contents

introduction

With this publication we inaugurate a series of annual reports intended to measure conditions and track changes in communities across the greater Philadelphia region (defined as the central cities of Philadelphia and Camden plus the Pennsylvania counties of Bucks, Chester, Delaware and Montgomery, and the New Jersey counties of Burlington, Camden, Gloucester, and Salem). Included in this report are two types of information:

- a set of social, environmental, and economic indicators portraying the quality of life in local communities
- a household survey conducted by Temple's Institute for Survey Research which asks respondents across the region to evaluate the quality of life in their communities.

The indicators we have chosen encompass a wealth of information gathered from dozens of different data sources. They allow us to examine the rich variety of conditions existing in the region's 353 municipalities. Since the city of Philadelphia itself contains widely differing communities, wherever appropriate we have subdivided the city of Philadelphia into the dozen sub-sections used by the Philadelphia City Planning Commission as Planning Analysis Districts. The goal is not to rank communities against each other but to identify emerging strengths and problems. In numerous places, this report compares our region with eight other major metropolitan areas, four of which are flourishing regions that may serve as models (Boston, Chicago, Minneapolis and Phoenix), along with two older industrial areas similar to ours (Detroit and Cleveland), and two regional competitors (Baltimore and Pittsburgh).

The greater Philadelphia region already benefits from many organizations collecting, analyzing, and publishing information about specific dimensions of change in the city of Philadelphia or the region, which some define to include New Jersey while others do not. Their work is issued in different formats and on varying time schedules for a wide range of audiences. This new report brings together in one place a wealth of social, economic and environmental data that will contribute to building civic agendas by providing a common information base for researchers as well as community and regional activists.

Metropolitan Philadelphia Indicators Project (MPIP) is committed to updating, editing and expanding the information that is presented in this report. We welcome input about ways to improve the annual updates of this report, as well as suggested mechanisms to disseminate community indicator information across the region. To see more of the information underlying this report, as well as links to additional information sources, consult our website, (www.temple.edu/mpip).

chapter 1 the region's communities

The Philadelphia region is both a region and a collection of over 350 separate cities, towns, townships, and boroughs, not to mention communities and neighborhoods within those places. While all share in its fortunes and identity, the region is a varied and complex combination of different-sized communities, with varying histories, growth patterns, and general living conditions. The discussion of regional indicators begins by looking at the variety of these communities and the population changes they have experienced in recent years. Communities at the "frontiers" of the region experience significant pressures for development.

indicator 1.1: the region's population centers

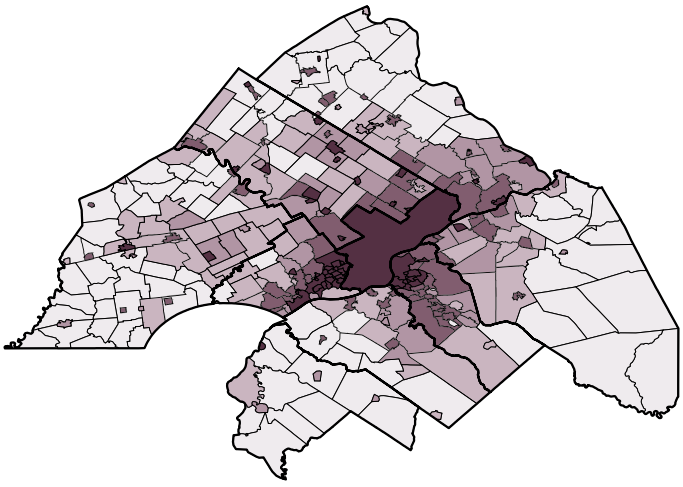
The Philadelphia metropolitan region developed through three different stages and has not yet ended its evolution. Before the middle of the 20th century, the city of Philadelphia was surrounded by both residential suburbs and smaller but very significant manufacturing centers such as Camden, Chester, Coatesville, and Phoenixville. Both suburban and manufacturing centers were bordered by farms and wooded areas. This multi-focused region became a city-centered metropolitan area during the middle years of the 20th century, when a wave of suburban residential development changed the face of the suburbs and the areas of Philadelphia that were still under agricultural or other use, such as the Far Northeast and parts of Southwest Philadelphia. More recently, urban centers have undergone significant population losses, while suburban development has grown to incorporate new employment and commercial centers.

Map 1.1 provides some evidence for this development pattern. Older communities such as Philadelphia, Camden, and Coatesville are among the most densely populated, as are the very earliest suburban communities in Delaware and Camden counties. The least dense communities are located largely on the periphery of the region, while many of the communities that developed in the years immediately after World War II dominate the middle range of population density.

FIGURE 1.1: Density rates in selected metropolitan areas

	density	rank		density	rank
Boston	1,685	10	**Cleveland**	832	39
Chicago	1,634	13	**Pittsburgh**	510	82
Philadelphia	1,323	17	**Minneapolis**	490	88
Detroit	1,140	25	**Phoenix**	223	192
Baltimore	979	33			

One way of assessing the region's overall well-being is through comparisons with other metropolitan areas. The Philadelphia region is among the more densely populated regions in the United States. It is third in the comparison group of eight other metropolitan areas, and is 17th in a ranking of all metropolitan areas in the country (Figure 1.1). The specific metropolitan areas identified in this figure were purposely selected to provide a sense of other regional centers (Baltimore & Pittsburgh), "relatively prosperous" areas (Boston as an exemplar of economic rebound, Phoenix as a rapid growth, Chicago as a large metropolitan area, Minneapolis as a two-city, geographically sprawling region) and older manufacturing regions (Cleveland and Detroit).



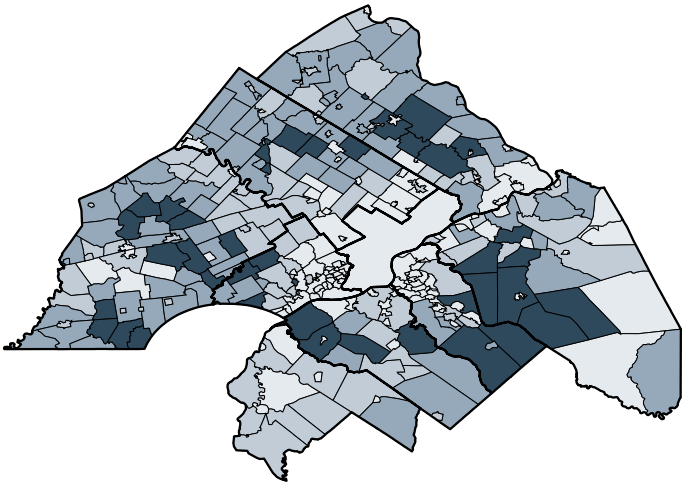
MAP 1.1: Population density per square mile

< 500 | 500 - 1,499 | 1,500 - 2,499 | 2,500 - 4,999 | ≥ 5,000

indicator 1.2: uneven growth, 1970–2000

As Map 1.2 indicates, the region has shown dramatic changes in community growth and decline. While significant declines have occurred in Philadelphia and in older urban centers, newer communities in the region have demonstrated very strong growth rates, some more than tripling their population, such as Evesham and Montgomery Townships. The fact that many of the highest-growth communities had very small numbers in 1970 (such as Rose Valley, PA), may account for exaggerated over 300 percent growth rates. The areas of greatest growth demonstrate a pattern of continued expansion in suburban areas, and limited growth in older communities in the region. Many of the older manufacturing centers, such as Chester, Camden, and Philadelphia have experienced decline, but so also have some suburban communities whose traditional employment and residential centers have disappeared (e.g., Wrightstown, NJ, which was heavily dependent on Fort Dix).

The Philadelphia region itself has grown, but at a much slower pace than many other metropolitan areas. Both older manufacturing cities and a more recent developing metropolitan area, Phoenix, have shown substantial growth (Figure 1.2).



MAP 1.2: Population change in percent, 1970 - 2000

-88 - 0 | 1 - 50 | 51 - 150 | 151 - 780

FIGURE 1.2: Population change, 1970-2000, in selected metropolitan areas

	population	percent change		population	percent change
Phoenix	3,252,000	214%	**Cleveland**	2,251,000	4%
Minneapolis	2,969,000	47	**Philadelphia**	5,101,000	4
Boston	3,407,000	25	**Detroit**	4,442,000	-1
Baltimore	2,553,000	22	**Pittsburgh**	2,359,000	-12
Chicago	8,273,000	18			

indicator 1.3: community variety in history, economics and residential choices

The Philadelphia region's 353 separate communities represent a wide variety of different population and physical sizes, income levels, and histories. Using a cluster analysis of housing, socioeconomic, and household characteristics, we created a typology of five kinds of communities. In addition to the other 352 municipalities, we divided the city into its twelve Planning Analysis Districts. A full description of the items used to develop these clusters can be found in the Technical Appendix; they include composition variables. The resulting clusters of communities are represented in Map 1.3.

The category of "Struggling Older Communities" includes many of the region's former centers of manufacturing strength, now largely in decline, such as Marcus Hook, Camden, and many sections of Philadelphia. "Solid Older Communities" are older in terms of their housing stock but are more economically stable, such as Narberth and Cheltenham. In many ways, the substantial reconfiguration of Center City Philadelphia makes that community similar, in many respects, to these suburban centers. Similarly, what we call "Working Class Communities" incorporate two other areas of Philadelphia (Roxborough/Manayunk and the Far Northeast), as well as many of the region's inner-ring suburbs.

"Affluent Suburbs," such as Mount Laurel, NJ and Lower Gwynedd, PA are located not on the periphery of the region but are more central. "Middle Class Suburbs," such as Berlin or Hatfield Townships, are found throughout the region.

The typology mirrors trends in the regional income distribution, as Figure 1.3 demonstrates. There is a more than fourfold increase in the proportion of households with an income over $75,000 as one moves from the older communities of the region to more affluent suburbs.

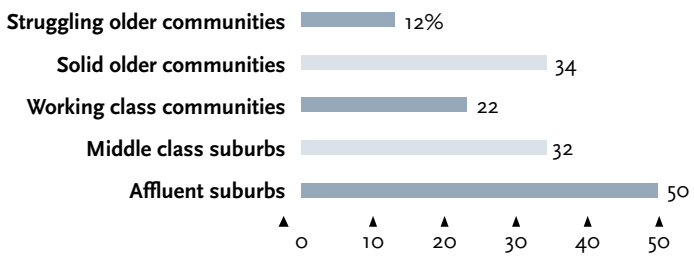
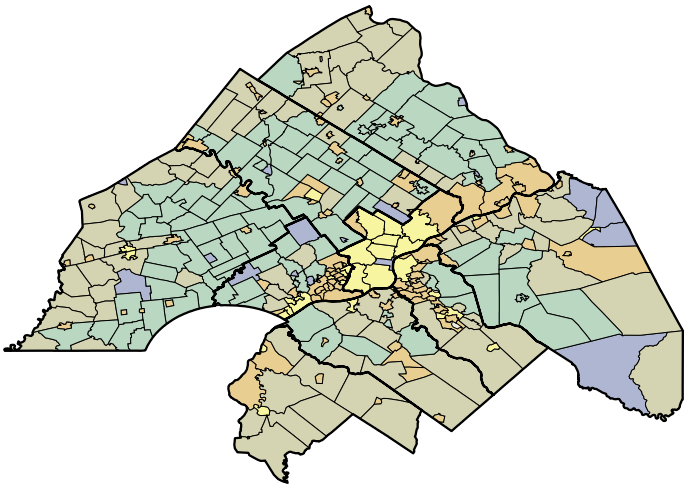


FIGURE 1.3: Households with an income of $75,000 or more

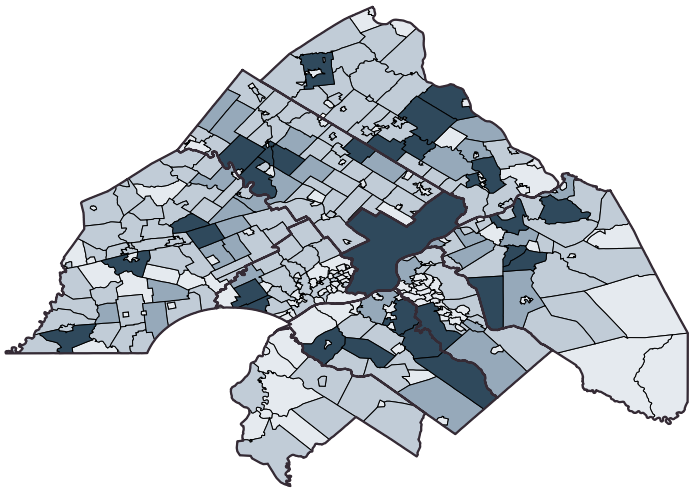


MAP 1.3: Community types

struggling older communities | solid older communities | working class communities | middle class suburbs | affluent suburbs

indicator 1.4: housing construction permits

One of the key indications of community growth is evidence of increased housing construction. This was tracked by using information about residential construction permits, collected monthly and annually by the U.S. Census Bureau. While this information refers only to permits for construction, not actual units produced, it nonetheless serves as a key indicator of growth and change in the communities of the region. As Map 1.4 shows (the average number of permits per year, 2000–2002), both established urban centers such as Philadelphia and Camden, and others in Bucks, Burlington, Chester, Gloucester, and Montgomery counties are experiencing significant construction activity.



MAP 1.4: Permits issued for new construction
low (≤ 8/yr) average (9-67/yr)
above average (68-125/yr) high (≥ 126/yr)

Figure 1.4 examines how the Philadelphia region compares to other areas, many of which have been experiencing substantial population growth. Boston's development appears to be slowing, at least in terms of new residential construction, but Philadelphia, along with Cleveland and Detroit, have modest levels of new residential construction. Phoenix's explosive population growth curve and the substantial population growth in the Baltimore, Chicago, and Minneapolis regions, are reflected in those areas' high levels of residential construction activity.

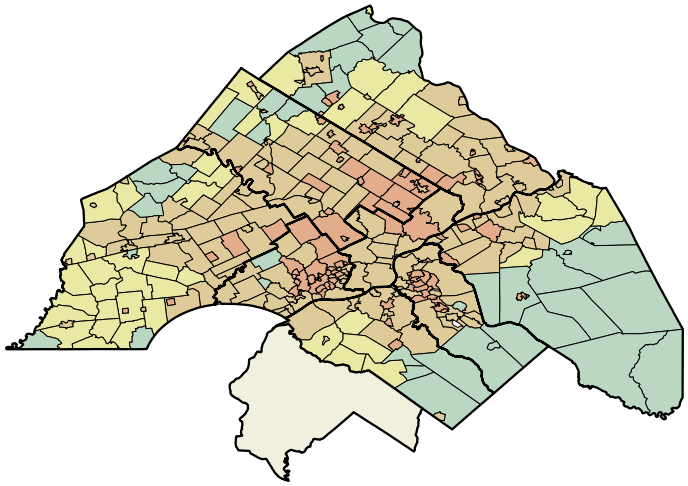
FIGURE 1.4: Residential housing permits and permits/1000 housing units in selected metropolitan areas

	housing permits	permits/1000 housing units
Phoenix	40,364	34
Minneapolis	18,582	16
Chicago	31,940	11
Baltimore	9,330	10
Detroit	14,971	9
Cleveland	6,916	8
Philadelphia	13,678	7
Pittsburgh	5,587	6
Boston	5,350	4

indicator 1.5: development pressure points

Another perspective on regional change is to examine the areas that will be under the greatest pressure to develop. Map 1.5 indicates that the communities in the region with the greatest amount of agricultural or wooded land—areas that might fall under development pressure if people found them to be residentially desirable—lie at the most distant points from the center of the region. As subsequent chapters show, job locations, transportation preferences, and environmental considerations may lead to increased attention on these communities in the future.

Our regional household survey asked respondents about the reasons underlying their residential choices. As Figure 1.5 indicates, respondents gave a variety of reasons for moving to their current location, including a mixture of personal (friends, family, convenience, church, liked the house, familiar with the area), economic (close to work, housing costs), educational, and environmental (openness of area, proximity to natural areas).



MAP 1.5: Primary land usage

mixed use | high agriculture | high wooded | high residential | no data

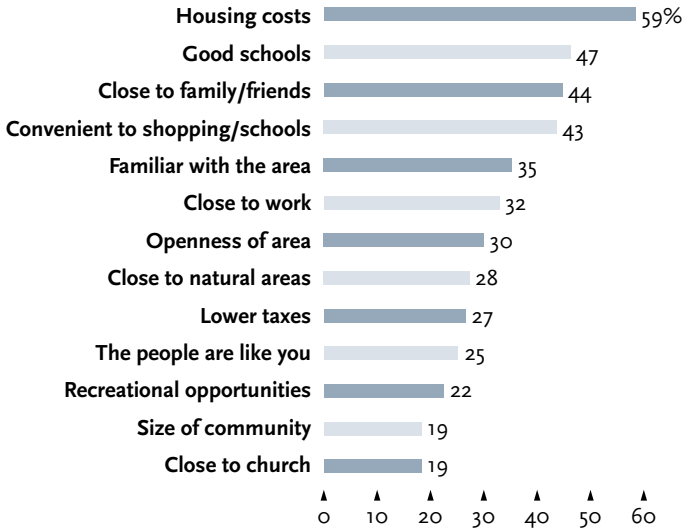


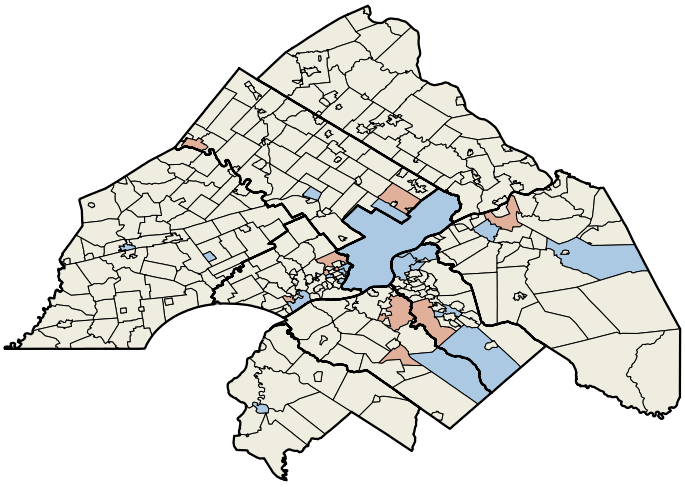
FIGURE 1.5: Reasons for move

chapter 2 diversity

With increasingly diverse populations, the nation's large metropolitan areas must offer residential choices to people with different cultures, nationalities, languages, and religions. Like many of its peer regions, the greater Philadelphia region no longer conforms to the conventional view of central cities as "melting pots," surrounded by homogeneous suburbs. This chapter demonstrates that, increasingly, the suburbs are home to minorities and foreign-born populations, while some sections of Philadelphia are dominated by native-born residents.

indicator 2.1: African-American populations in suburban communities

African Americans are suburbanizing rapidly. During the decade of the 1990s, the percentage of the region's Black population choosing to live in the suburbs increased from 27 to 32 percent–an increase of 70,000 people. However, this population has not dispersed evenly throughout the suburbs. Map 2.1 shows the fifteen suburban communities that were home to substantial African-American populations in 1990, and the eight suburbs that had gained substantial African-American communities by 2000. We define "substantial" as at least 3,000 African-American residents comprising more than 10 percent of the community's total population.



MAP 2.1: Municipalities with substantial African-American populations* in both 1990 and 2000 gains substantially between 1990 to 2000

** "substantial" defined as at least 3,000 African American residents comprising over 10% of the community population*

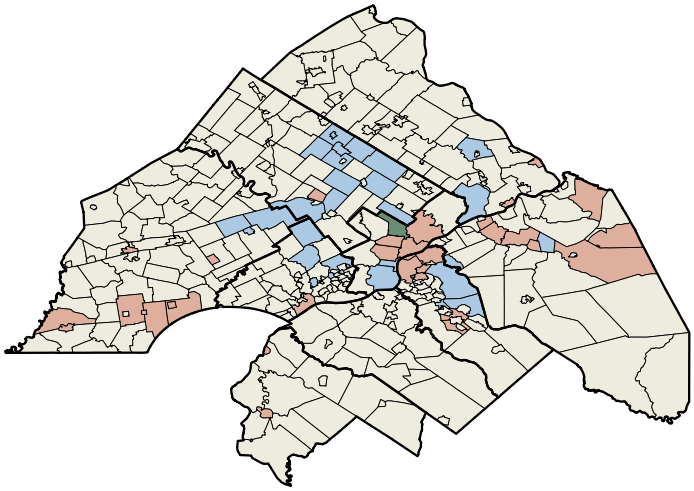
FIGURE 2.1: Black-White segregation in selected metropolitan areas

	black population	white population	total population	index of dissimilarity
Baltimore	712,002	1,692,851	2,552,994	68
Boston	247,675	2,725,194	3,405,985	66
Chicago	1,575,173	4,798,533	8,272,768	81
Cleveland	425,722	1,697,660	2,250,871	77
Detroit	1,037,674	3,096,900	4,411,551	85
Minneapolis	180,006	2,514,494	2,968,806	58
Philadelphia	1,040,144	3,583,090	5,100,931	72
Phoenix	127,227	2,140,171	3,251,876	44
Pittsburgh	200,229	2,100,501	2,358,695	67

One way of measuring the extent of Black/White segregation in the region is the "Index of Dissimilarity," a number that represents the percentage of either racial group that would have to move to a different census tract in order to make Blacks and Whites evenly distributed throughout the metropolitan area. A higher number indicates a more segregated metropolitan region. Figure 2.1 compares Black-White segregation in nine metropolitan areas, showing that despite the movement of significant numbers of African Americans into the suburbs (and despite the overall decline in segregation across many metropolitan areas), greater Philadelphia and its peer regions continue to show high levels of separation between Blacks and Whites. Regions with lower levels of segregation also have a lower proportion of African Americans in their metropolitan areas.

indicator 2.2: Latino populations in communities

In the United States as a whole, Latinos represent the fastest-growing minority group. Their share of the national population (slightly over 12 percent) is comparable to that of African Americans. Since the census reports Latino ethnicity independently of race, persons of Latino origin may be of any race. Compared to the nation as a whole, Latinos are underrepresented in greater Philadelphia, where they comprise only five percent of the region's population. While this is a far smaller percentage than that found in metropolitan regions of the Sunbelt, it is comparable to other older industrial metropolitan regions of the Northeastern and North Central states (see Figure 2.2).



MAP 2.2: Communities with 5% or more Latino and Asian populations
Latino Asian Latino/Asian

Originally composed almost entirely of Puerto Ricans, our region's Latino population is now far more diverse, with representations from Mexico, the Dominican Republic, and Central and South America. Map 2.2 shows Latino clusters (in which more than five percent of the community population is Latino, including both foreign-born and native-born residents) in North Philadelphia, Kensington, and the city of Camden, as well as in the directly adjacent community of Pennsauken, NJ. Other important clusters are located in more distant suburbs, especially in several communities surrounding Kennett Square in Chester County, where Mexicans predominate, and in a group of towns in Burlington County where Puerto Ricans are the largest Latino group.

FIGURE 2.2a: Latino populations in selected metropolitan areas

Baltimore	2 %	**Minneapolis**	3 %
Boston	6	**Philadelphia**	5
Chicago	17	**Phoenix**	25
Cleveland	3	**Pittsburgh**	1
Detroit	3		

indicator 2.3: Asian-American populations in communities

Asian Americans comprise four percent of the region's population. The largest nationality groups in this region are Vietnamese, Chinese, and Indians, with strong representations from Korea and Cambodia as well. Figure 2.3a confirms that percentage is comparable to other metropolitan regions of the Northeastern and North Central states.

Asian Americans are well known across the U.S. for settling in suburbs at higher rates than other minorities. Map 2.2 (on the previous page) shows the communities in which more than five percent of the population is Asian (including both foreign-born and native-born residents). They have chosen to live in a few suburbs adjoining Philadelphia, particularly Cheltenham Township and Bensalem to the north and east of Philadelphia, and Upper Darby and Marple near the western edge of the city. Farther out, Asian Americans are concentrated at the intersection of Delaware, Chester, and Montgomery Counties, along Rt. 202 in Plymouth, Upper Merion, Tredyffrin, East Whiteland, and Radnor. Another group of towns in central Montgomery County contains many Asian Americans, as does a group in Camden County.

Asian and Latino clusters do not usually occur in the same locations (see Figure 2.3b). Only in Philadelphia (Olney/Oak Lane, see Map 2.2) do both groups contribute at least five percent of the total population. Elsewhere in the region, the two ethnic groups are clustered in different communities. Among Philadelphia's peer metropolitan regions, only Chicago, Cleveland, and Detroit exhibit a more marked segregation between Asian and Latino households.

FIGURE 2.3a: Asian populations in selected metropolitan areas

Baltimore	3%
Boston	5
Chicago	5
Cleveland	2
Detroit	3
Minneapolis	5
Philadelphia	4
Phoenix	3
Pittsburgh	1

FIGURE 2.3b Latino-Asian segregation in selected metropolitan areas

	index of dissimilarity*
Baltimore	34
Boston	51
Chicago	63
Cleveland	61
Detroit	59
Minneapolis	38
Philadelphia	56
Phoenix	51
Pittsburgh	41

See p. 12 for explanation of "index of dissimilarity"

indicator 2.4: foreign-born populations in the region

Immigrants were the main contributors to population increases in the nation's central cities during the 1990s, as American-born households moved out of cities. Philadelphia is trailing slightly behind the nation as a whole in attracting immigrants. While 10 percent of the U.S. population in 2000 immigrated from other countries, only seven percent of our region's people were foreign-born. This region straddles two states that have experienced divergent trends in recent decades. Although the state of New Jersey has steadily increased its foreign-born numbers since the 1970s, Pennsylvania has lost foreign-born residents faster than any other big industrial state. In 2000, immigrants comprised 15 percent of New Jersey's population, but only three percent of Pennsylvania's.

While the Philadelphia metropolitan area lags behind some of its peer regions like Boston, Chicago, and Phoenix, whose foreign-born percentages are in double digits, our region's experience is hardly unique. Other older industrial cities in the Northeastern and North Central states are attracting only modest shares of the immigration flow into the U.S. (see Figure 2.4a).

The composition of Philadelphia's foreign-born population differs from the national pattern. By far the largest share of immigrants coming into the nation has come from Mexico, and Central and South America. Residents born in those places represent a much smaller proportion of our region's foreign-born population. Instead, our region draws above-average percentages of immigrants from Asia and Europe (Figure 2.4b).

