urban Renewal and Tax Increment Financing

- Various federal National Housing Acts in the 1940s and 1950s created the concept and funding for urban renewal. The 1957 Iowa General Assembly passed the [Urban Renewal Law \(Iowa Code 403\)](#). By the 1970s, the earliest form of TIF funding was introduced to urban renewal areas. Authority was expanded in 1985 to allow TIF funding for economic development and to allow counties to establish urban renewal areas.
- The ability to divide revenue in each TIF taxing district with an economic development urban renewal area was added in 1994. This included limiting the duration of these types of TIF taxing districts to 20 years from the year that revenue is first divided (i.e., from the year that tax increment revenues are first collected and paid to the municipality).
- The most recent changes to Iowa TIF law happened in the early 2010's when new reporting requirements for municipalities with urban renewal areas were added and local procedures were modified. Further, revenues for school districts Instructional Support Levy (ISL) were added to school districts Physical Plant and Equipment Levy (PPEL), and all taxing authority debt levies that could not be diverted for TIF funding.

Basic Urban Renewal and Process in Iowa

- The basic steps of the urban renewal process in Iowa are as follows:
 - A city or county identifies an economic development, slum, or blight related project that would encourage urban renewal. An urban renewal plan is developed by the city or county for the specific area identified.
 - If TIF financing is elected to be used for urban renewal projects within the designated urban renewal area, it includes one or more TIF taxing districts. The city or county may issue bonds or incur other indebtedness for the urban renewal project and use TIF revenues to reimburse this debt. Each TIF district is made up of each unique set of taxing jurisdictions within the urban renewal area.
 - A taxable valuation "base" is established for each TIF taxing district. That base

equals the valuation of the taxable property in the base year, which is the year prior to the certification of debt to be reimbursed with tax increment from the TIF taxing district. The tax revenue from the base value continues to be allocated to the existing taxing authorities. Any increase in taxable value above the base is termed the “increment”. Revenues from property taxes on the increment, excluding certain specified tax levies, are separated from revenues derived from the base and may be used to help finance urban renewal projects. The valuation on the portion of the increment associated with the accessed revenues is known as the “used increment.”

- Revenues from debt levies, the school Physical Plant and Equipment Levy (PPEL), and, for FY 2014 and after, the Instructional Support Levy (ISL) do not go to the TIF, which alleviates some of the borrowing power and loss of immediate funding issues inflicted on school districts.

Tax Increment Financing Around the United States

- Forty-nine states and the District of Columbia allow TIF. Only Arizona does not allow TIF.
- As of 2023, three states (Connecticut, Kansas, and Texas) restrict the use of TIF to either commercial property only (as in Kansas) or to commercial and industrial property (in Connecticut and Texas). Iowa allows TIF usage for commercial, industrial, residential, and multi-residential property types.
- In other states that allow TIF, TIFs may be also approved by counties. In some instances, school districts and community college districts are allowed to utilize TIF financing. Iowa allows TIF usage for, primarily, cities and counties.
- At least 36 states reference blight as either a prerequisite for the implementation of TIF or as one of various conditions under which it is allowed. However, only three states, including Alaska, Nevada, and Tennessee, categorically require a finding of blight prior to the establishment of any TIF area.
- Fifteen states require that TIFs meet some kind of “but for” test as part of approval procedures such that the municipality must demonstrate that improvements would not occur but for the existence of the TIF. In general, Iowa does not have this requirement. However, Iowa tax authorities using TIF must use TIF revenues for express/authorized purposes.
- Thirty-two states, including Iowa, allow TIF projects to be financed through issuance of general obligation (G.O.) bonds, which are bonds backed by the municipality’s taxing authority. Thirty-eight states, including Iowa, allow authorities to employ eminent domain for TIF purposes. Fourteen states provide for some type of exclusion from TIF from overlapping school districts. In Iowa, PPL and ISL school levies are exempt from TIF taxing district revenue diversions.

Findings About Tax Increment Financing in Iowa

- In 2021, the total frozen base valuation of TIF urban renewal areas statewide was \$12.8 billion and the used incremental valuation of those same areas was \$14.7

billion. The revenues estimated to flow to TIF projects in FY 2023, the tax year associated with the 2021 assessment year, was \$421.1 million.

- Between AY 2000 and AY 2021, the number of TIF urban renewal areas (URAs) where incremental valuation is greater than zero, increased by 41.1 percent, from a count of 1,125 to 1,901. During the same period, the amount of taxable value in used TIF increments has increased by 94.0 percent, accounting for \$421.1 million in property tax revenues in FY 2023 for TIF authorities.
- During the period between assessment years 2000 and 2021, total property tax revenues increased by 41.9 percent whereas revenues to TIF increments increased by more than twice this rate, at 97.9 percent. When adjusted for inflation, during the nearly four decades between AY 1980 and AY 2021, total property tax revenues increased from \$4.4 billion to \$5.8 billion; meanwhile, revenues diverted to TIF increased from just \$2.7 million to \$377.5 million.
- Of the 1,901 urban renewal areas in existence as of 2021, half have a base year of 2009 or earlier. The first cohort of TIF taxing districts subject to the 20-year limit reached this limit in 2016; with each year moving forward, successive cohorts of TIF taxing districts are doing likewise. Since 2020, 508 TIF taxing districts have expired. Conversely, 489 TIF taxing districts were established between 2016 and 2021.
- In AY 2021, 50.2 percent of property comprising TIF taxing districts in Iowa was commercial property, 27.6 percent was residential, and 18.7 percent was industrial. Multi-residential property, and agricultural land and buildings together accounted for less than 4.0 percent.
- While TIF incremental valuations accounted for 9.0 percent of total taxable value in 2021, incremental valuation of industrial property accounted for a quarter of all industrial property in the state; incremental valuation of property classified as commercial accounted for 18.6 percent of commercial property.
- In AY 2021 (on which revenues for FY 2023 are based), there were seven counties in which the maximum available increment of all TIF taxing districts in the county combined was used for revenues. In contrast, in another nine counties, the used increment represented less than 10.0 percent of the available increment in all TIF taxing districts. Statewide, 45.4 percent of the available increment was used; on average, by county, 56.3 percent of the available increment was used.
- Most TIF increment valuation is in urban property; i.e., property within city limits. In AY 2021, TIF valuation in urban property was \$12.5 billion, a quantity representing 10.8 percent of urban valuation. The amount of TIF valuation in rural property is much smaller, although not trivial. In AY 2021, \$2.2 billion was in rural property.

I. Introduction

Tax Increment Financing (TIF) is a property tax funding mechanism option available to cities and counties in Iowa for the purposes of financing urban renewal projects promoting economic development¹, slum², or blight³ projects within urban renewal areas. Cities and counties do not have to exclusively use TIF taxing districts to fund urban renewal area projects. However, when they do, an urban renewal area can contain one or multiple TIF taxing districts. These TIF taxing districts can have geographic boundaries that can range from a small section of the urban renewal area to the same size as the urban renewal area.

Anticipated property tax revenues beyond a TIF district's base year that are used to finance specific TIF projects by counties and cities are diverted from multiple taxing authorities, such as school districts, community colleges, agricultural extensions, etc. A city or county will bond funds for its urban renewal area projects. Typically, this financing is in the form of a grant or a TIF rebate structure where property taxes paid by a private developer are returned to that developer. The financing of public projects undertaken by a county or city is also a possibility and can include a broad range of initiatives, such as the construction of roads, utilities, parks, affordable housing, and public facilities.

There is no "opt-out" option for impacted taxing authorities when a TIF district is established. The State of Iowa replaces some of the funds that are diverted from the school districts when a TIF bond is granted. Thus, TIF has a direct impact on the State General Fund through its interaction with the State School Foundation Aid formula which is the means by which the State equalizes the distribution of resources across school districts. Because the used TIF increment is not included in a school district's tax base, revenues contributing the

¹ "Economic development area" is defined by [Iowa Code 403.17\(10\)](#) as an area as appropriate for commercial and industrial enterprises, public improvements related to housing and residential development, or construction of housing and residential development for low and moderate income families, including single or multifamily housing. Property assessed for taxation reasons as agricultural property cannot be included as an "economic development area" unless the owner of the agricultural property agrees to be included in the urban renewal area. An economic development area does not have any requirements to contain slum or blighted areas to be included in an urban renewal plan, but it limited to 20 years for any TIF district.

² "Slum area" is defined by [Iowa Code 403.17\(22\)](#) as an area with a predominance of residential or nonresidential buildings and/or improvements which are dilapidated and/or deteriorated for a variety of reasons, such as age, obsolescence, high density population or overcrowding, or inadequate ventilation, light, air, sanitation, open spaces, etc. By their existence, these areas have one or a combination of factors that endanger life, property, and health and/or contribute to disease, infant mortality, juvenile delinquency, and crime in a way that is detrimental to public health, safety, morals, or welfare. Property assessed for taxation reasons as agricultural property cannot be included as a "slum area".

³ "Blighted area" is defined by [Iowa Code 403.17\(5\)](#) as an area with a substantial number of any combinations of slum, deteriorated or deteriorating structures, defective street layout, faulty lot layout (in relation to size, adequacy, accessibility, usefulness, unsafe conditions), deterioration of site or other improvements, diversity of ownership, tax delinquency of a substantial amount in relation to fair market value of property, defective or unusual conditions of title, and existence of conditions which endanger life or property, which substantially impaired the sound growth of a local government, housing accommodations, or is a social liability that is a menace to public health, safety, or welfare in its present condition or use. Disaster areas can be considered blighted areas. However, any property assessed for taxation reasons as agricultural property cannot.

local property tax portion of the school finance obligation under the formula is lower as a result of TIF; in turn, the State General Fund portion of the funding burden is higher as a result. This is not always the full amount a school district would have been entitled without a TIF taxing district in place. However, any surplus tax incremental value, which is the property tax value of a TIF district that is not used for repayment of TIF bonds and debts in a year, is returned to impacted school districts. Further, affected school districts can access the full TIF district increment for debt service purposes and for funding of school district Physical Plant and Equipment levies, Instructional Support Levies (ISL), and debt service. Other taxing authorities are only permitted this access to incremental value for debt levy service levies and receive no reimbursement by the State or local government for forfeited property tax revenues. Nevertheless, TIF is premised on the expectation that property valuations within in the TIF district and all surrounding property tax type categories will increase as a result of planned improvements. Subsequently, once a TIF district is dissolved, the previously diverted incremental property tax value becomes available to all taxing authorities to levy upon at its newly developed value.

This evaluation study describes and analyzes the economic aspects of TIF with attention to their state-level policy implications.

II. Background of Urban Renewal and Tax Increment Financing

In 1949, [The Federal National Housing Act](#) was enacted, which, in addition to numerous provisions related to affordable housing, established a “slum clearance and community development and redevelopment” program through \$1.0 billion in loans to cities for the purpose of acquiring slums and blighted land for public and private redevelopment. Further, \$100.0 million a year, for five years, in grant funding was authorized to pay cities for a portion of the cost difference between the cost of these acquired areas and their reuse value. [In 1954, several amendments to the original National Housing Act](#) were made, including the addition of the term "urban renewal" to refer to public efforts to revitalize aging and decaying cities. This included requiring designated urban renewal areas that were a part of a formal urban renewal plan approved by a local government with specific urban renewal projects.

In response to the federal urban renewal area initiative of the 1950s, the 1957 Iowa General Assembly passed the [1958 Urban Renewal Law \(Iowa Code 403\)](#), which allowed all Iowa cities to utilize public and private resources to establish urban renewal plans for urban renewal areas with approved projects. This law had the intent to eliminate slums and prevent the development or spread of slums and urban blight to encourage urban rehabilitation. This was primarily achieved through the acquisition, clearance, and redevelopment of these areas. The power to appropriate funds and to levy taxes and assessments was granted to Iowa cities for the purposes of financing urban renewal area projects in urban renewal areas. In 1959, the City of Des Moines created the River Hills Urban Renewal Area, the first urban renewal area in Iowa⁴, which cleared an area of predominately African American housing and businesses for redevelopment as Interstate-

⁴ City of Des Moines, [Thirty-Second Amendment to the Urban Renewal Plan for the Metro Center Urban Renewal Area](#). May 23, 2022.

By the 1970s, the earliest form of TIF was introduced to urban renewal areas when the Iowa General Assembly authorized municipalities to collect and expend incremental property tax revenues to fund urban renewal projects in urban renewal areas. Then, spurred by the economic difficulties of the 1980s, in 1985, the concept of urban renewal was expanded in scope to authorize economic development for commercial and industrial enterprises as an allowable effort in urban renewal areas. It has been argued (Johnson and Kriz, 2001; Swenson, 2012) that these major urban renewal area financing and policy focus additions in Iowa expanded partly as a response to: (i) the farm debt crisis, (ii) rural economic dislocations, (iii) decline in the state's traditional. In addition, federal support for roads, housing, and other infrastructure decreased. Thus, the use of TIF in urban renewal areas for economic development allowed Iowa municipalities a source of finance for basic government expenditures while promoting commercial and industrial enterprise and housing.

In the 1990s, the authorization of TIF financing for urban renewal areas was expanded to counties, in addition to cities, if the county had, by joint agreement with a city, established an urban renewal area within the boundaries of the city or within two miles of the city. At first, in 1994, this was only for industrial property economic development, but this restriction was removed by 1996 so that, now, counties possess the same urban renewal powers as cities. Also, in the early 1990s, the definition of economic development was expanded to include housing and residential development for low- and moderate-income families. Further, prior to this time, no limits were placed on the length of time an urban renewal area could be in existence. That is still the case for urban renewal areas created based on addressing slum or blighted areas. However, in 1994, the law was amended to provide the division of revenue in each TIF taxing district with an economic development urban renewal area and limited that area to 20 years from the year that revenue is first divided (i.e., from the year that tax increment revenues are first collected and paid to the municipality).

The most recent changes to Iowa TIF law happened in the early 2010's when new reporting requirements for municipalities with urban renewal areas were added and local procedures were modified. For example, conditions were placed on TIF funding used for relocating businesses within the same contiguous counties. Further, revenues for school districts Instructional Support Levy (ISL) were added to school districts Physical Plant and Equipment Levy (PPEL), and all taxing authority debt levies that could not be diverted for TIF funding.⁶

III. Basic Urban Renewal and TIF process in Iowa

A city or county identifies an economic development, slum, or blight related area that could benefit from urban renewal. A geographic district with defined boundaries is established for

⁵ Iowa State Advisory Committee to the United States Commission on Civil Rights. [Report on Urban Renewal Programs and Their Effects on Racial Minority Group Housing in Three Iowa Cities](#). June, 1964.

⁶ Note: See [Appendix 1: Timeline of Major Program Changes by Effective Date](#)

this area, which is called an urban renewal area. Then, an urban renewal plan is developed by the city or county for the specific area identified.

This urban renewal plan includes a legal description and map of the area; a description of existing land uses and conditions; the actions the local government proposes to undertake in the area, such as public improvements, public services, and the sale or purchase of property; and other conditions the local government may want to impose on the development projects. An urban renewal area must be designated by a city council or board of supervisors. As part of the designation, the governing authority must adopt an urban renewal plan. If the city or county wants to undertake an action not specified in the urban renewal plan, it must adopt the proposed change by an amendment. Before it can be adopted by the city council or board of supervisors, a notice of a public hearing on the amendment must be published in the newspaper.

If TIF financing is elected to be used for urban renewal projects within the designated urban renewal area, it includes one or more TIF taxing districts. The city or county may issue bonds or incur other indebtedness for the urban renewal project and use TIF revenues to reimburse this debt. Each TIF district is made up of each unique set of taxing jurisdictions within the urban renewal area. In general, municipalities do not need the permission of other taxing authorities in order to establish an urban renewal area of a TIF taxing district. However, a consultation and comment period with other taxing entities is offered as part of the adoption of an urban renewal plan or amendment that proposes the use of TIF for urban renewal projects.

