A COMMISSION REPORT

Metropolitan Social and Economic Disparities: Implications for Intergovernmental Relations in Central Cities and Suburbs

ADVISORY COMMISSION ON INTERGOVERNMENTAL RELATIONS
JANUARY 1965
A–25

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METROPOLITAN SOCIAL AND ECONOMIC DISPARITIES: IMPLICATIONS FOR INTERGOVERNMENTAL RELATIONS IN CENTRAL CITIES AND SUBURBS

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January 1965

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PREFACE

The Advisory Commission on Intergovernmental Relations was established by Public Law 380, passed by the first session of the 86th Congress and approved by the President September 24, 1959. Sec. 2 of the act sets forth the following declaration of purpose and specific responsibilities for the Commission:

> "Sec. 2. Because the complexity of modern life intensifies the need in a federal form of government for the fullest cooperation and coordination of activities between the levels of government, and because population growth and scientific developments portend an increasingly complex society in future years, it is essential that an appropriate agency be established to give continuing attention to intergovernmental problems.
>
> "It is intended that the Commission, in the performance of its duties, will--
>
> "(1) bring together representatives of the Federal, State, and local governments for the consideration of common problems;
>
> "(2) provide a forum for discussing the administration and coordination of Federal grant and other programs requiring intergovernmental cooperation;
>
> "(3) give critical attention to the conditions and controls involved in the administration of Federal grant programs;
>
> "(4) make available technical assistance to the executive and legislative branches of the Federal Government in the review of prop sed legislation to determine its overall effect on the Federal system;
>
> "(5) encourage discussion and study at an early stage of emerging public problems that are likely to require intergovernmental cooperation;
>
> "(6) recommend, within the framework of the Constitution, the most desirable allocation of governmental functions, responsibilities, and revenues among the several levels of government; and

"(7) recommend methods of coordinating and simplifying tax laws and administrative practices to achieve a more orderly and less competitive fiscal relationship between the levels of government and to reduce the burden of compliance for taxpayers."

Pursuant to its statutory responsibilities, the Commission from time to time singles out for study and recommendation particular problems the amelioration of which, in the Commission's view, would enhance cooperation among the different levels of government and thereby improve the effectiveness of the Federal system of government as established by the Constitution. One subject so identified by the Commission concerns the question of central city-suburban relationships and the economic, racial, and other social disparities that exist between the residents of these jurisdictions.

In the following report, the Commission examines central city-suburban disparities and governmental structure and finances in metropolitan areas with a view to identifying friction points in the relationships among Federal, State, and local governments and to propose steps within which intergovernmental relations in metropolitan areas can be improved. The report examines such questions as: Who lives in the central cities and corresponding suburban rings of each metropolitan area? How do governmental expenditures differ among these jurisdictions? In what kind of metropolitan areas are these differences or similarities greatest?

Sixteen recommendations are made for courses of action by Federal, State, and local governments under three major groupings: (a) to promote a wider range of choice and remove intergovernmental restrictions in such fields as urban housing and employment; (b) to permit adjustment of governmental jurisdictions and responsibilities to allow more equitable and efficient administration of urban public services; and (c) to modify intergovernmental financial arrangements where significant disparities exist among jurisdictions in metropolitan areas.

This report was adopted at a meeting of the Commission held on January 18, 1965.

Frank Bane
Chairman

WORKING PROCEDURES OF THE COMMISSION

This statement of the procedures followed by the Advisory Commission on Intergovernmental Relations is intended to assist the reader's consideration of this report. The Commission, made up of busy public officials and private persons occupying positions of major responsibility, must deal with diverse and specialized subjects. It is important, therefore, in evaluating reports and recommendations of the Commission, to know the processes of consultation, criticism, and review to which particular reports are subjected.

The duty of the Advisory Commission, under Public Law 86-380, is to give continuing attention to intergovernmental problems in Federal-State, Federal-local, and State-local, as well as interstate and interlocal relations. The Commission's approach to this broad area of responsibility is to select specific, discrete intergovernmental problems for analysis and policy recommendation. In some cases, matters proposed for study are introduced by individual members of the Commission; in other cases, public officials, professional organizations, or scholars propose projects. In still others, possible subjects are suggested by the staff. Frequently, two or more subjects compete for a single "slot" on the Commission's work program. In such instances, selection is by majority vote.