FIGURE 2.4a: Foreign-born as percent of population in selected metropolitan areas

	central cities	suburbs	metro areas
Baltimore	5%	6%	6%
Boston	24	12	15
Chicago	21	15	17
Cleveland	4	6	5
Detroit	7	8	8
Minneapolis	14	5	7
Philadelphia	9	6	7
Phoenix	16	10	14
Pittsburgh	6	2	3

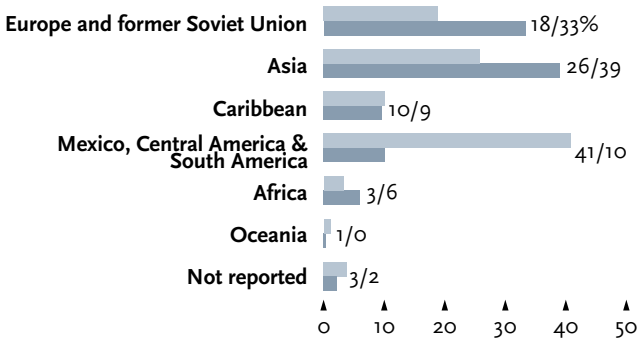


FIGURE 2.4b: Nationalities as percent of foreign born
United States Philadelphia

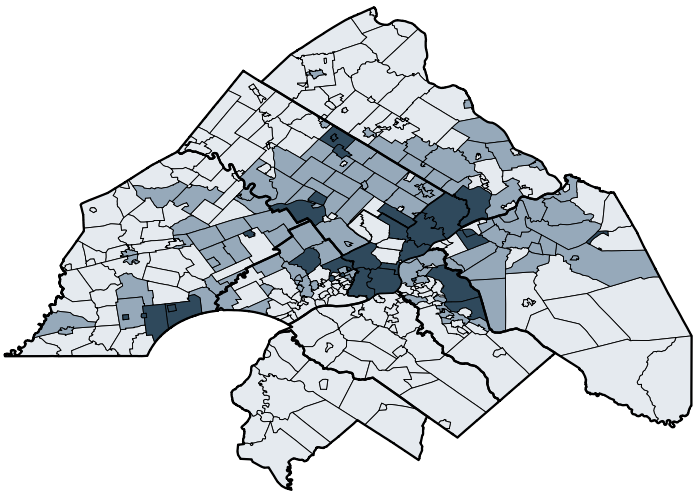
indicator 2.4: foreign-born populations in the region (cont.)

In earlier historical periods, first-generation immigrants chose to live in central cities upon their arrival. Now many foreign-born migrants are moving directly into communities scattered across the region. During the 1990s, suburban communities gained about 69,000 foreign-born residents, compared to a gain of only about 36,000 in Philadelphia and Camden. As a result, a disproportionate share (60 percent) of the region's total foreign-born population now live outside the cities of Philadelphia and Camden. This is a national trend. In four of our peer regions, an even higher proportion of immigrants have bypassed the cities in order to settle in the suburbs (Figure 2.4c).

Map 2.4 shows municipalities in which more than five percent of the population is foreign-born. Concentrations of foreign-born newcomers live in Olney/Oak Lane and Northeast Philadelphia, a pattern that extends into Bensalem and Cheltenham in Pennsylvania, and into Riverside and Delran in New Jersey. In Camden County, immigrants are particularly drawn to Cherry Hill and Voorhees. In Montgomery County, a cluster of communities (Hatfield Borough and Hatfield Township as well as Lansdale) is now home to a predominantly Asian population of newcomers, while Asians also dominate the foreign-born population of Upper Merion. In contrast, Latinos are most heavily represented among Norristown's foreign-born.

FIGURE 2.4c: Metropolitan regions' foreign-born residents who lived in the suburbs

Baltimore	77%	**Minneapolis**	54%
Boston	58	**Philadelphia**	60
Chicago	50	**Phoenix**	25
Cleveland	78	**Pittsburgh**	70
Detroit	77		



MAP 2.4: Foreign born population

< 5% 5 - 10 > 11

indicator 2.5: foreign-born populations with college degrees

Greater Philadelphia ranks favorably in the educational attainment of its foreign-born residents. Figure 2.5a shows that the proportion of holders of college degrees is actually higher among foreign born than for the metropolitan population as a whole.

The rate of naturalization is often considered a sign of stability signaling the permanent contributions that international immigrants make to the receiving community. Metropolitan Philadelphia is gaining far fewer naturalized citizens annually than major magnet regions like Boston and Chicago. It is also performing less well than several other peer metros, measured by naturalizations per 10,000 regional population (Figure 2.5b).

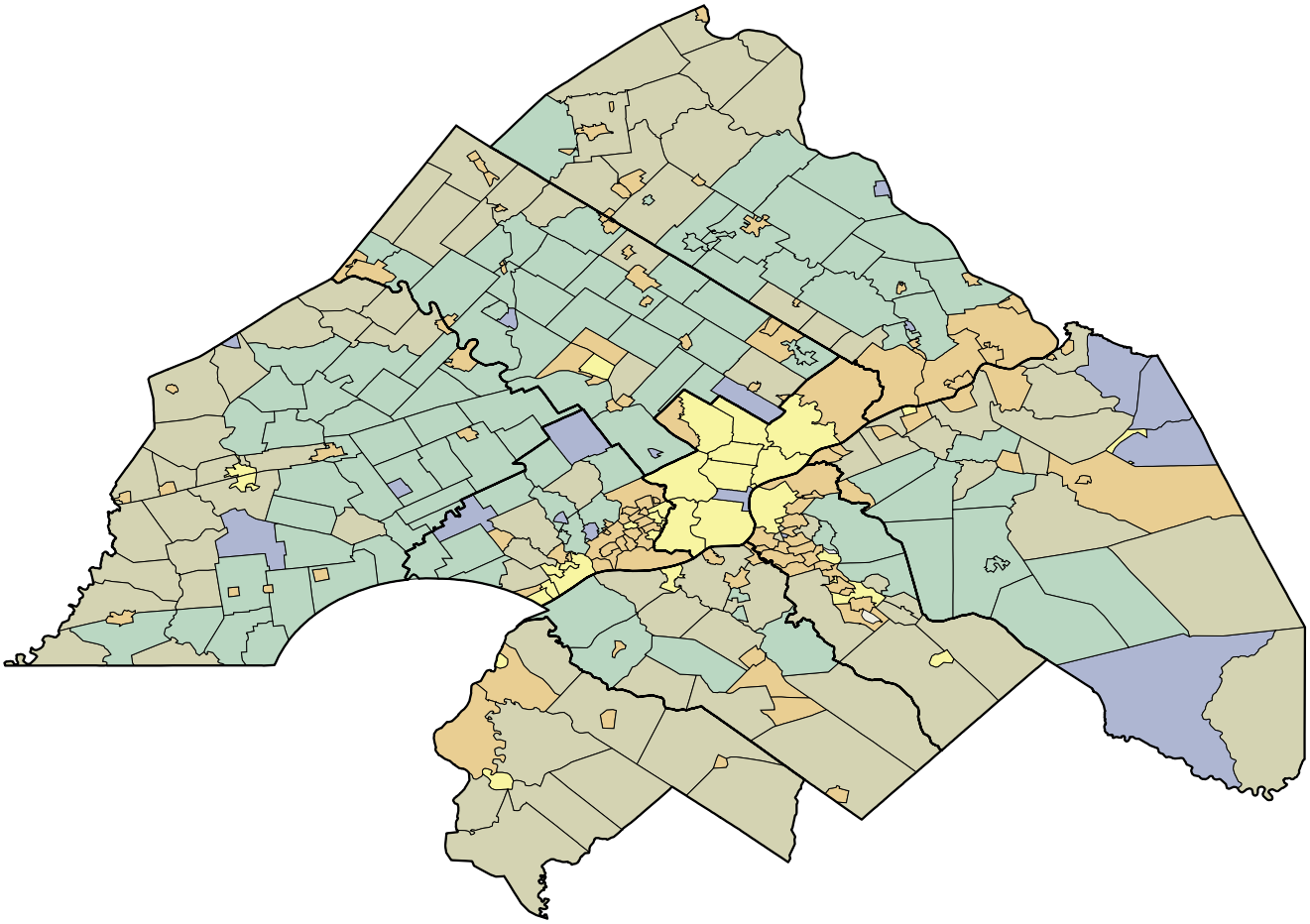
FIGURE 2.5a: Foreign-born with BA degree or higher in selected metropolitan areas

	foreign born	region as a whole
Baltimore	30%	29%
Boston	33	39
Chicago	26	30
Cleveland	35	23
Detroit	34	23
Minneapolis	35	33
Philadelphia	34	28
Phoenix	19	25
Pittsburgh	50	24

FIGURE 2.5b: Immigrants naturalized in selected metropolitan areas

	total	per 10,000 population
Baltimore	1,471	6
Boston	12,145	36
Chicago	30,087	36
Detroit	4,435	10
Minneapolis	5,070	17
Philadelphia	6,300	12
Phoenix	5,827	18

the region's community types



MAP 1.3: Community types

struggling older communities | solid older communities
working class communities
middle class suburbs | affluent suburbs

chapter 3 family well-being

Whatever their configuration, families provide nurturing, care, support, and a safe haven for their members. Families bear the primary responsibility for the next generation. Family ties provide countless benefits to adults, particularly to elderly family members. The well-being of this fundamental social institution is critical to the quality of life in our region. As new definitions of the family are emerging and the composition of households is changing, community planners must consider the effects on the demand for housing and services as well as the tax base. This section explores the make-up of the region's families and related challenges and support.

indicator 3.1: married couples with children

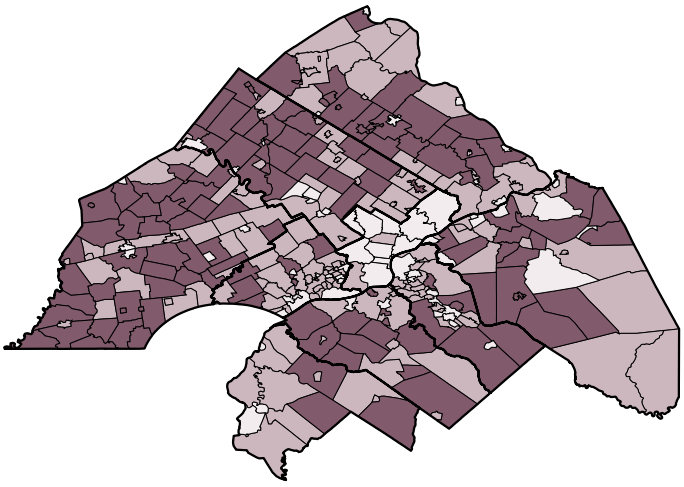
These days traditional families composed of two parents raising children are far outnumbered by other types of households. Philadelphia's relatively small immigrant population, compared to many other central cities, has contributed to lower-than-average percentages of married couples with children (since immigrants are more likely than native-born residents to form traditional households) (Map 3.1). Although we may be accustomed to thinking the suburbs are filled with traditional families, the reality is that even in the suburbs, such families no longer comprise a majority of households (See Figure 3.1).

FIGURE 3.1 Family type in the Philadelphia region

	Philadelphia	suburbs
Married with children*	14%	26%
Married without children	19	30
Other families with children	14	7
Other families without children	14	7
Non-family households	40	29

**Sons or daughters under 18 years of age*

The effects on communities are significant, since much of our suburban housing stock and social service system has been built to serve two-parent households. Support for public education may be significantly affected by the fact that families with children, whether married couples or single parents, now comprise less than one-third of the households in either the city or the suburbs.

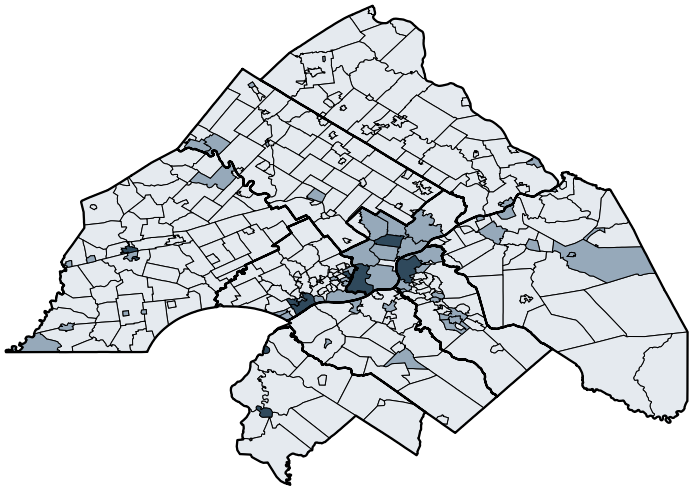


MAP 3.1: Married couples with children, as a percent of all households

< 20% 20 - 30 > 30

indicator 3.2: single-parent families with children under 18

Single-parent families are common, especially in Philadelphia and Camden. There are also high concentrations of single-parent families outside these two core cities, particularly in the older river towns of Delaware County and in communities adjoining Camden. Of necessity, most single heads of families must work. Competing with two-earner families for housing units, they typically devote a higher proportion of their monthly income to housing than do couples. This leaves them with less money to buy services, and therefore a greater need to rely on publicly supported services like public transportation to get to work, health clinics, public parks, swimming pools, libraries, and recreational programming for their children. Yet the low- and moderate-income communities containing substantial concentrations of single-parent families have relatively weak tax bases, making it hard to provide working single parents with the services they need. In some cases, working poor families struggle harder than non-working families because they do not qualify for subsidized health care or child care. Map 3.2 shows that in most of the suburbs, single-parent families comprise a much smaller proportion of households.



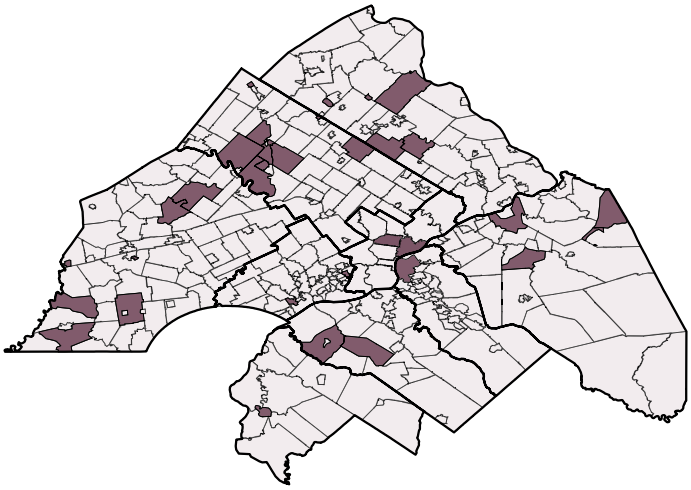
MAP 3.2: Single-parent families with children under 18, as a percent of all households

< 10% 10 - 20 > 20

indicator 3.3: population aged 5 and under

Although the core cities of Philadelphia and Camden have lost many families with school-age children, two sections of Philadelphia (Kensington and Upper North Philadelphia) and the city of Camden show high concentrations of pre-school children, as new waves of immigrants have moved there (see Map 3.3). Among new immigrant minorities (Latinos in particular), married couples with children are prevalent and birth rates are higher than in the population as a whole. Few communities within the inner-suburban ring show similarly high concentrations of very young children. Camden and Delaware counties together contain almost no communities where pre-school children comprise 10 percent or more of the population. Beyond the inner ring, however, we see numerous communities with significant populations of children under 5.

Asked whether obtaining affordable, quality day care is a serious problem for them, respondents gave different answers, depending on their location (Figure 3.3). As a whole, only 10 percent cited inadequate day care as a serious problem. However, those living in the Struggling Older Communities were far more likely to perceive it as a serious problem.



MAP 3.3: Population aged 5 and under
< 10% ≥ 10%

FIGURE 3.3. Residents reporting that obtaining affordable, quality daycare is a serious problem

Struggling older communities	23%
Solid older communities	6
Working class communities	7
Middle class suburbs	6
Affluent suburbs	2

indicator 3.4: communities with substantial elderly populations

Both Philadelphia and Pennsylvania are known to have aging populations, compared to other regions of the country. Of eight peer cities, only the city of Pittsburgh contains a higher percentage of residents age 65 and older than does Philadelphia (Figure 3.4).

Baby boomers who began buying houses in the suburbs in the mid-1970s are now in their sixties. As they age, they are significantly changing the character of both their urban and suburban neighborhoods. Particularly in the suburbs, many communities that were built for working families will face a significant challenge in meeting the needs of elderly residents—especially those living alone—for medical and social services such as rides, home visits, and help with chores.

That challenge is most urgent where senior citizens are living in poverty. Map 3.4 shows a substantial presence of elderly citizens in northeast Philadelphia and lower Montgomery County, as well as in eastern Delaware County. We define "substantial" as at least 500 residents age 65 or older, comprising 15 percent or more of the community's total population. The communities in the darkest color face the particular challenge of addressing poverty among seniors, since 10 percent or more of their senior citizens live in poverty.

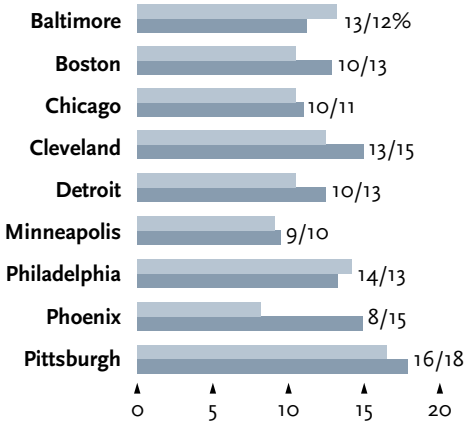
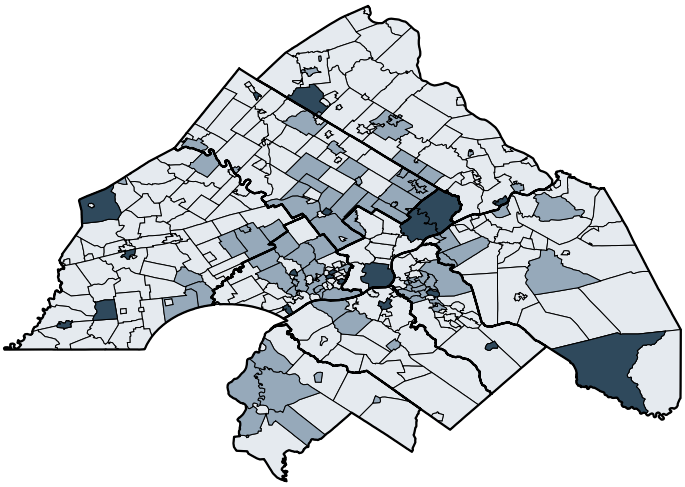


FIGURE 3.4: Population over 65 years of age in selected metropolitan areas
% of city % of region



MAP 3.4: Communities with substantial elderly population*
substantial elderly population that is < 10% poor
substantial elderly population that is > 10% poor

** "Substantial" defined as at least 500 elderly persons, comprising at least 15% of the community population.*

indicator 3.5: perceptions of safety

One of the most important needs of all households is for a safe living environment where both crime and the fear of crime are kept under control. Our household survey revealed dramatically different attitudes toward crime and safety in different types of communities. Over half the residents in all communities feel safe in their neighborhoods during the day, although the percentage in the Struggling Older Communities is substantially lower than in the rest of the region (Figure 3.5a). In all community types, many fewer residents feel safe being out alone in the neighborhood at night (Figure 3.5b). In most community types, the percent "completely satisfied" with their personal safety (Figure 3.5c) exceeds the percent who feel safe at night. Apparently, for many people across the region, wariness about being out at night does not detract from their overall satisfaction. (See Chapter 14 of this report for data on crime rates in the region.)

In some communities, even school buildings are not perceived as completely safe environments for children. Asked whether they have heard about children in their neighborhood being afraid to attend school because other students might hurt them, more residents of the Struggling Older Communities said "yes" than in any other community type (Figure 3.5d). However, it is worth noting that over one quarter of respondents had heard about such problems in both the Working Class Communities and the Solid Older Communities.

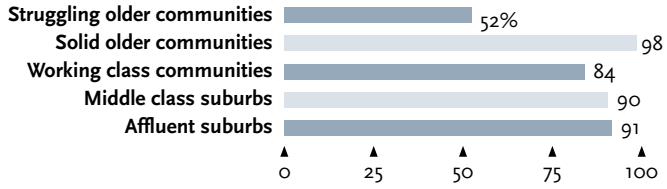


FIGURE 3.5a: Feel "very safe" being out alone in their neighborhood during the day

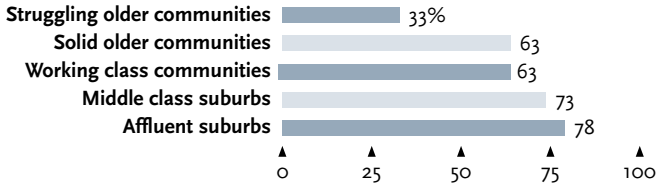


FIGURE 3.5c: Are "completely satisfied" with their personal safety in their neighborhood

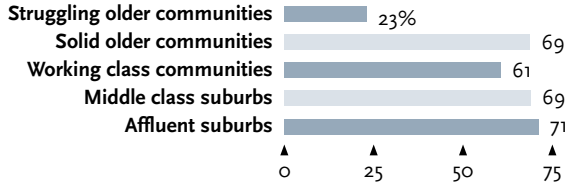


FIGURE 3.5b: Feel "very safe" being out alone in their neighborhood at night

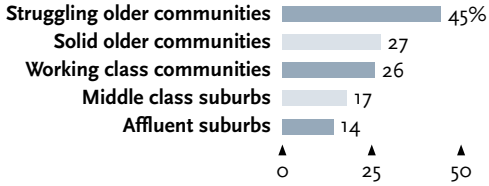
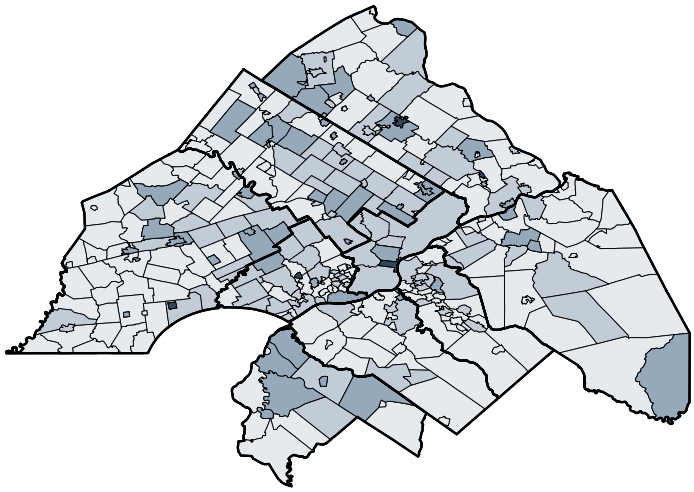


FIGURE 3.5d: Have heard of students "afraid of being hurt at school"

indicator 3.6: available human services

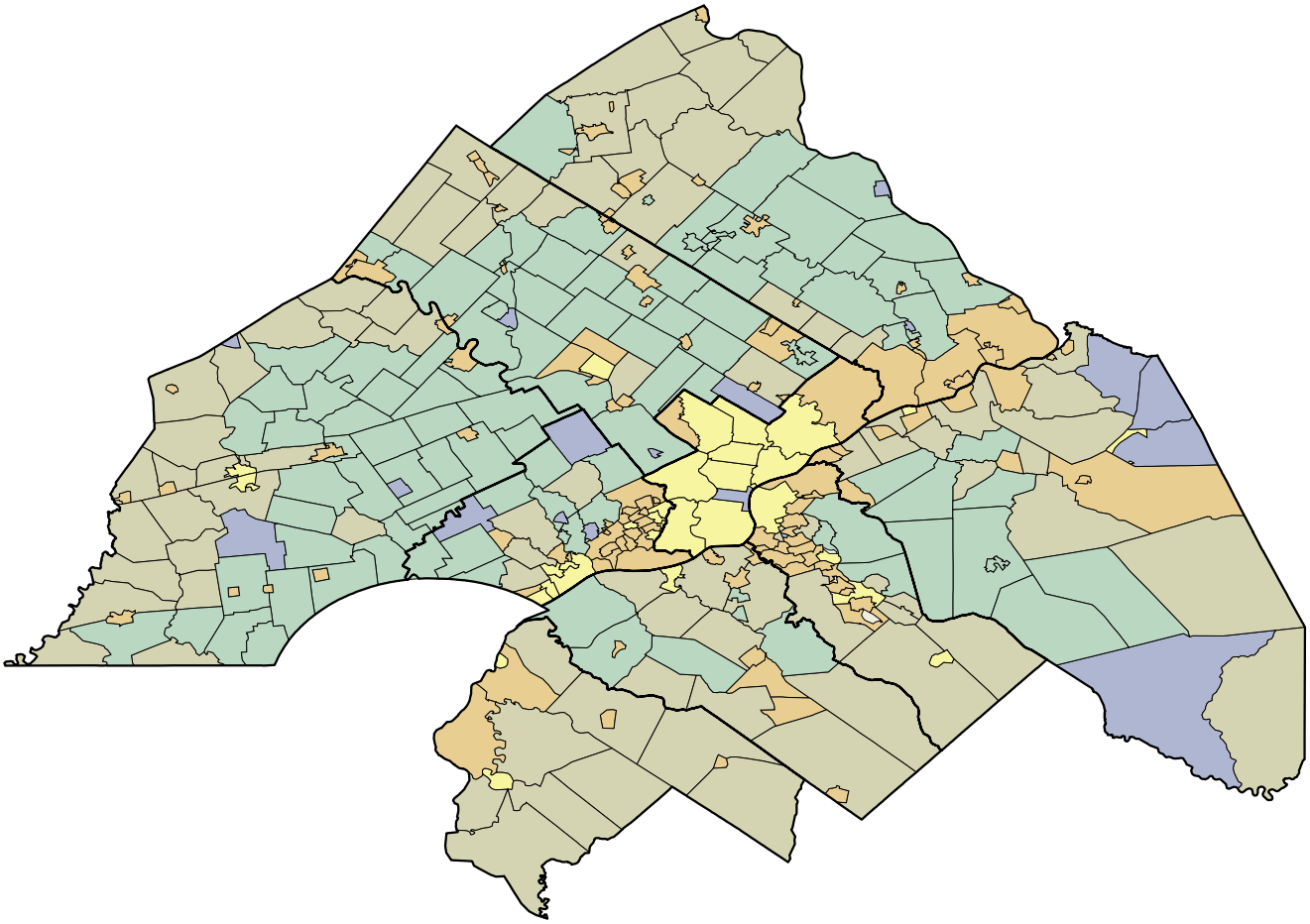
The youngest and oldest community members often depend more heavily on community services than do adults aged 21 to 64. Families with only one parent may need to call upon service providers to help care for children or other family members. Map 3.6 shows that nonprofit agencies, which supply a significant share of health and human services, are heavily concentrated in Center City and North Philadelphia. However, many other communities around the region also appear to be well-served, for example by service clusters in the towns of Media and Kennett Square, southwest of the city, and Langhorne and Doylestown, to the northeast. In the middle band of suburbs (located between the inner suburbs and the outer edge of the region), there is a surprisingly large number of nonprofit organizations. With the highest average incomes in the region, residents of these communities would appear to depend less than other communities on nonprofit services. It may be that the agency locations were chosen based on transportation access for large geographic areas rather than on convenience for nearby residents. Significant portions of Burlington and Gloucester counties appear underserved, as is the western side of Chester County.



MAP 3.6: Nonprofit health and human service organizations per 10,000 residents

< 2 | 2 - 4.9 | 5 - 19.9 | ≥20

the region's community types



MAP 1.3: Community types

struggling older communities | solid older communities
working class communities
middle class suburbs | affluent suburbs

chapter 4 socioeconomic conditions

Despite the increasing diversity of metropolitan areas and the municipalities and communities within them, income differences and preferences for different kinds of housing and lifestyles typically create significant segregation by socioeconomic status, which overlays the racial segregation described in Chapter 2. This chapter explores the issue of the separation of socioeconomic status groups through an examination of the distribution of income and education within the region.