A taxable valuation “base” is established for each TIF taxing district. That base equals the valuation of the taxable property in the base year, which is the year prior to the certification of debt to be reimbursed with tax increment from the TIF taxing district. The tax revenue from the base value continues to be allocated to the existing taxing authorities. Under certain circumstances (usually the impact of taxable value rollbacks), the base value can decline and even fall to zero, leaving the traditional taxing authorities with no revenue from the entire TIF district. Any increase in taxable value above the base is termed the “increment”. Revenues from property taxes on the increment, excluding certain specified tax levies, are separated from revenues derived from the base and may be used to help finance urban renewal projects. The increment consists of any increases in taxable value over the base, including any increases due to revaluation of existing property, which occurs as a result of property value inflation, as well as the value of new construction. The TIF authority (a municipality or its urban renewal agency) may access certain revenues generated from the increment value, but is not required to access the entire amount of revenues attributable to the increment value. The valuation on the portion of the increment associated with the accessed revenues is known as the “used increment.”⁷ The portion of the increment that is not used flows back to the traditional tax authorities without diversion.

It should be emphasized that TIF does not generate tax revenues by increasing real estate tax rates. Rather, TIF allows the municipality to capture, temporarily, the certain tax revenues generated by the increase in assessed valuation of properties resulting from the

⁷ Throughout this report, except as noted or as apparent from context, the term “increment” is used to refer to the used increment; i.e., the portion of maximum incremental valuation associated with the revenues apportioned to TIF authorities.

various redevelopment projects occurring within the TIF taxing district. Revenues from debt levies, the school Physical Plant and Equipment Levy (PPEL), and, for FY 2014 and after, the Instructional Support Levy (ISL) do not go to the TIF, which alleviates some of the borrowing power and loss of immediate funding issues inflicted on school districts.

Funds used from urban renewal projects must be used for express purposes only authorized by an approved urban renewal plan. The revenues apportioned to TIF taxing districts may only be used to retire indebtedness, including local government general obligation bonds, TIF revenue bonds, and other indebtedness, such as bank loans or money owed to a separate fund of the local government itself. Allowable uses also include rebates for debt owed as part of development agreements between local governments and property owners. Once designated, the geographic area of the urban renewal area may be amended by the city or county. TIF taxing districts in urban renewal areas created prior to 1995 and any area created on a finding of slum or blight are not required to expire. Since 1995, the division of revenue of TIF districts in economic development areas are limited to 20 years duration, but only if the urban renewal areas are not also designated slum or blighted.

Hypothetical Example	
1.	In 1997, a city approves an urban renewal plan for an urban renewal area and designates (by ordinance) a TIF district for approved plan economic development projects, which includes partnering with a private developer to build new buildings.
2.	In 1998, the city issues bonds to fund this urban renewal area and certifies the debt created to the County Auditor for reimbursement through TIF.
3.	All property valuations in the TIF district are divided into two parts: the base year value (1998) and the increment value (1999-2019). The base year value is the value of taxable property in the TIF district as of January 1 of the calendar year before the calendar year in which the city certified debt. In the case of new buildings, the base year would be the property tax value of ground under the buildings and all other surrounding property and existing improvements/buildings in the district in the base year. The increment value would be the property tax value of all the property and improvements of the TIF taxing district above the base year value.
4.	Throughout the TIF process, which would continue for up to 20 years for the TIF taxing district, property tax at its regular, annually assessed rate is paid by the private developers and all other surrounding properties in the TIF district to the county treasurer.
5.	The county treasurer distributes property taxes collected within the TIF district to all taxing authorities for the 1998 base year. In this example, the property tax value for the base year is \$8.0 million. This is repeated each year throughout the life of the TIF taxing district at the annual \$8.0 million rate.
6.	The county treasurer distributes certain tax revenues on the incremental value of the tax increment to the city for payment of the debt service on the bonds issue to fund the urban renewal projects. For example, if the assessed value of property in the TIF taxing district is \$9.5 million in 2000, the increment value is \$9.5 million - \$8.0 million = \$1.5 million. Certain taxes collected from the incremental value would be provided to the city for the payment of the urban renewal project indebtedness. This calculation is repeated each year during the life of the TIF taxing district. Therefore, the incremental value and amount of taxes provided to the city to fund

	the urban renewal project could change each year. For example, in 2018, if the assessed value of the taxable property in the TIF taxing district is \$21.0 million the increment value used to calculate available tax increment is \$21.0 million - \$8.0 million = or, \$13.0 million.
7.	The city uses tax increment to pay the debt service bonds issued to fund the project with the private developer.
8.	If the TIF taxing district terminates in 2018, and the value of taxable property in the TIF taxing district is \$22.0 million, all property taxes are collected on this amount and distributed to all taxing authorities.

IV. Tax Increment Financing Around the United States

The Council of Development Finance Agencies (CDFA) has periodically published summaries of TIF laws and policies among the states since at least 2008. Its most recent update, issued in 2015, is the primary source for the state-by-state information provided below. Information from other published sources, as noted, is also incorporated. While the comparative analysis of states' TIF laws and policies provided in the Iowa Department of Revenue's 2018 evaluation study of TIF remains broadly applicable, the CDFA notes that one state, Washington, has made an amendment to their TIF statute since that time.⁸ The results of these changes are reflected in the analysis below.

Types of Property Allowed

Forty-nine states and the District of Columbia allow TIF. Only Arizona does not (see Table 1). In 2011, California, which accounts for more TIF-funded debt than any other state, dissolved the redevelopment authorities in the state and prohibited local governments from issuing new TIF bonds for purposes of redevelopment (Luby and Moldogaziev, 2014). Use of TIF, remains allowable in California for more limited purposes, namely for financing infrastructure improvements (CDFA, 2015). In 2015, the state authorized expanded use of TIF by Community Revitalization and Investment Authorities (California Association for Local Economic Development (CALED, 2017)).⁹ As of 2023, three states (including Connecticut, Kansas, and Texas) restrict the use of TIF to either commercial property only (as in Kansas) or to commercial and industrial property (in CT and TX). The remaining 46 states and the District of Columbia, Iowa among them, also allow TIF for residential or mixed-use property. In sixteen states, including the District of Columbia, TIFs can be approved only by cities or by redevelopment authorities authorized by cities. Cities include municipal entities such as townships, boroughs, and incorporated villages. In the other states that allow TIF, TIFs may be also approved by counties. In some instances, school districts and community college districts are allowed to utilize TIF financing.

Blight

The history of TIF is rooted in efforts to mitigate urban blight and slum. Statutes in most states reference blight as either a prerequisite for the implementation of TIF or as one of various conditions under which it is allowed. This is true for at least 36 states, including

⁸ See: <https://www.cdfa.net/cdfa/tifmap.nsf/index.html>

⁹ See: <https://www.cacities.org/Resources-Documents/Policy-Advocacy-Section/Hot-Issues/New-Tax-Increment-Tools/CALED-TIF-Primer-3-17-FINAL.aspx>

Iowa, which allows TIF either where blight or slum conditions pertain or for purposes of economic development. As TIF has evolved, the importance of a finding of blight or similar conditions as a pre-requisite for TIF appears to have diminished somewhat among most states to a level where it remains a sufficient but not always necessary condition. According to information published by the CDFA, blight appears to be a singular requirement in only three states: Alaska, Nevada, and Tennessee. For 33 other states, blight is to a greater or lesser degree a consideration, albeit not a necessary condition for the implementation of TIF. In one state (Virginia) blight is reported as a factor in consideration, but TIF is allowable for development needs generally, regardless of blight. It must be emphasized, the very definition of blight may vary by state, such that the distinctions on this point are not fixed and definitive. In the fourteen other states that allow TIF, including the District of Columbia, blight is not indicated as any kind of requirement for TIF.

“But For” Test

Some states require that TIFs meet some kind of “but for” test as part of approval procedures. With this prerequisite, the authorizing entity must find that improvements would not occur but for the existence of the TIF. According to the CDFA, states that do not have a requirement for blight typically impose a “but for” test.¹⁰ Of the states for which blight figures as some kind of TIF prerequisite, as noted above, only 12 require a “but for” test or offer it as an alternative to a blight requirement. However, of the 14 states (including the District of Columbia) blight is not a factor in the approval of TIFs, only three impose a “but for” requirement (District of Columbia, Vermont, and Washington). There are 15 states whose TIF approval procedures include a “but for” test that is applicable under at least some circumstances. These include four of the six states that border Iowa: Illinois, Minnesota, Missouri, and Nebraska. Iowa does not impose this requirement except that when TIF is used to finance construction of public buildings the municipality must provide an analysis of alternative development and funding options and the reasons such options would be less feasible than the proposed urban renewal plan. While there is no formal, “but for” test in Iowa, economic and environmental changes in physical space usage are starting to organically drive the discretion of authorities when selecting individual urban renewal projects, especially within economic development TIF taxing districts. For example, post-COVID 19 shutdowns and work-from-home initiatives, the City of Des Moines recently stated that it would not develop certain economic development projects for businesses that did not require workers to report to work, in-person, at least three days a week.¹¹

In 31 states, only property taxes are considered eligible TIF revenue sources while seven other states, including Iowa, limit TIF finances to revenues from property tax and sales tax. The other twelve states allow a broader mix of revenue sources to be captured by TIFs. Such other revenue sources include various types of taxes and payments, many of which are not applicable in all states; these include, for example, business license tax, economic activity tax, gross receipts tax, hotel tax, local payroll tax, and personal property tax.

¹⁰ “For states that do not list this as a requirement, potential TIF taxing districts or projects typically have to pass a ‘but for’ test. This test requires that but for the TIF assistance, growth or development at the proposed level would not occur” (CDFA, 2015, p. 5).

¹¹ The Des Moines Register, [Des Moines Incentive For New Office Carries In Person Work Requirements](#), September 27, 2023.

General Obligation Bonds

Another way in which TIF laws vary from state to state is with respect to the manner in which states allow TIF projects to be financed. Among the considerations of most interest in this regard is whether local governments may issue general obligations bonds for this purpose. General obligation bonds (G.O. bonds), are secured by a municipality's pledge of its full faith and credit to repayment backed by unlimited taxing authority. When issuing G.O. bonds, municipalities are obligated to levy property tax if necessary to meet debt service requirements. Thirty-two states, including Iowa, allow TIF projects to be financed through issuance of G.O. bonds. Among these are all of the states that border Iowa except for South Dakota. In addition to G.O. bonds, revenue bonds are the other basic type of municipal bonds. Revenue bonds are distinct from G.O. bonds in that they provide a guarantee of repayment based solely on revenues generated from specified revenue-generating activity. Despite the technical distinction between G.O. bonds and revenue bonds, and the standing attached to G.O. bonds among credit-rating agencies and bond investors, in practice, municipalities face serious consequences for defaulting on revenue bonds and are typically strongly averse to the prospect. This is because municipalities, as with any borrower, face consequences for default, including reduction of credit-worthiness and higher costs of borrowing.

Eminent Domain

Under the principle of eminent domain, a government may condemn private property and take it for public use. Where the practice is allowed for TIF, municipalities may claim eminent domain to condemn private property for the purposes of economic development. Laws of 38 states, including Iowa, allow authorities to employ eminent domain for TIF purposes.

Impact on School District Finances

Since property taxes are so central to school district budgets, the potential impact of TIF on school district budgets is particularly acute. Johnson and Kriz (2001) identified 14 states that, in one way or another, exclude overlapping school districts from TIF. Iowa is not among these states. In Iowa, incremental school district property taxes in a TIF area, except those associated with certain levies, are diverted to the TIF authority. In addition, Johnson and Kriz (2001) identified 21 states that restrict either the land area of TIF taxing districts or the percentage of assessed value within municipalities that can be captured by TIF. Iowa law does not impose such limitations.

V. Literature Review

Tax increment financing is the subject of a fairly extensive body of academic and professional literature. Interest in the topic as a subject of academic inquiry coincides with growth in the use of TIF across the country.

Previous TIF Evaluation Studies

Research conducted regarding cause and effect analyses between interventions and outcomes of TIF taxing districts concerning their impact had they not been designated examines the characteristics of local governments adopting TIF. This is called a 'but for' scenario. For example, if local officials choose to redevelop blighted areas through TIF, the TIF area may grow at a slower pace than comparable areas. However, officials may choose areas likely to grow rapidly to capture higher tax increments. In this regard, Man (1999a)

tested the factors that affect TIF adoption in Indiana, controlling for sample selection issues, and did not find that prior growth significantly affected the chance of adopting TIF. Instead, fiscal pressure, tax competition, expected appreciation in property values, and economic distress were found to be significant factors in explaining the adoption of TIFs. Likewise, Dye and Merriman (2000) did not find an association between pre-adoption growth and post-TIF adoption in Chicago metropolitan areas. Instead, Dye and Merriman (2000) found that population size, the share of non-residential properties, and municipal tax rates influenced the adoption of TIFs. Byrne (2006) found that TIF neighborhoods used to have lower-income residents, older buildings, and higher vacancy rates, prior to TIF adoption.

TIF and Economic Development

Most literature assessing TIFs has focused on property values. This is because the ideal scenario for an urban renewal area is to generate sufficient tax revenues to repay the debt issued to finance it, which makes this a crucial measure when evaluating if the TIF implementation was justified. However, a growing body of literature also concerns the effect of TIF on economic development and economic activity outcomes. For example, increases in property values could be linked to higher rents for businesses and tenants. Therefore, complementing TIF analysis with other economic development measures is relevant for a broader picture of the net impact of a TIF on its community.

Some researchers have found a positive effect of TIF on employment. For example, Man (1999b) showed that TIF adoption positively affected local employment in Indiana between 1985 and 1992. Wassmer (1994) also found a positive effect on employment and sales in the manufacturing and service sectors in Detroit between 1947 and 1987. However, impacts varied among cities, especially in industrial areas, emphasizing that local characteristics must be considered. A similar result was found by Byrne (2010), who examined the employment growth in Illinois between 1981 and 1999. Further, Byrne (2010) found that TIF delivered positive effects on areas focused on industrial development, but a negative impact on areas specialized in retail development. Lester (2014), controlling for selection bias, analyzed the impact of TIF on employment and the number of building permits. His results showed no evidence of higher economic development in Chicago between 1990 and 2008 caused by TIF implementation. Moreover, this author found no significant effect of TIF programs on bringing private investment in blighted neighborhoods.

TIF and Property Value

After correcting for selection bias, Anderson (1990) found that TIF adoption was associated with higher subsequent growth in property values in aggregate terms in Michigan. However, he did not find evidence of significant causality. A similar result was found by Man and Rosentraub (1998) for Indiana in the 1980s. He found there was a positive relationship between TIF programs and the value of houses. However, results become mixed when researchers consider different types of properties. For example, Byrne (2006) found that TIF taxing districts in Chicago grew substantially faster than overall districts in the decade of the 1990s. Still, property value growth was primarily concentrated in industrial areas, larger, more blighted, and with lower density. Weber *et al.* (2007), which focused their analysis on single-family homes, found that homes near mixed-use developments had increased appreciation of their properties while homes close to industrial TIF taxing districts had decreased appreciation. Further, Merriman *et al.* (2011) found no significant impact of TIF programs in Wisconsin municipalities in aggregate terms. However, when

breaking down properties into residential, manufacturing, and commercial categories, they found a positive effect of TIF on commercial TIF taxing districts only.

Other authors suggest being cautioned about associating property value growth with a successful TIF implementation. For example, Dardia (1998), after evaluating TIF and non-TIF taxing districts in California between 1983 and 1996, found that property values in parcels inside TIF taxing districts grew more rapidly than in non-TIF taxing districts. Yet, after correcting for trends in the price of the real state, the difference between TIF and non-TIF taxing districts became insignificant. Another factor to be considered regarding the relationship between TIF implementation and the change in property value is the redistribution of economic activity intra-city, not only within TIF taxing districts. For instance, Dye and Merriman (2000) suggested that growth in property values in TIF taxing districts could be attributable to inefficient intra-city redistribution of businesses into TIF taxing districts.

