LOCAL GOVERNMENT ADOPTION OF AGE FRIENDLY POLICIES: AN INTEGRATED MODEL OF RESPONSIVENESS, MULTI-LEVEL GOVERNANCE AND PUBLIC ENTREPRENEURSHIP THEORIES

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ABSTRACT

Existing research on local government adoption of age friendly policies has been limited in its theoretical approach and empirical analysis. While these findings suggest an important role for local government in this issue, this paper asserts that a single model does not offer a full explanation. Therefore, the following paper assess different conceptual models for local government adoption of policies deemed important for older adults to remain independent in their community. This paper argues that responsiveness, multi-level governance, and public entrepreneurship theories offer a fuller explanation for local government policy decision-making. Some local governments throughout the nation are already showing an increase in support for the adoption of age-friendly policies and are designing initiatives that address fundamental policies like housing, transportation, and other services. This research examines evidence from a 20-question survey designed to probe general features of local governments and specific community characteristics to determine the extent to which local governments adopt relative policies and implement programs. The authors find support for a multi-model explanation.

Key Words: Local government, age-friendly, aging in place, public policy
INTRODUCTION

How will local governments plan for a doubling of the 65 plus population to ensure their communities address the needs of health, safety, mobility, and accessibility? This issue stands to challenge public administrators as the nation experiences a monumental demographic change evidenced by the forecasted doubling of the baby boomer population between 2012 and 2060 (United State Department of Commerce, May 2010). This demographic shift will affect individual families and their resources, restructure the society, and affect all parts of community life. Public administrators play a unique role in facilitating the goals of older adults in their communities to live healthy and independent lives through the adoption and implementation of age-friendly policies and age-friendly community features. Administrators have taken notice of the rising demands on government services and the needs by this age group over the last decade (Klay, 1998). Central to this study is the interaction of older adults and their physical environment as defined by their ability to navigate their surrounding environment with multiple mobility options. Furthermore, it is essential for them to fulfill their shelter needs with access to a variety of housing options and price points. Additionally, the interaction between older adults and their social environment is defined as their ability to participate in civic, cultural, lifelong learning, and human services activities, etc. (Fitzgerald & Caro, 2013).

Typically, models of innovative policy adoption conceive a model of diffusion in which the innovation is identified, communicated, and implemented over time due to coercion, mimicry, and forces of competition (DiMaggio & Powell, 1983; Rogers, 2002). While diffusion literature suggests a champion to lead organizational change to support the innovation (DiMaggio, 1988; Tolbert & Zucker, 1999), a fuller explanation of diffusion theory includes the relevance of social context as well as the innovator’s ties to a communication network to support the process of diffusion over time (Walker, 1969). Because diffusion theory is complex, we chose to
concentrate specifically on the public entrepreneur as the agent for change since our research focuses on one unit of time. Previous research provides a basis for understanding local government adoption of innovative policies friendly to older adults through diffusion theory (Lehning, 2012).

Therefore, the following paper asserts that a fuller explanation of the adoption of policies friendly toward the aging population by local governments lies in a model based on the integration of three theories: responsiveness, multi-level governance and public entrepreneurship. This assertion directs us to analyze the role of public administrators and local governments relative to the adoption of age friendly policies in multiple ways. This model begins with the assumptions that different forms of local governments, cities in this case, will result in different outcomes of responsiveness toward citizen interest in age friendly policy adoption. Further, it assumes that local levels of government are better able to assess and provide for the needs of their citizens from the perspective of devolution. Finally, it suggests that determinants, such as bureaucratic or political agents of change (Schneider, Teske, & Mintrom, 2011; Schneider & Teske, 1992) predict local government commitment to age-friendly policy adoption and implementation of new programs and services.

Specifically, this paper explores the adoption of age friendly policies by local governments and the influencing forces that cause local governments to adopt new and innovative policies overall. This paper looks at the literature in multiple dimensions and will first present and define age friendly policies as understood by both academics and practitioners. Next, we look at the evidence relative to local government responsiveness to the public interest, multi-level governance and changing investment patterns, and political entrepreneurship relative to local government policy adoption. A combination of these three theories we believe is necessary to understand the nature of service delivery to older adults. At this point, we present a theoretical framework needed to understand some determinants and predict local government adoption of such policies based on the integration of the three theories of responsiveness, multi-level governance and entrepreneurship. We then analyze data
collected through the administration of a survey to local governments relative to the inclusion of policies friendly toward older adults or programs adopted in community visions, strategic planning efforts, and government programming and budgeting components. The survey instrument borrows from previous data collection efforts on local government adoption of aging in place policies as administered by a partnership of the National Association of Area Agencies on Aging and the International City/County Management Association. The final section presents our findings and discusses conclusions and opportunities for future research.

WHAT ARE AGE FRIENDLY POLICIES?

Momentum has grown nationally and internationally around the adoption of public policies designed to make communities more accessible to older adults (Fitzgerald and Caro, 2014). Policies friendly toward older adults denote the potential for communities to promote housing and transportation options, encourage healthy lifestyles and support access to basic daily needs as well as health and supportive services (Wiles, Leibing, Guberman, Reeve, & Allen, 2012). Cities friendly toward older adults offer social features to help older adults remain involved, but also have physical features such as housing options and transportation infrastructure to support them as needs change (Alley, Liebig, Pynoos, Banerjee, & Choi, 2007). As Table 1 illustrates, some fundamental physical and social features are needed to support all aspects of aging. The elements of Table 1, adapted from an extensive literature review, depicts eight unique physical and social features needed to support older adults and their ability to remain engaged and independent in their community even as their needs change. These include the built environment, mobility, housing, access to information, participation, security, value and leadership (Lui, Everingham, Warburton, Cuthill, & Bartlett, 2009).
As Table 1 identifies, key policy elements are necessary such as those that support transportation and mobility options, foster housing type and affordability options, and further access to health and supportive services (Benavides & Keyes, 2015; Fitzgerald & Caro, 2013; Keyes et al., 2013). For example, policies should be designed to create opportunities for extended mobility when driving is no longer an option (Lynott, McAuley, & McCutcheon, 2009). Boldy et al. (2011) argue that communities may contain stressors or attractors that affect the decisions of older adults to be able to remain in their home and or community. For example, a community without public transit or some alternative transportation option may create a stressor for an older adult if they find they are no longer able to drive a
Similarly, Kerr, Rosenberg and Frank (2012) suggest that community design of neighborhoods may foster auto-oriented development, which may erect barriers to access daily needs when older adults are no longer able to drive themselves. These situations may require the older person to leave their family, friends, and other community resources in search of different housing options.