Once a subject is placed on the work program, a staff member is assigned to it. In limited instances, the study is contracted for with an expert in the field or a research organization. The staff's job is to assemble and analyze the facts, identify the differing points of view involved, and develop a range of possible, frequently alternative, policy considerations and recommendations which the Commission might wish to consider. This is all developed and set forth in a preliminary draft report containing (a) historical and factual background, (b) analysis of the issues, and (c) alternative solutions.

The preliminary draft is reviewed within the staff of the Commission and after revision is placed before an informal group of "critics" for searching review and criticism. In assembling these reviewers, care is taken to provide (a) expert knowledge, and (b) a diversity of substantive and philosophical viewpoints. Additionally, representatives of the National League of Cities, U. S. Conference of Mayors, Council of State Governments, National Association of Counties, U. S. Bureau of the Budget, and any Federal agencies directly concerned with the subject matter participate along with the other

"critics" in reviewing the draft. It should be emphasized that participation by an individual or organization in the review process does not imply in any way endorsement of the draft report. Criticisms and suggestions are presented; some may be adopted, others rejected by the Commission staff.

The draft report is then revised by the staff in light of criticisms and comments received and transmitted to the members of the Commission at least two weeks in advance of the meeting at which it is to be considered.

In its formal consideration of the draft report, the Commission registers any general opinion it may have as to further staff work or other considerations which it believes warranted. However, most of the time available is devoted to a specific and detailed examination of conclusions and possible recommendations. Differences of opinion are aired, suggested revisions discussed, amendments considered and voted upon, and finally a recommendation adopted (or modified as the case may be) with individual dissents registered. The report is then revised in the light of Commission decisions and sent to the printer, with footnotes of dissent by individual members, if any, recorded as appropriate in the copy.

ACKNOWLEDGMENT

The staff work for Chapter II, "Social and Economic Population Characteristics in Metropolitan Areas," was conducted by Marjorie Cahn Brazer under contract with the Commission.

The staff work for Chapter IV, "Costs and Benefits of Metropolitanwide Service," was conducted by Charles Tiebout and Benjamin Chinitz, also under contract with the Commission.

The Commission and its staff profited from an informal review of a draft of the full report by a number of individuals including: William Brussat, Alan K. Campbell, William N. Cassella, Warren Cikins, Arnold Diamond, Victor Fischer, Lyle C. Fitch, O. C. Fitzwater, Thomas Graves, Patrick Healy, Mel Mister, Thomas Morehouse, Fran Moravitz, Stephen D. Moses, Mark Perlman, Seymour Sacks, Mrs. Kathryn Stone, Mabel Walker, and Mrs. Marion Yankauer.

Sections of the report and recommendations dealing with specific governmental programs were submitted for review and comment by representatives of national professional organizations and specialists in the appropriate Federal agencies.

Appreciation for this assistance is gratefully acknowledged. Final responsibility for the report and its contents, of course, rests with the Commission and its staff.

Wm. G. Colman
Executive Director

Norman Beckman
Assistant Director
(Metropolitan Areas)

METROPOLITAN SOCIAL AND ECONOMIC DISPARITIES:
IMPLICATIONS FOR INTERGOVERNMENTAL RELATIONS
IN CENTRAL CITIES AND SUBURBS

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Chapter I

INTRODUCTION

Metropolitan areas are, by definition, made up of one or more central cities and an amorphous group of suburbs beyond the central city limits which includes cities, towns, villages, and rural and semirural areas within the same or adjacent county. There were 212 metropolitan areas in the United States in 1960.

In 1960, nearly two-thirds of the entire population of the United States resided within these 212 metropolitan areas--113 million persons of the nationwide total of 179 million. There were 18,442 governments providing services within these areas in early 1962, or 20 percent of all local governments in the Nation. In 1962, local governments in these 212 areas collected over 70 percent of all local tax and other revenues in the country and made 71 percent of all local government expenditures.

The words "central city" and "suburb" that make up each of these metropolitan areas signify two highly diverse types of communities. On the one hand, the word "city" suggests bustling streets with a diversity of factories, offices, apartments, and homes crowded upon the available land area in close proximity, amidst heavy traffic, noise, dirt, and excitement. "Suburb" conveys an impression of a uniformity of quiet, tree-lined streets, spacious lawns between single family homes, two cars in every garage, sprawling shopping centers, cleanliness, quiet, and monotony. Governmental differences also abound. While the central city is usually governed by a single, relatively large, tightly organized, "strong-mayor" system, the suburbs are governed by many relatively small units, including many special districts and rurally organized counties. These stereotypes imply that the city dweller and the suburbanite are very different sorts of persons, with divergent tastes, attitudes and needs, and social and economic status.