Research since the Iowa Department of Revenue's 2018 Evaluation Study of TIF

Numerous studies have been published on the impact of TIF on several key economic variables, such as employment, property values, school district revenues, and economic development overall. However, the evidence is still mixed: studies have found positive, negative, ambiguous, or insignificant significant economic and social effects.

TIF and Employment Growth after 2018

Regarding the impacts of TIF on employment, Czurylo (2023) found a positive effect of TIF designation on the number of jobs in a selected census block which resulted in approximately 15.0 percent over five years. However, the employment levels of residents living in or around TIF taxing districts showed no increase due to the TIF? designation. Additionally, these authors found substantial benefits to adjacent blocks. The authors indicate that this employment growth varied by employment type that was not driven by public-sector employee increases, but appeared to be affecting the business location decisions of private employers. For its part, Dzigbede & Pathak (2022) estimated the impact of TIF on employment, focusing on Broome County in New York. The authors found a positive but slight effect of TIF on employment. Hicks *et al.* (2019) also found that TIF adoptions in Indiana between 2003 and 2012 were correlated with higher employment growth and higher income, but the channel through capturing economic activity was from non-TIF taxing districts, suggesting that it acted as a budget management tool rather than an economic development strategy. Recent literature has also found opposite results. For instance, Funderberg (2019) conducted a study focusing on Polk County, Iowa. The author identified impacts within and near localities. He found that TIF was negatively associated with employment. Similarly, El-Khattabi & Lester (2019), found no conclusive evidence that the TIF programs in Kansas City and St. Louis between 1990 to 2012 had causal effects on crucial economic activity indicators.

TIF and Property Value after 2018

Concerning the impacts on property values, Blackmond, Larnell & Downey (2019) tested whether blight levels and the percentage of non-White residents interacted to reduce the change in the equalized assessed valuation of properties in Chicago's TIF taxing districts. The authors suggest that the combined effect of economic blight and people of color improved the effectiveness of TIF. Thus, TIF appeared to support property value

appreciation, but the findings do not show that it was a remedy for economic distress in severely blighted communities with large minority populations. Therefore, the authors argue that understanding the factors contributing to increased property values is crucial in blighted TIFs to determine whether the growth is an artifact of housing supply deficiencies or development initiatives.

He & Azizi (2020) suggest that parcels within TIF taxing districts were sold more than parcels outside TIF taxing districts by approximately \$5,000. The positive effect is mainly due to the premium on commercial and agricultural parcels, which outweighs the negative TIF impact on residential types. Dzigbede & Pathak (2022) found that TIF is associated with significant increases in property values and property tax revenues in TIF neighborhoods. However, the authors acknowledge their projections are only valid under specific conditions to achieve outcomes for property tax revenue growth and employment.

TIF and School District Revenues after 2018

A recent study that estimates the effect of TIF on school district revenues is Nguyen-Hoang (2021a). Using 18 years of TIF district-level data, this author found that Iowa's TIF taxing districts tend to generate fiscal benefits for school districts, and those TIF-induced benefits range between 5.8 percent to 11.8 percent of the school districts' total non-TIF property tax levy for capital purposes. The author shows that school districts likely benefit from TIF-induced levels for debt service, physical plant and equipment levy, and instructional support programs purposes. Along the same line, but focusing only on rural school districts, Nguyen-Hoang (2021b) examined the effects on both school districts' property tax base and rates in Iowa from 2001 to 2007. They found that TIF positively affects a rural school district's property tax base, but the effects on property tax rates were mixed, where the TIF-induced increases in tax base came mainly from residential property and slightly from commercial property. For their part, He *et al.* (2022) explored whether TIF detracts from the fiscal health of school districts by comparing revenues received for school districts with and without TIF taxing districts. By performing several sets of measurements for Cook County, Illinois, they found that TIF-use-intensive school districts received lower revenues on average and that school districts received promised windfall upon the dissolutions of TIF taxing districts.

Summary of TIF Literature

TIF primarily aims to assist development activities and subsidize entrepreneurship in designated TIF taxing districts using property or sales tax revenues in the corresponding TIF area to finance their infrastructure, land acquisition, or other program activities. It is expected that these initiatives to be self-financed with future tax revenues obtained from property taxes and, to a lesser extent, via sales taxes. Although the increase in property values is usually the main measure of the success of a TIF implementation, other economic development parameters, such as employment growth, should be considered as part of a holistic analysis. Empirical evidence is mixed: sometimes, the effects of TIF on different measures are positive, negative, not statistically significant, or are significant depending on the characteristics of the TIF district and the economic sector under study.

VI. Findings about Tax Increment Financing in Iowa

A. Findings Overview

Because TIF provides a fundamentally local tool to address fundamentally local concerns, an analysis of TIF from a state-level perspective is perhaps unavoidably general and lacking in detail. Nevertheless, TIF is enabled by State law and constitutes state-level policy and, for this reason, it is meaningful to approach the assessment of TIF from a state-level perspective. The findings described in this section of the report relate to TIF valuation and revenues.

The use of TIF in Iowa has expanded steadily in the two decades since 2000, the earliest year for which complete valuation, rate, and revenue data by taxing district has been compiled for this study. Between AY 2000 and AY 2021, the number of TIF urban renewal areas (URAs) where incremental valuation is greater than zero increased by 41.0 percent, from a count of 1,125 to 1,901. During the same period, the amount of taxable value in used TIF increments has increased by 94.0 percent while the State's population has increased by 8.4 percent. TIF revenues accounted for \$421.1 million in property tax revenues in FY 2023 (see [Table 2. Urban Renewal Areas, Valuations, and Revenues AY 2000-2021](#)).¹² Although total property tax revenues in Iowa have also increased, they have increased more slowly than revenues diverted to TIF. During the period between assessment years 2000 and 2021, total property tax revenues increased by 41.9 percent in real terms whereas revenues to TIF increments increased by more than twice this rate, at 97.9 percent. During the nearly four decades between AY 1980 and AY 2021, total property tax revenues increased, in inflation-adjusted terms, from \$4.4 billion to \$5.8 billion; meanwhile, revenues diverted to TIF increased from just \$2.8 million to \$377.5 million (see [Figure 1. Total Property Tax and TIF Revenues AY 1980-2021](#)).¹³

TIF affects most classes of property but commercial property accounts for more than half of TIF incremental valuation and residential property accounts for about a quarter. In 2021, 50.2 percent of property comprising TIF taxing districts in Iowa was commercial property. However, this has been in decline since its peak in 2006. This is due, in part to the creation of the 2015 multi-residential property tax classification when properties, formally classified as commercial, were converted to their own property tax class. Yet, even with this exception, TIF usage for commercial properties has declined as usage for residential and industrial property classes has grown. In 2021, 27.6 percent was residential, and 18.7 percent was industrial (see [Figure 2. Increment Valuations by Classification AY 2000-2021](#)). Multi-residential property, a property class in place between 2015 and 2021¹⁴, and agricultural land and buildings together accounted for less than 4.0 percent.

The percent of total taxable value used in TIF increments varies distinctly by property classification (see [Figure 3. Share of Taxable Value in TIF Increments, by Classification AY 2000-2021](#)). It should also be noted that increment variations fluctuate in accordance with

¹² Note: FY 2023 revenues are based on AY 2021 assessments.

¹³ For this study, the author has compiled valuation, rate, and revenue data from the Iowa Department of Management's Property Valuation System by taxing district for years since 2000 only. For aggregate revenues diverted to TIF by for years 1980 through 1999, the author has made use of data published by the Iowa Legislative Services Agency (LSA).

¹⁴ Note: The multi-residential property classification was removed as of AY 2022. This is not reflected in this study, but will have an impact on how classifications are represented in future years.

the economy; demonstrating most significant downturns during the 2004, 2008, and 2018 downturns (there were official recessions in 2001, 2008-2009 and 2020). While TIF incremental valuations accounted for 9.0 percent of total taxable value in 2021, incremental valuation of industrial property accounted for a quarter of all industrial property in the state; incremental valuation of property classified as commercial accounted for 18.6 percent of commercial property; and, incremental valuation of property classified as multi-residential accounted for almost 10.0 percent of multi-residential property. Residential property classified TIF incremental valuations accounted for only 3.8 percent of residential properties.

Of the 1,901 urban renewal areas currently active and in existence as of 2021, half have a base year of 2009 or earlier. Thus, half of existing urban renewal areas have been established since 2010 (see [Table 3. Urban Renewal Areas in AY 2021: Valuations and Revenues by Base Year](#)). TIF taxing districts in urban renewal areas established after 1995, except those based on a finding of slum or blight, are required to expire within 20 years; 393 of the state's current URAs have a base year of 1994 or prior. In 2021, the total frozen base valuation of TIF taxing districts was \$12.8 billion and the used incremental valuation of those same areas was \$14.7 billion. The revenues estimated to flow to urban renewal projects in FY 2023, the tax year associated with the 2021 assessment year, was \$421.1 million.

As noted above, TIF taxing districts urban renewal areas that were established after 1995, except those based on a finding of slum or blight, are required to expire within 20 years. The first cohort of TIF taxing districts subject to the 20-year limit reached this limit in 2016; with each year moving forward, successive cohorts of TIF taxing districts are doing likewise. Since 2020, 508 TIF taxing districts expired. Conversely, 489 TIF taxing districts were established between 2016 and 2021. In 2000, frozen base valuations trended 32.4 percent higher than increment valuations. By 2007, frozen base valuations were within one percent of increment valuations. Between 2008 and 2019, increment valuations steadily increased in value over frozen base valuations (see [Figure 4. Increment Valuations vs Frozen Base Valuations AY 2000-2021](#)).¹⁵

B. TIF and School Districts

The principal function of TIF taxing districts is to capture revenues from the property tax increment in order to fund urban renewal projects. This arrangement necessitates both a sponsoring jurisdiction (an entity that activates a TIF district, such as a city or county) and contributing jurisdictions (taxing jurisdictions covered by the TIF district). The rationale for this system is that it obliges contributing jurisdictions to share the costs of blight remediation or economic development from which they will also ultimately benefit. However, the diversion of revenues from school districts is of particular note for at least two reasons.

¹⁵ Note: The most recent data available regarding URA's base years is as of AY 2020. Data and conclusions will vary compared to the 2018 study because of individual district revisions of base years valuations and increments. Further, this is due to several URA's splitting or revising URA base years. Portions of AY 2020 and AY 2021 are currently estimates.

For one, school districts can overlap city and even county boundaries and, because of this, TIF-financed urban renewal efforts in a given city can be partly supported by nonresidents; that is, by school district taxpayers who could also be nonresidents of the city or county in which the TIF taxing district is located. Also, because only cities and counties can authorize urban renewal areas, school districts are subject to TIF practices over which they can have little control. Secondly, the Iowa school finance formula¹⁶ funds education principally on a per pupil basis. Under this formula, education costs are shared by local and State General Fund taxpayers; because the primary property tax levies used to meet these per pupil costs are applicable only to non-TIF valuation, revenues diverted to TIF amount to a shift of tax burden to taxpayers statewide. Namely, because school districts must meet most per pupil educational costs with only non-TIF valuations, foregone school levies on the TIF increment must be made up in the form of higher rates on non-TIF valuations. The total tax shift for school districts can thus be calculated as applicable school levies on the TIF increment.¹⁷ These school district levies on TIF valuation are shifted partly to State taxpayers by means of the State Foundation Aid formula, whereby the State General Fund reimburses school districts for the amount of Uniform Levy revenues that are lost to TIF. This equates to the first \$5.40 of the school district levy on the used increment. While the total tax shift equates to each district's Operating and Management levies on increment valuation, and that component of this total that is backfilled by the Uniform Levy, it constitutes a shift to General Fund taxpayers across the whole of Iowa. The remainder falls to school district taxpayers. The tax shift calculated in this way does not account for other property tax revenues lost by school districts as a result of TIF.¹⁸

Tax revenue diversion due to TIF affects most of Iowa's school districts. Of the 327 school districts in Iowa in 2021, 264 had some share of property valuation in a used TIF increment (see [Table 4. TIF Increment Valuations and Revenues in Iowa School Districts AY 2001-2021](#)). Although, those 63 school districts that did not include a TIF represented 19.0 percent of the state's school districts, they accounted for just 6.0 percent of the state's total taxable property valuation. Meaning, school districts without TIF are much smaller, on average, than those that have property valuation in a TIF increment. This could be because they are often located in smaller, less developed areas of the State where urban renewal activities are not commonly undertaken. These districts without TIF had average taxable valuation of \$225.2 million. This compares to \$807.7 million in average taxable valuation among school districts with TIFs.

¹⁶ The Iowa school finance formula is funded by a combination of State aid, property taxes, income surtaxes, the Secure an Advanced Vision for Education fund (SAVE), federal funds, and miscellaneous income.

¹⁷ The Operating Levy and Management Levy are the only two classes of school levy to which TIF is applicable. However, the Instructional Support Levies (ISL), which is a component of the Operating Levy, became exempt from TIF effective FY 2014. The Operating and Management Levies are the primary sources for funding for school districts in the state. Excluding the ISL, the Operating and Management Levies combined account for 80.0 percent of school districts' total levies. Other categories of levy, which are exempt from TIF, include the Physical Plant and Equipment levy (PPEL) and debt service levies.

¹⁸ Revenues lost by school districts as a result of TIF includes revenues from the Library and Playground levies on TIF valuation and any ISL and PPEL revenue generated on TIF valuations that is needed to make principal and interest payments on certain bonded TIF indebtedness.

In 2021, \$14.7 billion of total school district valuations in the State were in used TIF increments, resulting in a total diversion of school district revenues of \$155.7 million. This diversion of revenue has increased by 58.3 percent from \$64.8 million in 2001 but remains a small share of statewide total property tax revenues collected by school districts (see [Figure 5. Iowa School District Revenues, TIF Diversions, and State Foundation Aid as a Result of TIF AY 2001-2021](#)). Of the total diversion associated with 2021 assessments, \$79.2 million was shifted to statewide taxpayers through the State Foundation Aid Formula.

C. TIF Valuation

Since the concept of TIF is intended to ultimately expand the tax base by increasing property tax revenues, a crucial question is if TIFs achieves this objective. For TIF this means, specifically, whether and to what extent it leads to valuation increases that would not have otherwise occurred.

An analysis of trends in TIF valuation must account for its unique feature whereby its valuation from year to year may fluctuate contingent on budget needs. The value of the increment technically equates only to that portion of its maximum value that is used for revenue in any given budget year; i.e., the used increment. Meaning, in order to meet repayment obligations on outstanding TIF debt in a given budget year, an authority may require less TIF revenue than is available from the total taxable valuation of the maximum increment value allowed. Thus, while a maximum increment value available to an authority can steadily increase each year, the valuation of a TIF increment used can vary from year to year without a commensurate change in the value of the underlying property. In this report, except as otherwise noted or as apparent from context, the term “increment” is used to refer to the used increment. When TIF increment values are available to an authority, but not fully used, revenues associated with any unused portion of the increment in any budget year that are not diverted to the TIF authority revert to the taxing jurisdictions represented in the frozen base valuation.