Recent scholarship in the area of aging in place and community design provides some groundwork for explaining the role of local governments. As demonstrated through the research, interest in supporting the age-friendly initiatives is growing among local governments through a variety of approaches (Fitzgerald & Caro, 2013; Lui et al., 2009; Rosenthal, 2009; Scharlach, 2009). Currently, individual government entities are designing initiatives based on the vocalized needs of the citizenry they service rather than following one regulatory method for advancing these policies (Keyes et al., 2013). There are the claims that the 65 plus demographic wants to age in place in their homes and communities while maintaining their independence as their needs change (Lynott et al., 2009). While people are free to make choices about where to live based on their individual needs, local governments have a prominent role in making decisions about land use development, zoning, and infrastructure investments (Rosenthal, 2009; Scharlach, 2009).

As cities move forward to accommodate their older residents, some essential features to consider include: the capacity for being mobile, opportunities for housing options and affordability, the capability to obtain information, access to health and supportive services, and access to essential daily needs within and around the community (Buffel, Phillipson, & Scharf, 2012; Lui et al., 2009). Government support of these policies is not without challenges. Fitzgerald and Caro (2014) highlight three critical barriers to policy adoption: a lack of government resources to implement initiatives; a lack of political leadership to champion the needs of older adults; and the capacity to sustain the work long term if the local government does not institutionalize policies. These responsibilities suggest a multifaceted role for local governments. Therefore, it is necessary to investigate the evidence of local government
behavior in a variety of contexts: responding to the needs of their citizens, allocating necessary resources to meet these needs, and adopting and implementing policy changes over time. The next sections provide substance and rationale to our theory that a multifaceted approach is necessary to serve our aging population.

THEORY DEVELOPMENT
OF A LOCAL GOVERNMENT ROLE

Responsiveness as a Public Value

The increase in the nation’s aging population is inherently making local governments aware of the need for age-friendly services. As early as the mid-1980’s, local governments began to plan and determine bureaucratic responsiveness relative to the impact of growing population of elderly and the necessary services to support their desire to remain in their homes, such as transportation, housing, meals on wheels, recreation, and consumer protection (Benavides, 2007). While not specific to local government responsiveness to aging issues, the public administration literature is rich in the topic of bureaucratic responsiveness and provides empirical evidence on how administrators including local governments have responded to other important policy issues. Bryer (2007) for example, formulates six concepts of bureaucratic responsiveness including dictated, constrained, purposive, entrepreneurial, collaborative and negotiated and suggests that each alternative has the capacity to shape bureaucratic decision-making. The author’s normative argument traces the ethical perspectives of each variant and their impact on the evolution of public administration. Based on the nature of a democratic process, public organizations must allow for participation of multiple stakeholders and balance the demands of these varying groups (Kanter & Brinkerhoff, 1981). For instance, Soss and Moynihan (2014) argue that the U.S. Census categories have created solidarities and identities among groups, such as seniors, a distinct group with a stake in policies such as the Social Security Act.

Research on governmental responsiveness toward public input provides context to understanding various ways in which
public administrators interact with citizens (Bryer, 2009). In a qualitative assessment of the relationship between varying roles of public administrators and individual citizens and neighborhood stakeholder groups, Bryer (2009) provides evidence that administrators identify themselves in three distinct roles: partner, educator, and expert. He suggests that a collaborative process between citizen and administrator may yield a more reciprocal and trusting relationship where both parties are seen as producers and consumers of knowledge. Frederickson (1980) argues that a responsive public administration establishes the ability to increase efficiency and effectiveness while balancing the needs of its citizenry. He recognizes that it is virtually impossible if not impractical to meet the needs of all of its citizens. Rather, he suggests that administrators use a criteria for effectiveness that gathers input on the needs of minority groups and balances responses to needs with the greater majority. Thus, being responsive to one group may result in a lack of responsiveness to another (Stivers, 1994).

Governments, especially local governments, have the capacity to engage its citizenry in the decision-making process and foster a reciprocal relationship between citizen and administrator to facilitate fairness in the democratic process (Denhardt & Denhardt, 2001; King & Stivers, 1998).

The evolution of public administration has led to variations in the way public administrators and citizens perceive governmental responsiveness (Bryer, 2007). For example, Cope (1997) argues that public administration’s integration of market-like tendencies gave rise to entrepreneurial responsiveness. This type of response changed the dynamic of responsiveness to focus attention on individual needs rather than those of the public at large. Under these assumptions, Vigoda (2002) operationalizes responsiveness as the speed government responds to the citizen request and the accuracy or rather the extent that it addresses the need. Conversely, he suggests that market-like responsiveness may contradict the long-term public interest in the attempt to satisfy short-term citizen needs. While efficiency and effectiveness are central tenets of public administration, public interest has continued to direct attention to overall performance as a measure of responsiveness (Vigoda, 2000). Thus, other
scholars provide evidence to suggest that government responsiveness may also be measured as accountability such as consequences for public sector actions (Carter, 1989; Smith, 1993; Vigoda, 2000).