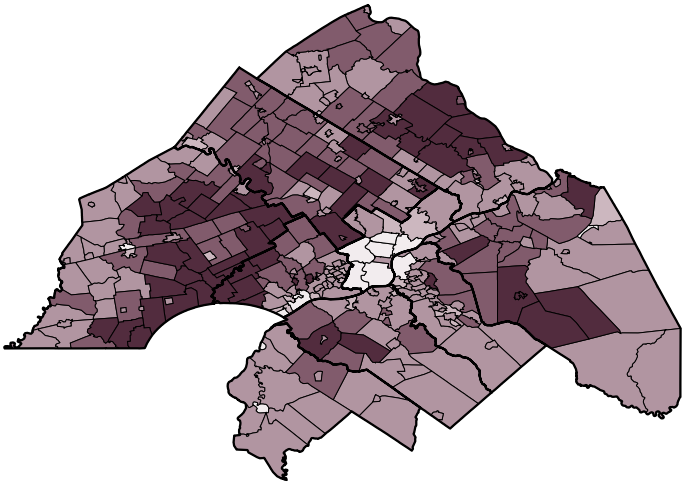
indicator 4.1: household income

Map 4.1 shows that the distribution of median household incomes tends to follow the typology of communities introduced in Chapter 1. Median incomes range from $19,553 in Upper North Philadelphia to $130,096 in Birmingham Township, Chester County, an amount almost seven times greater. The lowest incomes are in the Struggling Older Communities like Chester, Salem City, and Upper North Philadelphia. The highest are in the Affluent Suburbs such as Lower Merion and Birmingham Townships. However, incomes do not rise with an increase in distance from the city. Inner ring suburbs, which are often portrayed as at risk, show a wide range of incomes and represent a more heterogeneous group than some have thought. In Pennsylvania, the highest median incomes roughly follow Rt. 202 from the Delaware River to the Delaware border, but in New Jersey, there are fewer high income communities and they are more dispersed.

Relative to its peer metropolitan areas, Philadelphia lies fourth in median household incomes at $56,800, behind Boston, Minneapolis, and Chicago (see Figure 4.1). A region's rate of growth seems unrelated to household income levels.

FIGURE 4.1: Median household income in selected metropolitan areas

Baltimore	$55,500	**Minneapolis**	$64,090
Boston	66,000	**Philadelphia**	56,800
Chicago	59,330	**Phoenix**	51,000
Cleveland	51,000	**Pittsburgh**	44,600
Detroit	56,500		

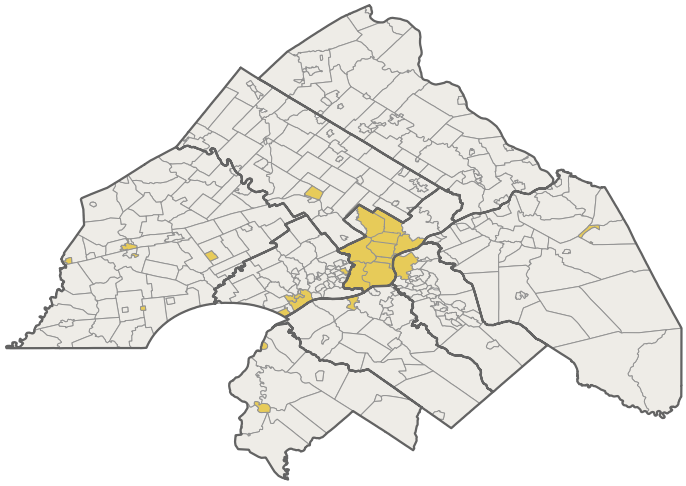


MAP 4.1: Median household income by community

$19,553 - 30,000 $30,001 - 40,000 $40,001 - 60,000
$60,001 - 75,000 $75,001 - 130,096

indicator 4.2: poverty levels

The median income levels discussed above mask the situation of communities that lie at the extremes of the distribution. At the low end, communities with high levels of poverty face multiple problems of reinvestment and revitalization and require persistent and enduring redevelopment efforts. But research on high poverty places has focused on high poverty neighborhoods within them, and no standard definition exists for a high poverty community larger than a census tract. As a result, Map 4.2 portrays the 25 communities with the highest levels of poverty and a population greater than 1,000 in 1990 and 2000. Nine are communities within the city of Philadelphia, but others—e.g., such as Norristown and Coatesville and those that lie along the Delaware River—are former manufacturing centers that have yet to find new sources of employment.



MAP 4.2: Twenty-five communities with highest levels of poverty and populations of more than 1,000 residents

indicator 4.3: change in poverty in communities with highest 1990 levels

The 1990s represented a sustained period of economic growth that saw poverty decline nationally from 13.1 to 12.4 percent. To describe the consequences of the 90s for the re gion's communities, Figure 4.3 lists the 25 communities with a population of more than 1,000 in both 1990 and 2000 that had the highest levels of poverty in 1990 and examines their fortunes in 2000. The table reveals a mixed picture decreasing poverty in 10 communities, increasing in 13, and no change in 2. Overall, change was modest: the median de crease was 2.9 percent and the median increase was 3.7 pe cent. Yet this comparison understates the growth of poverty in the suburbs; considering only poverty in 2000, Norristown, Atglen, and Colwyn enter the top 25 each with about 17 per cent of their populations in poverty. In sum, the national de cline in poverty did not have a consistant impact on the re gion's poorest communities

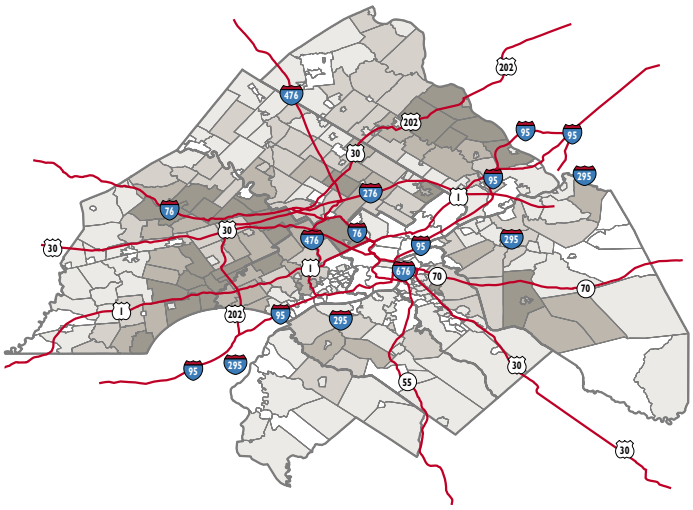
FIGURE 4.3: Change in poverty in communities with highest 1990 poverty levels and populations of more than 1000 in 1990 and 2000

Decreasing poverty	1990	2000
Salem City, Salem County	34 %	27 %
Penns Grove Borough, Salem County	28	21
Hi-Nella Borough, Camden County	17	12
Mount Holly, Burlington County	14	10
Paulsboro Borough, Gloucester County	21	18
Darby Township, Delaware County	15	12
Lower North Philadelphia*	43	42
Camden City, Camden County	37	36
Chester Township, Delaware County	18	17
Beverly City, Burlington County	13	12
No change in poverty		
Upper North Philadelphia*	39	39
Chestnut Hill-Mt Airy-Germantown*	18	18
Increase in poverty		
Center City*	16	17
Glassboro Borough, Gloucester County	14	15
Chester City, Delaware County	25	27
South Philadelphia*	24	26
Darby Borough, Delaware County	18	21
West Philadelphia*	24	28
Coatesville City, Chester County	18	22
West Chester Borough, Chester County	17	21
Olney-Oak Lane*	16	20
Southwest Philadelphia*	23	28
Marcus Hook, Delaware County	14	22
Upland Borough, Delaware County	13	25
Kensington-River Wards*	18	31

**City of Philadelphia Planning Analysis District*

indicator 4.4: distribution of high income households

At the high end of the income distribution, the region includes a number of communities that display very substantial incomes. Map 4.4 reveals that, in Pennsylvania, communities where 40 percent or more of households have incomes of $100,000 or more tend to cluster along major roadways providing access to employment centers. In central Bucks County, high income communities are close to I–95 and Rt. 202, making them accessible to downtown Philadelphia as well as the pharmaceutical and high technology jobs in central New Jersey. In Montgomery, Chester, and Delaware counties, there are four roadways—the Schuylkill Expressway, the Pennsylvania Turnpike, Rt. 202, and U.S. 1—that appear to organize many of these communities. These provide relatively swift commuting to the job centers along Rt. 202, in King of Prussia, Malvern, downtown Philadelphia, and in Delaware. However, on the New Jersey side of the region, high income communities are fewer, more scattered, and less clearly related to job centers.



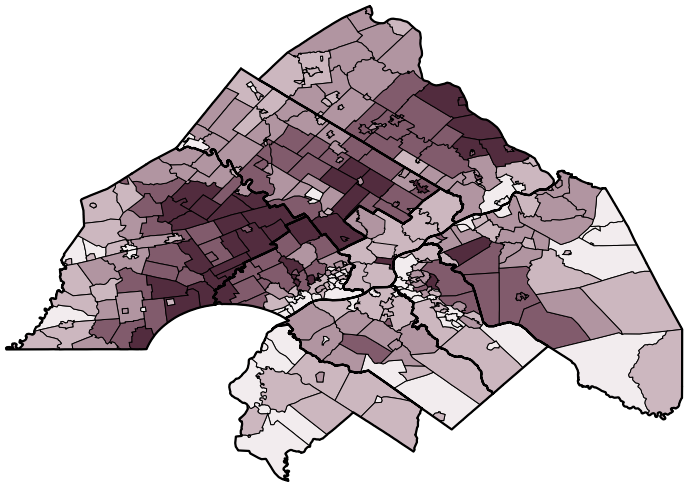
MAP 4.4: Households with incomes of $100,000 of more

< 10% | 10 - 19.9 | 20 - 29.9 | 30 - 39.9 | ≥ 40

indicator 4.5: adults with higher education

In an era when knowledge industries are driving economic growth, the region's future depends heavily on the education of its workforce. Because employers seek workers with increasingly complex skills, contemporary observers of urban regions often gauge their economic prospects according to the percentage of adult residents who have earned bachelor's degrees or higher. Map 4.5 shows that, in this region, the highest concentrations of college degrees roughly track the same pattern shown for high income residents in that they tend to lie along major roadways.

Compared to its peer metropolitan areas, Philadelphia ranks fifth; Figure 4.5 shows that, as with median household income, Boston is well ahead of the others.



MAP 4.5: Bachelor's degree or higher

< 15% | 15 - 23.9 | 24 - 35.9 | 36 - 49.9 | ≥ 50

FIGURE 4.5: Bachelor's degree or higher in selected metropolitan areas

Baltimore	29%	**Minneapolis**	33%
Boston	40	**Philadelphia**	28
Chicago	30	**Phoenix**	25
Cleveland	23	**Pittsburgh**	24
Detroit	23		

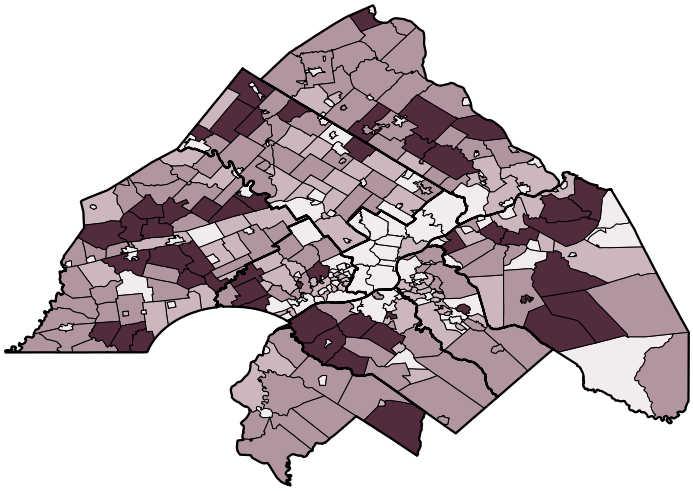
chapter 5 housing

Housing is a defining characteristic of communities. This chapter examines the basic patterns of home ownership across the region and as key indicators of differentiation in housing markets. It also presents two indicators of housing stress, one dealing with comparative affordability and one with the risk of predatory lending.

indicator 5.1: owner-occupied housing

Philadelphia has a long tradition of home ownership, both as a city and as a region. As Map 5.1 shows, however, these rates vary considerably across the region, ranging from as low as 20 percent to as high as 98 percent. Examining how the rates vary between the different types of communities in the region reveals a significant difference between the older core of the region—in the Struggling Older Communities, Solid Older Communities, Working Class Communities—and communities that are Middle Class or Affluent Suburbs (Figure 5.1a).

Home ownership rates vary considerably across metropolitan areas. In the comparison group of metropolitan areas, Philadelphia and Baltimore have the highest metropolitan level ownership rates (Figure 5.1b).



MAP 5.1: Owner occupied housing

< 70% | 70 - 79.9 | 80 - 89.9 | ≥ 90

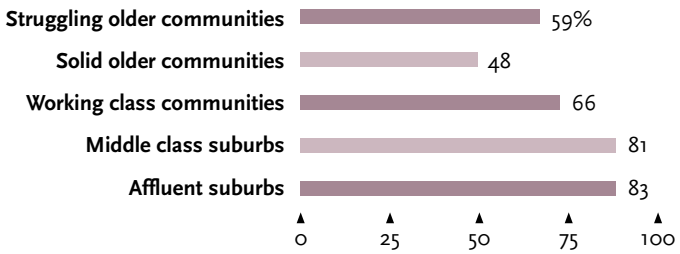


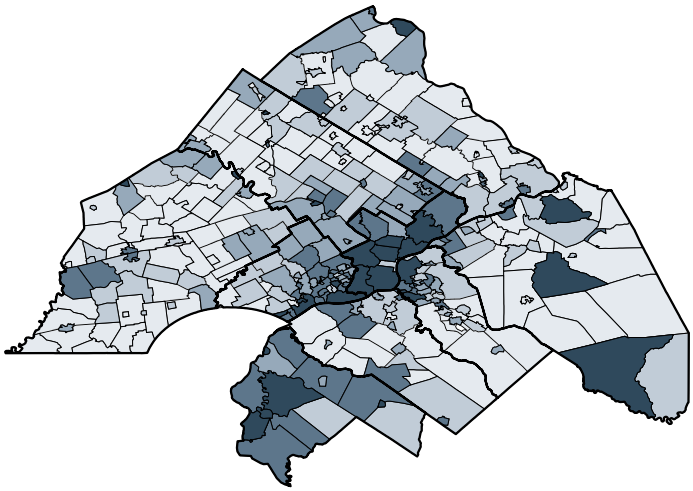
FIGURE 5.1a: Owner occupancy rate

FIGURE 5.1b: Owner occupancy rates in selected metropolitan areas

Baltimore	72%	**Minneapolis**	68 %
Boston	68	**Philadelphia**	72
Chicago	71	**Phoenix**	70
Cleveland	59	**Pittsburgh**	67
Detroit	65		

indicator 5.2: housing owned with no mortgage

One indicator of a potentially slowing housing market in a community is the percentage of homes that are owned "free and clear," indicating that homeowners have paid off their mortgages. The higher the percentage of houses that are owned with no mortgage, the lower the degree of new residential investments, including home improvement loans (see Map 5.2).



MAP 5.2: Owner occupied homes, no mortgage

< 25% | 25 - 29.9 | 30 - 34.9 | 35 - 39.9 | ≥ 40

This type of home ownership is widely dispersed in the region, appearing in both core urban areas and many more remote areas. The Struggling Older Communities demonstrate the highest proportion of homes owned with no mortgage, followed by the Working Class Communities of the region (see Figure 5.2a).

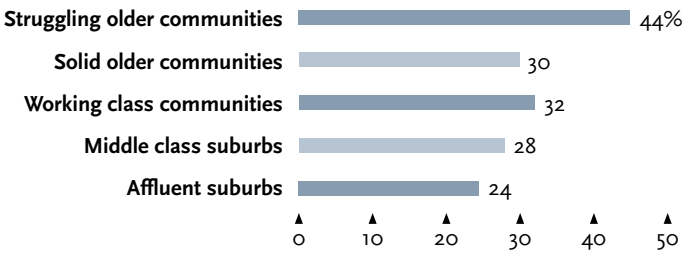


FIGURE 5.2a: Homes owned with no mortgage

Examining data for comparative metropolitan areas suggests a relationship between this type of home ownership and regional development patterns. Areas that have shown evidence of slow growth, or even population declines, tend to have higher levels of free and clear ownership (e.g., Pittsburgh, Philadelphia, and Cleveland), while cities of continued growth, such as Phoenix and Minneapolis have markedly lower levels (Figure 5.2b).

FIGURE 5.2b: Homes owned with no mortgage in selected metropolitan areas

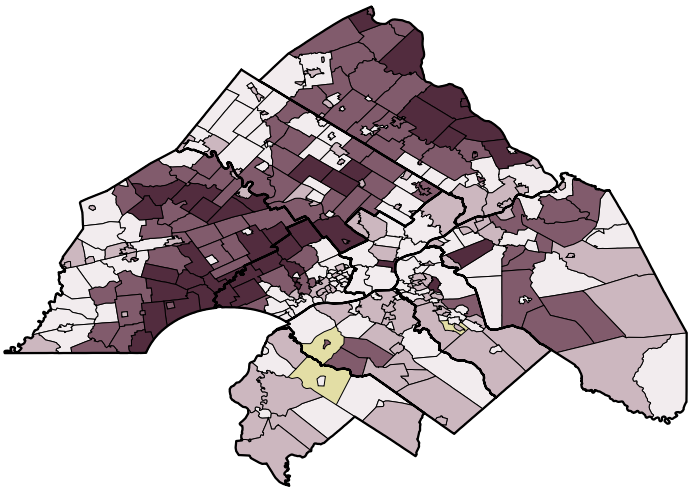
Baltimore	24%	**Minneapolis**	19%
Boston	28	**Philadelphia**	32
Chicago	25	**Phoenix**	21
Cleveland	30	**Pittsburgh**	41
Detroit	28		

indicator 5.3: housing prices

Communities within the region differ in the prices that their homes command in the housing market. Information from the annual reports of mortgage lenders under the Home Mortgage Disclosure Act (HMDA) suggests how the average mortgage amount varies across the region's communities. Map 5.3 summarizes three years of approved home purchase mortgages (first mortgages) reported by lenders under HMDA for 2000–2002.

The Philadelphia region shows a wide disparity in mortgage values, as communities range from less than $50,000 to more than $300,000. Suburban areas along the Delaware and Chester County borders and in areas of central Montgomery and Bucks counties show concentrations of high mortgage values. These patterns are reflected in the distribution of home value across the community typology (Figure 5.3a).

Housing prices at a metropolitan level represent a mix of overall demand combined with local cost of living and housing turnover (see Figure 5.3b). Boston's housing market, for instance, reflects high demand. Cleveland and Pittsburgh reflect slow growth in their regional populations and a lack of significant economic development to replace jobs lost in the manufacturing sector.



MAP 5.3: Average value of home mortgages (purchase)

< $90,000 | $90,000 - 119,999 | $120,000 - 149,999 | $150,000 - 199,999 | ≥ $200,000 | no data

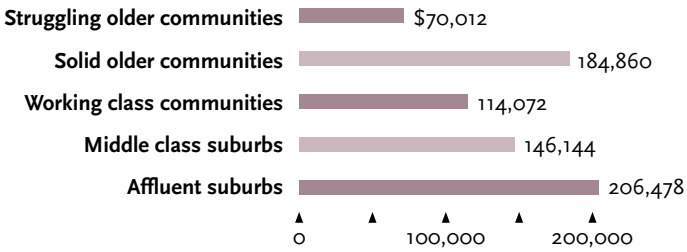


FIGURE 5.3a: Median home value

FIGURE 5.3b: Home price index of selected metropolitan areas

Baltimore	$159,600	**Minneapolis**	$183,800
Boston	330,900	**Philadelphia**	157,300
Chicago	206,500	**Phoenix**	150,400
Cleveland	140,600	**Pittsburgh**	116,300
Detroit	153,400		

indicator 5.4: age of housing

The Philadelphia region has communities in which the housing stock dates to the very origins of its settlements by Swedish, German and English émigrés in the 17th century. Philadelphia, Camden, and the immediately adjacent suburbs, as well as many of the communities along the Delaware River have the oldest housing stock, with the median year built being prior to 1950. There are older settlement centers on both sides of the river, such as Salem, Swedesboro, Bryn Athyn, and Coatesville. These small communities have had limited opportunities to expand their housing stock, and they share limited development options with many of the first ring suburbs in the region. Map 5.4 also identifies communities with more recent housing; construction during the last 10 years appears in many of the wealthiest suburbs.

The age of a region's housing stock reflects both how long a region has been developing and the degree to which it has experienced recent housing development. Figure 5.4, comparing Philadelphia to the eight other metropolitan areas, points to the comparatively recent expansion of the housing stock in the Phoenix and Minneapolis regions, while Pittsburgh and Boston have the oldest stock, on average. Philadelphia falls in the middle of the range, reflecting the substantial growth of the region in the years after 1950.

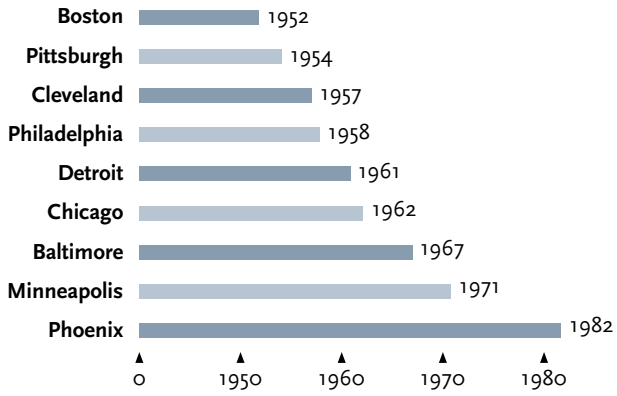
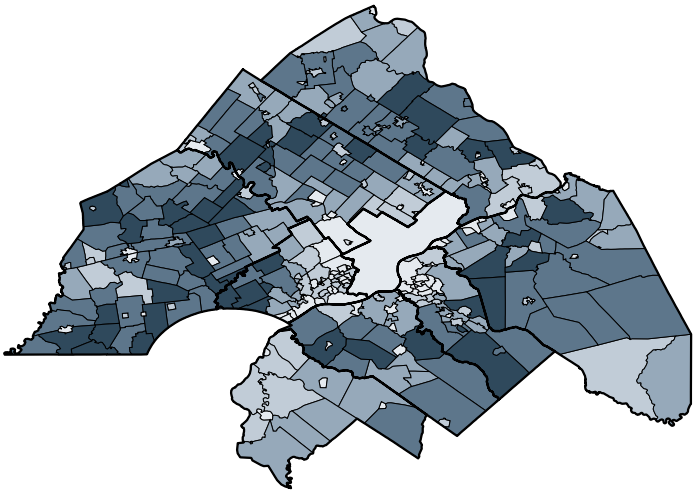


FIGURE 5.4: Median year built

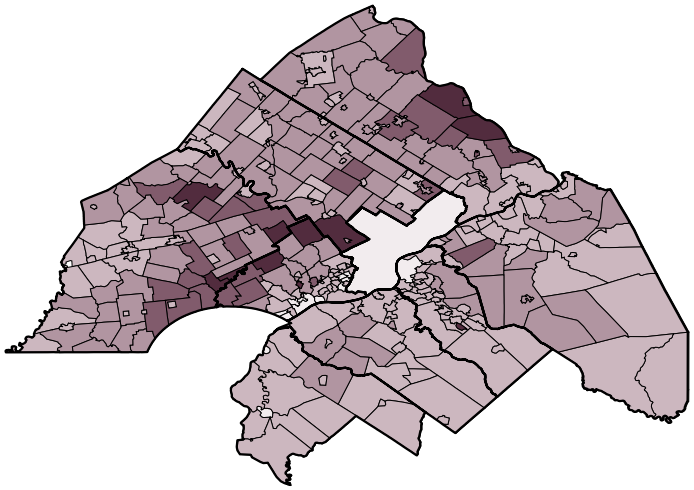


MAP 5.4: Median age of housing

built prior to 1950 | built 1951 to 1960 | built 1961 to 1970 | built 1971 to 1980 | built after 1980

indicator 5.5: housing affordability

Housing affordability reflects the relationship between household income and the cost of housing. The focus here will be on the cost of purchasing a home, and how that limits housing choices for different levels of household income. The median regional household income level was approximately $50,000. Income levels of $25,000, $50,000, $75,000, and $100,000 respectively were used to estimate (using Fannie Mae's housing calculator) the value of a house that a family could afford at or below each income level. This was compared with the median value home in each municipality, which was used to create a map of affordability, Map 5.5.



MAP 5.5: Minimum income needed to buy a house

< $25,000 $25,000 - 49,999
$50,000 - 74,999 $75,000 - 100,000 > $100,000

The communities along the Delaware-Chester County border and in the southwestern corner of Montgomery County provide one of the major clusters of limited affordability. Significant portions of Bucks and upper Chester counties, as well as some areas in New Jersey also provide limited affordability. The most affordable housing appears in communities where there is an overlap of lower home values and a limited proportion of higher income households, such as in Philadelphia, Camden, and several of the inner ring and riverfront communities, such as Chester, Marcus Hook and Bristol.

While it is possible to do a similar analysis for each of our comparison metropolitan areas, a more direct measure is also available in the decennial census. Information on households spending more than 30 percent of their gross income on housing—the maximum suggested by both governmental housing agencies and mortgage lenders—can be determined for renters and owners.

indicator 5.5: housing affordability (cont.)

In each of the comparison regions (see Figure 5.5), a higher percentage of renters than owners paid above 30 percent of their income in rent and associated housing expenses. In terms of overall affordability, Minneapolis had the lowest incidence of households paying above the 30 percent threshold, regardless of ownership category. The Philadelphia area showed a higher level of renter households spending above the recommended maximum of 30 percent of income and was second only to Chicago among homeowners carrying a mortgage.

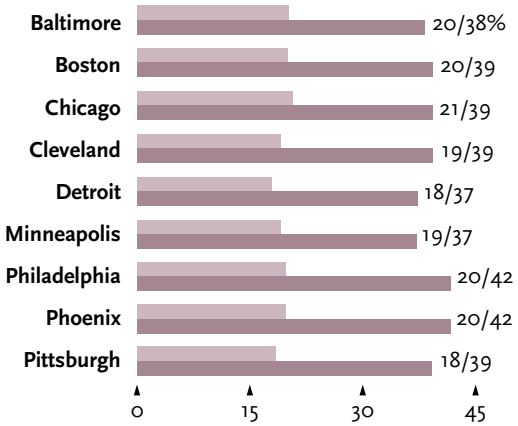
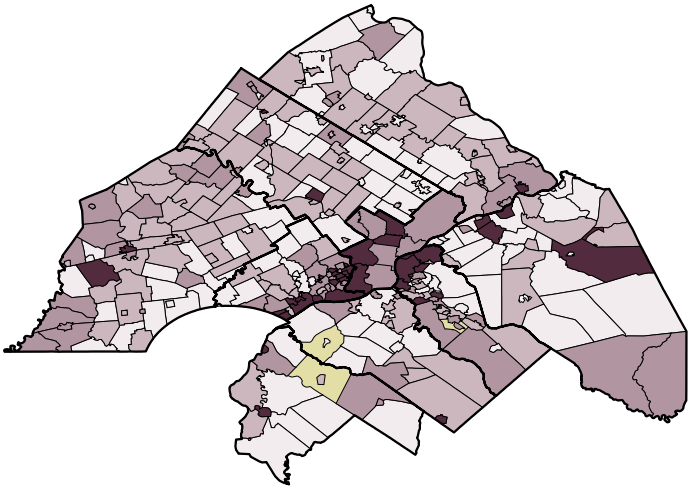


FIGURE 5.5: High housing expenses in selected metropolitan areas

indicator 5.6: sub-prime mortgages and predatory lending

Communities with older, lower-priced housing and lower-income households have traditionally faced significant barriers in home ownership opportunities for their residents. In recent years, a significant increase in mortgage credit has become available in many of these communities, fueled by more effective and standardized measures of household credit risk (credit scores) and by the effective pressures put forth by community based organizations (using leverage gained under the Community Reinvestment Act). The result has been an increase in the number of mortgage lenders who specialize in so-called sub-prime loans, which, while they entail greater credit cost, provide greater credit access.