The amount of property an authority can designate for TIF can vary markedly from the amount of TIF valuation it uses in any given budget year. When considered on a county-by-county basis, there are some counties in which comparatively large percentages of property have been designated for TIF, but in which only a small share of a TIF valuation is used. For example, in AY 2021, the maximum increment represented more than 30.0 percent of total valuation in four Iowa counties. However, for one of these counties, the value of the used increment represented less than 3.0 percent of the maximum increment. Statewide, in total for AY 2021, 15.6 percent of taxable value is in TIF maximum increments and 7.1 percent is in the used increment. Meaning, less than half of the total TIF increment available for authorities to expend is ultimately needed or used. On average among counties, 15.0 percent of taxable value within each county is included in the maximum increment while only 4.8 percent of taxable value is in the used increment. These metrics represent a slight increase in the total taxable value since 2017 when it was 11.0 percent, but a negligible decrease from the 2017 used increment average of 5.0 percent. Notwithstanding year to year fluctuations, the used increment as a share of the maximum increment can vary markedly between authorities. In AY 2021 (on which revenues for FY 2023 are based), there were seven counties in which the maximum available increment of all TIF taxing districts in the county combined was used for revenues (see [Table 5. Net Taxable](#)

[Valuations in TIF by County AY 2021](#)). In contrast, in another nine counties, the used increment represented less than 10.0 percent of the available increment in all TIF taxing districts. Statewide, 45.4 percent of the available increment was used; on average, by county, 56.3 percent of the available increment was used.

Most TIF increment valuation is in urban property; i.e., property within city limits. In AY 2021, TIF valuation in urban property was \$12.5 billion, a quantity representing 10.8 percent of urban valuation (see [Table 6. Net Taxable Valuations by County and Urban or Rural Property Type AY 2021](#)). The amount of TIF valuation in rural property is much smaller, although not trivial. In AY 2021, \$2.2 billion was in rural property. By county, the median percentage of urban property valuation in TIF was 6.4 percent; the median percentage of rural property valuation in TIF was 0.1 percent. There were 82 Iowa counties in which urban property valuation in TIF represented 5.0 percent or more of total urban taxable valuation but only 19 counties in which rural property valuation in TIF represents accounts for 5.0 percent or more of total rural taxable valuation.

As of 2021, TIF taxing districts were located in 98 of Iowa's 99 counties (see [Table 7. Net Taxable Value by County AY 2000 and 2021](#)); that is, every county except Monroe. During the two decades between 2000 and 2021, the total net taxable value of property increased in all counties; meanwhile, TIF increment valuation actually dropped in 18 counties. The average net taxable value in TIF increments was 7.0 percent, which is the same since 2017. TIF valuations amounted to 1.0 percent or less of net taxable value in 26 counties but ten percent or more in 15 counties¹⁹ (see [Figure 6. Percent Taxable Value in TIF by County Maps AY 2002 vs AY 2021](#)).

VII. Conclusion

This evaluation study was undertaken to improve understanding of TIF in Iowa, in particular the implications of its use for the State as a whole. Although TIF is a local economic development tool, a statewide perspective is appropriate because this analysis is concerned with TIF as a matter of state policy. For this very reason, however, this study offers no specifics concerning the nature of any individual TIF taxing district or TIF-funded projects. Although they share a common funding mechanism, the hundreds of TIF taxing districts in the state exist to address a wide range of objectives and unique local circumstances. This study does not assess the extent to which each locality's use of TIF has helped it to achieve its own particular goals.

This study provides background on TIF law and procedures in Iowa. Also, it outlines the basic process of establishing an urban renewal area, TIF taxing district, and the life span of a TIF taxing district. It offers a summary of TIF policies among the 50 states and the District of Columbia and provides a review of research literature on TIF.

This study presents descriptive statistical information concerning the scope and composition of TIF in the State. For instance, this study found that, in 2021, the total frozen base valuation of TIF urban renewal areas statewide was \$12.8 billion and the used incremental valuation of those same areas was \$14.7 billion. The revenues estimated to

¹⁹ For this statistic, total net taxable value includes all classes of rural and urban property.

flow to TIF projects in FY 2023, the tax year associated with the 2021 assessment year, was \$421.1 million. Further, between AY 2000 and AY 2021, the number of TIF urban renewal areas (URAs) where incremental valuation is greater than zero, increased by 41.1 percent, from a count of 1,125 to 1,901. During the same period, the amount of taxable value in used TIF increments has increased by 94.0 percent, accounting for \$421.1 million in property tax revenues in FY 2023 for TIF authorities. During the period between assessment years 2000 and 2021, total property tax revenues increased by 41.9 percent in whereas revenues to TIF increments increased by more than twice this rate, at 97.9 percent. When adjusted for inflation, during the nearly four decades between AY 1980 and AY 2021, total property tax revenues increased from \$4.4 billion to \$5.8 billion; meanwhile, revenues diverted to TIF increased from just \$2.7 million to \$377.5 million. Most TIF increment valuation is in urban property; i.e., property within city limits. In AY 2021, TIF valuation in urban property was \$12.5 billion, a quantity representing 10.8 percent of urban valuation. The amount of TIF valuation in rural property is much smaller, although not trivial. In AY 2021, \$2.2 billion was in rural property.

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**Iowa Property Tax Increment Financing
Tax Credits Program Evaluation Study
Appendix, Tables, and Figures**

Appendix 1. Timeline of Major Program Changes by Effective Date²⁰

- July 1, 1958 The 1957 General Assembly enacted the [“Urban Renewal Law”, or Iowa Code Chapter 403](#), which allowed all Iowa cities to utilize public and private resources to eliminate slums and prevent the development or spread of slums and urban blight to encourage urban rehabilitation. This was primarily achieved through the acquisition, clearance, and disposition of these areas. The power to appropriate funds and to levy taxes and assessments was granted to Iowa cities for the purposes of financing urban renewal area projects in urban renewal areas.
- July 1, 1969 Municipalities are authorized to collect and expend incremental property tax revenues to finance urban renewal projects in urban renewal areas ([1971 Iowa Code 403.19](#)).
- July 1, 1981 The percentage of increment property taxes revenues allowed for municipalities to collect and expend is established as the difference between the actual value of the property, as determined by the assessor, each year and its value’s adjustment certified for the corresponding year ([1981 Iowa Code 403.20](#)).
- July 1, 1985 The scope of urban renewal projects allowed in urban renewal areas is expanded to include economic development ([1985 House File 494](#)).
- July 1, 1991 The definition of economic development urban renewal projects allowed in urban renewal areas is expanded to include housing and residential development for low- and moderate-income families ([1991 Senate File 547](#)).
- July 1, 1994 Counties are allowed urban renewal areas and the ability to levy incremental taxes for industrial economic development purposes if the area of operation is outside the corporate limits of a city, but within two miles of the city's boundary, a joint agreement between the city and the county is required allowing the county to proceed with the activities authorized under this chapter. In addition, a county may proceed with activities authorized under this chapter in an area inside the boundaries of a city, provided a joint agreement is entered into with respect to such activities between a city and a county ([1994 House File 2204](#)).
- July 1, 1996 Restrictions on counties usage of urban renewal area powers are removed to allow them the same usage and authorities as cities ([1996 Senate File 2464](#)).

²⁰ Note: Many technical and substantive changes have been enacted related to the Urban Renewal Law over the last 65 years. However, this timeline only highlights substantive changes related to TIF financing for local government urban renewal area projects.

- July 1, 2000 School district Physical Plant and Equipment levies and taxes for the payment of bonds and interest of each taxing district within a TIF district are excluded from TIF ([2000 Senate File 2089](#)).
- July 1, 2012 Updated TIF program and financial reporting requirements are set in place, TIF taxing districts are required to return the balance if remaining unused TIF increment funds to their respective, impacted taxing districts, and school district Instructional Support Program levies are excluded from TIF ([2012 House File 2460](#)).

Table 1. Tax Increment Financing Policies by State

State	Year authorized	Eligible Tax Revenue Sources ^a	Types of project ^b	Blight is a requirement	Eminent domain allowed by statute	Maximum Length of District	May Be Used with Special Assessment Tools
Alabama	1987	P	R, C, I, M	Yes	Yes, limited	30 years	Yes
Alaska	2001	P	R, C, I, M, O	Yes	Yes	No limit	Yes
Arizona	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
Arkansas	2001	P	R, C, I, M	Yes	Yes	40 years	Yes
California	1952; Rev. 2017	P	R, C, I, M, O	No	No	45 years	Yes
Colorado	1975	P, S, O	R, C, I, M	Yes	Yes, limited	25 years	Yes
Connecticut	1959	P, S	C, I	No	Yes	Not specified	Yes
Delaware	2002	P, O	R, C, I, M	Yes	Yes	30 years	Yes
District of Columb	1998	P, S, O	R, C, M	No	No	Not specified	Yes
Florida	1969; Rev. 2019	P	R, C, I, M	Yes	No	40 years	Yes
Georgia	1985	P, O	R, C, I, M	No	No	Not specified	Yes
Hawaii	1985	P	R, C, I, M, O	No	Not specified	Not specified	Not specified
Idaho	1987	P	C, I, M	Yes	Yes	20 years	Yes
Illinois	1977	P, S	R, C, I, M	Yes	Yes	50 years	Yes
Indiana	1981	P	C, I, M	Yes	Yes, with legislative approval	25 years	Yes
Iowa	1969	P, S	R, C, I, M	Yes	Yes, limited	20 years	Yes
Kansas	1976	P, S, O	C	No	Yes	20 years	No
Kentucky	2000	P, S, O	R, C, I, M, O	Yes	Yes, limited	40 years	Yes
Louisiana	1988	P	R, C, I, O	No	Not specified	30 years	Yes
Maine	1977	P	R, C, I, M	Yes	Yes, but rarely used.	30 years	Yes
Maryland	1980	P	R, C, I, M	No	No	Not specified	Yes
Massachusetts	2003	P	R, C, I, M	No	Yes	20 years	Yes
Michigan	1975; Rev. 2018	P	R, C, I, M	No	Yes, limited	30 years	Yes
Minnesota	1979	P	R, C, I, M	Yes	Yes, limited	26 years	Yes
Mississippi	1986	P, S	R, C, I, M	No	No	30 years	Yes

^a P: property tax, S: sales tax, O: other sources.

^b R: residential, C: commercial, I: industrial, M: mixed-use, O: other.

Source: Council of Development Finance Agencies, available at <https://www.cdfa.net/cdfa/tifmap.nsf/search.html>

Table 1. (Continued) Tax Increment Financing Policies by State

State	Year authorized	Eligible Tax Revenue Sources ^a	Types of project ^b	Blight is a requirement	Eminent domain allowed by statute	Maximum Length of District	May Be Used with Special Assessment Tools
Missouri	1982	P, S, O	R, C, I, M	Yes	Yes	23 years	Yes
Montana	1974	P	R, C, I, M	Yes	Yes, limited	40 years	No
Nebraska	1978	P	R, C, I, M	Yes	Yes	15 years	Yes
Nevada	About 1959	P	R, C, I, M	Yes	Yes	45 years	Yes
New Hampshire	1979	P	C, I, M	No	No	Life of Bonds	No
New Jersey	2009	P, S, O	R, C, I, M	Yes	Yes	Not specified	Yes
New Mexico	2006	P, O	R, C, I, M	No	No	Not Specified	Yes
New York	1984	P	R, C, I, M	Yes	Yes	Not Specified	Only if districts coincide
North Carolina	2004	P	C, I, M	Yes	Yes limited	30 years	Yes
North Dakota	1973	P	R, C, I, M	Yes	No	30 years	Yes
Ohio	1976	P	R, C, I, M	Yes	Yes	30 years	Yes
Oklahoma	1992	P, S, O	R, C, I, M	Yes	Yes, limited	25 years	Yes
Oregon	1960	P	R, C, I, M	Yes	Yes, limited	Not specified	Yes
Pennsylvania	1990	P, S, O	R, C, I, M	Yes	Yes	20 years	Yes
Rhode Island	1956	P	R, C, I	Yes	Yes	25 years	
South Carolina	1984	P	R, C, I, M	Yes	Yes	Not specified	Yes
South Dakota	1978	P	R, C, I, M, O	Yes	Yes	20 years	Yes
Tennessee	1945	P, S	R, M	Yes	Yes	Not specified	Not specified
Texas	1983	P, S	C, I	Yes	No	Not specified	Yes
Utah	1968; Rev. 2015	P, S, O	R, C, I, M	Yes	Yes	Not specified	Yes
Vermont	1985	P	R, C, I, M	No	Yes	20 years	Yes
Virginia	1988	P	R, C, I, M	Yes	Yes, limited	Not specified	Yes
Washington	2001; Rev. 2021	P, S	R, C, I, M	No	No	Not specified	Yes
West Virginia	2002	P	R, C, I, M	Yes	Yes, limited	30 years	Yes
Wisconsin	1975	P	R, C, I, M	Yes	Yes	40 years	Yes
Wyoming	1983	P	R, C, I	Yes	Yes	25 years	

^a P: property tax, S: sales tax, O: other sources.

^b R: residential, C: commercial, I: industrial, M: mixed-use, O: other.

Source: Council of Development Finance Agencies, available at <https://www.cdfa.net/cdfa/tifmap.nsf/search.html>

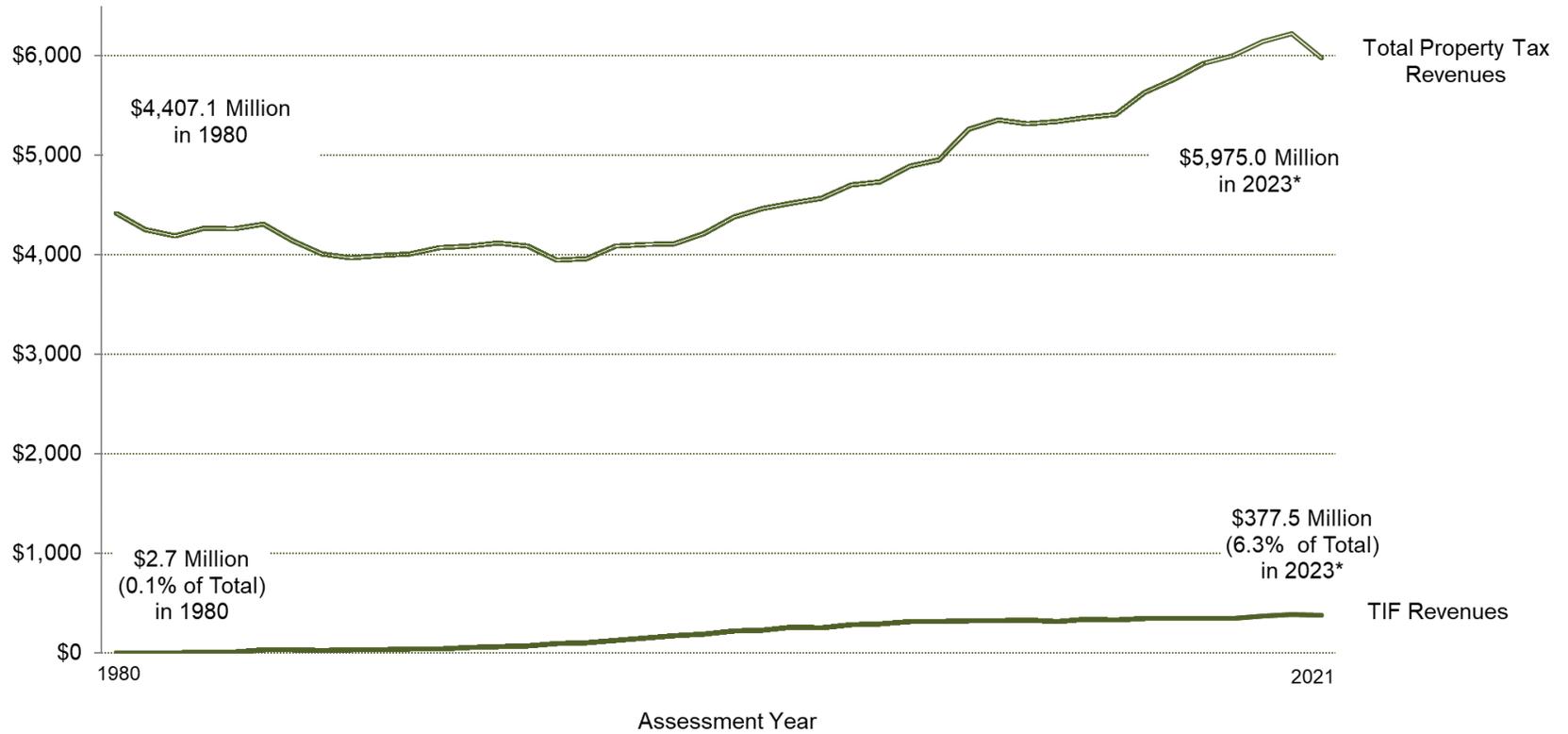
Table 2. Urban Renewal Areas, Valuations, and Revenues (AY 2000-2021)