Policy Implementation at the Local Level

From a multi-level governance perspective, this study suggests that the problems associated with an aging population are national policy issues. However, Caro and Morris (2002) argue that while the national government may provide policy solutions, it looks to state and local governments to provide the funding and interventions at a local level. They go on to argue that the federal government has increasingly pushed the responsibility for providing health and social services for older adults on to states and local governments. As noted by Agranoff (2013), local governments are directly impacted by issues in the community. Therefore, we claim that local governments are better able to assess the needs of its citizens, a prime reason for federalism.

Decentralization of services gives local governments more autonomy over decision making, and decreases the transaction costs of higher levels of government, both state and federal (Bardhan, 2002). The dispersion of responsibilities down to the local governments allows communities to address the demands of their constituencies accordingly. Wallis and Oates (1988) provide evidence of a pattern of increasing use of intergovernmental transfers of revenue from the federal government to state and local entities over eight decades. The authors regress fiscal revenue and expenditure data from a data set of states and local governments from the U.S. Census of Governments. They find evidence that states with larger populations and a greater percentage of the urbanized area are negatively and significantly related to fiscal centralization, meaning they tend to have a highly decentralized system with local governments. Faguet (2004) operationalizes the responsiveness of local governments as verifiable changes to national and local investment patterns when services are decentralized to subnational entities. His findings suggest that local government services changed relative to a change in
observed measures of public need. For example, decentralization changed investment patterns among local governments. In recent decades, the federal government demonstrated continued support for devolution to local governments through contracting, intergovernmental loans, loan guarantees, regulations and other indirect approaches. Kettl (2000) indicates for example, that the federal government pushed Medicaid insurance reimbursement policy down to states which in turn pushed some service delivery responsibilities down to local governments. He ultimately argues that implications for governance through devolution of policies are identified as the capacity of local governments to provide services. Regarding aging polices, the Older Americans Act of 1965 pushed the provision of home and community based services for the elderly down to the local community. For instance, Pine and Pine (2002) provide evidence of localized public, private, and non-profit service delivery relative to direct care management to older adults for education support and mental health services.

**Public Entrepreneurship and Policy Adoption**

The concept of public entrepreneur literature spans across decades. It was initially recognized in the political science realm with regards to policy agenda setting (Kingdon, 1995; Schneider et al., 2011). Zahariadis (2007) argued that policy makers focus attention on a limited number of high priority issues. He suggested that they are limited in their ability to make decisions on all of the issues put forth. He further stated that policy makers must ration their attention to a limited number of issues and the assumption is that a policy entrepreneur seizes a window of opportunity to manipulate the selection of issues on an agenda. Moreover, Olson (1968) argued that political entrepreneurs play a role in overcoming collective action problems. He suggested that the policy entrepreneur is someone who has something to gain by organizing individuals around a central cause. They take a latent group and turn it into organized group getting some other type of benefit such as political power, clout, a job, prestige, and a sense of purpose. The concept of entrepreneurship in public administration is also connected to economic theory in the sense that administrators are willing to
take risky behaviors to seek out innovative and competitive market based policy solutions (DeLeon & Denhardt, 2000).

Relative to the market model concept of entrepreneur, Schneider, Teske, and Mintrom (2011) examine characteristics administrators that interject innovation to enhance local government responsiveness to citizen demand of public goods. The concept of public entrepreneurial leadership suggests that a top-level leader in an organization will mobilize resources to address a need or policy preference (Schneider & Teske, 1992). Here, the argument suggests that public advocacy is central to raising awareness locally about the needs of an aging population and having the ability to bring about change. First, it is important to unpack the concept of leadership to distinguish a difference between a public leader and an entrepreneurial public leader. The leadership literature has evolved from one great man and individual traits of the leader to leadership qualities contingent on the situation (Van Wart, 2005). Van Wart (2005) argues that the need for different leadership styles may be based on the needs of the followers or the situation. He explains that leadership styles from early public administration are reflective of a directive style, as illustrated by the Weberian hierarchical model for bureaucracy. Relative to this paper, transformational leaders are described typically as individuals in positions to lead organizations through necessary changes. Transformational leaders may rely on a variety of styles to motivate employees through the change. Van Wart (2005) argues that leaders typically find themselves in situations where they need to move flexibly from style to style depending on the situation. Interestingly, the evolution of public administration and the influence of innovation and technology has also evolved the role of some public leaders to assume entrepreneurial leadership traits (Schneider & Teske, 1992).

Some scholars argue that the public entrepreneur has different motivations than just a public leader. Schneider, Teske and Mintrom (2011) suggest that a public entrepreneur knows something has to change and thus looks for an opportunity for change. They suggest the leader has motivations for risk-taking, incentives based on rewards, and has the influential capacity to carry out their vision. For example, the authors provide evidence
of public entrepreneurship when the public leader is able to leverage the strength of local business groups in the community for support of a particular innovation. Public entrepreneurs shape their communities in their support for a policy innovation (Kingdon, 1995). Mintrom (1997) argues that the public entrepreneur as an agent for change is a determinant of the diffusion of new ideas and policy adoption among other jurisdictions because of the leader’s ability to promote change.

Certain activities of public entrepreneurs support their success in generating and creating new ideas (Roberts & King, 1991). Roberts and King (1991) provide evidence that the ability to generate new ideas, formulate strategic approaches to problem solving, mobilize resources, and evaluate program effectiveness are critical to public entrepreneurial effectiveness. In this role, context matters. For example, when the leader is able to operate with discretion and autonomy they have more ability to advocate and make decisions about their ideas (Schneider et al., 2011). With regards to aging in place policy adoption, Lehning (2012) provides evidence that the presence of a policy entrepreneur has a positive and significant effect on the adoption of age-friendly policies.