One negative consequence to this development is that some sub-prime lenders may engage in a variety of lending practices that have been termed "predatory lending." These practices include the targeting of elderly homeowners, potential homeowners who do not speak English as a first language, and residents with limited knowledge of a credit agreement or limited access to housing counseling. In the worst of these cases, the lender disguises fees, charges exorbitant amounts on mortgage insurance, or creates elaborate refinancing arrangements that can drive the face value of the debt above any possible ability of the homeowner to pay. Most sub-prime loans are not, for the most part, instances of predatory lending; some researchers suggest that concentrations of these loans in communities suggest a vulnerability to predatory lending practices (see Map 5.6).



MAP 5.6: Sub-prime home mortgages

< 2.9% | 3 - 4.9 | 5 - 8.9 | 9 - 26 | no data

chapter 6 regional transportation

The transportation network of the region links communities of all types, and offers access to jobs, schools, commercial centers, and recreational or other amenities. The transportation system—the road and rail network—is an infrastructure directly involved with other regional indicators, especially the commute to work and the physical development and shifting population centers of the Delaware Valley. This chapter reveals the critical role of access to automobiles in terms of employment and the uneven use of public transportation.

indicator 6.1: regional road and commuter rail network

Map 6.1 indicates the major highways and commuter rail systems that are present in the metropolitan Philadelphia region. With one exception (the PATCO line in New Jersey), the rail system was originally developed in the late 19th and early 20th centuries and reflects an era in which the city of Philadelphia was the major population and economic center of the region. The road network reflects the city's original importance as an industrial, commercial, and services center as well as the more recent pattern of suburbanization of population (Chapter 1) and economic development (Chapter 7). Many roads converge in Philadelphia; others (such as Rt. 202, Rt. 422, and I–295) primarily serve suburban communities.

The Philadelphia region has not developed a highway and road network as dense as that in either Boston or Chicago. It is tied for third with Detroit among the group of nine comparison regions. With the exception of Pittsburgh, metropolitan regions of older cities (Boston, Philadelphia, and Chicago) tend to have a greater ratio of public transit route miles to their area than do newer regions such as Minneapolis and Phoenix (see Figure 6.1a).

FIGURE 6.1a: Road and public transit miles per square mile in selected metropolitan areas

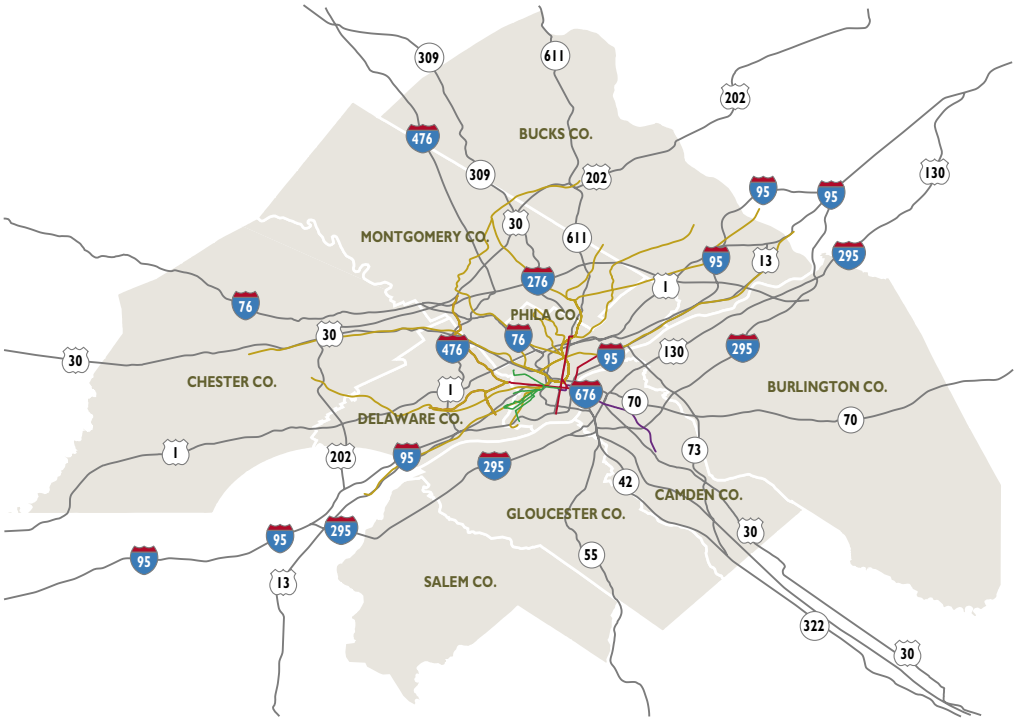
	road	transit		road	transit
Phoenix	0.7	0.1	**Detroit**	3.5	0.8
Minneapolis	1.8	0.7	**Philadelphia**	3.5	1.6
Pittsburgh	1.8	0.6	**Chicago**	4.7	1.2
Cleveland	2.0	1.0	**Boston**	5.0	1.7
Baltimore	2.5	1.1			

Several questions on the regional household survey dealt with transportation. Figure 6.1b addresses the public transit network, while Figure 6.1c addresses questions of allocating tax dollars and the public agenda. Public transportation systems are more accessible in the older, less affluent communities of the region, and their use is much more evident in the Struggling Older Communities of the region. People in Working Class Communities reported greater difficulties getting around without the transit system, while those who had the greatest frequency of use reported the least positive rating overall. Residents across all communities had a majority "good" or "very good" rating for public transportation. Residents' inclinations for public support, however, are somewhat complicated. While a substantial minority of those surveyed agreed with the proposition that the government should spend more on roads than on public transit, only respondents from Working Class Communities indicated majority support for this goal. Support for increased public expenditures on public transportation was markedly weaker across each community type; it received greatest support among those living in the Struggling Older Communities in the region.

FIGURE 6.1b: Public transportation access, use and attitudes

	transit available	once/week use	difficult without	"very good"/ "good" rating
Struggling older communities	96%	42%	48%	60%
Solid older communities	95	24	56	68
Working class communities	90	11	74	78
Middle class suburbs	56	6	0	70
Affluent suburbs	66	7	30	67

indicator 6.1: regional road and commuter rail network (cont.)



MAP 6.1: Regional transportation assets

roads — subways — SEPTA Regional rail —
High Speed lines — Subway Surface lines —

FIGURE 6.1c: General political attitudes, support tax increase for transportation

	government should do more for roads	relieve congestion	improve public transit
Struggling older communities	38%	50%	46%
Solid older communities	42	44	36
Working class communities	54	58	39
Middle class suburbs	49	51	34
Affluent suburbs	46	62	36

indicator 6.2: household access to automobiles

The increased dependence of the region's residents on the use of an automobile to navigate the region makes access a key issue, especially for many of the Struggling Older Communities of the region, as Map 6.2 indicates.

One of the major roles of the regional transportation network is linking people's residence with their place of work. Overlaying the 20 largest concentrations of employment in the region with the data about access to vehicles reveals a gap between the two. Chapter 7, on the regional economy, suggests some of the implications of this pattern for different sectors of the economy.

FIGURE 6.2a: Lack of access to automobile for households by community type

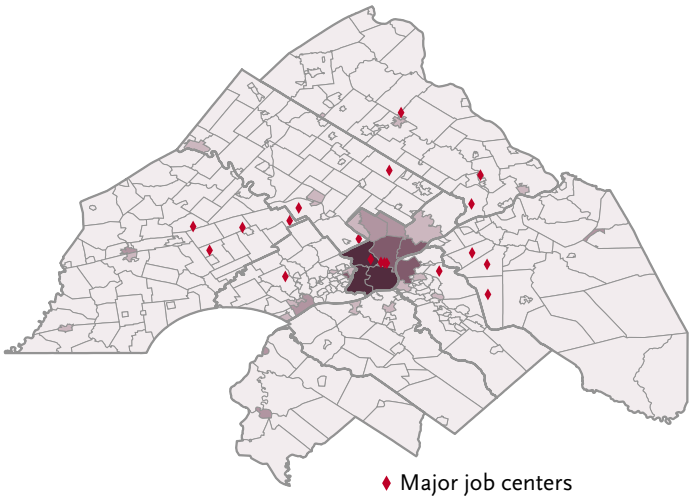
Struggling older communities	37%
Solid older communities	26
Working class communities	11
Middle class suburbs	5
Affluent suburbs	4

FIGURE 6.2b: Lack of access to automobile for households in selected metropolitan areas

Baltimore	14%	**Minneapolis**	8%
Boston	15	**Philadelphia**	16
Chicago	14	**Phoenix**	7
Cleveland	11	**Pittsburgh**	13
Detroit	9		

A closer look at the information for each of our regional community types provides a more direct indication of the sensitivity of these communities to this issue of access (Figure 6.2a). Ease of access to an automobile is one clear indication of the relative well-being of a community.

Information obtained on vehicle access (see Figure 6.2b) indicates that the Philadelphia region has the greatest challenges among its peers, as 1 in 6 households (16 percent) reported no access to a private automobile. This percentage is twice that of the metropolitan area with the lowest percentage of households reporting such issues (Phoenix).



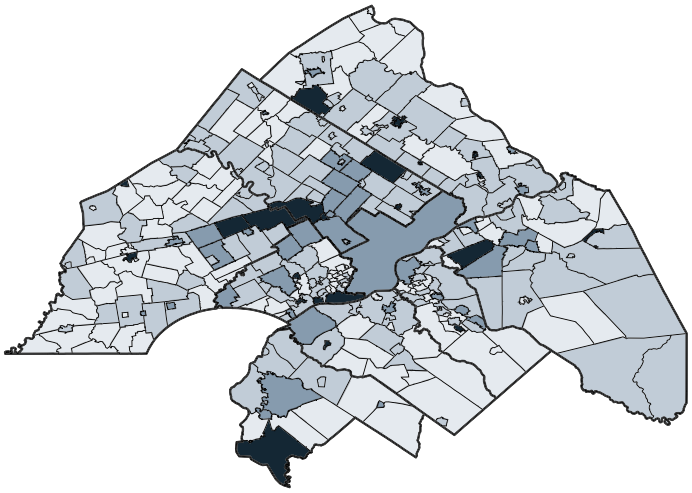
MAP 6.2: Households not owning an automobile

< 15% 15 - 24 24 - 35 35 - 45 > 45

indicator 6.3: community work-residence ratio

The communities of the region can be distinguished by the degree to which they are residential or employment centers, or some balance between the two. The flows of commuters to and from their work destinations are sometimes referred to as the "labor shed" of a region, and are important for transportation planning.

Map 6.3 characterizes each community in the region by the degree to which its workforce draws upon its own residents as compared to those who commute from other communities. The resulting ratio offers insights into both workplace concentrations and transportation pressures. A community with a high ratio of "in-commuters" (people who commute into the community each day) is likely to face issues of transportation infrastructure pressures; a community whose workers tend to commute elsewhere is more likely to face issues of transportation access.



MAP 6.3: Ratio of "in-commuters" to "out-commuters"

< 1 1 - 2 2 - 3 > 3

In examining information across our comparison group of metropolitan areas, one way of indicating the transportation burden at a regional level is to develop a measure of "friction" created by the regional mix of roads, public transit, and work-to-residence commuting patterns. The Texas Transportation Institute at Texas A&M University has developed a measure of annual hours of delay and an overall congestion index (in which values > 1.0 indicates congestion) for the major metropolitan areas of the country. These comparisons, detailed in Figure 6.3, indicate that Philadelphia falls in the more favorable half of the comparison group in both hours lost and overall congestion.

FIGURE 6.3: Comparative transportation burden indicators in selected metropolitan areas

	hours delayed	congestion index
Baltimore	34	1.34
Boston	29	1.31
Chicago	27	1.34
Cleveland	7	0.94
Detroit	27	1.24
Minneapolis	28	1.25
Philadelphia	17	1.11
Phoenix	28	1.29
Pittsburgh	7	0.78

indicator 6.4: public transit versus automobile use

The comparison of employment locations to the regional rail network of the Philadelphia area, combined with the access issues noted above, suggests marked differences in commuters' use of public transit vs. private automobiles in their journey to work. The region is strongly dependent on the automobile as a means of transportation, although some communities show either a strong presence of public transportation or a locally oriented employment mix (see Map 6.4).

The distribution of public transportation use is heavily weighted toward the Struggling Older Communities of the region, as Figure 6.4a indicates.

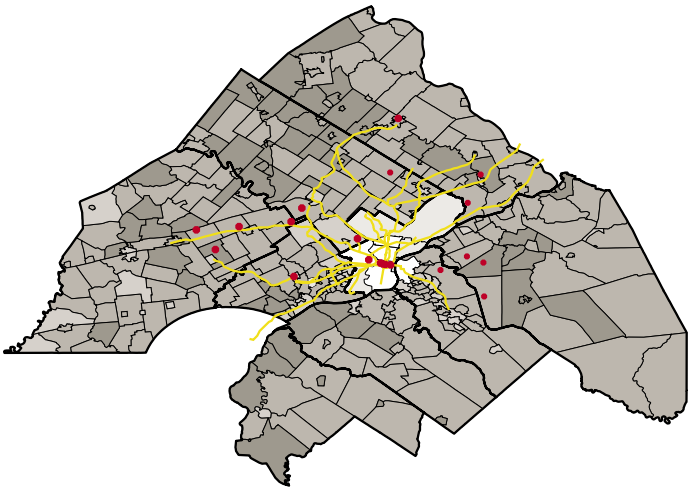
In examining comparative patterns of public transit use across metropolitan areas, Philadelphia is in the upper third of the comparison group (see Figure 6.4b). Detroit and Phoenix represent extreme cases of automobile dependency in this group, while Boston and Chicago indicate higher levels than Philadelphia, albeit less than 1 in 6 workers.

FIGURE 6.4a: Transportation use, going to work, by community type

	auto	public transit
Struggling older communities	43%	42%
Solid older communities	48	26
Working class communities	74	9
Middle class suburbs	88	2
Affluent suburbs	80	8

FIGURE 6.4b: Public transportation use in selected metropolitan areas

Baltimore	6%	**Minneapolis**	5%
Boston	14	**Philadelphia**	10
Chicago	13	**Phoenix**	2
Cleveland	4	**Pittsburgh**	6
Detroit	2		



MAP 6.4: Populations driving alone to work

< 40% 40 - 50 50 - 75 75 - 85 > 85

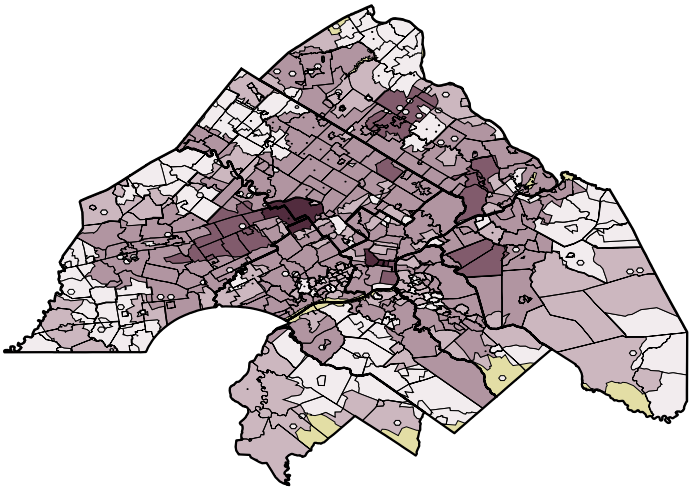
job centers regional rail

chapter 7 the regional economy

One of the strongest indicators of community well-being is the types of jobs people have. Major forces affecting the region's communities include the location of these jobs and the kinds of firms that provide this employment. Looking at the centers of employment within the region, both in the aggregate and broken out by key sectors in the regional economy, reveals some of the forces affecting people and their communities in the region.

indicator 7.1: centers of employment

It is widely recognized that the business locations and employment centers of the Philadelphia region have decentralized and formed new centers in many suburban areas. Map 7.1 indicates the major centers of those locations, based on the zip codes used by businesses in submitting their information to the Census Bureau for use in the annual County Business Pattern report. Patterns on the map indicate that employment in the Philadelphia region is widely dispersed. Municipal boundaries have been laid over the zip code data patterns in all maps in this sections to aid as reference points.



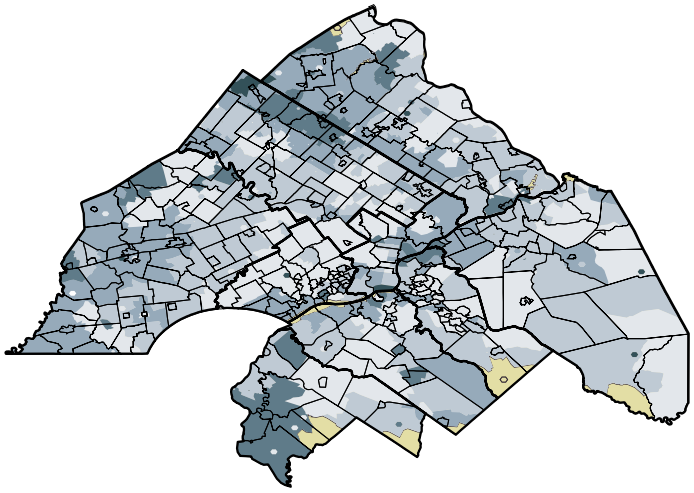
MAP 7.1: Total jobs by zip code

< 2,000 | 2,000 - 4,999 | 5,000 - 24,999 | 25,000 - 39,999 | ≥ 40,000 | no data

While key clusters persist in central and West Philadelphia, major employment centers are in lower and central Bucks County, along the often-cited Rt. 202 corridor at the juncture of Chester, Delaware and Montgomery counties, and in the Mt. Laurel area of Burlington County in New Jersey.[1] (A more complete discussion of the specifics of the County Business Pattern data set and the codes used to categorize businesses can be found in the Technical Appendix.)

indicator 7.2: manufacturing employment

One way to take stock of shifts in the region's economy is to focus on key economic sectors. The single most important shift in the region's economic base is that from manufacturing to a more complex mix of services, information, and tourism. In locating the centers of manufacturing-based employment in the Philadelphia region, one can see that they are vital to many of the region's communities (Map 7.2). While several core manufacturing areas within Philadelphia and along the Delaware River remain a continuing presence, many other manufacturing centers have emerged in suburban counties in both Pennsylvania and New Jersey. Future discussions of economic development options should recognize the diminished, but still significant, role of the manufacturing sector in the region.



MAP 7.2: Jobs in manufacturing by zip code

< 5% | 5 - 14.9 | 15 - 29.9 | 30 - 59.9 | ≥ 60 | no data

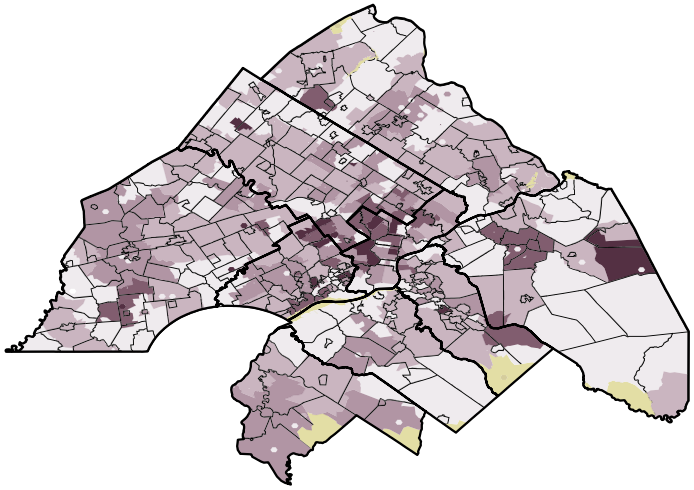
Figure 7.2 indicates that, among comparison metropolitan areas, Philadelphia falls at a midpoint between the region with the lowest regional manufacturing share (Baltimore) and the cities with the highest (Cleveland and Detroit). The cities of the upper Midwest continue to have larger manufacturing shares—although not dominant ones—compared to eastern cities and Phoenix.

FIGURE 7.2: Manufacturing employment in selected metropolitan areas

Baltimore	8%	**Minneapolis**	14%
Boston	10	**Philadelphia**	11
Chicago	14	**Phoenix**	10
Cleveland	18	**Pittsburgh**	11
Detroit	18		

indicator 7.3: new directions: education and health care

The category of "service sector" masks important differences within that sector. This study cites three sectors (Education/Health Care—sometimes termed "the Eds and Meds"—Information/Technology, and Travel/Tourism) in the region as potential new emphases within the regional economy. Education and health care institutions typically have fixed locations, making these employers—colleges, universities, hospitals and ancillary health care facilities—significant for both the region and for the communities in which they are located. Mapping these centers indicates that they are widely dispersed with important clusters within both older cities and newer suburban communities (see Map 7.3).



MAP 7.3: Jobs in education and health care by zip code

< 8% | 8 - 19.9 | 20 - 34.9 | 35 - 49.9 | ≥ 50 | no data

The Current Employment Statistics series from the Bureau of Labor Statistics (BLS) allows us to compare information about the education and health care sector across metropolitan areas. Education/health care constitutes one of the major employment sectors in cities with established manufacturing employment sectors that also have a significant institutional presence in higher education (see Figure 7.3).

FIGURE 7.3: Education and health care employment in selected metropolitan areas

Baltimore	15%	**Minneapolis**	11%
Boston	17	**Philadelphia**	18
Chicago	11	**Phoenix**	9
Cleveland	13	**Pittsburgh**	17
Detroit	11		

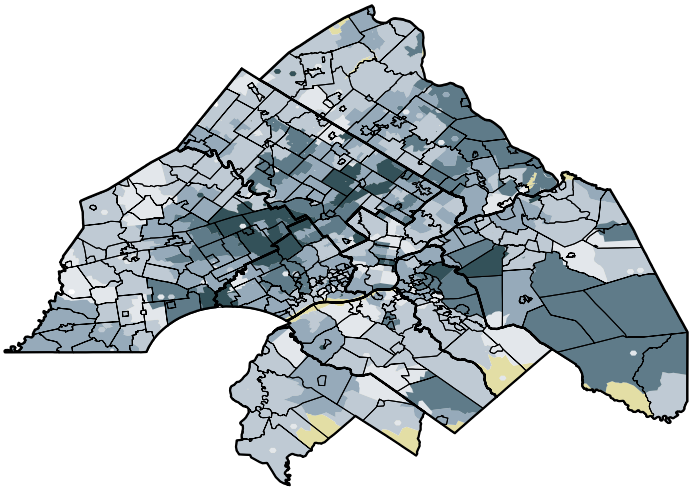
indicator 7.4: new directions: information and technology

The information and technology sector encompasses research, finance, and information-intensive business/professional services. The regional distribution of employment in these types of firms is the clearest indication of the spatial separation of newer trends in the regional economy from the older manufacturing sector (see Map 7.4). There is a clear concentration of employment opportunities along the Rt. 202 corridor (running roughly along the Delaware-Chester County border and extending into Montgomery County) and others in Center City Philadelphia, and in the Rt. 73 corridor in New Jersey (roughly along the Camden/Burlington County border). There are smaller, but still significant employment clusters in some of the less densely populated areas in Chester, Burlington, and Gloucester counties, but these may well reflect lower employment levels in these communities overall.

The information intensive sector, as measured by the employment shares reported by the BLS (in Figure 7.4), indicates the overall importance of this sector for each of the regional economies. The varying levels reported across the nine metropolitan areas suggest that metropolitan areas have had differing success in developing this sector, although within a constrained range. Philadelphia ranks below the mid-point compared to peer metropolitan areas in the information and technology sector.

FIGURE 7.4: Information intensive employment in selected metropolitan areas

Baltimore	22%	**Minneapolis**	26%
Boston	30	**Philadelphia**	24
Chicago	27	**Phoenix**	27
Cleveland	21	**Pittsburgh**	21
Detroit	25		

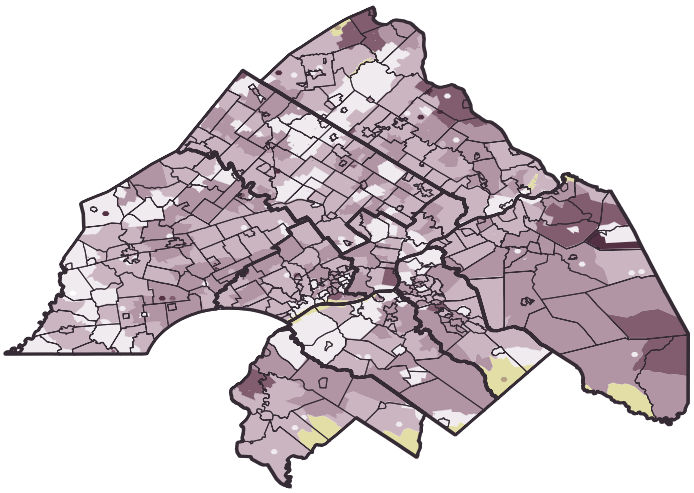


MAP 7.4: Jobs in information and technology services by zip code

< 7% | 7 - 13.9 | 14 - 24.9 | 25 - 39.9 | ≥ 40 | no data

indicator 7.5: new directions: travel and tourism

Tourism is often suggested as a major force for regional economic development. The data from the County Business Patterns for 2000 (in Map 7.5) makes two points. First, there are few places within the region where travel/tourism employment (including entertainment venues) constitute more than 20 percent of the employment in a community. Second, employment in this sector is widely dispersed across the region, often encompassing employment in "convenience" travel firms (e.g., concentrations of hotels/motels and restaurants near turnpike and interstate highway interchanges). Key areas such as the entertainment venues along the Avenue of the Arts in Center City Philadelphia and in South Philadelphia are also apparent.



MAP 7.5: Jobs in tourism and travel by zip code

< 5% | 5 - 9.9 | 10 - 19.9 | 20 - 29.9 | ≥ 30 | no data

With the exception of Phoenix, an area that has a somewhat higher than average level of hospitality and leisure jobs, the remainder of the metropolitan areas show an overall employment share of about eight percent (Figure 7.5). The discussion in our region about improving performance in the Travel and Tourism sector is apparently driven by the under-performance of this area compared to others. The comparison also suggests that there are probably limits to the development of this sector as a driver for the regional economy, at least in terms of employment opportunities.

FIGURE 7.5: Leisure and hospitality employment in selected metropolitan areas

Baltimore	8%	**Minneapolis**	8%
Boston	8	**Philadelphia**	7
Chicago	8	**Phoenix**	10
Cleveland	8	**Pittsburgh**	9
Detroit	8		

chapter 8 government and taxes

Local governments shoulder more responsibility than any other level of government for the daily quality of life in our communities. Local government officials oversee not only schools, but also basic services like public safety, streets, water and sewer, along with amenities like libraries and recreation. They also take responsibility for essential development activities such as planning and zoning. Although they are expected to provide similar services, local officials in different communities have quite different levels of resources at their disposal. This section examines the differing resources available to local officials and citizen satisfaction with the services they provide.