Assessment Year	Count of Urban Renewal Areas	Frozen Base Valuation (\$ Millions)	Increment Valuation (\$ Millions)	Estimated TIF Revenues (\$ Millions)	Estimated TIF Revenues % Change Over Previous Year	Estimated TIF Revenues Per Capita
2000	1,125	\$6,600.56	\$4,463.29	\$130.32		\$44.49
2001	1,201	\$7,005.59	\$5,227.33	\$156.38	16.7%	\$53.33
2002	1,242	\$6,897.99	\$5,353.61	\$163.97	4.6%	\$55.88
2003	1,230	\$7,517.38	\$5,988.17	\$191.26	14.3%	\$65.01
2004	1,229	\$7,473.07	\$5,950.08	\$191.75	0.3%	\$64.92
2005	1,281	\$7,440.91	\$6,864.54	\$222.81	13.9%	\$75.16
2006	1,296	\$7,624.06	\$7,287.87	\$237.78	6.3%	\$79.72
2007	1,421	\$7,918.90	\$7,987.01	\$260.21	8.6%	\$86.76
2008	1,443	\$7,977.85	\$8,352.04	\$271.96	4.3%	\$90.15
2009	1,527	\$7,928.34	\$8,493.94	\$279.65	2.7%	\$92.21
2010	1,582	\$8,523.12	\$8,669.49	\$283.16	1.2%	\$92.81
2011	1,623	\$9,017.28	\$9,228.69	\$296.80	4.6%	\$96.78
2012	1,609	\$9,346.19	\$9,512.07	\$291.93	-1.7%	\$94.88
2013	1,668	\$9,386.22	\$10,272.28	\$313.30	6.8%	\$101.26
2014	1,683	\$9,369.53	\$10,275.00	\$312.46	-0.3%	\$100.45
2015	1,703	\$9,953.61	\$10,830.16	\$326.57	4.3%	\$104.59
2016	1,780	\$10,317.04	\$11,019.19	\$331.01	1.3%	\$105.65
2017	1,782	\$10,625.53	\$11,398.89	\$340.81	2.9%	\$108.41
2018	1,816	\$12,077.79	\$11,775.97	\$349.54	2.5%	\$110.97
2019	1,844	\$12,283.62	\$12,997.96	\$383.47	8.8%	\$121.37
2020	1,868	\$12,629.77	\$13,908.71	\$404.91	5.3%	\$126.91
2021	1,901	\$12,819.72	\$14,690.63	\$421.13	3.9%	\$131.70

Note: Includes only TIFs where incremental valuation is greater than zero. Per capita is on a statewide basis and does not represent any individual TIF. The abbreviation "AY" means "assessment year". Source: Iowa Department of Management Property Valuation System and the US Census Bureau Population Estimates

Figure 1. Total Property Tax and TIF Revenues (AY 1980-2021)

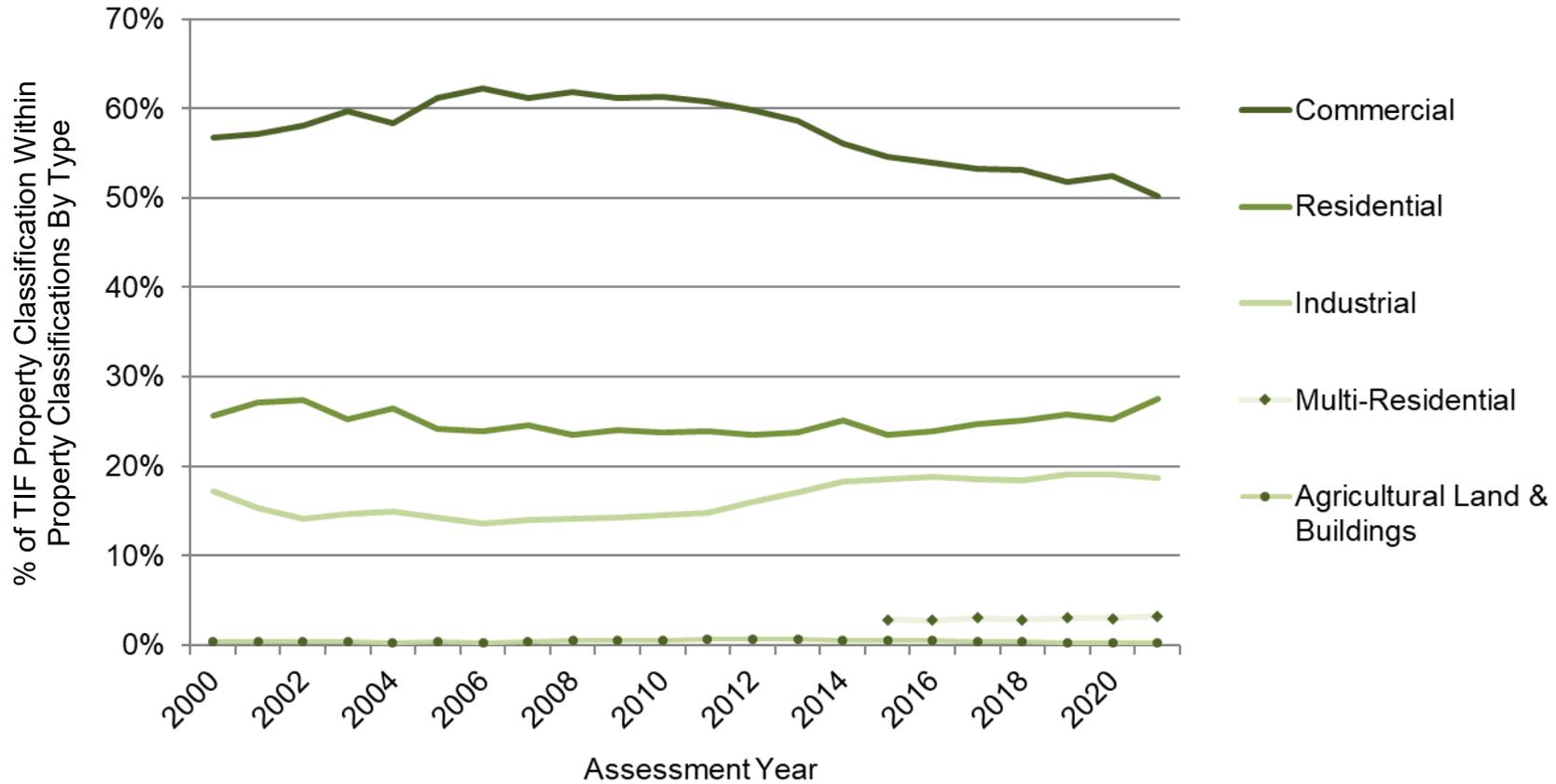
Millions (\$2023)



Source: Iowa Department of Management Property Valuation System

Note: US Bureau of Labor Statistics Consumer Price Index (CPI) used to adjust for inflation.

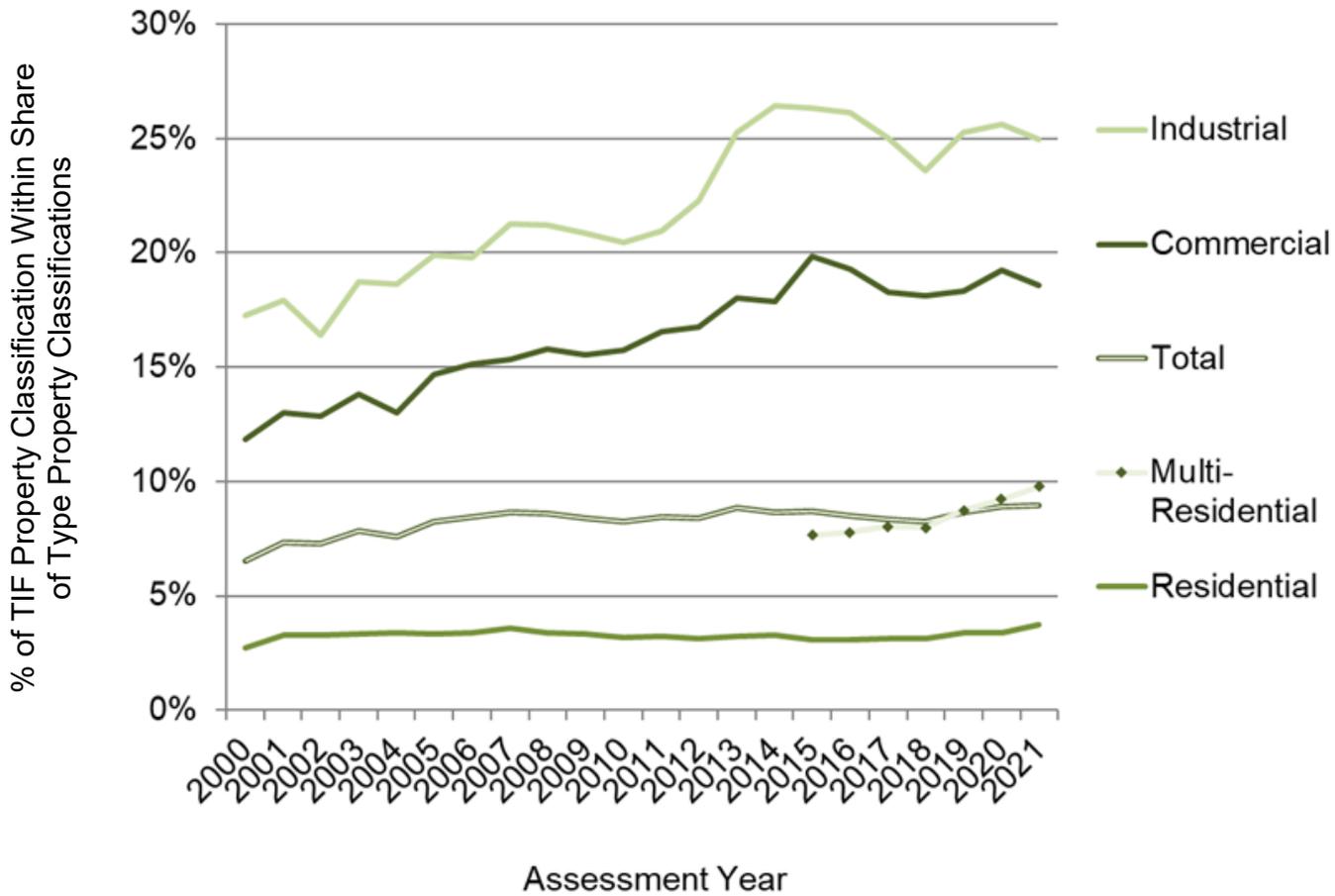
Figure 2. Increment Valuations by Classification (AY 2000-2021)



Note: Multi-residential property became a new classification effective from 2015 to 2021. It included certain property formerly classified as commercial.

Source: Iowa Department of Management Property Valuation System

Figure 3. Share of Taxable Value in TIF Increments, by Classification (AY 2000-2021)



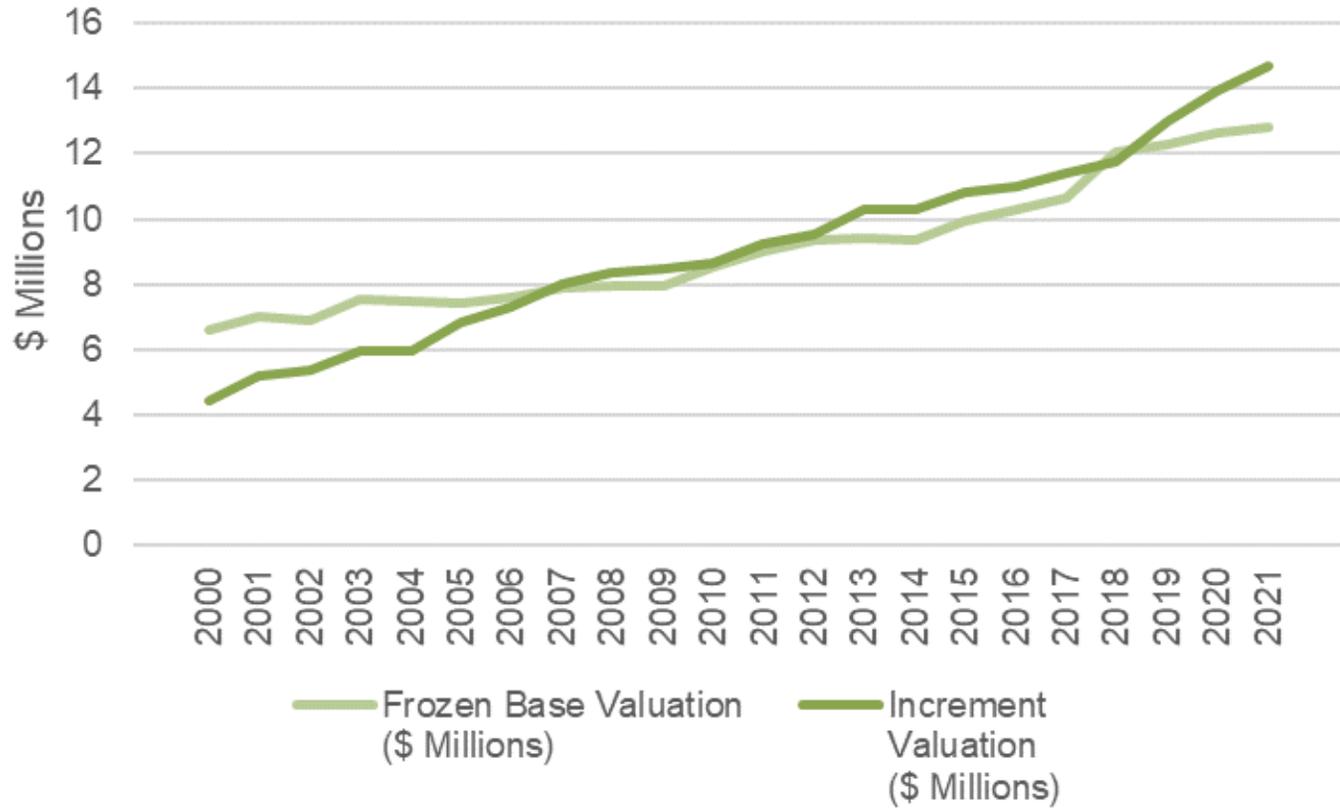
Source: Iowa Department of Management Property Valuation System