A MODEL AND HYPOTHESIS FOR LOCAL GOVERNMENT AGE FRIENDLY POLICY DEVELOPMENT

In general, the preceding evidence suggests that responsive governments base decisions on general knowledge of community values. Generally, the literature suggests that responsiveness is defined as speed and accuracy in which governments respond to expressed public interest or citizen needs. Denhardt and Denhardt (2001) pose a normative argument to bring to the surface the need for governments to establish a collective sense of public vision and public interest. Specific to the relationship between public administrators, local governments, and age friendly policy adoption is the extent to which a government facilitates, collaborates, and responds to the collective interests of its citizens. With regards to multilevel governance and devolution, the evidence suggests that the
federal government has provided policy solutions to large societal problems, but has pushed the responsibility of implementation down to states and local governments. However, the literature does not provide any empirical evidence relative to changes in investment patterns by local governments and devolution of age friendly policy adoption. Finally, similar to Berry and Berry (1999), a diffusion model was used to predict local government adoption of two or more age friendly policies including community design, housing, and transportation (Lehning, 2012). Adding to this body of research, we suggest a fuller model explains and predicts local government adoption and implementation of these policies. The purpose of this research is to predict whether an integrated model of responsiveness, multilevel governance and public entrepreneurship will explain and predict whether certain determinants lead to local government adoption and implementation of policies friendly toward older adults. The proceeding hypotheses examine the relationships between factors of local government adoption and implementation of policies friendly toward older adults. As discussed earlier, Figure 1 illustrates the multiple dimensions of adoption and their relationship to form of government, awareness of citizen need, capacity, and commitment to spending and public advocacy.

**Figure 1**

*Integration Model: Responsiveness, Multi-Level Governance, and Public Entrepreneurship*

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<thead>
<tr>
<th>Determinants</th>
<th>Local Government Performance</th>
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<td>Responsiveness Factors:</td>
<td>• Age-Friendly Policy Adoption</td>
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<td>• Form of government</td>
<td>• Age-Friendly Policy Implementation</td>
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<td>• Awareness of citizen need</td>
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<td>Multi-level Governance</td>
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<td>• Use of other non-local resources</td>
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<td>• Capacity</td>
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<td>• Commitment to education</td>
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<td>Public Entrepreneurship</td>
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<td>• Public advocacy</td>
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Responsiveness Factors

According to Yang and Pandey (2007), responsiveness theory provides a basis for understanding how the government reacts to the public interest. Government responsiveness is directly affected by external influences including administrative interests and political tendencies (Meier & O'Toole, 2006). Therefore, this article considers variables relative to form of government due to the differences in motives between city managers and mayors. For example, Frederickson, Johnson and Wood (2004) classify local government form typically as council-manager, mayor-council, and commissioner only. Local form of government offers support for two hypotheses to predict local government adoption of land use policies. Ramírez de la Cruz (2009) notes that a lack of professionalism suggests that when comparing the city manager and mayor forms of government, advancement of specialized professional executives in council-manager forms of government has weakened the capacity of the mayor's role and power. Second, he argues that mayors are more focused on re-election rather than on the professional values expected from city managers. Mayors can become entrepreneurial champions around policies that may assist them in their attempt for re-election. Therefore, our study predicts that of the local governments that adopt and implement aging in place policies, local governments with the council manager form of government will demonstrate higher prevalence of budget allocation through policy implementation. On the other hand, mayor-council form of government will demonstrate support through policy adoption.

H1 – The council-manager form of local government is associated with the likelihood of adoption and implementation of policies to support the needs of older adults.

A tangential argument to responsiveness theory is that local governments are adopting age-friendly policies not just to provide services to residents of their community; but also to clear the stage to allow other networks to facilitate, function, and provide services for older adults within their jurisdictional boundary. Previous research indicates that determinants of leadership and operational and fiscal capacity are associated with the speed and extent to which local governments respond to a
public need (Vigoda, 2000). Ostrom (1975) suggests that governments demonstrate responsiveness through the provision of services that align with citizen preferences. Following the logic of responsiveness theory, local governments will feel obligated to respond to the public interest if citizen input has been captured and incorporated into local public policy and planning.

H2 – Local government development of community plans to address the needs of older adults contributes to the likelihood that the local government will adopt and implement age-friendly policies.

H3 – Expressed citizen demand for age-friendly policies contributes to the likelihood that the local government will adopt and implement age-friendly policies.

**Multi-Level Governance Factors**

This study offers an age-friendly policies framework, based on the features in Table 1, for evaluating local government adoption of age-friendly policies and programs. The argument of decentralization depends upon the gains to the entity providing the services and variations in output across local governments (Wallis & Oates, 1988). Therefore, we suggest that local governments utilize resources from other federal, state, other public and private sources to supplement policies friendly toward older adults. The fourth hypothesis suggests that local governments understand the needs of their citizens and therefore will invest in programs and services important to them. However, devolution suggests that this will only occur if other resources such as national government funds are made available.

H4 – Local government use of non-local resources (federal, state, county, other public, and private) contributes to the likelihood that the local government will adopt and implement age-friendly policies.

Previous research has operationalized additional predictors of successful decentralization of services to local governments as fiscal capacity, operational capacity, and accountability (Faguet, 2004; Fredericksen & London, 2000; Kettl, 2002). The ability for local governments to take on the responsibility of the provision of new services is demonstrated
by their fiscal capacity and expertise (Kodras, 1997). Therefore, local governments with higher levels of staff capacity and those that are educated on the issues are associated with stronger agreement about the extent to which local funds are allocated to support programs and resources for older adults.

H5: Local government with greater staff capacity contributes to the likelihood that the local government will adopt and implement age-friendly policies.

H6: Local government with staff that have participated in training or continuing education to learn more about the needs of older adults contributes to the likelihood that the local government will adopt and implement age-friendly policies.