The apparent disparities are reflected politically in conflict between central cities and their surrounding suburbs, conflict which is often highly articulated in the State legislatures. The two kinds of communities compete there for shared tax revenues, for financial aid for schools, welfare programs

and highways, for legislation of all kinds which may benefit one metropolitan segment more than the other. Cities and suburbs confront each other directly at the local level in arguments over who is subsidizing whom in matters of transportation services, zoning policy, health and welfare services, water pollution, and so on. It would often seem that the only common meeting ground lies in their reluctant partnership as the two halves of a statistical identity--the metropolitan area.

This competition and contention stem from the popular belief in a basic central city-suburban dichotomy of economic and social characteristics. Inevitably, the common belief is held that the city is the home of the poor, nonwhite, undereducated, unskilled, unstable, and unhealthy, while the suburbs accommodate almost entirely the happy, healthy, middle class, "average" American family. The very rich, it is believed, live in both places, but they can afford to. While acknowledging the economic interdependence of these two dichotomous parts, exemplified by the fact that most suburbanites work in the city, social and political community of interest over the metropolitan area as a whole is frequently denied.

Most concern has centered around the future of central cities in the Nation's metropolitan areas. Are they doomed to further social and physical decline and increased dilapidation? Or are they headed for a renaissance in which they will play a new and vital role in which their residents can achieve the good life? One observer, writing in the Wall Street Journal, has posed the dilemma:

> Forecasters of a renaissance see it in an accelerating pace of urban redevelopment, a gradual broadening of local tax sources, increasing interest in schemes for coordinated local government, the prospective reapportionment of state legislatures to give urban voters better representation, rising state and Federal aid for city programs, and in climbing educational and income levels generally. The optimists concede their views are not based on a belief that any one of these developments has gone far enough to insure the cities a rosier future but rather on a certain amount of faith that they will....

> Pessimists, on the other hand, point to the persistent flight of better-heeled taxpayers from central to suburban cities and the continuing influx of needy poor, often minority groups with larger broods, to take their place. They note, too, that the central city is saddled with the greatest deterioration and congestion. And they're pessimistic over the ability of cities to substantially diversify their income sources beyond the property tax or to command sufficient helpings of state or Federal aid to meet their growing needs....1/

In the present report, the Commission examines the comparative economic and social (including racial) environments of central cities and suburbs with a view to identifying friction points in the relationships among Federal, State, and local governments which grow out of these contrasts and proposes steps by which intergovernmental relations may be improved. It asks the following specific questions:

> Who lives in the central cities and corresponding suburban rings of each metropolitan area?
>
> In what characteristics are the two populations sharply divergent? In what ways are they similar?
>
> What are the fiscal resources in our central cities and suburbs?
>
> How do governmental expenditures differ among these jurisdictions?
>
> Is the number of local governments in metropolitan areas increasing?
>
> Do local governments in metropolitan areas employ proportionately more people than local governments elsewhere?

1/ Mitchell Gordon, "Doomed Cities?," The Wall Street Journal, Tuesday, October 16, 1962.

How are allocations made among local governments in metropolitan areas for the financial responsibility of supplying certain areawide urban services?

In what kinds of metropolitan areas are these differences or similarities greatest?

What changes, if any, should be made in Federal, State, and local policies regarding such social and economic disparities, and what specific legislative and administrative actions should be taken to implement those changes?

"Metropolitan area," as used in this report, follows the Bureau of the Census definition of Standard Metropolitan Statistical Area (SMSA). They are made up of at least one central city of 50,000 inhabitants and such other surrounding local governments that are essentially urban in character and are socially and economically integrated with the central city. The term "suburban" includes all of the area except the central city, and is equivalent to the term "outside central city," as defined by the Bureau of the Census. The boundaries of SMSA's follow county lines except in New England and as such include the rural as well as the urbanized portions of such counties.

This report examines three major and related aspects of central city-suburban relationships: (1) the human or population characteristics of metropolitan areas; (2) the governmental structure and fiscal and economic resources of these areas; and (3) methods for financing and allocating costs of governmental services that cut across central city and suburban boundaries.