Table 3. Urban Renewal Areas in AY 2021: Valuations and Revenues by Base Year

Base Year	Count	Frozen Base Valuation (\$ Millions)	Incremental Valuation (\$ Millions)	TIF Estimated Revenues (\$ Millions)
1980 and Before	15	\$518.8	\$508.2	\$19.2
1981	1	\$1.8	\$3.6	\$0.1
1982	3	\$123.0	\$311.3	\$11.7
1983	4	\$42.4	\$81.0	\$2.5
1984	3	\$20.2	\$20.5	\$0.5
1985	10	\$57.3	\$81.3	\$2.6
1986	11	\$40.9	\$165.7	\$5.3
1987	22	\$258.8	\$407.8	\$12.9
1988	37	\$446.6	\$913.1	\$26.9
1989	40	\$271.2	\$684.5	\$19.9
1990	40	\$327.7	\$388.9	\$11.1
1991	26	\$162.4	\$384.9	\$11.2
1992	56	\$489.6	\$884.8	\$28.1
1993	80	\$532.5	\$801.3	\$23.1
1994	39	\$213.3	\$213.6	\$6.1
1995	17	\$53.4	\$48.3	\$1.4
1996	19	\$213.8	\$172.6	\$4.2
1997	13	\$100.3	\$154.9	\$4.4
1998	9	\$173.1	\$160.5	\$5.3
1999	29	\$803.2	\$492.2	\$15.3
2000	34	\$215.9	\$491.1	\$14.8
2001	38	\$96.3	\$136.4	\$3.6
2002	70	\$577.0	\$518.1	\$14.9
2003	46	\$191.5	\$227.6	\$6.2
2004	38	\$297.6	\$204.1	\$6.1
2005	35	\$158.1	\$138.0	\$4.0
2006	46	\$390.8	\$393.5	\$10.2
2007	56	\$339.5	\$379.2	\$10.1
2008	56	\$146.2	\$440.4	\$9.6
2009	53	\$394.7	\$308.9	\$7.7
2010	76	\$654.4	\$243.1	\$6.0
2011	65	\$536.5	\$190.8	\$5.6
2012	87	\$147.8	\$526.2	\$13.8
2013	72	\$209.1	\$432.3	\$11.6
2014	71	\$504.1	\$366.0	\$11.1
2015	88	\$449.9	\$518.4	\$14.9
2016	81	\$1,228.8	\$510.7	\$15.1
2017	102	\$629.5	\$531.3	\$13.0
2018	107	\$405.6	\$756.9	\$20.0
2019	109	\$127.0	\$364.6	\$9.0
2020*	89	\$216.7	\$131.9	\$2.1
2021*	8	\$52.30	\$2.4	\$0.02
Total	1,901	\$12,819.7	\$14,690.6	\$421.1

Note: Includes only URAs with TIF valuation greater than zero. Active URA's with a TIF are counted by their founding base year. *Data for AY 2020 and AY 2021 is estimated. Data varies from the 2018 study due to various URA corrections and modifications. Source: Iowa Department of Management Property Valuation System

Figure 4. Increment Valuations vs Frozen Base Valuations (AY 2000-2021)



Source: Iowa Department of Management Property Valuation System

Table 4. TIF Increment Valuations and Revenues in Iowa School Districts (AY 2001-2021)

School Districts without TIF			School Districts with TIF						All School Districts			
Assessment Year	Count	Taxable Valuation* (\$ Millions)	Count	Taxable Valuation in TIF (\$ Millions)	Taxable Valuation Excluding TIF (\$ Millions)	Total Taxable Valuation (\$ Millions)	School District Revenues Diverted to TIF (\$ Millions)	Tax Shift to District Taxpayers (\$ Millions)	State Foundation Aid Tax Shift as a Result of TIF (\$ Millions)	Taxable Valuation Excluding TIF (\$ Millions)	Taxable Valuation Including TIF (\$ Millions)	Total School District Revenues from Operating and Management Levies** (\$ Millions)
2001	110	\$12,230.0	260	\$5,227.3	\$86,975.4	\$92,202.8	\$64.8	\$36.6	\$28.2	\$99,205.4	\$104,432.7	\$1,219.9
2002	98	\$10,140.5	272	\$5,353.6	\$91,506.2	\$96,859.9	\$67.6	\$38.7	\$28.9	\$101,646.8	\$107,000.4	\$1,264.7
2003	100	\$9,240.4	267	\$5,988.2	\$89,429.2	\$95,417.4	\$79.1	\$46.8	\$32.3	\$98,669.6	\$104,657.8	\$1,289.3
2004	98	\$10,610.0	267	\$5,950.1	\$90,176.8	\$96,126.9	\$78.8	\$46.7	\$32.1	\$100,786.8	\$106,736.9	\$1,323.3
2005	108	\$12,885.7	257	\$6,864.5	\$92,829.9	\$99,694.4	\$91.8	\$54.7	\$37.1	\$105,715.6	\$112,580.2	\$1,394.2
2006	107	\$12,894.7	257	\$7,287.9	\$95,314.1	\$102,601.9	\$98.5	\$59.1	\$39.4	\$108,208.8	\$115,496.6	\$1,443.5
2007	99	\$12,451.2	263	\$7,987.0	\$102,065.2	\$110,052.2	\$107.6	\$64.5	\$43.1	\$114,516.4	\$122,503.4	\$1,530.2
2008	95	\$12,667.7	266	\$8,352.0	\$107,454.8	\$115,806.9	\$114.5	\$69.4	\$45.1	\$120,122.5	\$128,474.6	\$1,621.9
2009	93	\$11,264.4	266	\$8,493.9	\$114,130.5	\$122,624.4	\$120.0	\$74.2	\$45.9	\$125,394.9	\$133,888.8	\$1,754.4
2010	87	\$11,232.0	264	\$8,669.5	\$119,477.2	\$128,146.7	\$121.0	\$74.2	\$46.8	\$130,709.1	\$139,378.6	\$1,803.0
2011	82	\$11,293.6	266	\$9,228.7	\$124,207.5	\$133,436.2	\$124.0	\$74.1	\$49.8	\$135,501.1	\$144,729.8	\$1,787.1
2012	83	\$11,682.8	263	\$9,512.1	\$129,188.6	\$138,700.7	\$115.1	\$63.8	\$51.4	\$140,871.4	\$150,383.5	\$1,679.2
2013	76	\$12,261.5	262	\$10,272.3	\$131,551.0	\$141,823.3	\$121.5	\$66.0	\$55.5	\$143,812.5	\$154,084.7	\$1,679.8
2014	74	\$12,796.5	262	\$10,275.0	\$134,261.2	\$144,536.2	\$121.3	\$65.8	\$55.5	\$147,057.7	\$157,332.7	\$1,709.1
2015	76	\$14,646.2	257	\$10,830.2	\$138,891.5	\$149,721.7	\$128.2	\$69.7	\$58.5	\$153,537.7	\$164,367.9	\$1,774.6
2016	74	\$13,175.6	259	\$11,019.2	\$146,538.7	\$157,557.9	\$129.2	\$69.7	\$59.5	\$159,714.3	\$170,733.5	\$1,836.8
2017	72	\$14,589.7	258	\$11,398.9	\$153,282.7	\$164,681.6	\$130.6	\$69.1	\$61.6	\$167,872.4	\$179,271.3	\$1,899.8
2018	80	\$16,036.0	256	\$11,740.0	\$187,678.7	\$199,418.7	\$133.2	\$69.8	\$63.4	\$186,820.1	\$215,454.7	\$2,081.2
2019	78	\$16,680.3	258	\$12,967.1	\$180,093.5	\$193,060.6	\$145.3	\$75.3	\$70.0	\$195,855.8	\$209,740.9	\$2,150.5
2020	71	\$15,456.7	261	\$13,882.5	\$188,341.9	\$202,224.4	\$152.1	\$77.1	\$75.0	\$202,846.9	\$217,681.1	\$2,187.3
2021	63	\$14,186.8	264	\$14,663.0	\$198,563.5	\$213,226.5	\$155.7	\$76.6	\$79.2	\$211,488.4	\$227,413.3	\$2,218.7

** Excludes revenues from Instructional Support Levies beginning in AY 2012.

Source: Iowa Department of Management Property Valuation System

Figure 5. Iowa School District Revenues, TIF Diversions, and State Foundation Aid as a Result of TIF (AY 2001-2021)

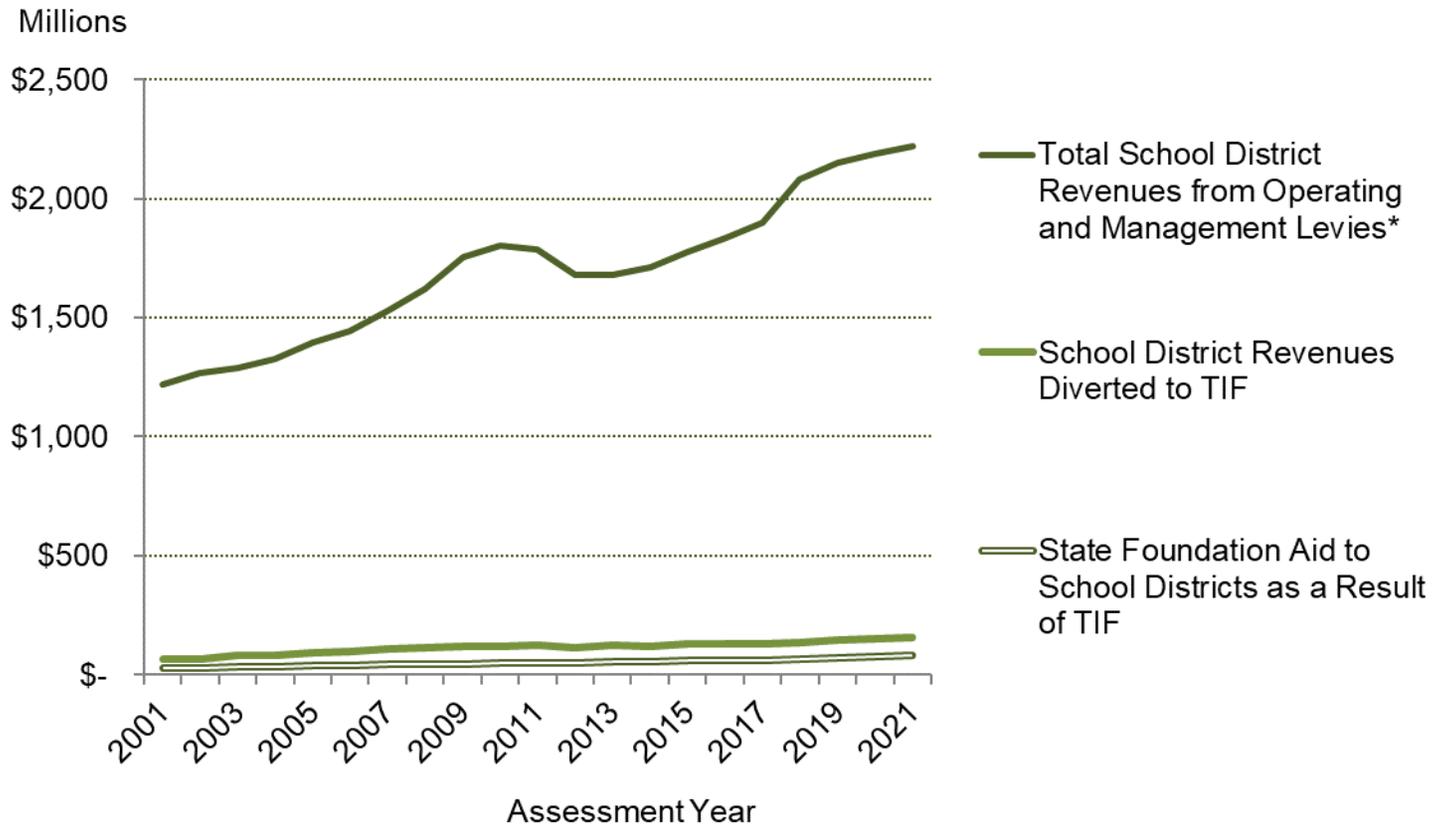


Table 5. Net Taxable Valuations in TIF by County (AY 2021)

County	TIF Increment (\$ Millions)	TIF Maximum Increment (\$ Millions)	Total Net Taxable Valuation (\$ Millions)	Percent of Maximum Increment in Used Increment	Percent of Total Net Taxable Valuation in Used Increment	Percent of Total Net Taxable Valuation In Maximum Increment
Adair	\$219.6	\$265.9	\$46.2	82.6%	27.3%	33.0%
Adams	\$1.4	\$1.4	\$0.0	100.0%	0.4%	0.4%
Allamakee	\$22.7	\$65.6	\$43.0	34.6%	2.6%	7.6%
Appanoose	\$21.7	\$35.9	\$14.2	60.3%	4.1%	6.8%
Audubon	\$26.9	\$43.9	\$17.0	61.2%	5.0%	8.2%
Benton	\$42.4	\$96.8	\$54.4	43.8%	2.5%	5.8%
Black Hawk	\$617.9	\$1,023.3	\$405.4	60.4%	9.6%	15.9%
Boone	\$42.7	\$367.0	\$324.3	11.6%	2.4%	20.3%
Bremer	\$68.2	\$175.5	\$97.1	38.8%	5.0%	12.7%
Buchanan	\$15.5	\$84.9	\$69.3	18.3%	1.2%	6.4%
Buena Vista	\$28.4	\$28.4	\$0.0	100.0%	2.1%	2.1%
Butler	\$91.9	\$104.6	\$12.7	87.8%	8.7%	9.9%
Calhoun	\$1.5	\$1.5	\$0.0	100.0%	0.2%	0.2%
Carroll	\$81.3	\$89.4	\$8.1	91.0%	4.8%	5.2%
Cass	\$78.0	\$211.7	\$133.7	36.9%	6.6%	17.9%
Cedar	\$32.4	\$190.2	\$157.8	17.0%	2.3%	13.4%
Cerro Gordo	\$163.4	\$467.6	\$305.2	35.0%	5.4%	15.4%
Cherokee	\$9.9	\$29.4	\$19.6	33.5%	1.0%	2.9%
Chickasaw	\$10.6	\$19.4	\$8.7	55.0%	1.1%	2.1%
Clarke	\$17.4	\$25.4	\$8.0	68.4%	3.0%	4.3%
Clay	\$48.3	\$246.8	\$198.4	19.6%	3.9%	20.1%
Clayton	\$43.4	\$69.4	\$26.0	62.5%	3.7%	5.9%
Clinton	\$90.5	\$238.6	\$148.1	37.9%	3.6%	9.6%
Crawford	\$7.4	\$95.1	\$87.7	7.8%	0.6%	7.5%
Dallas	\$693.7	\$1,643.3	\$947.3	42.2%	8.7%	20.6%
Davis	\$0.2	\$20.6	\$20.4	0.9%	0.0%	4.7%
Decatur	\$0.0	\$1.3	\$0.0	100.0%	0.4%	0.4%
Delaware	\$71.8	\$259.4	\$187.6	27.7%	4.9%	17.8%
Des Moines	\$136.4	\$295.2	\$158.8	46.2%	7.5%	16.1%
Dickinson	\$221.0	\$655.7	\$434.7	33.7%	6.5%	19.2%
Dubuque	\$602.0	\$697.4	\$95.4	86.3%	10.3%	11.9%
Emmet	\$4.2	\$15.7	\$11.5	27.0%	0.7%	2.4%
Fayette	\$34.3	\$109.9	\$75.6	31.2%	2.7%	8.6%
Floyd	\$86.3	\$164.7	\$78.4	52.4%	8.4%	16.0%
Franklin	\$28.3	\$231.8	\$203.6	12.2%	2.8%	23.3%
Fremont	\$0.0	\$24.5	\$24.5	0.0%	0.0%	3.9%
Greene	\$72.0	\$79.7	\$7.7	90.4%	8.3%	9.2%
Grundy	\$29.4	\$113.7	\$84.3	25.9%	2.6%	10.1%
Guthrie	\$233.4	\$435.6	\$202.1	53.6%	20.9%	38.9%
Hamilton	\$20.1	\$95.1	\$75.0	21.1%	1.7%	8.2%
Hancock	\$21.4	\$46.5	\$25.1	46.1%	2.1%	4.5%
Hardin	\$48.4	\$52.8	\$4.4	91.6%	4.2%	4.6%
Harrison	\$9.4	\$56.9	\$47.4	16.6%	0.8%	5.0%
Henry	\$24.1	\$328.4	\$304.3	7.3%	2.5%	33.8%
Howard	\$52.9	\$158.3	\$105.4	33.4%	6.9%	20.7%
Humboldt	\$32.1	\$97.4	\$65.4	33.0%	3.8%	11.6%
Ia	\$146.1	\$170.0	\$14.3	86.0%	18.1%	21.1%
Iowa	\$48.9	\$86.3	\$37.4	56.7%	4.2%	7.5%
Jackson	\$38.7	\$133.7	\$95.0	29.0%	3.2%	11.0%
Jasper	\$108.2	\$193.9	\$85.6	55.8%	5.4%	9.7%
Jefferson	\$12.3	\$15.8	\$3.5	77.7%	1.3%	1.6%