Public Entrepreneurial Leadership Factors

The proclivity to innovate may relate to an individual’s ability to identify a problem and seek creative mechanisms to advocate for change and ultimately implement that change (Polsby, 1984). Thus, similar to Lehning (2012) this hypothesis predicts that advocacy through political factors are positively associated with the adoption of age friendly policies. In other words, an elected official as a champion for this issue may lead to a better success of policy adoption and ultimately policy implementation. The actions of a public entrepreneur for this issue may further integrate with the concept of responsiveness by demonstrating how public administrators are champions for the needs of a changing population.

H7: The identification of local government support of age-friendly policies via a local elected official contributes to the likelihood that the local government will adopt and implement age-friendly policies.

DATA AND METHODS

Data Collection

A 20-question survey was designed to probe general features of local governments and specific community characteristics with the intent to see if local governments have changed or adopted new policies friendly toward older adults. The survey also measured the extent to which the local
government used citizen input in strategic decision-making, the local government investment patterns toward implementing policies friendly toward older adults, and the extent to which services and programs friendly toward older adults are available in the community. These characteristics include demographic, socio-economic, and government elements. In the summer of 2014, surveys were emailed to a population of 169 cities located within the boundaries of the North Central Texas Council of Governments including the Dallas-Fort Worth metro area. Additionally, 400 cities listed in the Milken Institute’s Best Cities for Successful Aging Report, and 25 cities listed in Forbes Magazine’s 25 Best Places to Retire were also surveyed. We asked mayors or city administrators in Mayor-Council forms of government and city managers in council-manager forms of government to complete the questionnaire. The initial survey was emailed to the respective contacts per form of government and followed by a second reminder email. Three personal email reminders were also sent to recipients. A total of 108 cities responded to the survey for a 40 percent response rate for the Dallas-Forth metro area sample and 20 percent response rate for the national cities sample.

We limited the sample to cities located within the Dallas-Fort Worth metro area and those listed in the Milken Institute and Forbes Magazine reports. Previous scholars have used Dallas-Fort Worth cities to study policy adoption (Grodach, 2011; Leichenko, Coulson, & Listokin, 2001). First, using a list of cities located within the Dallas-Fort Worth metroplex allowed us to examine cities locally in our region that may not be predisposed to any program or effort that would already be encouraging them to adopt policies friendly toward older adults. Second, using the list of cities identified in the Milken and Forbes Reports allowed us to compare the Dallas metro cities against those cities already predetermined to have some characteristics that support successful aging in place. The Milken Institute’s Best Cities for Successful Aging Initiative is recognized as mechanism to evaluate communities with key indicators that fall within the scope of policies friendly toward older adults (Greenfield, Oberlink, Scharlach, Neal, & Stafford, 2015). There are limitations with the representativeness of these
samples discussed shortly. However, these three contexts enabled us to gauge the extent that adoption of policies is occurring locally within the State of Texas and within those cities that have already been identified as having features that support the needs of older adults as they grow older in their communities. The survey data were supplemented with 2010 U.S. Census data from the American Community Fact Finder including total population, residents above 60 to the total population, total white population to total population, total black population to total population, renters, home-owners, and rental units to total housing units. The final analysis includes both sample sets to allow for a cross-sectional analysis among cities.

**Policy Adoption and Implementation Variables**

The survey respondents were asked to indicate the extent to which the municipality adopted policies and or implemented policies to facilitate programs and services specific toward older adults. The variables were operationally defined as Policy Adoption and Policy Implementation both measured as a dichotomous variable with 1= Yes and 0= Otherwise. The measure for policy adoption variable is consistent with Lehning (2012). The measure for policy implementation is added to this assessment to explore any differences in the factors responsiveness, multi-level governance, and public entrepreneurship when policies move from adoption to actual implementation through the allocation of local government time and resources.

**Independent Variables**

For the independent variables, the survey asked respondents for knowledge relevant to certain jurisdictional elements. Multiple predictor variables were identified to test the models of responsiveness, multi-level governance, and public entrepreneurship. The elements included in the models are based on the respondent’s knowledge of certain government characteristics, and knowledge of government decisions related to the adoption of policies friendly toward older adults.
**Responsiveness.** This research relies on two indicators to conceptualize government responsiveness to the needs of an older adult population. Responsiveness is conceptualized as the means in which a city responds to the needs of its citizens. The first measure for this research includes *Form of Government* measured as 1= Council-Manager and 0= Otherwise. Our interest in council-manager form of government is based on the tendency of a professional administrator to understand the changing demographics and needs of the community to which they serve. Additionally, research has found that local government responsiveness is influenced by its use of citizen participation methods and whether the government uses the strategic input from citizens (Yang & Callahan, 2007). Therefore, the second measure for this analysis relies on one indicator for governments’ strategic use of citizen input. This concept of responsiveness is operationalized as *Development of a Comprehensive Community Assessment* and measured as an ordinal variable with a five-point scale from strongly disagree to strongly agree. Additionally, the survey asked respondents to indicate whether the jurisdiction made decisions based on identified citizen need. The variable of *Citizen Need* (Yes=1, Otherwise=0) reflects the local government’s perception that citizens have expressed a need for the local government to take action on adopting policies friendly toward older adults. The variable citizen need conceptualizes citizen demand based on the model for responsiveness theory.

**Multi-level Governance.** Multi-level governance assumes the local jurisdiction understands the needs of their citizens and has the capacity to respond to these needs, but will do so if it has support from federal or state entities. Therefore, this model relies on three explanatory variables. The concept of devolution suggests that local governments will invest in policies friendly toward older adults, but only if other resources such as national, state, and county government funds are made available. This concept is operationalized as *Use of Non-Local Resources Index* and is measured as the respondent’s knowledge to survey questions that asked, has your local jurisdiction implemented transportation, housing, meals, nutrition, health, and recreation
programs because it receives funding from other sources. The variables were transformed into and index with a Cronbach’s Alpha of .734. The concept of jurisdictional capacity was operationalized as the Size of the Staff. This variable was measured as an ordinal variable on a scale from 1-3 with 1= Under 100, 2= Between 100-999, and 3= Over 1000. The final concept successful decentralization relates to the awareness that local governments know the needs of their citizens better than federal and state governments. Local governments are accountable to the needs of their citizens locally. This concept is operationalized as the extent that local governments indicate they have received training or continuing education to learn more about the needs of older adults relative to transportation, housing, meals, nutrition, health, and recreation. The responses for each survey item were transformed into an index, Training on Aging Needs. This variable has a Cronbach’s alpha of .887.