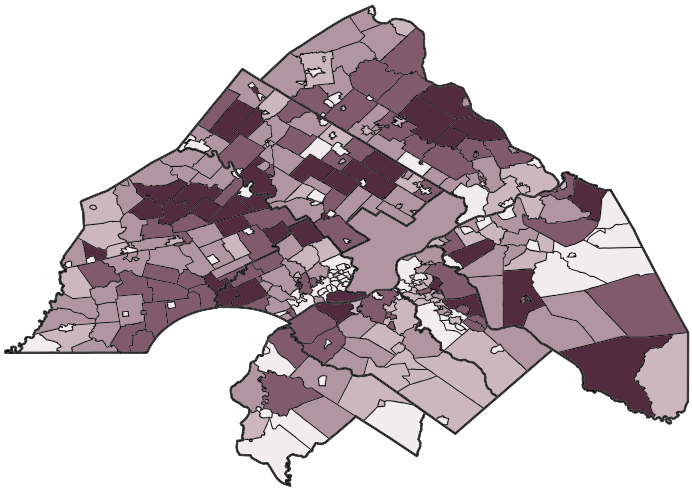
indicator 8.1: tax capacity of local governments

Local governments pay for the services they provide through revenues generated by two main types of taxes: taxes on real estate and taxes on earned income. Some rapidly growing townships also generate significant revenue from real estate transfer taxes. While the tax laws in the two states give local governments in Pennsylvania a wider range of local revenue sources to tax, compared with fewer tax options in New Jersey, real estate taxes comprise the single largest source of revenues for municipalities in both states (with the notable exception of Philadelphia, whose wage tax generates larger revenues than does its property tax).

For the sake of comparison, Map 8.1 includes only the three main forms of taxation (property taxes, earned income taxes, and real estate transfer taxes) and shows how much tax revenue is collected by communities, relative to the populations they serve. (The map does not necessarily portray taxes paid by the average household, since some of the revenues are collected from businesses, not residents.) To ensure that the revenue numbers did not reflect only one-year aberrations for municipalities, we averaged the dollar revenues collected in three succeeding years, 1999–2001. The map shows that many of the communities collecting high dollar amounts are located in the middle ring (between the inner suburbs and the outer edge of the region). These are the Affluent Suburbs as seen in Figure 8.1a.

Despite significant differences in the tax revenues local governments collect, the citizens of the region express remarkably similar sentiments about their tax bills. When asked to rate their taxes in relation to the public schools, over two-thirds of residents in all types of communities described their taxes as either "very high" or "high." Figure 8.1b shows there is little difference among the different community types in this regard.

Asked to rate their taxes in relation to the public services they receive, like garbage collection and police protection, only about half the residents in most community types rated their taxes as "very high" or "high." A significantly higher percentage in the Struggling Older Communities took this view, as seen in Figure 8.1c. Note that since tax data are available only by municipality, Philadelphia is shown separately from the five community types in this chapter.



MAP 8.1: Average local tax revenues per household

< $3,000 | $3,000 - 3,499 | $3,500 - 4,499 | $4,500 - 5,499 | ≥ $5,500

indicator 8.1: tax capacity of local governments (cont.)

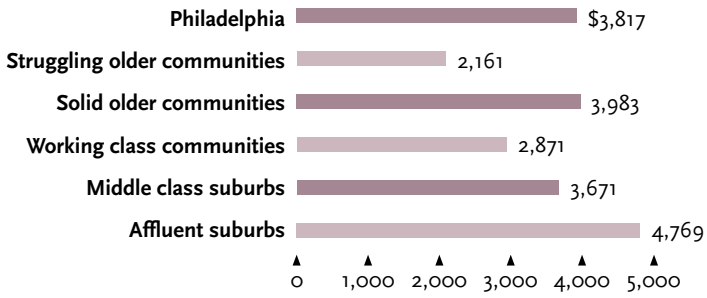


FIGURE 8.1a: Average local tax revenues per household

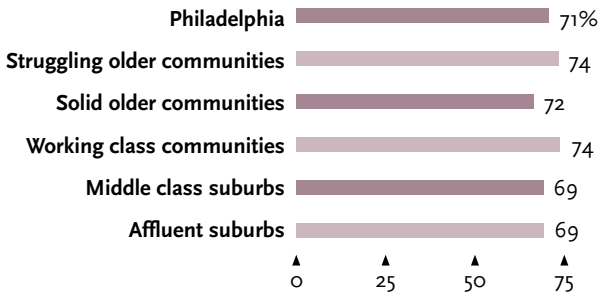


FIGURE 8.1b: Taxes for schools are "very high" or "high"

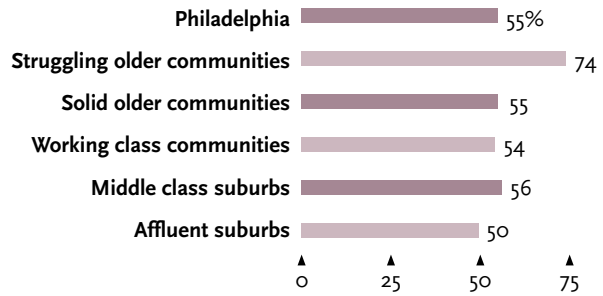


FIGURE 8.1c: Taxes for public services are "very high" or "high"

indicator 8.2: fairness in local tax burdens

The relative burden that local taxes impose on communities becomes evident by representing local taxes relative to household incomes within each municipality. Map 8.2 shows that heavy tax burdens are carried by Philadelphia and several Delaware River communities, along with a number of communities at the outer edge of the region. Figure 8.2a portrays the relatively lighter burdens carried by taxpayers in the Affluent Suburbs and the Solid Older Communities.

Despite constant media attention and civic debate focused on the wage tax as the region's least-popular tax, more people regard wage taxes as fair than regard property taxes as fair in almost all types of communities. In Figure 8.2b, almost half the residents of Philadelphia consider the wage tax fair, while only a third of them say property taxes are fair.

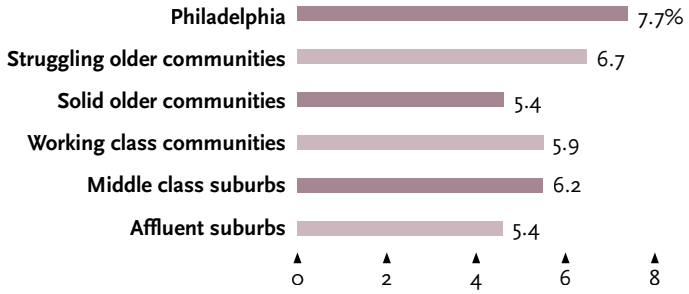


FIGURE 8.2a: Local tax revenue as a percent of household Income

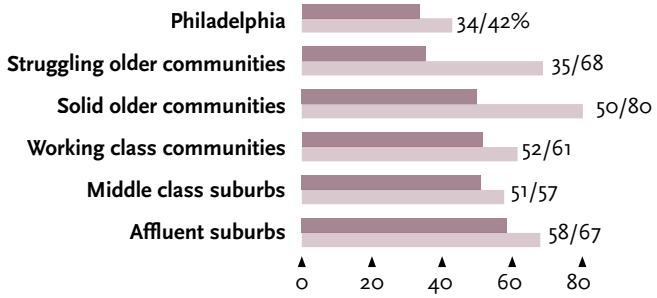
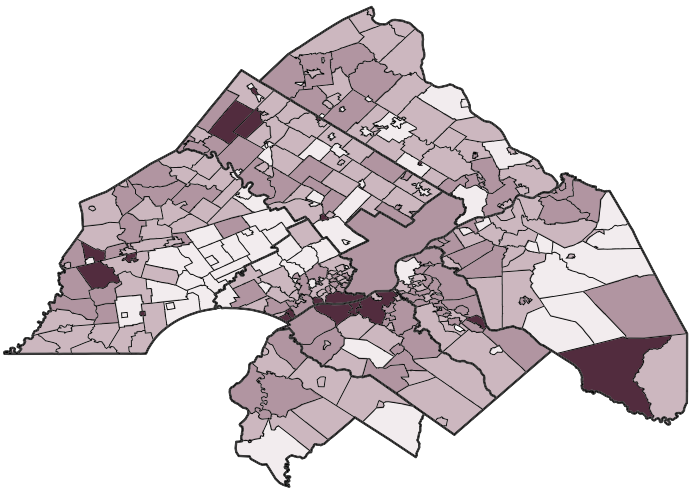


FIGURE 8.2b: Agree that property taxes/wage taxes are fair: property taxes wage taxes



MAP 8.2: Local tax revenue as percent of household income

< 5% 5 - 5.9 6 - 7.9 ≥ 8

indicator 8.2: fairness in local tax burdens (cont.)

Although Philadelphians view property taxes as less fair than wage taxes, their property tax burden is actually closer to the property taxes levied in other big cities than are Philadelphia wage taxes, which Figure 8.2c shows to be significantly higher than the income taxes paid by residents of other cities.

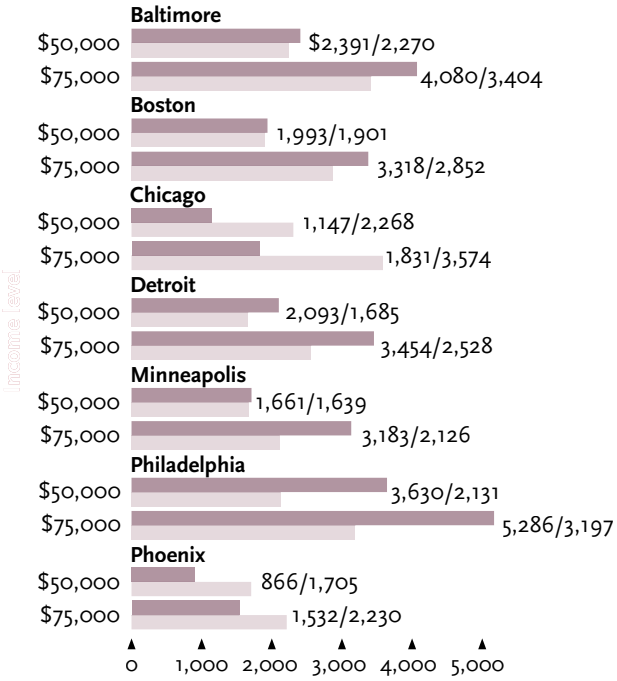
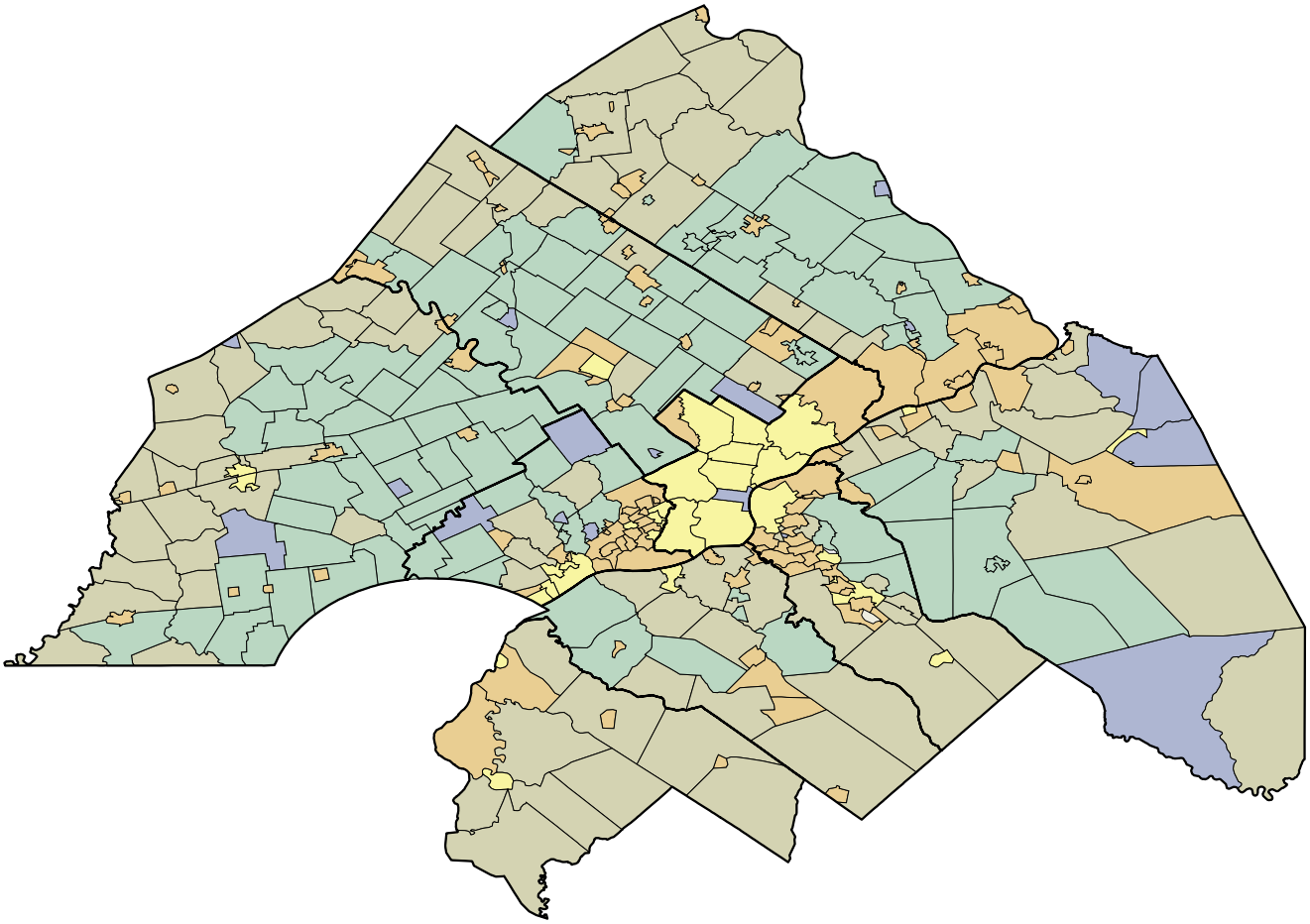


FIGURE 8.2c: Estimated tax burden for a family of four at two levels of income in selected cities*

income tax property tax

** Cleveland and Pittsburgh were omitted because data are available only for the largest city in each state.*

the region's community types



MAP 1.3: Community types

struggling older communities | solid older communities
working class communities
middle class suburbs | affluent suburbs

indicator 8.3: citizen satisfaction with public services

Along with public education (portrayed in Chapter 9 of this report), local governments are responsible for providing basic public services and for protecting residents' safety. To assess citizen satisfaction with the job local officials are doing, our regional survey asked respondents to evaluate basic public services. In the four service areas—maintaining streets (Figure 8.3a), keeping public areas clean (Figure 8.3b), collecting garbage (Figure 8.3c), and policing (Figure 8.3d)—Philadelphians rate their public services lower than do any other residents in the region, even those living in the Struggling Older Communities. Of the four services, the most favorable ratings go to garbage collection, which elicits high levels of satisfaction even in Philadelphia.

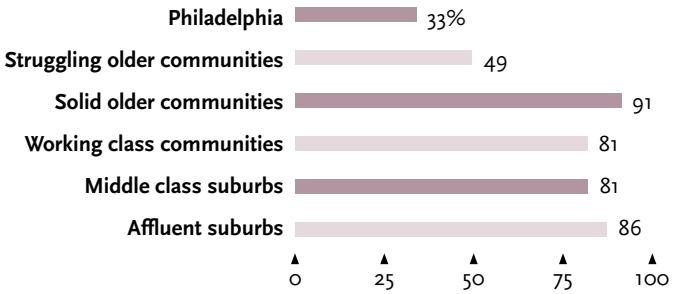


FIGURE 8.3a: Street maintenance rated "very good" or "good"

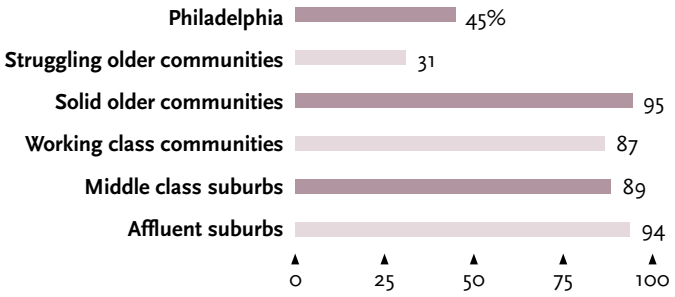


FIGURE 8.3b: Cleaning public areas rated "very good" or "good"

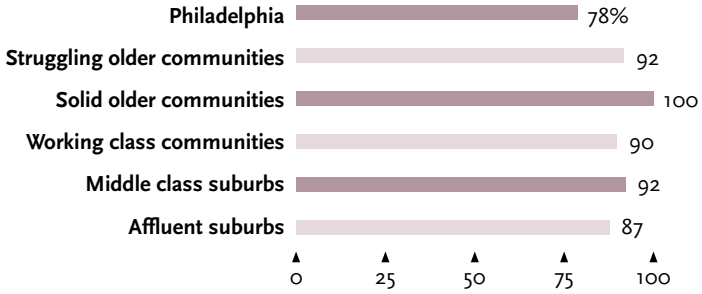


FIGURE 8.3c: Garbage collection rated "very good" or "good"

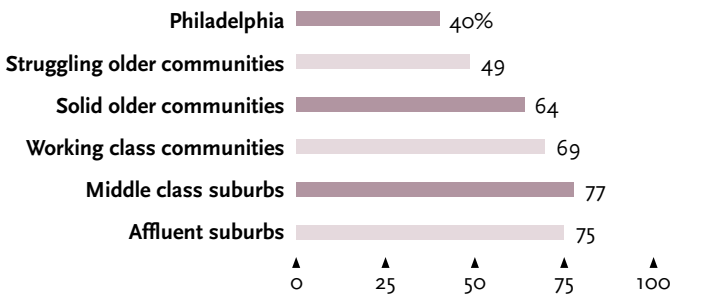


FIGURE 8.3d: A "great deal," or "quite a lot" of confidence in police

indicator 8.4: taxes as a motivation to move households

Much of the public debate regarding taxes in the region is based on the premise that households are likely to move from higher-tax to lower-tax municipalities in order to reduce their annual tax bills. According to this view, residents behave as rational consumers, making location choices that maximize their quality of life while minimizing their tax obligations. This household survey sought to find out how likely people are to relocate in order to gain a tax advantage. When we asked whether respondents had ever considered moving in order to pay lower taxes, resounding majorities in all types of communities said "no" (Figure 8.4). It would appear that despite people's universal complaint that their taxes are too high, other aspects of their communities loom larger than taxes when they choose a place to live. (See Chapter 1 of this report for a discussion of the factors affecting residents' location decisions.)

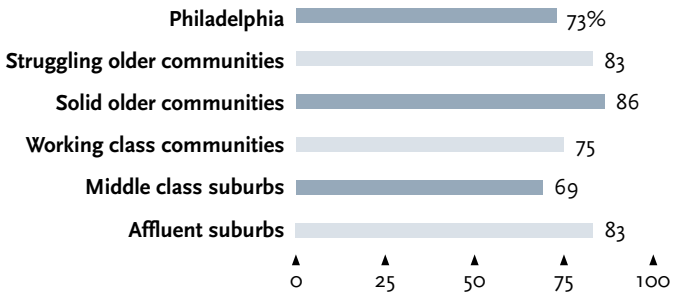


FIGURE 8.4: Have never considered moving to pay lower taxes

chapter 9 education

Schools rank among the most important contributors to the quality of life in any community. Forty-seven percent of the respondents to this regional household survey claimed that good schools were "very important" to the decision to move into their current community, while another 14 percent ranked good schools as "somewhat important" to their choice of a community. This section provides information about important dimensions of educational services in our communities, using the boundaries of those districts as our reporting units. These boundaries do not necessarily coincide with the boundaries of municipalities.

indicator 9.1: spending by school district

Per pupil spending differs significantly in the 196 school districts in our region, from a low of $6,691 per pupil in Burlington Township to a high of $15,274 per pupil in Radnor in 2001. Map 9.1 shows a significant number of school districts in New Jersey spent less than $8,000 per pupil, while only two districts on the Pennsylvania side fell below $8,000. The second lowest spending levels are seen in Philadelphia, along with a number of school districts in eastern Delaware County and a sizable collection of districts spanning all New Jersey counties. A cluster of affluent communities at the intersection of Montgomery, Delaware, and Chester counties supports the largest concentration of high-spending schools in the region.

According to the survey (see Figure 9.1), Philadelphians were far more likely than any other citizens of the region to judge as insufficient the amount of money being spent on local public schools. Note that since education data are available by school districts, our typology in this chapter shows Philadelphia separately from the other five community types.

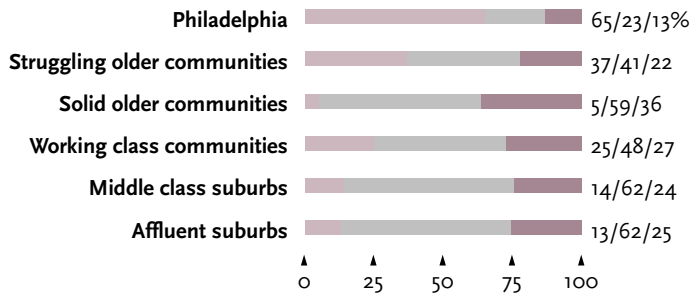
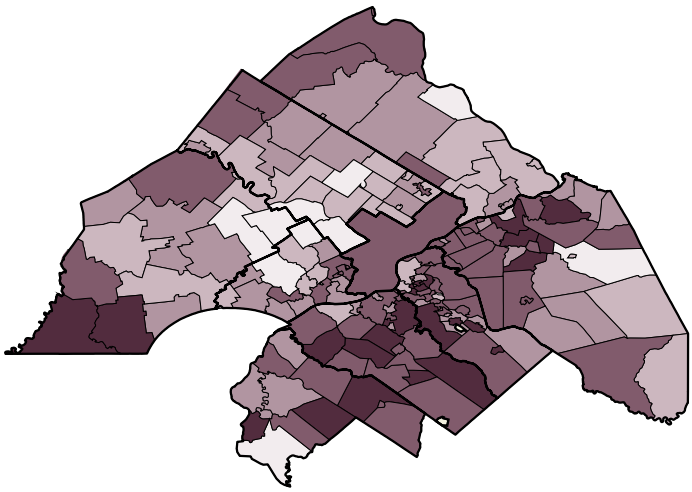


FIGURE 9.1: Satisfaction with amount of money spent on local public schools

"not enough" "about right" "too much"



MAP 9.1: Amount spent by school district per pupil

$6,691 - 7999 $8,000 - 8,999 $9,000 - 9,999 $10,000 - 11,999 $12,000 - 15,273

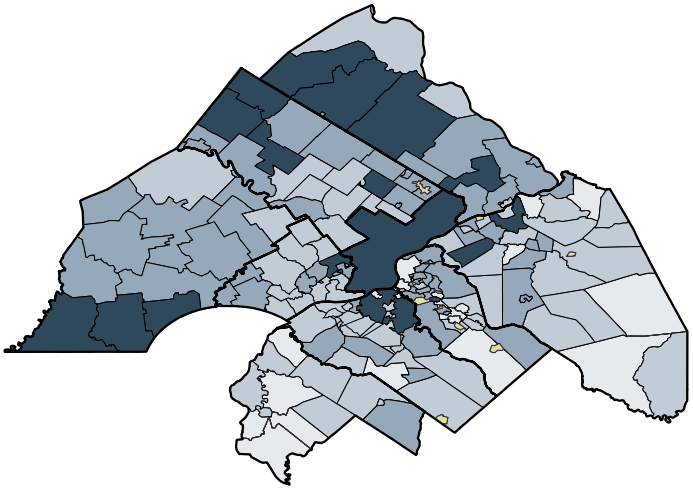
indicator 9.2: student/teacher ratios in primary schools

One important measure of the learning environment provided by different districts is the student-teacher ratio in elementary schools. Research suggests that small classroom size contributes to learning, especially at lower grade levels. Map 9.2 shows the average student-teacher ratio at primary grade levels in 2001. (Note that this ratio does not necessarily portray class sizes, since it includes not only regular classroom teachers but also special-purpose teachers.) There is, as one might expect, a high ratio of students per teacher in Philadelphia, but also in some outlying school districts where tax revenues have not kept up with school enrollments. School districts in the New Jersey suburbs generally enjoy lower student-teacher ratios than do their Pennsylvania counterparts.

Despite the high tax burden on Philadelphians, a large majority of city residents expressed a willingness to pay higher taxes if the money went toward improving the quality of schools (see Figure 9.2).

FIGURE 9.2: "Agree" or "strongly agree" would pay higher taxes for schools

Philadelphia	73%
Struggling older communities	71
Solid older communities	52
Working class communities	68
Middle class suburbs	65
Affluent suburbs	60

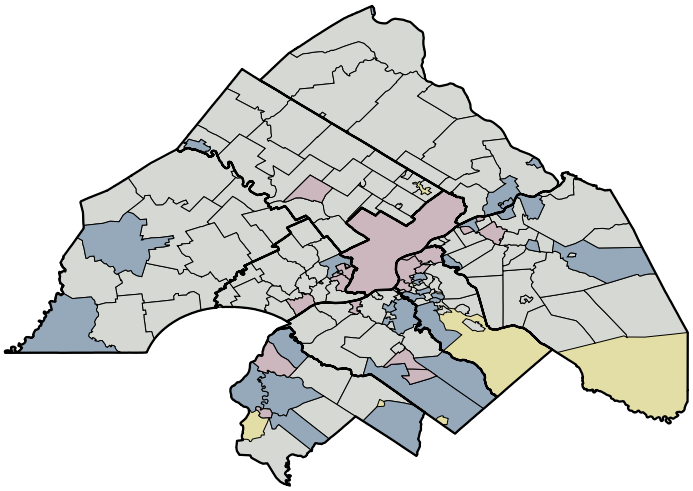


MAP 9.2: Student-teacher ratio in primary schools

< 12 | 12 - 14.9 | 15 - 17.9 | ≥ 18 | no data

indicator 9.3: eighth grade performance on standardized tests

Public schools are increasingly accountable for the performance of their pupils on standardized tests. While New Jersey and Pennsylvania administer different tests, both attempt to determine whether students are achieving at appropriate grade levels. Map 9.3 shows the school districts in which 30 percent or more of the students have test scores below expectations for their grade. In Pennsylvania, the maps show the percent falling "below basic," indicating inadequate academic performance that reflects little understanding and minimal display of skills included in the Pennsylvania Academic Content Standards. The comparable performance category in New Jersey is "partially proficient." To make sure the numerical averages were not reflecting only one-year aberrations for individual school districts, we averaged student performance over three succeeding test years, 2000–2002.



MAP 9.3: Districts with a high percentage of 8th grade failures on standardized assessments*

> 30% failing only math > 30% failing math and reading

< 30% failing math and reading no data

** No separate color is shown for only reading failures because every district with over 30% failing reading also had over 30% failing math.*

In the survey, Philadelphians expressed far less satisfaction with public schools than did residents of other communities, even the Struggling Older Communities (Figure 9.3). Furthermore, fewer Philadelphians perceived their public schools as improved over the past five years.