Table 5. (Continued) Net Taxable Valuations in TIF by County (AY 2021)

County	TIF Increment (\$ Millions)	TIF Maximum Increment (\$ Millions)	Total Net Taxable Valuation (\$ Millions)	Percent of Maximum Increment in Used Increment	Percent of Total Net Taxable Valuation in Used Increment	Percent of Total Net Taxable Valuation In Maximum Increment
Johnson	\$963.8	\$1,897.8	\$919.8	50.8%	9.4%	18.6%
Jones	\$25.1	\$62.2	\$37.1	40.3%	2.0%	5.0%
Keokuk	\$3.9	\$3.9	\$0.0	100.0%	0.5%	0.5%
Kossuth	\$20.1	\$118.3	\$98.2	17.0%	1.3%	7.7%
Lee	\$38.1	\$73.2	\$35.1	52.0%	2.5%	4.8%
Linn	\$987.1	\$3,000.4	\$2,013.3	32.9%	7.6%	23.0%
Louisa	\$1.1	\$1.1	\$0.0	100.0%	0.2%	0.2%
Lucas	\$10.7	\$29.4	\$18.7	36.5%	2.7%	7.4%
Lyon	\$68.7	\$125.2	\$56.5	54.9%	5.7%	10.5%
Madison	\$85.4	\$132.0	\$46.6	64.7%	7.7%	11.8%
Mahaska	\$44.9	\$297.5	\$252.6	15.1%	3.8%	24.9%
Marion	\$63.1	\$174.2	\$111.2	36.2%	3.3%	9.1%
Marshall	\$15.2	\$0.0	\$0.0	0.0%	0.8%	0.0%
Mills	\$37.9	\$39.3	\$1.4	96.4%	3.3%	3.5%
Mitchell	\$258.2	\$285.1	\$25.0	90.6%	24.9%	27.5%
Monona	\$8.7	\$27.5	\$18.8	31.6%	1.0%	3.1%
Monroe	\$0.0	\$161.3	\$161.3	0.0%	0.0%	29.0%
Montgomery	\$3.7	\$56.5	\$52.9	6.5%	0.6%	9.0%
Muscatine	\$118.1	\$225.4	\$107.3	52.4%	5.3%	10.1%
O'Brien	\$136.8	\$137.3	\$0.5	99.7%	9.5%	9.5%
Osceola	\$35.8	\$78.7	\$42.9	45.5%	5.7%	12.5%
Page	\$10.2	\$41.0	\$30.9	24.8%	1.3%	5.2%
Palo Alto	\$52.3	\$155.4	\$102.2	33.6%	6.4%	19.0%
Plymouth	\$181.3	\$223.8	\$41.4	81.0%	8.5%	10.5%
Pocahontas	\$3.0	\$36.3	\$33.3	8.3%	0.3%	4.0%
Polk	\$3,473.2	\$8,485.6	\$5,002.2	40.9%	11.0%	26.9%
Pottawattami	\$153.3	\$409.2	\$255.9	37.5%	2.7%	7.3%
Poweshiek	\$134.4	\$308.1	\$174.1	43.6%	8.6%	19.8%
Ringgold	\$36.0	\$144.9	\$109.0	24.8%	8.1%	32.6%
Sac	\$6.3	\$6.3	\$0.0	100.0%	0.7%	0.7%
Scott	\$534.0	\$1,297.9	\$764.7	41.1%	5.2%	12.7%
Shelby	\$50.7	\$95.9	\$45.2	52.9%	5.1%	9.6%
Sioux	\$335.2	\$415.2	\$80.0	80.7%	13.2%	16.4%
Story	\$299.8	\$459.4	\$159.6	65.3%	5.2%	7.9%
Tama	\$28.2	\$50.8	\$23.0	55.6%	2.4%	4.3%
Taylor	\$1.7	\$2.7	\$1.0	64.2%	0.4%	0.7%
Union	\$3.8	\$9.3	\$5.5	40.7%	0.7%	1.7%
Van Buren	\$0.0	\$6.4	\$6.4	0.0%	0.0%	1.4%
Wapello	\$53.3	\$216.2	\$162.8	24.7%	3.9%	15.6%
Warren	\$544.5	\$571.7	\$27.3	95.2%	17.7%	18.6%
Washington	\$32.0	\$103.0	\$71.0	31.1%	2.3%	7.4%
Wayne	\$0.0	\$0.0	\$0.0	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%
Webster	\$220.1	\$230.2	\$2.7	95.6%	9.9%	10.3%
Winnebago	\$120.5	\$152.5	\$14.0	79.0%	15.6%	19.7%
Winneshiek	\$7.0	\$7.6	\$0.6	92.0%	0.5%	0.6%
Woodbury	\$579.9	\$1,377.1	\$797.2	42.1%	10.8%	25.6%
Worth	\$159.9	\$213.1	\$53.2	75.1%	19.2%	25.6%
Wright	\$145.3	\$175.4	\$30.1	82.8%	13.3%	16.1%
Total	\$14,651.4	\$32,282.8	\$17,572.2	45.4%	7.1%	15.6%

Source: Iowa Department of Management Property Valuation System

Table 6. Net Taxable Valuations by County and Urban or Rural Property Type (AY 2021)

County	Urban Property					Rural Property				
	TIF Increment (\$ Millions)	TIF Maximum Increment (\$ Millions)	Total Net Taxable Valuation (\$ Millions)	Percent of Total in TIF Increment	Percent of Total in TIF Maximum Increment	TIF Increment (\$ Millions)	TIF Maximum Increment (\$ Millions)	Total Net Taxable Valuation (\$ Millions)	Percent of Total in TIF Increment	Percent of Total in TIF Maximum Increment
Adair	\$47.9	\$51.2	\$188.3	25.4%	27.2%	\$171.7	\$214.6	\$617.5	27.8%	27.8%
Adams	\$0.0	\$0.0	\$45.5	0.0%	0.0%	\$1.4	\$1.4	\$318.2	0.4%	0.4%
Allamakee	\$22.7	\$65.6	\$274.2	8.3%	23.9%	\$0.0	\$0.0	\$592.5	0.0%	0.0%
Appanoose	\$0.3	\$0.3	\$182.9	0.2%	0.2%	\$21.4	\$35.6	\$347.3	6.2%	6.2%
Audubon	\$3.4	\$3.4	\$83.3	4.1%	4.1%	\$23.5	\$40.5	\$452.3	5.2%	5.2%
Benton	\$42.4	\$96.8	\$610.5	6.9%	15.9%	\$0.0	\$0.0	\$1,056.5	0.0%	0.0%
Black Hawk	\$617.8	\$1,023.2	\$4,853.0	12.7%	21.1%	\$0.1	\$0.1	\$1,577.8	0.0%	0.0%
Boone	\$24.8	\$331.6	\$634.9	3.9%	52.2%	\$17.9	\$35.4	\$1,174.2	1.5%	1.5%
Bremer	\$67.6	\$174.9	\$730.9	9.2%	23.9%	\$0.6	\$0.6	\$646.1	0.1%	0.1%
Buchanan	\$15.5	\$84.9	\$449.5	3.5%	18.9%	\$0.0	\$0.0	\$871.9	0.0%	0.0%
Buena Vista	\$28.4	\$28.4	\$530.6	5.3%	5.3%	\$0.0	\$0.0	\$838.6	0.0%	0.0%
Butler	\$24.6	\$37.3	\$288.6	8.5%	12.9%	\$67.3	\$67.3	\$763.3	8.8%	8.8%
Calhoun	\$0.3	\$0.3	\$208.8	0.1%	0.1%	\$1.2	\$1.2	\$710.8	0.2%	0.2%
Carroll	\$81.3	\$89.4	\$747.2	10.9%	12.0%	\$0.0	\$0.0	\$955.8	0.0%	0.0%
Cass	\$7.7	\$138.5	\$336.6	2.3%	41.1%	\$70.4	\$73.3	\$843.8	8.3%	8.3%
Cedar	\$32.4	\$186.1	\$470.9	6.9%	39.5%	\$0.0	\$4.1	\$952.4	0.0%	0.0%
Cerro Gordo	\$163.4	\$458.7	\$1,992.7	8.2%	23.0%	\$0.0	\$9.0	\$1,050.4	0.0%	0.0%
Cherokee	\$4.3	\$9.3	\$263.9	1.6%	3.5%	\$5.5	\$20.1	\$744.9	0.7%	0.7%
Chickasaw	\$10.6	\$19.4	\$265.0	4.0%	7.3%	\$0.0	\$0.0	\$662.5	0.0%	0.0%
Clarke	\$17.4	\$25.4	\$210.8	8.2%	12.1%	\$0.0	\$0.0	\$378.0	0.0%	0.0%
Clay	\$34.9	\$233.3	\$613.3	5.7%	38.0%	\$13.4	\$13.4	\$612.7	2.2%	2.2%
Clayton	\$43.3	\$69.4	\$342.1	12.7%	20.3%	\$0.1	\$0.1	\$838.4	0.0%	0.0%
Clinton	\$90.5	\$238.6	\$1,490.3	6.1%	16.0%	\$0.0	\$0.0	\$1,001.0	0.0%	0.0%
Crawford	\$7.4	\$95.1	\$361.9	2.1%	26.3%	\$0.0	\$0.0	\$903.8	0.0%	0.0%
Dallas	\$690.9	\$1,639.5	\$5,932.2	11.6%	27.6%	\$2.8	\$3.8	\$2,057.9	0.1%	0.1%
Davis	\$0.2	\$20.6	\$90.5	0.2%	22.7%	\$0.0	\$0.0	\$345.7	0.0%	0.0%
Decatur	\$1.3	\$1.3	\$89.9	1.5%	1.5%	\$0.0	\$0.0	\$225.1	0.0%	0.0%
Delaware	\$71.8	\$255.1	\$385.3	18.6%	66.2%	\$0.0	\$4.4	\$1,075.2	0.0%	0.0%
Des Moines	\$136.4	\$295.2	\$1,016.9	13.4%	29.0%	\$0.0	\$0.0	\$811.5	0.0%	0.0%
Dickinson	\$205.7	\$635.3	\$1,901.6	10.8%	33.4%	\$15.3	\$20.4	\$1,516.4	1.0%	1.0%
Dubuque	\$601.2	\$696.6	\$3,659.2	16.4%	19.0%	\$0.8	\$0.8	\$2,179.3	0.0%	0.0%
Emmet	\$4.2	\$15.7	\$222.6	1.9%	7.1%	\$0.0	\$0.0	\$426.8	0.0%	0.0%
Fayette	\$27.6	\$102.0	\$370.3	7.4%	27.6%	\$6.7	\$7.9	\$901.5	0.7%	0.7%

Table 6. (Continued) Net Taxable Valuations by County and Urban or Rural Property Type (AY 2021)

County	Urban Property					Rural Property				
	TIF Increment (\$ Millions)	TIF Maximum Increment (\$ Millions)	Total Net Taxable Valuation (\$ Millions)	Percent in TIF Increment	Percent in TIF Maximum Increment	TIF Increment (\$ Millions)	TIF Maximum Increment (\$ Millions)	Total Net Taxable Valuation (\$ Millions)	Percent in TIF Increment	Percent in TIF Maximum Increment
Floyd	\$46.1	\$118.4	\$335.6	13.7%	35.3%	\$40.3	\$46.3	\$693.1	5.8%	5.8%
Franklin	\$18.1	\$68.3	\$191.4	9.5%	35.7%	\$10.1	\$163.5	\$803.3	1.3%	1.3%
Fremont	\$0.0	\$11.7	\$129.2	0.0%	9.1%	\$0.0	\$12.8	\$491.8	0.0%	0.0%
Greene	\$35.0	\$42.7	\$195.9	17.9%	21.8%	\$37.0	\$37.0	\$671.1	5.5%	5.5%
Grundy	\$20.6	\$102.8	\$320.6	6.4%	32.1%	\$8.8	\$10.9	\$806.4	1.1%	1.1%
Guthrie	\$37.9	\$40.6	\$135.4	28.0%	30.0%	\$195.6	\$395.0	\$983.6	19.9%	19.9%
Hamilton	\$12.5	\$62.5	\$386.2	3.2%	16.2%	\$7.6	\$32.6	\$772.0	1.0%	1.0%
Hancock	\$21.4	\$46.5	\$291.4	7.4%	16.0%	\$0.0	\$0.0	\$746.5	0.0%	0.0%
Hardin	\$45.6	\$50.0	\$349.3	13.1%	14.3%	\$2.7	\$2.8	\$790.4	0.3%	0.3%
Harrison	\$9.4	\$53.8	\$274.9	3.4%	19.6%	\$0.0	\$3.1	\$864.4	0.0%	0.0%
Henry	\$24.1	\$304.4	\$464.8	5.2%	65.5%	\$0.0	\$24.0	\$506.5	0.0%	0.0%
Howard	\$3.5	\$41.2	\$190.8	1.8%	21.6%	\$49.4	\$117.2	\$573.7	8.6%	8.6%
Humboldt	\$32.1	\$97.4	\$316.9	10.1%	30.7%	\$0.0	\$0.0	\$519.2	0.0%	0.0%
Ida	\$12.0	\$26.3	\$158.9	7.6%	16.6%	\$134.1	\$143.6	\$647.4	20.7%	20.7%
Iowa	\$44.6	\$81.2	\$270.1	16.5%	30.1%	\$4.3	\$5.1	\$886.1	0.5%	0.5%
Jackson	\$38.7	\$130.0	\$407.2	9.5%	31.9%	\$0.0	\$3.8	\$807.2	0.0%	0.0%
Jasper	\$108.2	\$193.9	\$786.3	13.8%	24.7%	\$0.0	\$0.0	\$1,216.4	0.0%	0.0%
Jefferson	\$12.3	\$15.8	\$391.1	3.1%	4.0%	\$0.0	\$0.0	\$575.6	0.0%	0.0%
Johnson	\$963.8	\$1,897.8	\$7,377.3	13.1%	25.7%	\$0.0	\$0.0	\$2,830.8	0.0%	0.0%
Jones	\$25.1	\$62.2	\$355.2	7.1%	17.5%	\$0.0	\$0.0	\$879.7	0.0%	0.0%
Keokuk	\$3.9	\$3.9	\$155.2	2.5%	2.5%	\$0.0	\$0.0	\$565.9	0.0%	0.0%
Kossuth	\$13.9	\$112.1	\$381.5	3.6%	29.4%	\$6.2	\$6.2	\$1,149.9	0.5%	0.0%
Lee	\$38.1	\$73.2	\$675.2	5.6%	10.8%	\$0.0	\$0.0	\$856.3	0.0%	0.0%
Linn	\$985.4	\$2,994.5	\$10,329.2	9.5%	29.0%	\$1.7	\$5.9	\$2,711.8	0.1%	0.1%
Louisa	\$1.1	\$1.1	\$151.8	0.7%	0.7%	\$0.0	\$0.0	\$541.4	0.0%	0.0%
Lucas	\$4.7	\$23.4	\$128.0	3.7%	18.3%	\$6.0	\$6.0	\$272.0	2.2%	2.2%
Lyon	\$40.8	\$57.1	\$266.9	15.3%	21.4%	\$27.9	\$68.1	\$929.4	3.0%	3.0%
Madison	\$47.6	\$94.1	\$309.6	15.4%	30.4%	\$37.8	\$37.8	\$806.4	4.7%	4.7%
Mahaska	\$10.7	\$263.3	\$466.1	2.3%	56.5%	\$34.2	\$34.2	\$728.1	4.7%	4.7%
Marion	\$63.1	\$174.2	\$978.0	6.4%	17.8%	\$0.0	\$0.0	\$928.6	0.0%	0.0%
Marshall	\$13.1	\$0.0	\$992.6	1.3%	0.0%	\$2.1	\$0.0	\$915.9	0.2%	0.0%
Mills	\$1.4	\$2.8	\$262.3	0.5%	1.1%	\$36.5	\$36.5	\$874.6	4.2%	4.2%
Mitchell	\$80.4	\$105.3	\$188.7	42.6%	55.8%	\$177.9	\$179.8	\$849.8	20.9%	20.9%