Public Entrepreneurship. The main explanatory variables for the public entrepreneurship model in this paper relate to the inclination of a local government to adopt innovative policies like age-friendly policies due to pressure or leadership from citizens or elected officials. For instance, the elected officials may advocate for certain policies to support their own self-interested needs for re-election (Mayhew, 1974). Similar to Lehning (2012), advocacy is operationalized as Local Politician Need. Likewise, based on respondent perceptions that policy decisions were made adopted based on needs identified by local politicians. Local Politician Need is measured as a dichotomous variable 1= Yes and 0= Otherwise. The needs identified by an advocacy coalition serves as the reference variable based on our premise that the local politician will provide more understanding relative to the role of the public entrepreneur.

Measurement
This study uses a combination of tests to assess the variables that contribute to the predictability that local governments will adopt and implement policies friendly toward older adults. First, t-tests are used to examine the reliability of
the sample against U.S. Census data. Second, we used a combination of non-parametric tests including the Kruskal Wallis Test, and the chi-square to test difference of means, ranked relationships between nominal to ordinal variables, and frequencies between nominal to nominal variables, respectively. The analyses are useful in providing explanations on the relative relationships. Finally, this research also utilizes a logistic regression analysis to test whether the variables contribute to predicting the adoption of such policies in a community. Following Lehning (2012), the logistic regression analysis is limited to the dependent variable of policy adoption. Logistic regression is necessary over other methods because the dependent variable is measured as a dichotomous variable (1=Policy Adoption, 0=Otherwise) (Allison, 1999).

**Reliability of Sample**

The characteristics of the 108 local governments that responded to the survey versus the local governments with useable survey results included in the analysis are summarized in Table 2. Similar to Andrew, Short, Jung and Arlikatti (2015), this analysis compared the mean-differences of population density, median household income, residents above 60 to the total population, total white population to total population, total black population to total population, renters, home-owners, and rental units to total housing units for each group. There were no statistical differences of the demographic and socioeconomic characteristics of the cities that responded to the survey and those included in the analysis except for the characteristic of total black population to total population. This is an important finding to consider with regards to inference and generalization.
Table 2
Community Characteristics for 108 Local Governments in Dallas Fort-Worth Metro Area and National Cities: Difference of Means t-test

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Local Government Provided Responses</th>
<th>Y (70)</th>
<th>N (38)</th>
<th>Mean Difference</th>
<th>Standard Error</th>
<th>T</th>
<th>Sig</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Population Density</td>
<td>1932.568</td>
<td>5333.47</td>
<td>-3400.902</td>
<td>3117.1</td>
<td>-1.091</td>
<td>0.139</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Median Household Income (dollars)</td>
<td>61532.714</td>
<td>54224.921</td>
<td>7307.7932</td>
<td>5339.79</td>
<td>1.369</td>
<td>0.174</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Population above 60 to Total</td>
<td>0.1755</td>
<td>0.1747</td>
<td>0.0008</td>
<td>0.0158</td>
<td>0.049</td>
<td>0.961</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total Education Education</td>
<td>0.2531</td>
<td>0.2693</td>
<td>-0.0162</td>
<td>0.0147</td>
<td>-1.101</td>
<td>0.274</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High School Degree Education</td>
<td>0.2023</td>
<td>0.1849</td>
<td>0.0174</td>
<td>0.0178</td>
<td>0.977</td>
<td>0.331</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bachelor's Degree Rental-Homeowner Ratio</td>
<td>0.6097</td>
<td>0.6365</td>
<td>-0.0268</td>
<td>0.0816</td>
<td>-0.328</td>
<td>0.744</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rental Units to Total Population</td>
<td>0.3297</td>
<td>0.3407</td>
<td>-0.0110</td>
<td>0.0305</td>
<td>-0.0361</td>
<td>0.719</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total White to Total Population</td>
<td>0.6808</td>
<td>0.6265</td>
<td>0.0543</td>
<td>0.04265</td>
<td>1.274</td>
<td>0.207</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total Black to Total Population</td>
<td>0.0897</td>
<td>0.1634</td>
<td>-0.0737</td>
<td>0.0314</td>
<td>-2.373</td>
<td>0.022</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Equal variances not assumed

FINDINGS

Descriptive Statistics

The descriptive statistics listed in Table 3 provide the mean, standard deviation and minimum and maximum ranges for each of the variables used in the analysis. The sample included more cities identified as council-manager form of government. Local governments are more likely to indicate the development...
of a community assessment plan specifically addressing the needs of older adults. The results indicate that local governments are less likely to have supplemental resources to support their services and programs for older adults. However, they are more likely to indicate that staff have training relative to the needs of older adults in the areas of transportation, housing, health, nutrition, and recreation. The proportion of cities that indicate support of policies friendly toward older adults based on citizen need is greater than those that indicated a response was based on local politician need. Cities in the sample are less likely to be cities listed in the Milken Forbes list. The comparison indicates that cities in general tend to indicate both policy adoption and policy implementation.