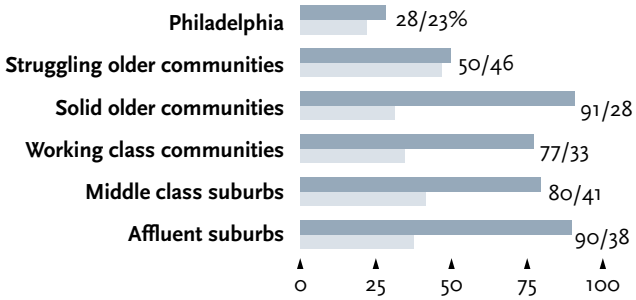


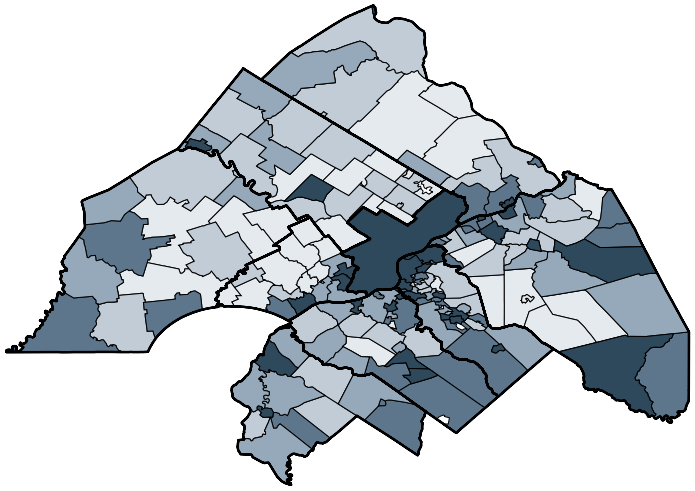
FIGURE 9.3: Quality of schools: is "good" or "very good" quality has increased over the past 5 years

indicator 9.4: student eligibility for lunch assistance

The percentage of children in each school district who are eligible for free or reduced price lunches is an indicator of the extent to which schools are serving low-income youngsters with needs beyond classroom instruction, including social and health services. Students whose family income is up to 130 percent of the poverty line are eligible for free lunches, and those whose families earn between 130 percent and 185 percent of the poverty line may buy their lunches at reduced prices.

In 1999–2001, Philadelphia and Camden fall into the top category, with over 35 percent of students eligible for free or reduced price lunches (Map 9.4). A number of school districts just northeast of Philadelphia in Lower Bucks County serve school populations containing more than 20 percent eligible for the program. Immediately southwest of Philadelphia are several districts with the highest rate (over 35 percent) of pupils in the program. In Montgomery County two older towns at some distance from the Philadelphia border—Norristown and Pottstown—serve school populations that include large percentages of eligible students.

In New Jersey a group of districts along the banks of the Delaware River, particularly in Camden and Burlington counties, serve high percentages of children in the free or reduced price lunch program. There are also districts dispersed throughout the four counties in New Jersey whose student populations fall into these top two categories.



MAP 9.4: Pupils eligible for free or reduced price lunch

< 5% | 5 - 9.9 | 10 - 19.9 | 20 - 34.9 | ≥ 35

indicator 9.5: SAT scores

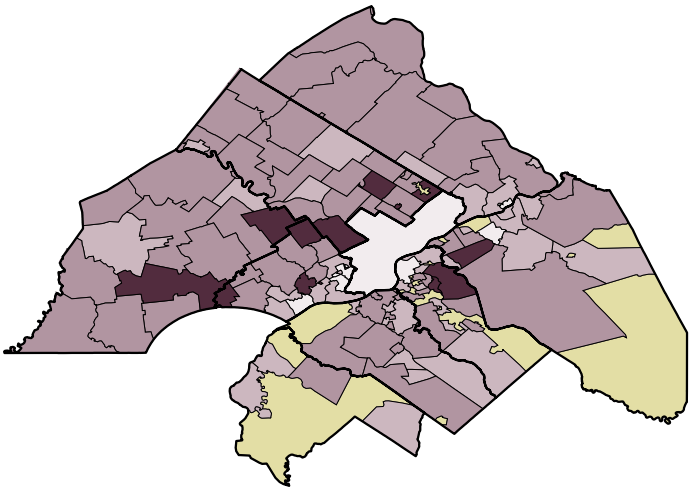
An indicator of the extent to which the region's college-bound seniors can compete for admission to colleges and universities is their scoring on the verbal and quantitative portions of the Standardized Achievement Test (SAT). Taken by college-bound seniors across the nation, the SAT allows comparisons among students from schools with widely differing resources, educational programs, and grading practices. The test aims to measure students' skills in verbal reasoning, critical reading, and math problem solving. A maximum of 1,600 points can be earned for the combined quantitative and math portions of the SAT.

Map 9.5 shows the average combined scores for the verbal and quantitative portions of the SAT in each school district in our region. To ensure that the scores did not reflect only one-year aberrations for individual school districts, SAT scores were averaged over three succeeding test years, 1999–2001.

Figure 9.5 displays a wide gap in test scores between the cities of Philadelphia and Camden and the rest of the metropolitan area. That is not unusual. Nationally, the average test taker from large cities in the year 2000 scored only 993, compared with a test taker from the nation's suburbs who had an average score of 1059.

FIGURE 9.5: Average SAT scores, 1999-2001

	verbal	math	combined
Philadelphia	415	423	838
Camden	385	389	774
Suburbs	502	509	1011
Metro as whole	500	507	1007
National test takers	505	513	1018



MAP 9.5: Average combined SAT score

< 900 | 900 - 999 | 1000- 1099 | ≥ 1100 | no data

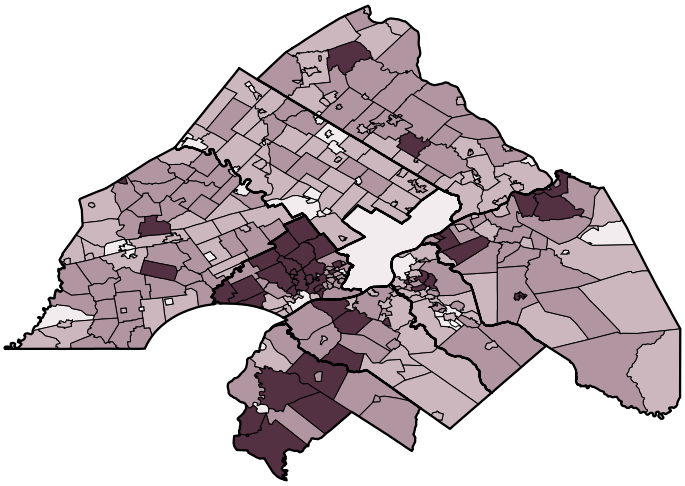
chapter 10 civic participation

Widespread participation in civic life is a sign of healthy communities. Along with the economic capital required to build and maintain houses, stores, and businesses, many urban analysts now recognize the value of a community's "social capital," defined as the attitudes, relationships, and behaviors that foster cooperation. A functioning network of mutual obligation, trust, and support among residents can be a resource in itself to sustain the quality of life in communities. This section assesses the strength of those social networks in our region's communities by looking at several forms of civic engagement.

indicator 10.1: registered voters who voted in 2000 and 2002

Voting is the most basic form of participation in community life. It is measured here by selecting the two recent elections most likely to attract voter interest: the 2002 gubernatorial contests in Pennsylvania and New Jersey, and the presidential election in November 2000. Across the region, turn-out in the Bush vs. Gore contest of 2000 was 58 percent, slightly higher than the national turn-out rate of 55 percent.

Experts on elections have often noted differences in voting behavior based on income and age. Across the U.S., affluent citizens are more likely than low-income citizens to vote, and older citizens turn out in higher proportions than young voters. Map 10.1 shows that registered voters in Philadelphia and Camden turned out in lower proportions than did voters in most other communities around the region. Delaware County produced disproportionately high levels of turnout in the northern suburbs, several of which have sizable populations over age 65.



MAP 10.1: Voter turn-out in 2000 and 2002

≤ 50% 51 - 60 61 - 65 > 65

indicator 10.2: citizen contact with local government officials

The home rule tradition is strong in the Delaware Valley. Local government in this region is the responsibility of 353 separate municipalities, each of which jealously guards its autonomy. This degree of fragmentation is high, but not beyond the level of some other major metropolitan regions. Among the eight peer regions, Cleveland, Minneapolis, and Pittsburgh exceed Philadelphia's ratio of seven local governments for every 100,000 citizens (Figure 10.2a).

FIGURE 10.2a: Local governments per 100,000 residents in selected metropolitan areas

Baltimore	1	**Minneapolis**	11
Boston	5	**Philadelphia**	7
Chicago	6	**Phoenix**	1
Cleveland	9	**Pittsburgh**	17
Detroit	5		

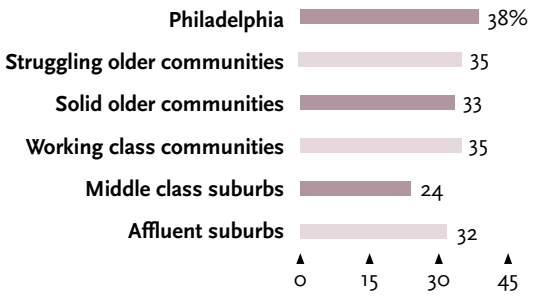


FIGURE 10.2b: Have contacted government officials in the past 12 months

Subdividing responsibility into hundreds of small government units is defended on the grounds that it puts local government within the reach of every resident. The assumption is that small governments are more likely to respond to the preferences of their constituents. However, only about a third of respondents in the survey reported that they had contacted a government official within the past year (Figure 10.2b). (Since citizens participate largely in a local government context, the data in this chapter are shown by municipality, separating Philadelphia from the other five community types.)

The survey does not suggest that the remaining two-thirds are satisfied with local government. Figure 10.2c shows that, on a 7-point scale, with 7 representing complete satisfaction, 1 representing complete dissatisfaction, and 4 representing a neutral reaction to the job done by local officials, the region's residents rated their local officials between 4 and 5 (Figure 10.2c). The least satisfied respondents are in the Struggling Older Communities and the most satisfied in the Affluent Suburbs, but the difference is modest.

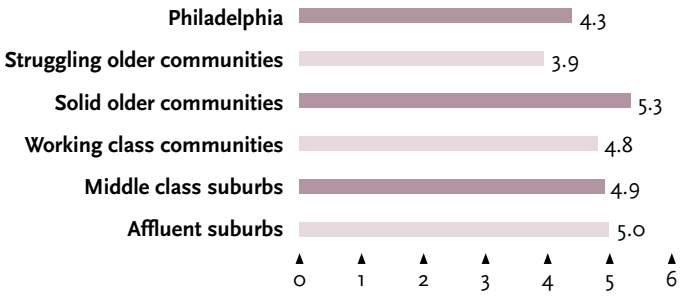


FIGURE 10.2c: Satisfaction with the job done by local government officials: on a 7-point scale from "completely dissatisfied" (1) to "completely satisfied" (7)

indicator 10.3: discretionary income given to charity

A measure of people's commitment to their communities is their willingness to donate to charitable causes. To compare patterns of giving in different places, the *Chronicle of Philanthropy* studied the charitable giving habits of people who earned at least $50,000 a year and who itemized deductions on their federal income tax returns. That study arrived at an estimate of "discretionary income" by subtracting housing and food costs, taxes, and other basic living expenses from the average income within a given area. Compared to its peers, the Philadelphia metropolitan area ranks lower than most others, with the notable exception of Boston (Figure 10.3a).

In the Philadelphia region, the *Chronicle* study reported that taxpayers in Philadelphia and Delaware County (a county that contains numerous communities we have classified as Struggling Older Communities) reported giving a higher percentage of their disposable incomes to charity than the rest of the region's households (Figure 10.3b). It appears that our region's less affluent communities donate a greater share of their income to churches and other nonprofit causes than do wealthier places.

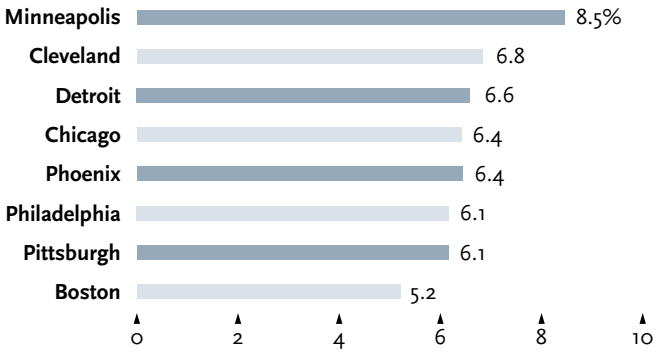


FIGURE 10.3a: Percent of discretionary income given to charity by selected metropolitan areas

FIGURE 10.3b: Percent of discretionary income given to charity by county, Philadelphia region

Philadelphia	7.4%	**Camden County**	5.7%
Delaware County	7.3	**Burlington County**	5.5
Montgomery County	6.3	**Bucks County**	5.3
Gloucester County	6.0	**Chester County**	5.1
Salem County	6.0		

indicator 10.4: sense of community

Asked whether "there is a strong sense of community" in their neighborhoods, over two-thirds (69 percent) of all the region's citizens either agreed or strongly agreed with that statement (Figure 10.4a). By far the most resounding agreement came in the Solid Older Communities (places like Narberth, West Chester, Cheltenham, and Media) where over 90 percent of residents reported a strong sense of community. Interestingly, these same communities were least likely to report that neighbors do favors for each other at least once a week (Figure 10.4b).

Asked how many personal friends live within their neighborhood, the residents of Philadelphia and the Struggling Older Communities were most likely to report they have only two or fewer friends living nearby (Figure 10.4c). Philadelphia's historic label "a city of neighborhoods" does not mean its residents express a stronger sense of attachment to their neighborhoods than do suburbanites. Asked whether their neighborhood is home or just a place to live, residents in many suburban communities were more likely to call their neighborhood home than those who live in any of the older types of communities (See Figure 10.4d).

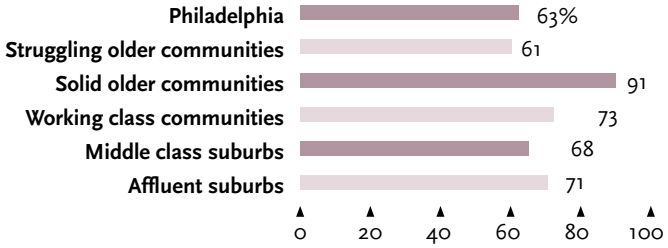


FIGURE 10.4a: "Agree" or "strongly agree" there is a strong sense of community in my neighborhood

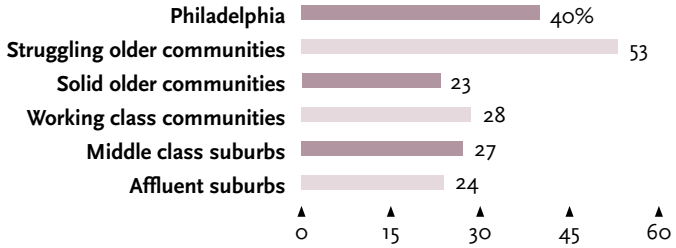


FIGURE 10.4c: Only two or fewer friends in neighborhood

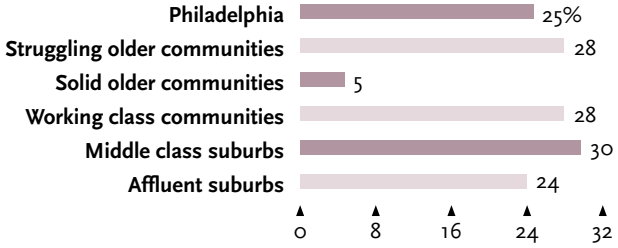


FIGURE 10.4b: Neighbors do favors for each other daily or 1–3 times a week

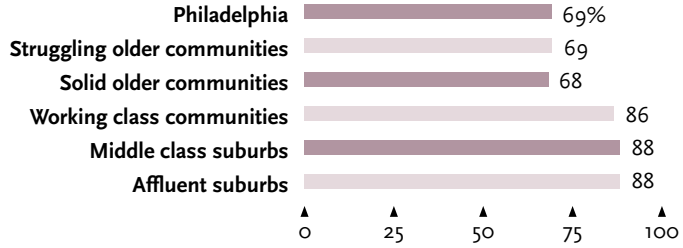


FIGURE 10.4d: My neighborhood is home, not just a place to live

indicator 10.5: engagement in community

Civic participation involves activities people use to solve local problems. In order to compare people's sense of community, as described above, with their actions, the survey asked residents across the region whether in the past year they had sought to deal with local issues either by meeting with neighbors informally, attending a neighborhood association or block club, or attending a meeting at a place of worship. Although citizens in Philadelphia and the Struggling Older Communities express a weaker sense of community and belonging than do inhabitants of many other parts of the region, their levels of involvement were at least 10 percent higher than for the other communities (Figure 10.5a). This finding may appear counter-intuitive, but is consistent with political research showing that the more diverse a community's population, the higher the level of political involvement, because conflicts draw citizens into civic engagement. By contrast, many suburban places with homogeneous political interests produce lower levels of political involvement.

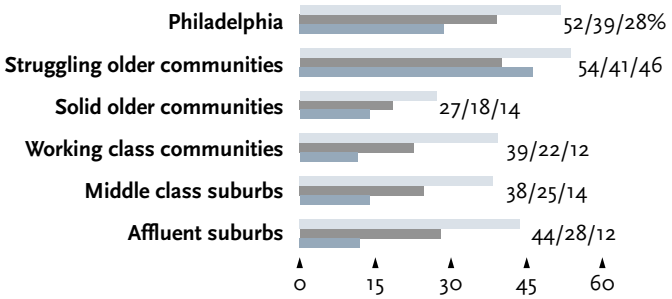


FIGURE 10.5a: In past year, did you attend...
informal meeting with neighbors | block club meeting | neighborhood meeting in a church

Among the local issues likely to draw citizens into community engagement, none is more powerful than school concerns. Contrary to the widely held view that suburban families participate in school affairs at higher levels than Philadelphia families, the survey found virtually no difference in the percentage of households reporting that at least one adult is active in school affairs (Figure 10.5b). About three-quarters of all households with school age children (whether in city or suburbs) are engaged in school activities. (Beyond the city of Philadelphia, the number of respondents does not permit a reliable breakdown among community types.)

FIGURE 10.5b: Households with adult active in school affairs

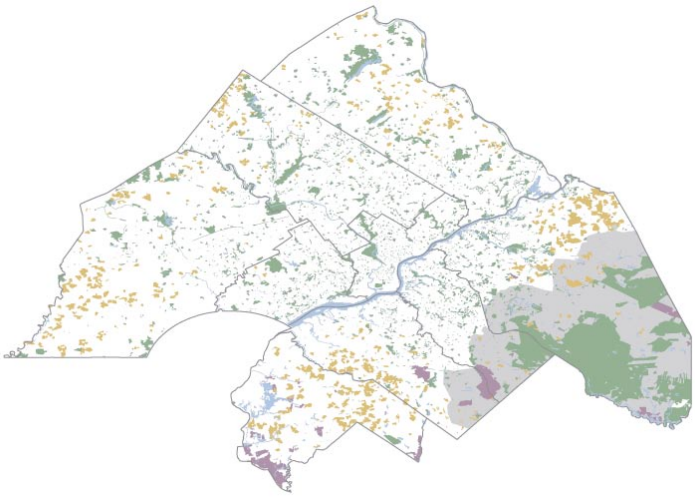
Philadelphia	78%
Rest of the region	75

chapter 11 environment

The physical environment of the region is affected by the ways in which the region's communities house and transport themselves, and by the ways in which their businesses and homes generate and handle human and industrial by-products. Signs of environmental awareness are present as states, counties, and communities provide for green space and for remediation of environmental damage. Signs of continuing environmental stress can also be found in the ways in which a variety of toxins expose communities across the region to health risks.

indicator 11.1: parks and protected lands

One of the region's major environmental assets is the widespread presence of parks and protected lands. In the map of these areas, it is apparent that there is region-wide availability of public parks, and that significant areas in the outer edges of the region have been placed under some form of protection from intense economic or residential development. Map 11.1 contains the most current information about all levels of parks, from national to municipal or township parks and from state and county records of protected lands.



MAP 11.1: Protected areas

parks preserved farmlands wildlife refuges
restricted developments waters

The regional survey uncovered broad region-wide support for environmental issues, with strong majority support for control of development and for the use of tax dollars in addressing environmental concerns (see Figure 11.1). On two specific issues, using tax dollars for public parks or to protect agricultural lands from development, there was less broad support. While environmental concerns clearly exist in the region, defining public policy to address these remains a challenge.

FIGURE 11.1: Attitudes toward and support for public expenditures on environmental issues

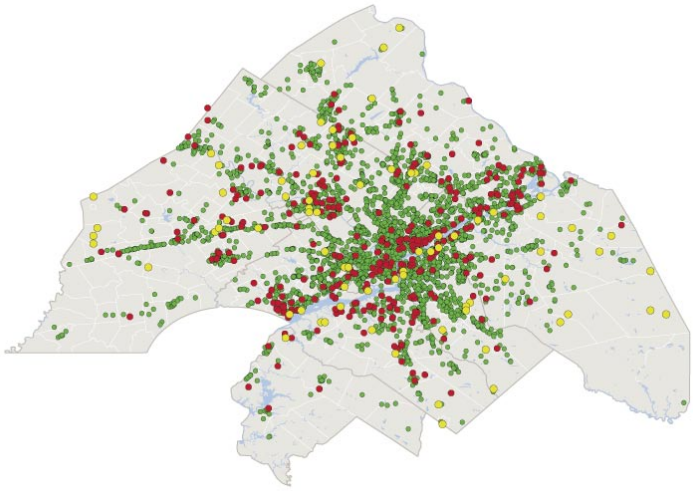
	restrict development	taxes for environment
Struggling older communities	63%	68%
Solid older communities	75	72
Working class communities	72	63
Middle class suburbs	72	59
Affluent suburbs	78	62

	taxes for parks	taxes to save farmland
Struggling older communities	36%	43%
Solid older communities	20	31
Working class communities	35	47
Middle class suburbs	38	52
Affluent suburbs	43	52

indicator 11.2: hazardous waste generation, storage, and transportation

One of the ways in which people are most aware of environmental stress is through the handling of hazardous wastes. The visual materials presented in Map 11.2 indicate the location of hazardous waste facilities (waste generators, handlers, and transporters), using the U.S. Environmental Protection Agency's Resource Conservation and Recovery Act (RCRA) database. The locations of identified Superfund sites are superimposed on this map. The EPA identifies Superfund sites as non-active waste sites, that are at one of three stages in the remediation process (see Technical Appendix).

Hazardous waste generators are found across the region, although they appear to be concentrated in the sections of densest population concentrations and adjacent to many transportation corridors. Storage and transportation locations are more clearly adjacent to major transportation routes, while Superfund sites are more broadly dispersed. It was impossible to develop a single measure of community exposure because these facilities differ so much in terms of size and the variety of wastes generated.



MAP 11.2: Hazardous waste handlers, generators and transporters
superfund sites ● handlers and transporters ● generators ●

indicator 11.3: toxic chemical releases

One of the potentially significant sources of environmental stress is the release of toxic materials into the environment. The Environmental Protection Agency (EPA) monitors those releases, and produces a Toxic Release Inventory (TRI) that lists the location, type, and volume of toxic release. Map 11.3 isolates five major chemicals that rank high on public health concerns—benzene, dioxin, lead, mercury, and PCBs—and develops a simple measure of community exposure based on the incidence of releases containing one to five of these key chemical stressors.

Future versions of this report will introduce a Risk Screening Environmental Indicator, developed by the EPA. The data in Figure 11.3a are based on this measure and summarizes risk levels across community types (see Technical Appendix). The results iindicate shared levels of risk across all communities; Struggling Older Communities experience the highest level. Working Class and Middle Class Suburbs are lower in risk level, but still significantly higher than Affluent Suburbs.

This report uses the EPA's measure of air quality as a measure of environmental well-being. Figure 11.3b indicates the percent of days during 2003 in which air quality was good.

FIGURE 11.3a: Toxic Release Inventory (TRI) sites and risks by community type

	sites	risk score/ facility
Struggling older communities	54	7,146
Solid older communities	3	161
Working class communities	73	986
Middle class suburbs	61	1,240
Affluent suburbs	65	222

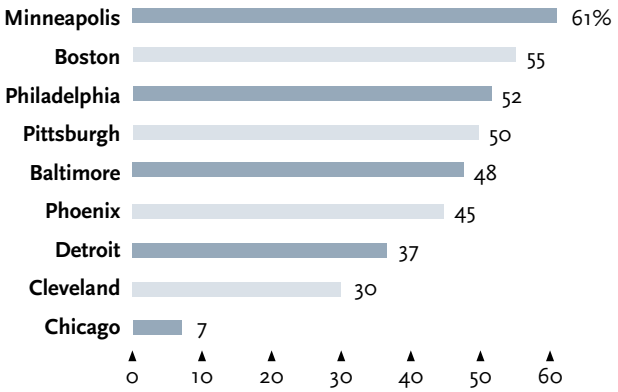
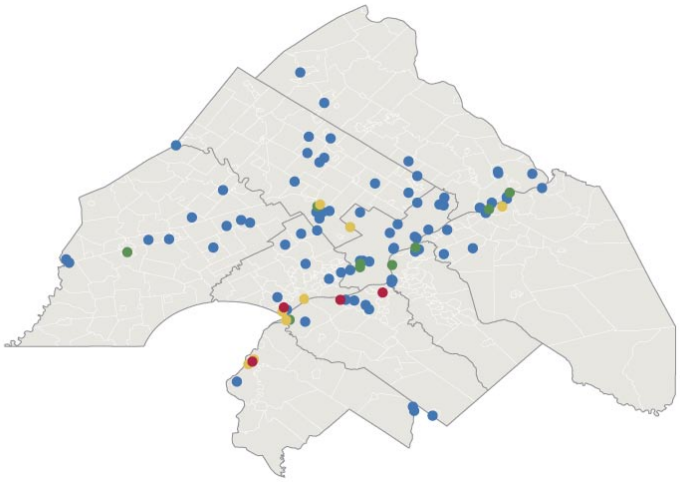


FIGURE 11.3b: Good air quality days in selected metropolitan areas



MAP 11.3: Facilities releasing some combination of benzene, dioxin, lead, mercury and PCBs: number of different chemicals released

(1) (2) (3) (4)

chapter 12 arts and culture

Extensive media coverage devoted to the opening of the Kimmel Center in Center City Philadelphia and to a series of high-profile museum exhibitions during the 1990s focused attention on the role that cultural institutions play in attracting visitors and bolstering the downtown economy. Research has also suggested that the presence of arts and culture organizations in neighborhoods is related to community participation and community vitality.[2] This section presents indicators that describe the impacts of arts and culture on the region.

indicator 12.1: distribution of nonprofit cultural and recreational organizations

The Philadelphia region is well endowed with cultural institutions compared to its peer regions (Figure 12.1). Cities have historically served as centers of cultural production, so it is not surprising that the region's nonprofit arts and culture organizations–including museums, archives, orchestras, theatres, opera companies, and many other cultural venues–are concentrated in the two core cities of Philadelphia and Camden. Map 12.1 shows that beyond Center City, Philadelphia contains a second concentration of historical/cultural institutions winding through the northwest neighborhoods of Germantown, Mt. Airy, and Chestnut Hill. A few other cultural "hotspots" are emerging in the Pennsylvania suburbs, particularly in and around Doylestown, Pottstown, and Swarthmore. In New Jersey, another concentration appears in Haddonfield and Haddon Heights.