Table 6. (Continued) Net Taxable Valuations by County and Urban or Rural Property Type (AY 2021)

County	Urban Property					Rural Property				
	TIF Increment (\$ Millions)	TIF Maximum Increment (\$ Millions)	Total Net Taxable Valuation (\$ Millions)	Percent in TIF Increment	Percent in TIF Maximum Increment	TIF Increment (\$ Millions)	TIF Maximum Increment (\$ Millions)	Total Net Taxable Valuation (\$ Millions)	Percent in TIF Increment	Percent in TIF Maximum Increment
Monona	\$8.7	\$27.5	\$170.3	5.1%	16.2%	\$0.0	\$0.0	\$719.0	0.0%	0.0%
Monroe	\$0.0	\$0.0	\$118.3	0.0%	0.0%	\$0.0	\$161.3	\$438.6	0.0%	0.0%
Montgomery	\$3.7	\$52.5	\$212.0	1.7%	24.8%	\$0.0	\$4.0	\$413.7	0.0%	0.0%
Muscatine	\$114.4	\$221.7	\$1,196.5	9.6%	18.5%	\$3.7	\$3.7	\$1,034.8	0.4%	0.4%
O'Brien	\$130.0	\$130.4	\$302.9	42.9%	43.1%	\$6.9	\$6.9	\$1,136.7	0.6%	0.6%
Osceola	\$9.6	\$27.5	\$113.7	8.4%	24.2%	\$26.2	\$51.2	\$518.4	5.1%	5.1%
Page	\$10.2	\$41.0	\$324.0	3.1%	12.7%	\$0.0	\$0.0	\$472.6	0.0%	0.0%
Palo Alto	\$5.3	\$96.3	\$214.8	2.5%	44.8%	\$47.0	\$59.1	\$602.0	7.8%	7.8%
Plymouth	\$145.2	\$184.8	\$786.0	18.5%	23.5%	\$36.1	\$39.1	\$1,339.7	2.7%	2.7%
Pocahontas	\$3.0	\$36.3	\$148.1	2.0%	24.5%	\$0.0	\$0.0	\$760.5	0.0%	0.0%
Polk	\$3,382.6	\$8,378.9	\$25,573.3	13.2%	32.8%	\$90.6	\$106.7	\$6,027.6	1.5%	1.5%
Pottawattamie	\$153.3	\$409.2	\$3,609.9	4.2%	11.3%	\$0.0	\$0.0	\$2,024.4	0.0%	0.0%
Poweshiek	\$94.7	\$198.4	\$458.9	20.6%	43.2%	\$39.6	\$109.8	\$1,098.4	3.6%	3.6%
Ringgold	\$4.7	\$10.7	\$70.3	6.7%	15.3%	\$31.2	\$134.2	\$374.2	8.3%	8.3%
Sac	\$6.3	\$6.3	\$257.0	2.5%	2.5%	\$0.0	\$0.0	\$680.7	0.0%	0.0%
Scott	\$534.0	\$1,297.9	\$8,527.1	6.3%	15.2%	\$0.0	\$0.0	\$1,719.3	0.0%	0.0%
Shelby	\$41.9	\$87.1	\$249.7	16.8%	34.9%	\$8.8	\$8.8	\$748.8	1.2%	1.2%
Sioux	\$312.7	\$392.1	\$1,072.2	29.2%	36.6%	\$22.5	\$23.1	\$1,460.7	1.5%	1.5%
Story	\$245.5	\$357.4	\$4,265.6	5.8%	8.4%	\$54.4	\$102.0	\$1,514.9	3.6%	3.6%
Tama	\$6.8	\$29.4	\$301.9	2.2%	9.7%	\$21.5	\$21.5	\$882.2	2.4%	2.4%
Taylor	\$1.7	\$2.7	\$95.8	1.8%	2.8%	\$0.0	\$0.0	\$314.4	0.0%	0.0%
Union	\$3.8	\$9.3	\$269.4	1.4%	3.5%	\$0.0	\$0.0	\$271.9	0.0%	0.0%
Van Buren	\$0.0	\$6.4	\$85.4	0.0%	7.5%	\$0.0	\$0.0	\$362.8	0.0%	0.0%
Wapello	\$41.6	\$201.3	\$716.2	5.8%	28.1%	\$11.7	\$14.9	\$667.2	1.8%	1.8%
Warren	\$544.1	\$571.3	\$1,457.3	37.3%	39.2%	\$0.4	\$0.4	\$1,617.6	0.0%	0.0%
Washington	\$32.0	\$103.0	\$559.0	5.7%	18.4%	\$0.0	\$0.0	\$836.5	0.0%	0.0%
Wayne	\$0.0	\$0.0	\$86.8	0.0%	0.0%	\$0.0	\$0.0	\$325.9	0.0%	0.0%
Webster	\$81.1	\$83.8	\$899.4	9.0%	9.3%	\$138.9	\$146.4	\$1,330.3	10.4%	10.4%
Winnebago	\$46.7	\$60.7	\$210.1	22.2%	28.9%	\$73.7	\$91.8	\$564.4	13.1%	13.1%
Winneshiek	\$7.0	\$7.6	\$491.4	1.4%	1.5%	\$60.8	\$150.2	\$872.2	7.0%	7.0%
Woodbury	\$519.2	\$1,226.9	\$3,627.4	14.3%	33.8%	\$135.2	\$135.2	\$1,756.6	7.7%	7.7%
Worth	\$24.7	\$77.9	\$131.3	18.8%	59.3%	\$119.7	\$127.0	\$700.5	17.1%	17.1%
Wright	\$25.6	\$48.5	\$290.6	8.8%	16.7%	\$16.3	\$606.8	\$798.1	2.0%	2.0%
Total	\$12,483.4	\$28,859.7	\$115,350.4	10.8%	25.0%	\$2,185.6	\$4,029.9	\$92,031.0	2.4%	4.4%

Source: Iowa Department of Management Property Valuation System.

Table 7. Net Taxable Value by County (AY 2000 and 2021)

County	TIF Increment Valuations (\$ Millions)			Net Taxable Value (w/out gas and electric) Including TIF (\$ Millions)			Percent of Net Taxable Value in TIF Increment	
	Assessment Year		Percentage Change 2000 - 2021	Assessment Year		Percentage Change 2000 - 2021	Assessment Year	
	2000	2021		2000	2021		2000	2021
Adair	10.9	210.6	1826%	339.6	805.7	137%	3%	26%
Adams	0.6	1.4	141%	189.9	363.7	92%	0%	0%
Allamakee	15.9	22.7	43%	495.5	866.7	75%	3%	3%
Appanoose	1.5	21.2	1282%	271.6	530.3	95%	1%	4%
Audubon	2.6	26.7	942%	277.7	535.6	93%	1%	5%
Benton	47.8	42.4	-11%	886.8	1,667.1	88%	5%	3%
Black Hawk	117.0	617.9	428%	3,056.1	6,430.8	110%	4%	10%
Boone	21.6	41.5	92%	872.0	1,809.1	107%	2%	2%
Bremer	26.0	63.4	143%	770.2	1,377.0	79%	3%	5%
Buchanan	18.8	24.5	31%	667.6	1,321.4	98%	3%	2%
Buena Vista	2.1	28.4	1236%	692.7	1,369.1	98%	0%	2%
Butler	14.2	91.9	546%	543.7	1,051.9	93%	3%	9%
Calhoun	0.0	1.5	100%	547.6	919.7	68%		0%
Carroll	34.9	81.3	133%	837.4	1,703.1	103%	4%	5%
Cass	4.3	78.0	1708%	473.9	1,180.4	149%	1%	7%
Cedar	17.0	32.4	90%	736.2	1,423.2	93%	2%	2%
Cerro Gordo	66.2	163.4	147%	1,576.2	3,043.1	93%	4%	5%
Cherokee	12.6	9.9	-22%	541.7	1,008.8	86%	2%	1%
Chickasaw	14.6	10.6	-27%	518.0	927.5	79%	3%	1%
Clarke	24.7	17.4	-30%	289.9	588.8	103%	9%	3%
Clay	7.9	48.3	510%	688.4	1,226.0	78%	1%	4%
Clayton	22.1	43.4	96%	652.1	1,180.5	81%	3%	4%
Clinton	60.8	90.5	49%	1,486.2	2,491.3	68%	4%	4%
Crawford	19.8	7.4	-62%	561.9	1,265.7	125%	4%	1%
Dallas	182.3	693.7	281%	1,605.7	7,990.1	398%	11%	9%
Davis	2.7	0.2	-94%	224.3	436.2	94%	1%	0%
Decatur	0.7	1.3	103%	187.7	315.0	68%	0%	0%
Delaware	18.0	71.8	299%	708.3	1,460.5	106%	3%	5%
Des Moines	66.3	136.4	106%	1,130.2	1,828.5	62%	6%	7%
Dickinson	154.4	221.0	43%	1,086.9	3,418.0	214%	14%	6%
Dubuque	81.0	602.0	643%	2,459.0	5,838.5	137%	3%	10%
Emmet	10.4	4.2	-59%	393.0	649.3	65%	3%	1%
Fayette	14.8	34.3	132%	689.3	1,271.8	85%	2%	3%
Floyd	32.3	86.3	167%	567.8	1,028.7	81%	6%	8%
Franklin	20.7	28.3	37%	544.1	994.7	83%	4%	3%
Fremont	1.2	0.0	-100%	378.5	621.0	64%	0%	0%
Greene	7.7	72.0	836%	493.4	867.1	76%	2%	8%
Grundy	28.6	29.4	3%	565.8	1,127.1	99%	5%	3%
Guthrie	46.5	233.4	402%	483.2	1,118.9	132%	10%	21%
Hamilton	19.8	20.5	4%	708.7	1,158.3	63%	3%	2%
Hancock	4.0	21.4	440%	556.4	1,037.8	87%	1%	2%
Hardin	25.4	48.4	90%	677.6	1,139.7	68%	4%	4%
Harrison	11.8	9.4	-20%	602.4	1,139.3	89%	2%	1%
Henry	20.3	24.1	18%	586.6	971.3	66%	3%	2%
Howard	14.2	52.9	274%	370.4	764.6	106%	4%	7%
Humboldt	3.3	32.1	882%	480.1	836.1	74%	1%	4%
Ida	7.2	155.7	2057%	354.7	806.2	127%	2%	19%
Iowa	37.6	48.9	30%	696.5	1,156.1	66%	5%	4%
Jackson	14.0	38.7	177%	594.2	1,214.3	104%	2%	3%
Jasper	58.3	108.5	86%	1,194.2	2,002.7	68%	5%	5%
Jefferson	29.3	12.3	-58%	554.5	966.8	74%	5%	1%

Table 7. (Continued) Net Taxable Value by County (AY 2000 and 2021)

County	TIF Increment Valuations (\$ Millions)			Net Taxable Value (w/out gas and electric) Including TIF (\$ Millions)			Percent of Net Taxable Value in TIF Increment	
	Assessment Year		Percentage Change 2000 - 2021	Assessment Year		Percentage Change 2000 - 2021	Assessment Year	
	2000	2021		2000	2021		2000	2021
Johnson	271.3	963.8	255%	3,754.1	10,208.1	172%	7%	9%
Jones	21.4	25.1	17%	656.7	1,234.9	88%	3%	2%
Keokuk	0.0	3.9	100%	448.7	721.0	61%	0%	1%
Kossuth	0.3	20.1	6750%	887.2	1,531.4	73%	0%	1%
Lee	21.9	38.1	74%	944.5	1,531.6	62%	2%	2%
Linn	343.4	987.1	187%	6,306.0	13,041.0	107%	5%	8%
Louisa	2.0	1.1	-44%	423.0	693.2	64%	0%	0%
Lucas	3.8	10.7	180%	227.6	399.9	76%	2%	3%
Lyon	4.0	68.7	1626%	503.9	1,196.3	137%	1%	6%
Madison	22.8	85.4	275%	461.9	1,116.1	142%	5%	8%
Mahaska	16.6	44.9	170%	697.0	1,194.3	71%	2%	4%
Marion	33.9	63.1	86%	862.1	1,906.6	121%	4%	3%
Marshall	47.8	15.2	-68%	1,065.8	1,908.5	79%	4%	1%
Mills	7.0	37.9	438%	536.5	1,137.0	112%	1%	3%
Mitchell	19.6	260.1	1230%	459.6	1,038.5	126%	4%	25%
Monona	20.6	8.7	-58%	459.4	889.3	94%	4%	1%
Monroe	11.8	0.0	-100%	357.8	556.9	56%	3%	0%
Montgomery	16.4	3.7	-78%	371.3	625.7	68%	4%	1%
Muscatine	146.1	118.1	-19%	1,413.2	2,231.3	58%	10%	5%
O'Brien	31.6	136.8	333%	583.3	1,439.6	147%	5%	10%
Osceola	6.3	35.8	469%	309.1	632.1	104%	2%	6%
Page	2.6	10.2	289%	463.1	796.6	72%	1%	1%
Palo Alto	8.7	53.2	511%	440.4	816.8	85%	2%	7%
Plymouth	74.5	181.3	143%	1,055.5	2,125.7	101%	7%	9%
Pocahontas	1.6	3.0	90%	472.5	908.6	92%	0%	0%
Polk	828.0	3,473.2	319%	12,189.7	31,600.9	159%	7%	11%
Pottawattamie	100.3	153.3	53%	2,628.6	5,634.2	114%	4%	3%
Poweshiek	17.6	134.4	662%	700.7	1,557.4	122%	3%	9%
Ringgold	1.3	37.1	2667%	180.4	444.4	146%	1%	8%
Sac	0.3	6.3	1801%	501.9	937.7	87%	0%	1%
Scott	210.4	534.0	154%	4,962.8	10,246.4	106%	4%	5%
Shelby	31.0	50.7	64%	532.1	998.5	88%	6%	5%
Sioux	77.9	335.2	330%	1,077.2	2,532.9	135%	7%	13%
Story	119.4	299.8	151%	2,551.1	5,780.5	127%	5%	5%
Tama	8.8	28.2	222%	673.3	1,184.1	76%	1%	2%
Taylor	1.0	1.7	67%	196.8	410.2	108%	1%	0%
Union	21.6	3.8	-82%	332.6	541.3	63%	6%	1%
Van Buren	0.8	0.0	-100%	217.2	448.3	106%	0%	0%
Wapello	26.8	58.1	117%	704.1	1,383.4	96%	4%	4%
Warren	10.5	544.5	5091%	1,074.9	3,074.9	186%	1%	18%
Washington	14.2	32.0	125%	709.2	1,395.5	97%	2%	2%
Wayne	7.4	0.0	-100%	212.8	412.7	94%	3%	0%
Webster	29.7	227.5	666%	1,283.0	2,229.6	74%	2%	10%
Winnebago	20.0	138.5	594%	428.4	774.5	81%	5%	18%
Winneshiek	6.4	7.0	10%	669.3	1,363.6	104%	1%	1%
Woodbury	284.5	579.9	104%	2,697.3	5,383.9	100%	11%	11%
Worth	18.6	159.9	758%	329.4	831.8	153%	6%	19%
Wright	13.9	145.3	949%	630.1	1,088.7	73%	2%	13%
Total	4,463.3	14,690.6	229%	96,509.4	207,381.4	115%	5%	7%

Figure 6. Percent Taxable Value in TIF by County Maps AY 2002 vs AY 2021