Table 3
Descriptive Statistics for Local Government Characteristics, Policy Adoption and Policy Implementation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>St Deviation</th>
<th>Min</th>
<th>Max</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Council Manager</td>
<td>0.7</td>
<td>0.4615</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Community Assessment (Needs of Older Adults)</td>
<td>2.971</td>
<td>1.042</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Use of Non-Local Resources</td>
<td>0.146</td>
<td>0.121</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Staff Capacity</td>
<td>1.91</td>
<td>0.756</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Training on Needs of Older Adults</td>
<td>0.555</td>
<td>0.382</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Citizen Need</td>
<td>0.5072</td>
<td>0.501</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Local Politician</td>
<td>0.33</td>
<td>0.467</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Milken_Forbes City</td>
<td>0.43</td>
<td>0.49</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Policy Adopt</td>
<td>0.757</td>
<td>0.431</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Policy Implement</td>
<td>0.743</td>
<td>0.455</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Responsiveness Model**

Our first hypothesis posits that council manager form of government is associated with age-friendly policy adoption and policy implementation. The chi-squared test for independence, however, does not suggest a relationship. The second responsiveness hypothesis predicted that the development of a community assessment plan on the needs for older adults is
associated with policy adoption and implementation. The findings do not support our prediction of adoption, however, the findings listed in Table 4 demonstrate a statistically significant relationship between local government adoption of community assessment plans and age-friendly policy implementation ($\chi^2=7.74$, $p=0.008$) (see Table 4). Local governments with adopted community assessment plans are more likely to implement policies. In other words, these findings demonstrate that developing a community plan is important preliminary factor to support the city’s resource allocations necessary for implementation of programs and services. Consistent with responsiveness theory, the findings in Table 5 support our third hypothesis and indicate a statistically significant relationship between expressed citizen need and both policy adoption and implementation ($\chi^2=18.14$, $p<.05$, $\chi^2=18.68$, $p<.05$, respectively). Local governments with known citizen demand for policies are more likely to adopt and implement policies friendly toward older adults. Additionally, the logistic regression results in Table 6 provide support for the policy adoption hypothesis. Citizen need as a measure of demand in a responsiveness model is significant ($\beta=4.204$, $p<.05$). Moreover, the predicted odds for policy adoption by a local government is 66.9 times greater when the local government indicated citizen demand for age-friendly policies, all else equal. On average, reporting citizen demand for age-friendly policies increases the probability of a local government adopting policies friendly toward older adults by 98% when compared to not reporting expressed citizen demand, holding all things equal.
Table 4  
*Non Parametric Analysis of Responsiveness Model, Multi-level Governance Model, and Public Entrepreneurship Model (Kruskal Wallis Chi-Square Tests)*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>Policy Adoption</th>
<th>Policy Implementation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Yes (N)</td>
<td>No (N)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Community Assessment</td>
<td>37.02 (N=52)</td>
<td>28.82 (N=18)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Non-Local Resources</td>
<td>38.00 (N=53)</td>
<td>27.71 (N=17)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Staff Capacity</td>
<td>36.71 (N=53)</td>
<td>31.74 (N=17)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Training on Aging Needs</td>
<td>36.65 (N=53)</td>
<td>22.80 (N=17)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Multi-Level Governance Model*

Our fourth hypothesis suggests a relationship between the frequency of local government age friendly policy adoption and policy implementation and the distribution of their use of non-local resources to supplement programs and services. The statistical analysis does not support our hypothesis. Additionally, the devolution argument suggests that decentralization provides local government with the necessary autonomy to address localized needs (Faguet, 2004). Similar to other administrative capacity arguments (Feiock & West, 1993) our fifth hypothesis suggests a relationship between the frequency of age-friendly policy adoption and policy implementation and the distribution of local government staff capacity. The Kruskal-Wallis test does not indicate an association between staff capacity and policy to support our hypotheses for policy adoption and implementation. The sixth hypothesis of this model posits that the distribution of responses to local governments with staff training relative to the select needs of older adults is related to the frequency of adoption and implementation of age-friendly policies. The findings in Table 4 indicate statistically significant relationship between trained local government staff on aging needs in the areas of transportation, housing, health, nutrition, and recreation and adoption of age-friendly policies ($\chi^2=6.25$, $p<.05$). Local
governments that train staff in these areas are more likely to adopt policies friendly toward older adults. The statistical analysis does not support a relationship between training and policy implementation.

### Table 5

*Analysis of Local Government Characteristics to Policy Adoption and Implementation (Crosstabs Chi-Square tests)*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>Policy Adoption</th>
<th></th>
<th>Policy Implementation</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>χ²</td>
<td>ρ</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Council Manager <em>b</em></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>37</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Citizen Need <em>a</em></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>18.1</td>
<td>48</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>34</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Local Politician <em>a</em></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>16</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Milken For bes City <em>c</em></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>6.25</td>
<td>.013*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>27</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*a* Advocacy Coalition the reference group.

*b* Mayor-Council is the reference group.

*c* Dallas-Fort Worth metro cities are the reference group.