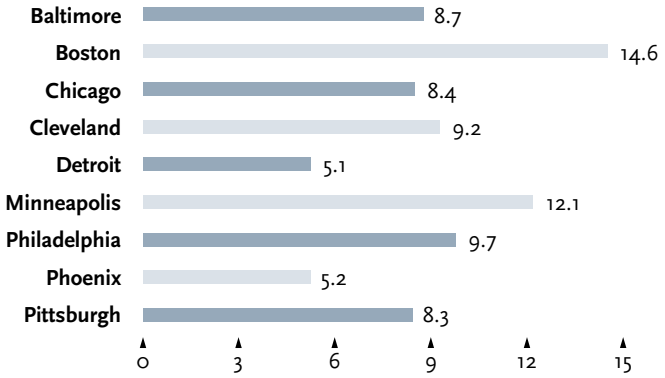
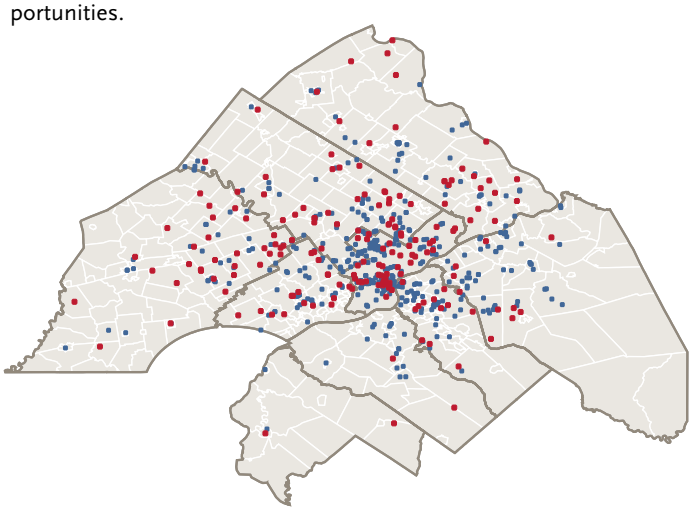


FIGURE 12.1: Number of cultural nonprofits per 100,000 persons in selected metropolitan areas*

**Includes nonprofit arts and culture organizations with annual revenues over $25,000*

Map 12.1 shows that recreational opportunities are far more widely dispersed than those in arts and culture. With the exception of Salem County, the least populous in the region, all the counties of the region offer substantial recreational opportunities.



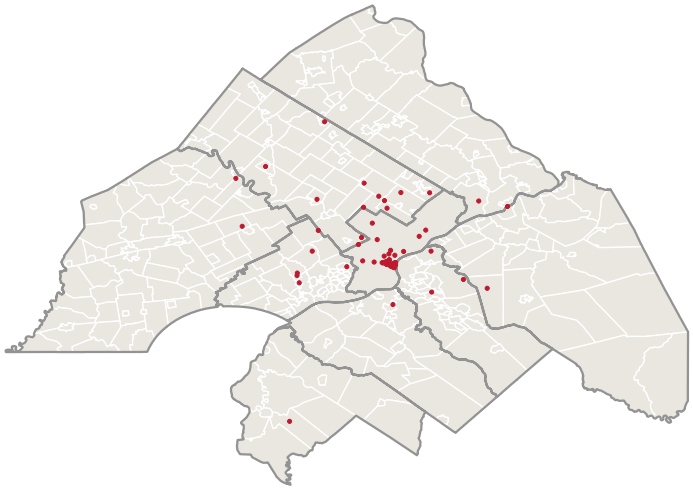
MAP 12.1: Nonprofit organizations with cultural or recreational programming

art/culture/humanities ● recreation/sports/leisure ●

indicator 12.2: distribution of theatre companies

Since it represents an eclectic mix of for-profit theatres, nonprofit professional companies, and amateur groups, live theatre is a cultural form that is frequently under-estimated by analysts of the cultural sector who concentrate on nonprofit professional theatres alone. Yet more Americans report attending theatre productions than any other performing art.[3]

Map 12.2 shows the geographic distribution of theatre companies in the region that are members of the Theatre Alliance of Greater Philadelphia. While the city of Philadelphia is unquestionably the hub of the region's theatre scene, slightly more than 40 percent of theatre companies are located outside of the city. This pattern of dispersal is probably due not only to the popularity of plays and musical theatre, but also to the number of suburban residents who perform in amateur theatre productions; theatre companies represent both the consumption and production of art. Like other cultural institutions, community theatres contribute to the local economy (Figure 12.2).



MAP 12.2: Distribution of theatre companies

A theatre company purchases a gallon of paint from the local hardware store for $10 (this generates the direct economic impact)...

the hardware store then uses a portion of the $10 to pay the sale clerk's salary...

the sales clerk re-spends some of the money for groceries...

the grocery store in turn uses some of the money to pay its cashier...

the cashier then spends some for the utility bill; and so on (these are the indirect economic impacts).

FIGURE 12.2: How a cultural dollar is re-spent in a community

indicator 12.3: attendance at art exhibitions and performances

A common way to gauge participation in the arts is to ask survey respondents if they attended at least one exhibition or live performance of music, dance, or drama within the past year. A 2002 survey sponsored by the Knight Foundation found that, although arts and culture institutions are disproportionately located within Philadelphia and Camden, higher proportions of suburbanites than city residents had attended at least one performance or exhibit within the prior year (Figure 12.3).

Researchers who focus instead on the number of times that survey respondents attend various cultural exhibitions or performances have drawn a different conclusion. They have concluded that the number of times per year that people attend performances is closely related to the number of arts and culture organizations existing within their own community. The presence of cultural groups in the local community is an even better predictor of the frequency of arts participation than standard social variables such as income, education, and race. When the measure is the frequency of participation, the residents of city districts containing multiple arts and culture venues show higher participation rates than do suburbanites.[4]

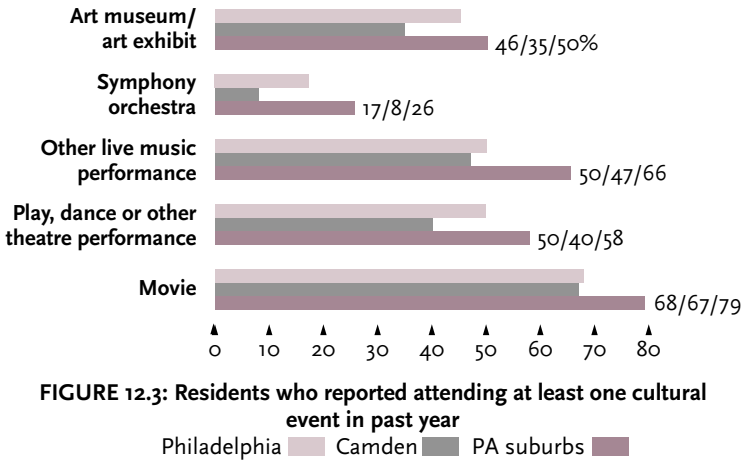


FIGURE 12.3: Residents who reported attending at least one cultural event in past year

indicator 12.4: willingness to support local arts and culture with taxes

When asked whether they would be willing to pay more taxes to improve arts and culture in their own communities, those in the suburbs responded slightly less favorably than did residents in the older communities (Figure 12.4). Less than half of residents in the Middle Class and Affluent Suburbs would tax themselves further to create more arts and culture opportunities in their communities. (The survey did not ask about support for a regional tax to support the entire region's cultural assets, but only about taxes to support more opportunities within the local community.)

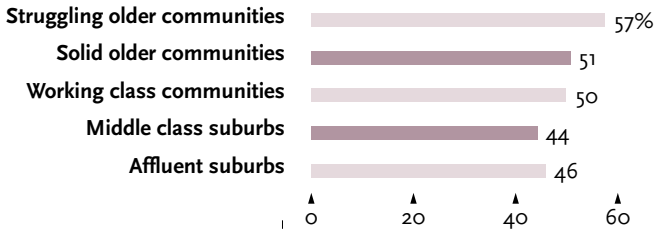


FIGURE 12.4: "Agree" or "strongly agree" to pay more taxes for local arts and culture

In both types of older communities and Working Class Communities, half or more of the respondents would pay higher taxes to support arts and culture. This survey does not make clear why a majority of respondents in these communities favored more public spending on local arts programs. One possible explanation is that community art centers are likely to serve children in after-school and weekend activities, which may be important to families in these communities.

indicator 12.5: employment in arts and culture organizations

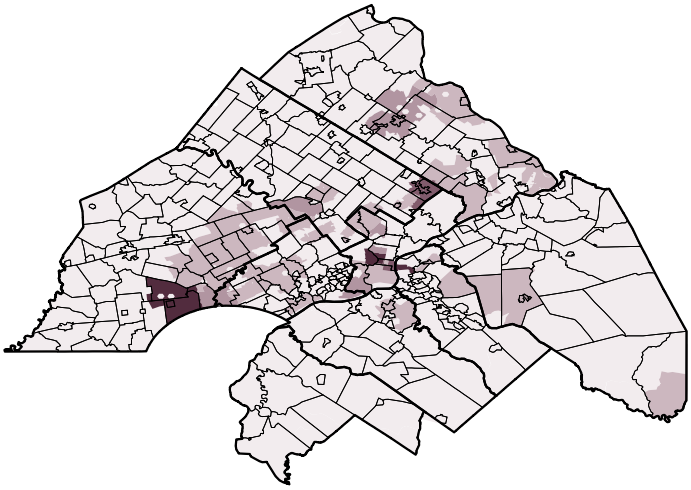
The impact of arts and culture organizations on the region extends beyond the benefits to participants. The arts create employment for substantial numbers of residents in the region. Map 12.5 shows where employers in the arts and culture sector are located. They range from museums, dance companies, and galleries, to historical societies, archives, and libraries, to design workshops, theatres, zoos, and botanical gardens, and many other enterprises focused on cultural production. Such employers are concentrated in central Philadelphia and in one zip code in Camden. In Chester County, an area of concentration focuses on Longwood Gardens and nearby employers. Other suburban clusters appear in Doylestown and in the Upper Merion area that encompasses Valley Forge National Park.

Recent discussions about a "creative class" by Richard Florida of Carnegie Mellon University have expanded the definition of "creative class workers" beyond persons directly employed by arts and culture organizations to a wider group of workers who "create meaningful new forms." The broader designation goes beyond artists, entertainers, designers, architects, writers, college professors, scientists, and engineers, to encompass workers in knowledge-intensive industries like health care, finance, and law, on the grounds that these workers make their living by creative problem-solving. Measured by this expanded definition of "creative class work" as a percent of all regional employment, Philadelphia ranks near the top of the list of peer regions (Figure 12.5).

FIGURE 12.5: Creative class employment as percent of of total employment in selected metropolitan areas*

Boston	38%	**Detroit**	31%
Minneapolis	34	**Pittsburgh**	30
Philadelphia	32	**Detroit**	30
Chicago	32	**Phoenix**	29

**Baltimore is omitted because the data source folded it into Washington, DC*



MAP 12.5: Arts and culture jobs by zip code

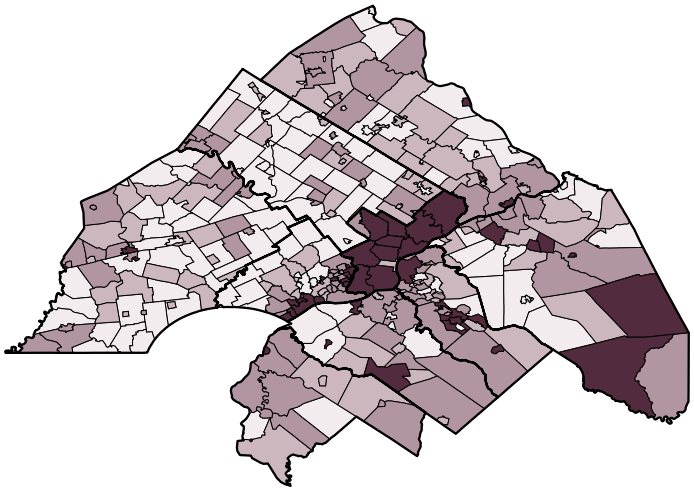
< 11 | 11 - 49 | 50 - 99 | 100 - 200 | > 200

chapter 13 health indicators

Poor health threatens family well-being. A person who cannot work or can work only part-time or can work only in certain physically or mentally less demanding jobs has limited income possibilities. In many cases, poor health produces poverty. Poverty also frequently leads to poor health through poor nutrition, residence in neighborhoods exposed to pollution, jobs which harm health, lack of adequate medical care, inability to afford or to follow necessary therapies, and other elements of a life in poverty which compromise health. At the community level, health bears upon the demands for services and the ability of individuals and families to improve their lives. This chapter explores the issues through the distribution of disabilities, low birth weight, health insurance, and perceptions of one's health

indicator 13.1: disability that limits employment

Map 13.1 displays the percentage of adults aged 21–64 who, because of a physical, mental, or emotional condition lasting six months or more, report a disability that limits their ability to work; in terms of the total metropolitan area, 10 percent of this age group is so disabled. While the data do not reveal the source of the disability, the locations of the highest levels suggest several possibilities. The two highest levels of disability are largely in former or current manufacturing centers such as Philadelphia, Marcus Hook, Camden, Coatesville, Lindenwold, and Bensalem, or where agriculture is still significant such as in Woodland Township in Burlington County, or where construction is a major employer as in Washington Township in Burlington County. According to Occupational Safety and Health Administration figures, manufacturing, agriculture, and construction have the highest rates of job-related injuries. Many of the former manufacturing communities also have high proportions of low wage service workers in jobs such as nurse's aide, orderly, and home health aide, which are associated with high rates of back injury. However, as the disability figures describe places of residence rather than places of employment, these figures are not necessarily job-related. Still another possible factor is environmental quality: as shown in Chapter 11, many of these communities are also burdened with sites that produce or store hazardous waste.

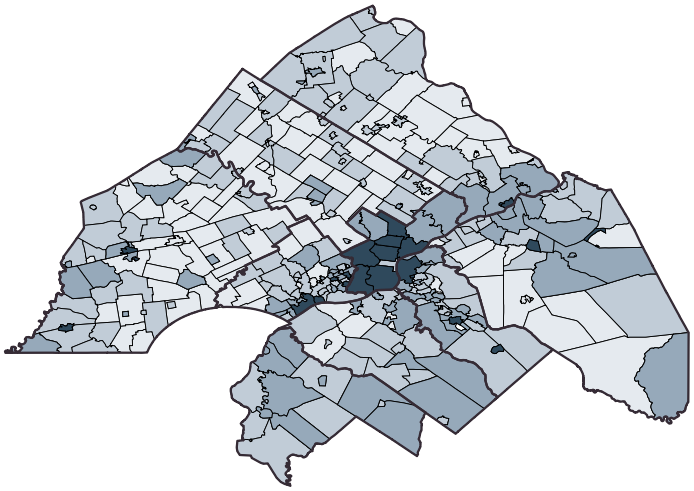


MAP 13.1: Adults 21–64 with a disability that limits employment

< 8% | 8 - 9.9 | 10 - 14.9 | ≥ 15

indicator 13.2: disability that limits leaving the home

A more severe level of disability occurs when a person has difficulty leaving home to engage in everyday activities such as shopping or visiting a physician, and region-wide, people with this disability represent about seven percent of those of aged 21–64. Map. 13.2 depicts the percentage of prime working age persons who, again because of a physical, mental, or emotional condition lasting six months or more, report such a limitation. Although broadly similar to the distribution of job-related disability, the pattern of the distribution of high levels of leaving home disability is more concentrated, with most of the highest levels within the city of Philadelphia. For the region as a whole, 36 percent of those with a job disability also have a disability that makes it difficult for them to leave home.



MAP 13.2: Adults 21–64 with a disability that limits leaving home
< 3% 3 - 4.9 5 - 8.9 ≥ 9

Figure 13.2 examines these two indicators together by the five community types. It displays communities where 13 or more percent of its 21–64 population have a job disability and six or more percent have a leaving home disability. Clearly, the burden is in the Struggling Older Communities, but more generally, the economic status of the community is related to its disability percentage. Given that possession of health insurance is also related to income and that persons in lower income communities are thus less likely to have coverage, some part of the community differences probably represents differing abilities to afford appropriate care in addition to the factors already cited.

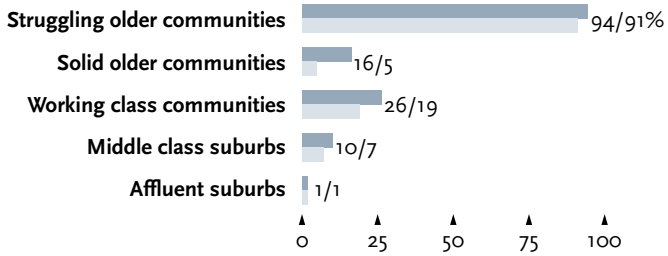


FIGURE 13.2: Communities with high "job" and "leaving home" disabilities by community type
13+ percent of prime age adults have job disability
6+ percent of prime age adults have leaving home disability

indicator 13.3: low birth weight

Low birth weight (under 2,500 grams) is a particularly significant health indicator because babies born with low birth weight have a substantially increased risk of health and developmental problems that entail substantial long-term human and financial costs to their families and their communities. High communal rates of low birth weight births are known indicators of communal poverty and inadequate access to prenatal care. Nationally, eight percent of all births are low birth weight. Figure 13.3 displays the average percentage of births that are low birth weight by community type. Because birth weight data are available only by municipality, Philadelphia is shown separately from the other five community types. Again, the economic status of the community reveals itself in the data, although in this instance, the relationship between economic status and the indicator is simpler as the major difference is between Philadelphia and the Struggling Older Communities and the rest of the municipalities.

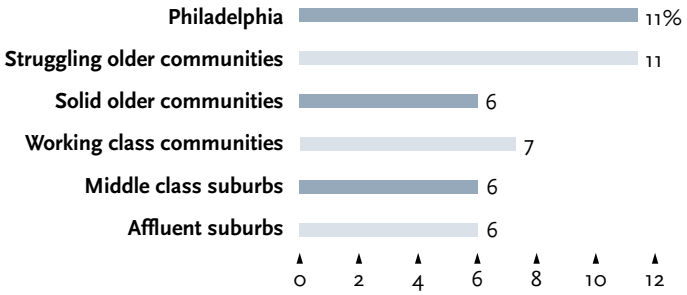


FIGURE 13.3: Average percentage of low birth weight births by community type

indicator 13.4: health Insurance

The possession of health insurance permits people to get care they need to improve health outcomes. While the available data do not speak to the scope or quality of coverage, they do indicate whether people have some kind of safety net. As earlier, the focus is on those of prime working age. Nationally, 15 percent in this age group lack health insurance, but this figure varies substantially by location. The comparison with peer metropolitan areas shown in Figure 13.4a shows a range of almost 3-to-1, from Boston with just six percent uninsured to Phoenix with 16 percent; Philadelphia fares reasonably well, having the fourth lowest percentage at 11 percent.

The best data on health insurance coverage for the region come from Philadelphia Health Management Corporation's (PHMC) biannual household health survey of approximately 10,000 randomly selected households on the Pennsylvania side of the metropolitan area.[5] Figure 13.4b shows that the range in the percentage uninsured across communities is over 4-to-1. Again, the major difference is between the Struggling Older Communities and the rest of the region.

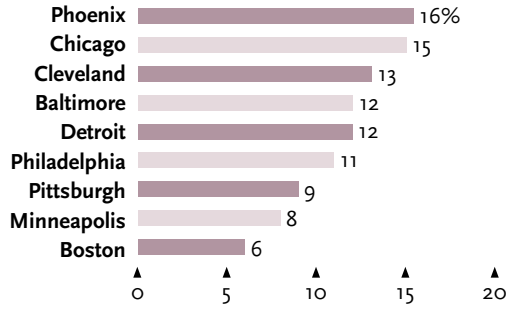


FIGURE 13.4a: Adults 21–64 without health insurance in selected metropolitan areas

Most persons within the 21–64 age group obtain their health insurance through their employer. But whether one works full- or part-time, one's level of income makes a difference. Figure 13.4c displays the percentage of persons with health insurance by employment status and household income.[6] Persons employed full-time in households with incomes less than 150 percent of the poverty line are more than six times as likely to lack insurance as those in high income households. And persons employed part-time with low incomes are not only more than three times as likely to lack health insurance, they are no less likely to lack it than an unemployed person, regardless of income.

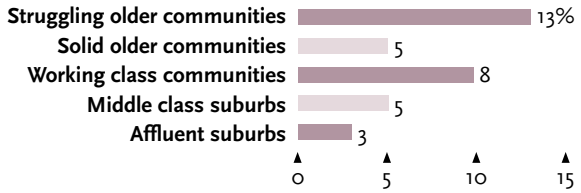


FIGURE 13.4b: Adults 21–64 without health health insurance by community type (only for Pennsylvania communities)

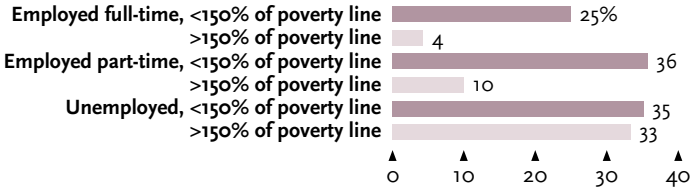


FIGURE 13.4c: Adults 21–64 without health insurance by poverty status and employment (only for Pennsylvania communities)

indicator 13.5: perceptions of health

In communities where disabilities and a lack of health insurance are more common, the PHMC survey reveals that people of prime working age are likely to express a less positive view of their own health than where these problems are less frequent. Figure 13.5 generally confirms this expectation. Only 24 percent of those in Struggling Older Communities view their health as excellent—well below that of the other communities; the percentage more than doubles for Solid Older Communities and Affluent Suburbs with Working Class Communities and Middle Class Suburbs falling in between. Taken together, these indicators suggest a social safety net which is fraying significantly.

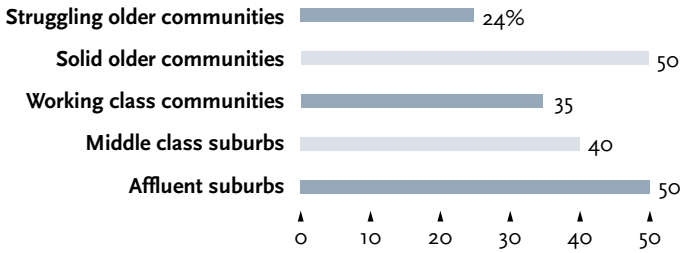


FIGURE 13.5: Adults 21-64 perceiving their health as excellent by community type (only for Pennsylvania communities)

chapter 14 crime and criminal justice

a special report by Ralph B. Taylor and Brian Lawton

Crime levels are important threads of the community fabric. Lower crime rates attract residents and businesses, help boost housing prices and quality of life, and support local institutions like schools. Higher crime levels depress house prices, increase residents' desire to leave (but not necessarily actual departures), and may reduce the willingness of business owners to locate in those communities. High crime rates persisting over time can result in communities being stigmatized. Also important are resident's attitudes toward criminal justice: their confidence in different elements of the system and their assessments of how local police do their work. These attitudes influence willingness to participate in key civic institutions. This chapter presents both crime rate indicators and residents' opinions about the criminal justice system.

indicator 14.1: violent crimes

Using the 2002 Part I (serious) crimes reported to the State Police in Pennsylvania and New Jersey, and allocating the Pennsylvania figures to obtain community level numbers, the four violent crime rates (murder and non-negligent manslaughter, rape, robbery, and aggravated assault) were added together to develop an index for violent crime.

Across the different types of communities, the violent crime rate ranged between 1,309 reported violent crimes per 100,000 persons in Philadelphia to 118 reported violent crimes per 100,000 persons in the Affluent Suburbs (Figure 14.1). This is a tenfold difference across the community types.

Struggling Older Communities like Chester and Camden had violent crime rates almost as high as Philadelphia, averaging a rate of around 1,100. Rates in the other community types are much lower, ranging from between 280 and 120. Further statistical analysis suggests that variation by community type represents about 5 percent of the variation in violent crime. The remaining variation is across municipalities within community types.

Map 14.1 shows communities grouped by their ordering on reported violent crime rates—the highest 20 percent, the next highest 20 percent, and so on. It appears that the 20 percent of communities with the highest crime rates cluster geographically, i.e., are more likely to be adjacent than are the lowest 20 percent. The highest-rate communities are Philadelphia, its immediate neighboring jurisdictions to the southwest, Chester, and Camden and some of its neighbors to the north. Other high-rate municipalities are in a variety of inner ring and outer ring locations. The lowest 20 percent include outlying locations in Montgomery, Bucks, Burlington, and Salem counties.

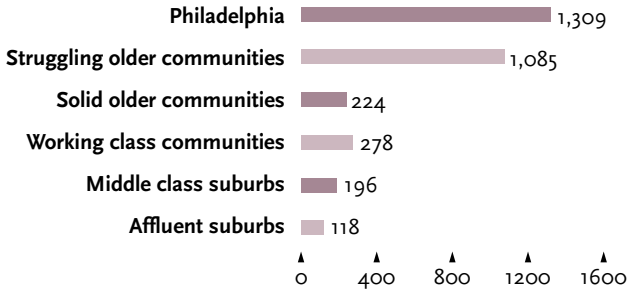
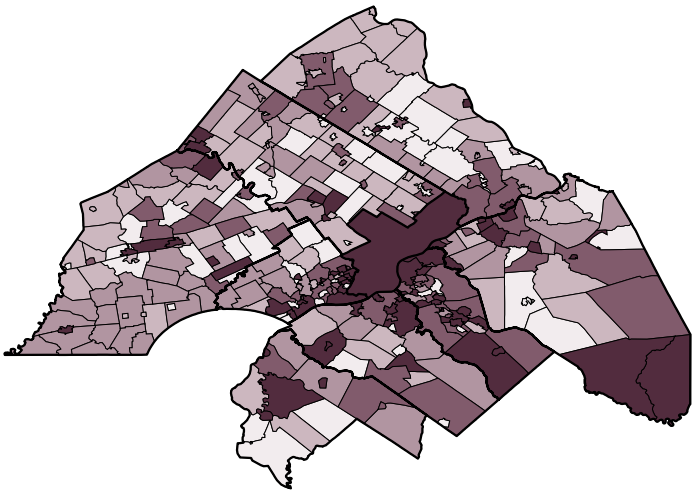


FIGURE 14.1: Violent crimes per 100,000 population



MAP 14.1: Violent crimes per 100,000 population

≤ 68.8 | 68.9 - 123.0 | 123.3 - 170.3 | 170.4 - 318.4 | ≥ 318.5

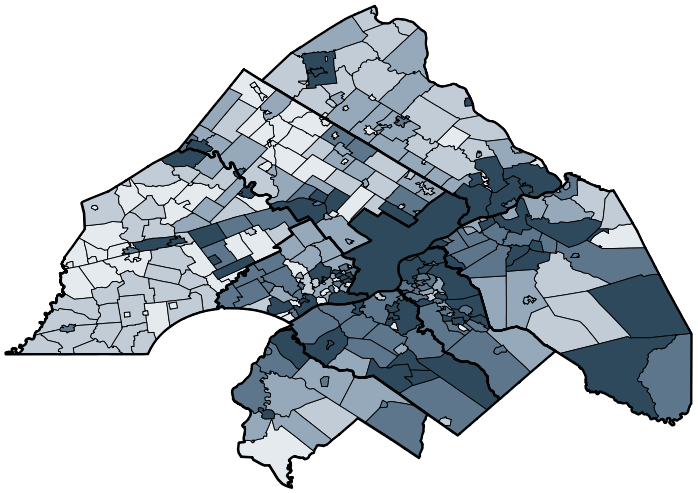
indicator 14.2: property crimes

This indicator adds together four Part 1 property crimes (burglary, motor vehicle theft, larceny, and arson) to create an index. Reported property crime rates, in contrast to the violent crime rates, are far less influenced by community type.