Chapter II examines the extent of the social and economic differences between the residents of central cities and suburbs. The method used is an analysis of the 1960 censuses of population and housing to determine central city-suburban differences for ten broad population characteristics: (1) race; (2) age; (3) mobility; (4) family composition; (5) education; (6) occupation; (7) employment status; (8) family income; (9) housing characteristics; and (10) commuting patterns. These differences are also correlated statistically with other major characteristics of metropolitan areas in general such as region, size, rate of population growth, and percent of nonwhites.

Chapter III examines the existing pattern of local government structure in metropolitan areas, numbers of employees, amounts of taxes, other revenues, and expenditures of these governments. The 1957 and 1962 censuses of government are analyzed to identify trends with respect to the number of local governments, comparative expenditures among metropolitan areas and between central cities and suburbia, local tax rates and indicators of economic resources and activity in metropolitan areas.

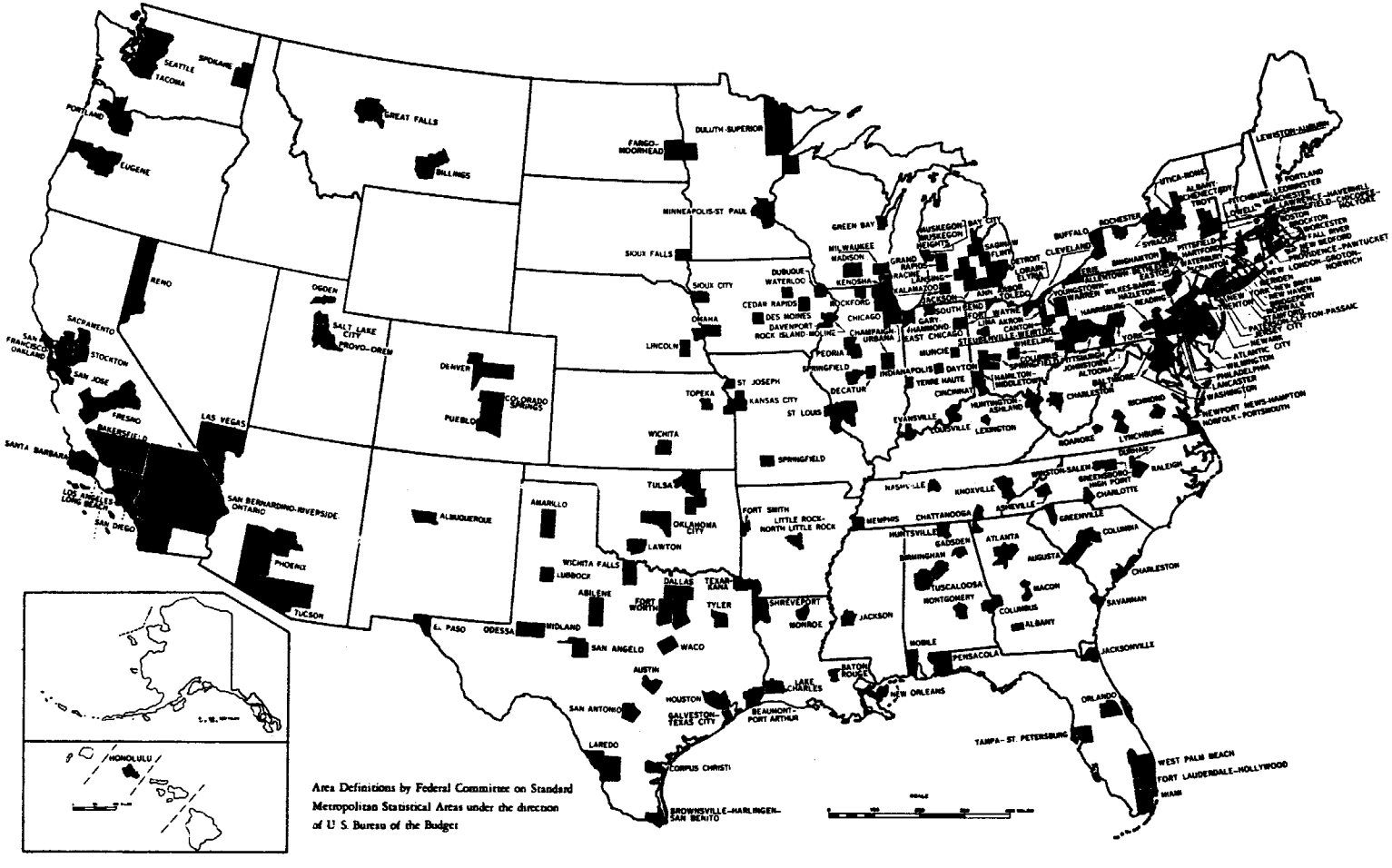
Chapter IV examines problems involved in achieving a process of equitable financing of those governmental services which, by their nature, cut across disparities and political boundaries of the central city and its neighboring jurisdictions. Particularly involved are such areawide services as air pollution control, water supply, sewage disposal, mass transportation, and parks and recreation. Cost-benefit analysis designed to provide a basis for cooperative negotiations by local government officials has come into extensive use in conjunction with many Federal programs, especially in regard to water resources, recreation, and highways. This chapter examines the ability to transfer or adapt cost-benefit analysis to the metropolitan scene.