Equal variances not assumed

However, the logistic regression analysis depicted in Table 6 does illustrate a statistically significant association between a one unit increase in staff capacity (scale 1-3) and the more likely local governments will indicate support for age-friendly policy adoption ($\beta=-1.925$, $p<.05$). The predicted odds
for policy adoption by a local government is .142 times greater with each unit increase in the government’s staff capacity (scale 1-3), all else equal. On average, increasing the staff capacity from 1-100, 101 to 999, and over 1000 employees increases the predicted probability of adoption of policies friendly toward older adults by 87%, 97%, and 99%, respectively, when compared to not having the staff capacity, holding all other variables constant. The increase in staff capacity is necessary for local government support of policy adoption. This provides some support for our multi-level government theory. However, since we do not find any significant relationship with the local government’s use of non-local resources, these findings may associate more precisely with an administrative capacity model. In other words, local governments require expertise to adopt some innovative policies and therefore, the capacity of the bureaucracy may shape policy support (Feiock and West 1993).
Table 6
Logistic Regression of Local Government Factors and Age-Friendly Policy Adoption (N = 70)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>B</th>
<th>(SE)</th>
<th>Odds Ratio</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Community Assessment Plan</td>
<td>-0.71</td>
<td>(0.521)</td>
<td>0.492</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Non-Local Resources</td>
<td>0.748</td>
<td></td>
<td>2.11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Staff Capacity</td>
<td>1.925</td>
<td>(0.866)</td>
<td>0.142*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Training on Aging Needs</td>
<td>1.276</td>
<td>(1.536)</td>
<td>3.518</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Citizen Need&lt;sup&gt;a&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>4.204</td>
<td>(1.68)</td>
<td>66.94*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Local Politician Need&lt;sup&gt;a&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>0.456</td>
<td>(.972)</td>
<td>1.578</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Milken_Forbes City&lt;sup&gt;b&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>3.540</td>
<td>(1.469)</td>
<td>34.44*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Constant</td>
<td>3.675</td>
<td>(1.933)</td>
<td>39.449</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pseudo R&lt;sup&gt;2&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>.554</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-2 Log Likelihood</td>
<td>40.994</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Model X&lt;sup&gt;2&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>28.752</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: B (SE) = unstandardized estimate of the logistic regression coefficient (and its standard error).

<sup>a</sup>Advocacy Coalition the reference group.

<sup>b</sup>Dallas_Fort Worth City is the reference group.

***p ≤ 0.001, **p ≤ 0.01, *p ≤ 0.05 (two-tailed tests)

**Public Entrepreneur Model**

Some cities appear to be innovative in the sense that over 70 percent indicate adoption and implementation of age-friendly policies, given the newness of the age-friendly
terminology in the profession of public administration. For example, ICMA appears to have demonstrated initial support for this topic in 2009 through a partnership with the National Association of Area Agencies on Aging to survey local governments and examine their planning efforts to support an aging population (National Association of Area Agencies on Aging, 2009). Lehning (2012) provides evidence to support a diffusion theory that the presence of a local political entrepreneur increases the likelihood of local government support for policies friendly toward older adults. Thus, the final hypotheses of this research predicts that the presence of public advocacy demonstrated through local political support is related to the frequency of local government policy adoption and policy implementation. The findings in Table 5 indicate a statistically significant relationship between local politician need and the likelihood of policy implementation ($\chi^2 = 5.33, \rho < .05$) (see Table 5). Cities with a locally elected champion on these issues are more likely to implement policies friendly toward older adults. The findings suggest that demand expressed by citizens may provide the support local government leaders need to support new policy directions (Schneider et al., 2011). Moving from adoption to implementation, however, requires an allocation of government resources. Therefore, the significant relationships of both local elected leaders and citizens to policy implementation may suggest that elected officials are able to capture the latent support for new programs and services based on the mobilized demand of citizens (Schneider et al., 2011). In turn, the local elected official is able to credit claim based on the realized benefits to a large interest group in the community (Mayhew, 1974).

However, the logistic regression results in Table 6 do not provide support for the policy adoption hypothesis. The local politician as a policy entrepreneur and predictor of local government policy adoption is not significant. These findings bring to the surface questions on the validity of a diffusion model. The diffusion of policy adoption is a process that is measured over many periods of time to capture early adopters, adopters, and late adopters of innovative policy (Berry & Berry, 1999). However, our research design represents one unit in time.
Therefore, these findings of citizen and local political need may be better explained through interest group influence model or a public entrepreneur model. Evidence has demonstrated that the mobilization of groups can influence city choices (Schumaker, Bolland, & Feiock, 1986).

**CONCLUSION**

This article has examined how three different models expand our understanding about the motivations of local government adoption of age-friendly policies. The finding generally tend to support our argument that a more comprehensive theoretical framework is necessary. We hypothesized that local government factors associated with theories of responsiveness, multi-level governance, and public entrepreneurship influence decisions for adoption and implementation. Our findings bring to the surface that local governments more frequently adopt policies friendly toward older adults when they already trained on important issues related to the needs older adults such as transportation, housing, health, nutrition, and recreation. Additionally, the frequency of adoption is greater when citizens have expressed needs to their jurisdiction. On the other hand, the frequency of policy implementation relates more directly to jurisdiction’s adoption of a community assessment plan on the needs of older adults, influence of citizen need and local politician need.

The findings from this research are important for several reasons. First, we expected to find significant differences between council-manager and mayor council forms of government with regards to implementation and adoption, respectively. However, neither are significant. It is possible that this finding indicates that both forms of government equally consider this issue important. Additionally while we found citizen need as important to both local government policy adoption and implementation the presence of a local political entrepreneur is not significantly associated with policy adoption. The descriptive analysis lends some support to our understanding that the support of a local politician is important to the policy implementation. Policy implementation suggests a commitment
of resources, thus, support of the city council is critical to ensuring budgetary support.

Next, this research also found that cities from the Milken Forbes national list are different from the Dallas-Fort Worth Cities. The descriptive findings suggest that the Milken-Forbes cities are more likely to advance policy adoption but not implementation. This finding may suggest that these cities enjoy the prominence of being identified as places committed to successful aging through taking a position that aging is important, but have not yet committed resources to affect long-term change. This finding presents an opportunity for future research on understanding why these cities do not advance to implementation.

This research has limitations on inference and generalizability due to its purposeful sample design. The study focused on a select sample of cities predetermined to be successful for aging in place and those located in the Dallas-Fort Worth metro area. A difference of means test between the US census averages and the sample means for the characteristics of median household income, total black to the total population, and total white to the total population are significantly different (p<.05). Therefore, the results are not generalizable to a broader population. These cities are different across ethnicity, economic status and education. This exploratory study was designed to understand what characteristics of local governments are relevant to understanding why they adopt certain policies. Therefore, these findings leads us to questions on why affluent cities are making strides. Future research should focus on examining why are there not more cities adopting these policies.
REFERENCES


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