Whereas the *violent* crime rate differences by community type are tenfold, the differences by community type are only fourfold for *property* crime (Figure 14.2). Philadelphia again has the highest rate (over 4,000 reported property crimes per 100,000 people). Struggling Older Communities have a slightly lower average rate than does Philadelphia (around 3,200 reported property crimes per 100,000 people).

Another difference from the reported violent crime rate is that with property crime, there appear to be fewer differences among the four suburban community types beyond Philadelphia and the Struggling Older Communities. Whereas with violent crime the differences between Working Class Communities and Affluent Suburbs were slightly less than 3-to-1, with property crime the rate differences within the four outermost suburban types are only about 1.4-to-1.

The map of property crime rates by municipality shows a somewhat different spatial pattern than does that of violent crime rates. Map 14.2 shows the highest 20 percent of municipalities, the next 20 percent, and so on. Philadelphia and Camden are in the highest grouping, as are communities along the Rt. 95/Rt. 1 corridor north of Philadelphia (such as Bensalem, Bristol, Falls and Middletown townships) and the Rt. 70 corridor west of Camden (Collingswood, Cherry Hill and Voorhees townships). Property offenders usually travel farther than violent criminals, generally plan their crimes more thoroughly, and often use high-speed access routes to and from crime sites.



MAP 14.2: Property crimes per 100,000 population

≤ 762.9 | 763.0 - 1240.9 | 1,241.0 - 1,944.7 | 1,944.8 - 2,732.9 | ≥ 2,733.0

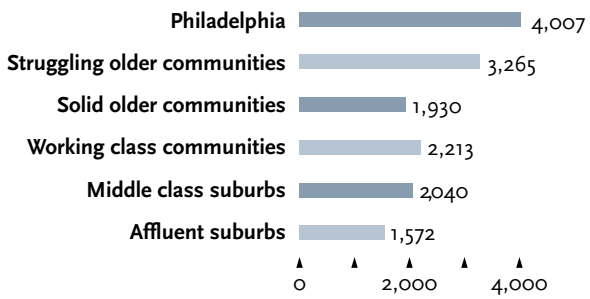


FIGURE 14.2: Property crimes per 100,000 population

indicator 14.3: confidence in the criminal justice system

Survey respondents were asked how much confidence they had in: the criminal justice system, the United States Supreme Court, the state prison system, the local court system, the police, and the local jury system. Since residents' answers to these different items generally agreed, we averaged together the answers for each respondent, and set the average score on this more general index to a baseline value of zero for the entire sample. A higher positive score indicates greater confidence. This outcome signals more than just an attitude; people's views on this matter may influence their willingness to trust or cooperate with legal authorities. Regarding these institutions as sound encourages not only cooperation, but also participation in duties like jury service.

Levels of confidence in the criminal justice system varied significantly across the different types of locales. Views were most negative in Philadelphia and the Struggling Older Communities, with Philadelphians being the most negative (Figure 14.3). Residents in Solid Older Communities and Working Class Communities had views that were about at the regional average, while residents in Middle Class and Affluent Suburbs were most positive about the system. The typical metropolitan answer to a question like "How much confidence do you have in the criminal justice system?" was between "quite a lot" and "some." The typical Philadelphian's view was "some," whereas the typical middle class suburbanite's view was about halfway between "some" and "quite a lot."

These numerical differences represent real differences across types of communities. The variations by community type represent about seven percent of all the variation in the index, the rest being differences between residents in the same type of community. This amount of variation across different locales is somewhat typical for questions like these pertaining to attitudes. While they appear modest, these percentages are nevertheless important for both policy and theoretical purposes.

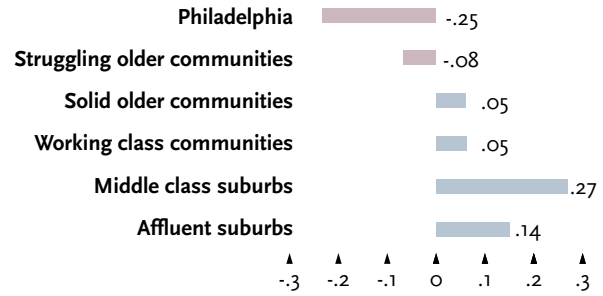


FIGURE 14.3: Index of confidence in criminal justice institutions

indicator 14.4: views of local police

To determine views about local police, the survey included several items regarding perceived effectiveness, including confidence in the ability of the local police to prevent crime and agreement or disagreement that local police do their job well. Several items sought residents' views about how the local police do their job. For example, residents reported how much they agreed that the local police are rude to members of the public or treat all people in their neighborhood equally. Again, answers to these 11 different items proved generally consistent, so they were averaged together for each respondent, and the average score for the whole sample on this more general index was set to a baseline value of zero. Residents scoring higher on the index view the local police as more effective, fair, and respectful; those scoring lower on the index see the local police as less effective and less courteous and evenhanded.

The type of community influences views about local police more than confidence in the justice system. The variation in answers across the different types of communities was significant, with the differences by type of community representing about 11 percent of the total variation in this index.

Philadelphians, who, as shown above, proved the least sanguine about the criminal justice system, proved also to have the most negative views about the police (Figure 14.4). Residents in the Struggling Older Communities were only slightly below the sample average. The other four community types–Solid Older Communities, Working Class Communities, Middle Class Suburbs, and Affluent Suburbs—all had slightly positive (above average) views about the local police. More detailed statistical analysis of this index showed that the only type of community significantly different from the average was Philadelphia.

For the specific question asking how residents rate the fairness of the police in dealing with people in their neighborhood, the average score for the whole metropolitan sample was 2.48, about halfway between "high" and "average". Philadelphians along with those in Struggling Older Communities were most negative with an average score very close to the answer category "average;" by contrast, ratings from those in Affluent Suburbs averaged close to "high" on this question.

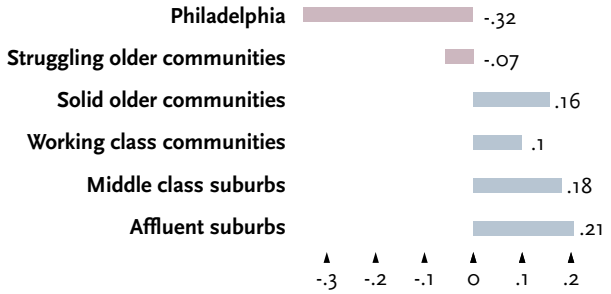


FIGURE 14.4: Index of attitudes toward police

technical appendix

Sources

Chapter 1:

MAPS 1.1 - 1.2: *Neighborhood Change Database 1970–2000*(NCDB), GeoLytics, Inc., E. Brunswick, NJ. "This document contains demographic data from GeoLytics, E. Brunswick, NJ." (Census SF3)

MAP 1.4: U.S. Census Bureau, Manufacturing and Construction Division, Residential Construction Branch; "Building Permits Survey, 2000–2002."

MAP 1.5: Delaware Valley Regional Planning Commission, *2000 Land Use Data.*

FIGURE 1.1: NCDB (See map 1.1 *op. cit.*).

FIGURES 1.2 - 1.3: U.S. Census Bureau, Census SF3., factfinder.census.gov.

FIGURE 1.4: U.S. Census Bureau, "New Privately Owned Housing Units Authorized, Unadjusted Units by Metropolitan Area, December 2002 Year–to–Date," www.census.gov/const/www/c40/table3.html.

FIGURE 1.5: Temple University, *Philadelphia Metropolitan Area Survey 2003.*

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MAPS 2.1 - 2.4: Census SF3. (Fig. 1.2 *op. cit.*).

FIGURE 2.1: *Metropolitan Racial and Ethnic Change, Census 2000*, Index of Dissimilarity, Lewis Mumford Center for Comparative Urban and Regional Research, University at Albany, State University of New York (Mumford Center).

FIGURES 2.2a - 2.3a: Census SF3. (Fig. 1.2 *op. cit.*).

FIGURE 2.3b: Mumford Center (Fig. 2.1 *op. cit.*).

FIGURES 2.4a - 2.4c: Census SF3. (Fig. 1.2 *op. cit.*).

FIGURE 2.5a: U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics and Bureau of Census, *Current Population Survey Annual Demographic File, 2001* www.bls.census.gov/cps/datamain.htm.

FIGURE 2.5b: Immigration and Naturalization Service, *Statistical Yearbook 2001.*

Chapter 3:

MAPS 3.1 - 3.4: Census SF3. (Fig. 1.2 *op. cit.*).

MAP 3.6: The Urban Institute, *NCCS CORE File* (NCCS) (Public Charities, Private Foundations, Other Exempt Organizations, [2001]) .

FIGURE 3.1: Census SF3. (Fig. 1.2 *op. cit.*).

FIGURE 3.3: Temple University, *Philadelphia Metropolitan Area Survey 2003.*

FIGURE 3.4: Census SF3. (Fig. 1.2 *op. cit.*).

FIGURES 3.5a - 3.5d: Temple University, *Philadelphia Metropolitan Area Survey 2003*

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MAP 4.1 - FIGURE 4.5: Census SF3. (Fig. 1.2 *op. cit.*).

Chapter 5:

MAPS 5.1 - 5.2: Census SF3. (Fig. 1.2 *op. cit.*).
MAP 5.3: Federal Financial Institutions Examination Council, Home Mortgage Disclosure Act, raw data, 2000–2002 (HMDA).

MAP 5.4: Census SF3. (Fig. 1.2 *op. cit.*).

MAP 5.5: Census SF3. (Fig. 1.2 op. cit.) and Fannie Mae Payment Calculator: "How Much House Can You Afford."

MAP 5.6: HMDA (See map 5.3 *op. cit.*).

FIGURES 5.1a - 5.5: Census SF3. (Fig. 1.2 *op. cit.*).

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MAP 6.2: Census SF3. (Fig. 1.2 *op. cit.*).

MAP 6.3: 2000 United States, Bureau of the Census. *County to County Worker Flow Files.* ONLINE 2000.Dept. of Commerce. www.census.gov/main/www/citation.html.

MAP 6.4: Census SF3. (Fig. 1.2 *op. cit.*).

FIGURE 6.1a: Federal Highway Administration, (www.fhwa.dot.gov/) Highway Statistics Series; data download, Table Hm–71: Miles and Daily Vehicle–Miles of Travel, by Federal–Aid Urbanized Area, 2002 (2001 Data) and *National Transit Database* (www.ntdprogram.com/NTD) 2001 data; downloaded tables T18–32 (non–rail), T20–32 (rail); urbanized areas (smoothed MSA); NJ Transit estimated because data assigned to New York City).

FIGURES 6.1b - 6.1c: Temple University, *Philadelphia Metropolitan Area Survey 2003.*

FIGURES 6.2a - 6.2b: Census SF3. (Fig. 1.2 *op. cit.*).

FIGURE 6.3: TTI 2003 Urban Mobility Study (mobility.tamu.edu/ums/) 2001 data download of tables: Exhibit A–5 (delay); A–18 (congestion index) *2003 Urban Mobility Report*, Texas Transportation Institute (author); College Station, TX: Texas Transportation Institute, 2003.

FIGURE 6.4a - 6.4b: Census SF3. (Fig. 1.2 *op. cit.*).

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MAP 7.1 - 7.5: United States, Bureau of the Census. *Zip Code Business Patterns.* ONLINE 2000.Dept. of Commerce. www.census.gov/epcd/www/zbp_base.html. [10/1/04].

Chapter 8:

MAP 8.1 - FIGURE 8.1a: PA Dept. of Community and Economic Development, *Municipal Financial Statistics,* 1999–2001. www.inventpa.com; PA State Tax Equalization Board, Market Values Table, www.steb.pa.us; NJ Dept. of Community Affairs, Division of Local Government Services, *Property Tax Information*, 1999–2001 www.state.nj.us/dca/lgs.

FIGURES 8.1b - 8.1c: Temple University, *Philadelphia Metropolitan Area Survey 2003.*

FIGURE 8.2a: NJ and PA Depts. of Community and Economic Development, (see map 8.1 *op. cit.*).

FIGURE 8.2b: Temple University, *Philadelphia Metropolitan Area Survey 2003.*

FIGURE 8.2c: District of Columbia Dept. of Finance and Revenue, *Tax Rates and Tax Burdens in the District of Columbia: A Nationwide Comparison,* August 2003.

FIGURES 8.3a - 8.4: Temple University, *Philadelphia Metropolitan Area Survey 2003.*

Chapter 9:

MAP 9.1: PA Dept. of Ed., PA Accountability System, *School Report Card Data*, 1999–2001 www.pde.state.pa.us/pas; NJ Dept. of Ed., *School Report Card Data*, 1999–2001 www.state.nj.us/njded/data.

MAP 9.2: U.S. Dept. of Ed.; National Center for Ed. Statistics; *Common Core of Data 2003.*

MAP 9.3: NJ and PA Depts. of Ed.

MAP 9.4: *Common Core of Data* (See map 9.2 *op. cit.*).

MAP 9.5: NJ and PA Depts. of Ed.

FIGURES 9.1 - 9.3: Temple University, *Philadelphia Metropolitan Area Survey 2003.*

FIGURE 9.5: NJ and PA Departments of Ed.

Chapter 10:

MAP 10.1: NJ Commission on Elections; Bucks, Chester, Delaware, Montgomery and Philadelphia County Boards of Elections.

FIGURE 10.2a: U.S. Census Bureau, Federal, State, and Local Governments, *2002 Census of Governments.*

FIGURES 10.2b - 10.2c: Temple University, *Philadelphia Metropolitan Area Survey 2003.*

FIGURES 10.3a - 10.3b: *Chronicle of Philanthropy*, "How American Gives: Analysis of Giving in America's Counties," May 1, 2003 & May 1, 2004.

FIGURES 10.4a - 10.5b: Temple University, *Philadelphia Metropolitan Area Survey 2003.*

FIGURE 10.6a: *Chronicle of Philanthropy*, "How American Gives: Analysis of Giving in America's Counties," May 1, 2003.

FIGURE 10.6b: *Chronicle of Philanthropy*, "How American Gives: Analysis of Giving in America's Counties," May 1, 2004.

Chapter 11:

MAP 11.1: Preserved Farmland: NJ Department of Agriculture (2004) and Delaware Valley Regional Planning Commission (2003), Parks: DVRPC (2003) and NJ DEP (1999), Pinelands: NJ DEP (1994), National Wildlife Refuge: NJ DEP (1999)

MAP 11.2: Hazardous Waste Handlers, *U.S. EPA Resource Conservation and Recover Act Data,* March 2000; Superfund Sites, *Comprehensive Environmental Response, Compensation and Liability Information System (CERCLIS) Database* and *The National Priority List,* August 2003.

MAP 11.3: *U.S. EPA Toxics Release Inventory Data,* 2001.

FIGURE 11.1: Temple University, *Philadelphia Metropolitan Area Survey 2003.*

FIGURE 11.3a: *U.S. EPA Toxics Release Inventory Data,* 2000, Office of Pollution, Prevention and Toxics, *Risk–Screening Environmental Indicators Model: Version 2.1,* 2002.

FIGURE 11.3b: *U.S. EPA Air Quality System Data,* 2003.

Chapter 12:

MAP 12.1: NCCS (Map 3.6 *op. cit.*).

MAP 12.2: The Theatre Alliance of Greater Philadelphia; www.theatrealliance.org.

MAP 12.5: *Zip Code Business Patterns* (Map 7.1 *op. cit.*).

FIGURE 12.1: NCCS (Map 3.6 *op. cit.*).

FIGURE 12.2: Americans for the Arts, *Arts and Economic Prosperity*, 2003.

FIGURE 12.3: The John S. and James L. Knight Foundation. 2002. *The Community Indicators Survey–Regional Philadelphia Sample.* Princeton, NJ: Princeton Survey Research Associates. Chapel Hill, NC.

FIGURE 12.4: Temple University, *Philadelphia Metropolitan Area Survey 2003.*

FIGURE 12.5: Richard Florida, *The Rise of the Creative Class.* New York: Basic Books ppb.ed., 2004, pp. 237–238.

Chapter 13:

MAPS 13.1 - 13.2: Census SF3. (See figure 1.2 *op. cit.*).

FIGURE 13.1: Census SF3. (See figure 1.2 *op. cit.*).

FIGURE 13.3: NJ Department of Health and Senior Services, NJ *State Health Assessment Data,* ONLINE. 2000. njshad.doh.state.nj.us/welcome.html. [11/1/2003]. PA, Department of Health. *Maternal and Child Health Status Indicators for PA and Major Municipalities,* Bureau of Health Statistics and Research. ONLINE. 2000. www.dsf.health.state.pa.us/health/cwp, [11/1/2003].

FIGURE 13.4a - 13.5: Philadelphia Health Management Corporation, *2002 Southeastern PA Household Survey.*

Chapter 14:

MAPS 14.1 - 14.2: NJ Division of State Police Uniform Crime Reporting Unit. *Uniform Crime Report State of NJ 2000,* ONLINE. 2000. www.state.nj.us/lps/njsp/info/ ucr2000/. [9/4/2003]; State of PA, Uniform Crime Reporting Unit, Bureau of Research & Development. PA *Uniform Crime Reporting System*, ONLINE. 2000. ucrreport.psp.state.pa.us/UCR/Reporting/Query/Summary/QuerySumArrestUI.asp. [9/4/2003].

FIGURES 14.1 - 14.2: UCR (Map 14.1 *op. cit.*).

FIGURES 14.3 - 14.4: Temple University, *Philadelphia Metropolitan Area Survey 2003.*

Data Documentation

Chapter 1: The Region's Communities

MAP 1.1, FIGURE 1.1: Density = population/square miles of land area; MCD's as defined by Census Bureau, except that Pine Valley and Tavistock are excluded because of small population size; metropolitan areas are defined by 1999 boundaries, using PMSA definitions where multiple PMSAs are involved.

MAP 1.2, FIGURE 1.2: (Population 2000–population 1970)/population 1970; metropolitan areas adjusted to 1999 county and town components.

MAP 1.3, FIGURE 1.3: We created a typology of five kinds of communities where communities were defined differently for the city and suburbs. To define communities in the city, we used the twelve Panning Analysis Districts, Philadelphia City Planning Commission; in the suburbs, the communities are the MCDs. A statistical procedure (cluster analysis) divided the communities into relatively homogenous groups using variables from the 2000 U.S. Census. Thirteen variables were used: five housing, six socioeconomic, and two household characteristics. The housing variables were

percent of units built before 1940, percent of units built after 1995, percent vacant, percent detached single units, and percent owner–occupied; the socio–economic variables were percent Black, percent with less than a high school Ed., percent with a bachelor's degree or better, percent of families less than 150 percent of the poverty line, percent working outside MCD of residence, and percent unemployed; the household variables with percent of families with children under 18 and percent of families which were female–headed.

MAP 1.4, FIGURE 1.4: Permits divided by number of housing units, 2000.

MAP 1.5: Primary land use/total land area, 2000.

Chapter 5: Housing

MAP 5.3: HMDA purchase mortgage approvals (2000, 2001, 2002) aggregated to MCD's, and averaged.

MAP 5.5: Fannie Mae Housing Calculator for "How Much House Can You Can Afford?" (www.mortgagecontent.net/scApplication/fanniemae/affordability.do?p=Resources&s=Calculators&t=How+Much+House+Can+You+Afford**?**); Income levels adapted from 2000 Census, (Median = $50,000; 25%tile = $25,000; 75%tile = $75,000; $100,000 = 85%tile; Debt levels based on 50% of recurring debt levels from triennial Federal Reserve Survey of Consumer Finance; Savings for down payment (10% of housing price); Term = 30 years, interest =5.875%

MAP 5.6: Sub–Prime lender list from U.S. Dept. of Housing and Urban Development 2000–2002.

Chapter 6: Transportation

MAP 6.3: U.S. census data on residence to work flows were summarized to "works in MCD of residence" and "works outside of MCD of residence." A ratio of "in–Commuters" to "out–Commuters" was then calculated.

Chapter 7: The Regional Economy

MAPS 7.1 - 7.5, FIGURES 7.2 - 7.5: *Zip Code Business Patterns* data list the total number of establishments in nine different categories based on the number of employees. The nine categories are: 1–4, 5–9, 10–19, 20–49, 50–99,100–249, 250–499, 500–999, and 1000 and over. The total for jobs in each zip code is computed by multiplying the number of establishments in each category by the midpoint of the category. For instance, for a given zip code, the number of establishments in the 0–5 employee category was multiplied by 2.5. To calculate the number of manufacturing jobs, we added together all establishments with six digit North American Industry Codes (NAICS) codes between 311111 and 339999 (all manufacturing). To calculate the number of Ed. and health care jobs, we added together all establishments with six digit NAICS codes between 611110 and 611430, 621111 and 624410, and with code 611699. These are all Educational institutions without certain professional schools such as welding and cosmetology schools. To calculate the number of information and technology based jobs, we added together all six digit NAICS codes between 511110 and 512120, 512191 and 551114, and 561110 and 561499. To calculate the number of tourism and travel based jobs, we added together all establishments with six digit NAICS codes between 711110 and 722410 and between 561510 and 561599.

Chapter 8: Taxes Local Government

MAP 8.1: Because tax laws differ between NJ and PA, we computed total taxes collected per MCD differently for each state. In NJ we combined the real estate taxes collected within MCDs for county, MCD, and school purposes to create combined total taxes. In PA, school districts, not MCDs, levy school taxes and typically a school district is made up of several MCDs. In order to compute MCD tax revenues by MCD, we had to allocate these school taxes back to the MCD. To accomplish this, we first acquired housing market values for both school districts and the MCDs within those school districts. We computed each MCD's portion of the overall market value of the school district and then allocated the taxes collected by the school district to the MCD based on this proportion. To compute total taxes in PA we combined these school taxes with County real estate, MCD real estate, MCD earned income, and MCD real estate transfer taxes.

MAP 8.2, FIGURE 8.2a: Total taxes, as above except for Philadelphia, which poses a unique problem. A large portion of Philadelphia's tax base is derived from a wage tax levied upon people who live outside of the city but work within the city. To reflect the taxes collected from people within Philadelphia as well as taxes paid by people outside of the city, we removed the city wage tax paid by non–Philadelphia residents and allocated them back to their home MCD. This was accomplished by obtaining the MCD to MCD workflow data from the U.S. Census to determine how many people from reach MCD work in Philadelphia. We then multiplied that number by the median income for individuals in the MCD. This was multiplied by 4.2% (the wage tax rate for non residents in Philadelphia) and added that to the total taxes for the MCD and subtracted from Philadelphia. We then divided the total taxes for each MCD by the number of households. These total taxes were then divided by the aggregate income for the MCD.

Chapter 9: Education

MAP 9.1: In PA, spending per pupil is provided for every K–12 school district. In NJ, a portion of the school districts cover K–12 as does PA. Some NJ MCDs are served by two separate school districts, an elementary school district that serves the pupils from a particular township or combination of townships, and a regional secondary school district that serve several elementary school districts. Because funding levels are different for elementary and secondary students we needed to allocate the funds and students from the secondary school districts to the corresponding elementary school districts they serve. To accomplish this, we acquired the number of students sent to each secondary school district from the NJ Dept. of Ed. We then computed the proportion of students attending the secondary district from each elementary district. The total expenditures were then allocated back to the elementary district based upon the proportion of students contributed to the total enrollment in the secondary district.

Chapter 10: Civic Participation

MAP 10.1 Number of registered voters and number of voted/not–voted for the most recent presidential (2000) and gubernatorial (NJ 2001 and PA 2002) elections were obtained at the MCD level from each County Board of Elections for the five counties in PA. In NJ, these same data were obtained from the NJ State, Division of Elections, as they had compiled voter data for each county at the MCD level.

Chapter 11: Environment

MAP 11.2: Information about hazardous waste generators, transporters, treaters, storers, and disposers taken from Resource Conservation and Recovery Act Information System (RCRIS) data set. RCRIS identifies hazardous waste handlers and includes information about regulated activities, permit/closure status, compliance with Federal and State regulations, and cleanup activities. For further detalis see the technical documentation at www.temple.edu.mpip.

MAP 11.3: The Toxics Release Inventory (TRI) is a publicly available EPA database that contains information on nearly 650 toxic chemical releases and other waste management activities reported annually by certain covered industry groups including manufacturing, metal and coal mining, electric utilities, and commercial hazardous waste treatment, among others, as well as federal facilities. TRI data for this map was accessed through the EPA's TRI Explorer and Envirofacts. TRI facilities were point–mapped through x/y (latitude/longitude) coordinates, where possible, and geocoded through an address match alternatively.

FIGURE 11.3a: This measure is based on the EPA's risk–model analysis (RSEI) of TRI facility impacts on communities. It represents a *relative* measure of health risks to which residents in different community types (defined by MPIP) are exposed. Discharges have been point–mapped with X/Y (latitude/ longitude) coordinates; risk levels are calculated based on the amount and toxicity of the chemicals released in stack and fugitive air by "big polluters" (TRI permitted facilities), variations in pathway–specific exposure potentials, and the size of the general population potentially exposed. Total risk level is not yet specifically normed to severity standards.

FIGURE 11.3b: EPA count of good quality air days, 2003, divided by the number of days of recorded readings.

Chapter 12: Arts and Culture

MAP 12.1, FIGURE 12.1: National Center on Charitable Statistics cultural and recreation organizations defined as NTEE major group code is A (arts, culture and humanities) and N (recreation, sports, leisure and athletics). Greater Philadelphia Cultural Alliance data are all organizations applying to the Five–County Art Fund, 2001–2003. NJ State Council on the Arts data come from all organizations applying for funding to the Burlington, Camden, Salem and Gloucester county art councils, 2001–2003.

MAP 12.5: Arts and Culture defined as North American Industry Codes 71110, 711120, 711130, 711190, 711510, 712110, 712120, 712130 and 712190.

Chapter 13: Health

MAPS 13.1, 13.2, FIGURE 13.1: The Census creates these categorizations for disabilities.

Chapter 14: Crime

MAPS 14.1, 14.2 FIGURE 14.1,14.2: NJ reports crimes at the MCD level. PA reports crimes based upon the police jurisdiction necessitating allocation to the MCD level. Sometimes MCD boundaries and police district boundaries coincided, in these cases no allocation was necessary. When several MCDs were served by one police district, crimes reported for the police district were allocated to the MCD based upon the population served by the police district. Some MCDs were served either full– or part–time by the state police, crimes reported for the State police jurisdiction were allocated to the MCD in the same manner. Crimes reported by other state law enforcement agencies were allocated based on the sum of the other allocated crimes for the MCD.

FIGURE 14.3: The confidence in the criminal justice system index was constructed by calculating the average of six standardized (z–scored) items measuring the respondent's confidence in various criminal justice organizations. These six items were obtained from the annual *Sourcebook of Criminal Justice Statistics.*

Endnotes

[1] The zip–coded information presented on this map and subsequent zip code based data often show small areas. There is no effective way to locate these data points within the larger zip codes. We refer interested readers to the discussion of zip codes and spatial data on the Census Bureau website, www.census.gov/epcd/www/zipstats.html.

[2] Mark Stern's work in the Social Impact of the Arts Project at the University of PA illuminated this association.

[3] National Endowment for the Arts, Survey of Public Participation in the Arts, 20

[4] Mark Stern and Susan Seifert "Individual Participation and Community Arts Groups: A Quantitative Analysis of Philadelphia," Working Paper 31, University of PA Social Impact of the Arts Project, 1994.

[5] As the sample represents only the five counties on the PA side of the metropolitan area, the results may not generalize to the entire region.

[6] Although individual earnings would be a more appropriate measure because income is more closely tied to employment, the effect of using household income is to shift some low earnings persons into a higher income category; this reduces the size of the differences that would have been observed with an earnings measure.