Chapter V makes a number of recommendations for possible courses of action by Federal, State, and local governments to (a) promote greater equality of opportunity and remove intergovernmental restrictions in such fields as urban housing and employment; (b) permit adjustment of governmental jurisdictions and responsibilities to allow more equitable and efficient administration of urban public services; and (c) modify intergovernmental financial arrangements where significant disparities in tax capacity for meeting needs exist among jurisdictions in metropolitan areas.

The Commission is aware of the attention that has gone into the subject of central city-suburban disparities and of the analytical pitfalls inherent in any attempts to describe and compare relative needs and capacities of these governments and to draw meaningful conclusions and recommendations from such analyses. Except for certain of the population information and for the broad spectrum of legislative actions proposed, the Commission does not assert that this report adds a large body of new information to the data which are increasingly becoming available from a variety of sources.

The Commission believes, however, that there is value in bringing together information from these diverse sources concerning our central cities and suburbs and in proposing certain legislation for consideration by local governments, the States, and the Federal Government. In so doing, it hopes that this report will help to stimulate fresh consideration of some old problems and provide the basis for specific action in individual metropolitan areas. Such action is urgently needed to meet what may be the most difficult problem of intergovernmental relations in the Nation today.

STANDARD METROPOLITAN STATISTICAL AREAS OF THE UNITED STATES: 1962



Area Definitions by Federal Committee on Standard Metropolitan Statistical Areas under the direction of U S. Bureau of the Budget

G/11

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF COMMERCE BUREAU OF THE CENSUS

Chapter II

SOCIAL AND ECONOMIC POPULATION CHARACTERISTICS IN METROPOLITAN AREAS

The basis for the Commission's examination of major central city-suburban differences in economic, social, and racial characteristics is a special analysis of the 1960 censuses of population and housing. These census reports were used to find out "who lives where" in terms of the social and economic characteristics of the population. Residence within either central cities or the remainder of the metropolitan area was correlated for persons and families against 10 broad population characteristics: race, age, mobility status, family composition, education, occupation, employment status, family income, housing characteristics, and commuting patterns.1/

Taken together for an individual, these characteristics largely determine how he lives: with whom, in what kind of housing and neighborhood, doing what kind of work, the level of goods and services he can command, the social and economic position he may anticipate for his future. When these individual sketches are added up and compared for central cities and their surrounding areas, they present a composite of the population which provides insights into the public needs of the community and the kinds and amounts of governmental services required.

Mere summation of the number of people conforming to a given characteristic, however, is by itself inadequate. Primary concern is with the relative importance of various population subgroups, such as children under 10 or families with income under $4,000, in central cities and in suburbs. Consequently, the basic datum in the analysis is the proportion of the population found in each demographic category in each location.2/

1/ A full description of these characteristics appears in Appendix B.

2/ Tabulation of these proportions for population characteristics in 190 SMSA's appears in Appendix B.

While these proportions are inherently significant as they relate either to central cities or to surrounding areas, they are specifically significant for this study, particularly when differences emerge as they interrelate with city and suburb. The object is to find out, for example, whether the difference between central cities and suburbs in the proportion of the population accounted for by school age children or families with income below $4,000 per year is great enough to warrant the conclusion that the two types of communities represent fundamentally distinct socioeconomic population groups. Accordingly, the unit of measurement used in the analysis is the difference between central city and associated suburban area proportions of the population conforming to each of the characteristics.

Method of Analysis

For the 190 largest standard metropolitan statistical areas (SMSA's) the percentage of the population falling into each category in the central city and in the remainder of the SMSA, respectively, was calculated. The remainder of an SMSA, after subtracting its central city, is referred to hereafter as "suburban" for purposes of simplicity. 3/

3/ In this report, the term "metropolitan area" will follow the definition established by the U. S. Bureau of the Budget and followed by the Bureau of the Census for "standard metropolitan statistical areas." According to that definition, an SMSA generally--

> is a county or group of contiguous counties which contain at least one city of 50,000 inhabitants or more or "twin cities" with a combined population of at least 50,000. In addition to the county or counties containing such a city or cities, contiguous counties are included in an SMSA if, according to certain criteria, they are essentially metropolitan in character and are socially and economically integrated with the central city.

Like any definition established for widespread application, this one may be found to have limitations in certain special circumstances. In the drafting of legislation relating especially to "metropolitan areas"--as recommended in subsequent portions of this report--particular State legislatures

The degree of central city-suburban disparity in each metropolitan area was expressed as the difference between the proportion of central city residents having certain characteristics and the proportion of suburban residents having the same characteristics. These differences were then correlated statistically with six major characteristics of metropolitan areas in general: region, size, population dispersion, rate of population growth, percent of nonwhites, and economic base as measured by rate of employment in manufacturing, trade, and finance and services. 4/

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may well find it appropriate and desirable to apply a somewhat different definition, or to take action initially with respect to only the most populous metropolitan areas that are subject to their jurisdiction.

One characteristic of the "standard" Federal definition, however, makes this concept more directly relevant to the interests of the Commission than some alternative concept, such as economic trading areas or "urbanized territory"--namely, the fact that the boundaries of each SMSA follow county lines (or, in New England, town lines). Accordingly, we are dealing with areas which directly reflect and express local government structure, and within and for which public policies can be specifically authorized. It is to be expected that State legislation which deals specially with problems of "metropolitan areas" will, similarly, define such areas by reference to the boundaries of counties or other entire local government jurisdictions.

4/ Useful generalizations concerning the relationships between central cities and suburbs depend upon combining individual measurements into groups which reflect the significance of differences in each characteristic for central city-suburban disparities in general. A simple average (arithmetic mean) for each of these differences is entirely inadequate because the variations around that average are, in most cases, extremely large, nor do the averages, by themselves, even if they are obtained for subgroups, such as SMSA's by region or population size, offer sufficient insight into the nature of the disparities. The objective is to know why and how these disparities arise. The correlation process selected for approaching the "why" and "how" of these

Summary of Findings

The results of this statistical analysis reveal the extent of disparities between the central city and suburbs for each population characteristic in each metropolitan area, the kinds of metropolitan areas in which disparity patterns are similar, and under what circumstances disparity patterns vary. The strongest conclusion to be drawn from the analysis is that very few meaningful generalizations about economic, social, and racial disparities can be applied to all metropolitan areas. For a number of population characteristics the differences among metropolitan areas are far larger than the differences between central cities and their surrounding area. For most characteristics it is possible to generalize about disparities only for particular kinds of metropolitan areas.

The classic dichotomy of the poor, underprivileged, nonwhite central city contrasted with the comfortable white suburb is not revealed by these data. While racial disparities are large everywhere, the other elements of the dichotomy--education, income, employment, and housing--fit the stereotype consistently only in the largest metropolitan areas and those located in the Northeast. 5/ The Northeast includes only 41 of the 190 standard metropolitan statistical areas studied,

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matters enables examination of how much of the very large variation around the average disparity for each population characteristic is related to the six basic structural differences among the SMSA's themselves. Further, the analysis tells the relative importance of each of these structural or "predictor" characteristics taken by itself in the total explanation of disparities. With this information, it is then possible to classify disparities according to basic relevant metropolitan area characteristics.

5/ See also, Leo F. Schnore, "The Socio-Economic Status of Cities and Suburbs," American Sociological Review, February, 1963, pp. 76-84.

however, and outside of that region there are only 39 metropolitan areas with population in excess of half a million. For the remaining 110 metropolitan areas the classic dichotomy does not generally apply.

In the small and medium sized metropolitan areas outside the Northeast some elements of both high and low socioeconomic status tend to be equally important in both central cities and suburbs, while other low status characteristics predominate in the suburbs and some high status characteristics are more important in the central city. In many metropolitan areas of the South and West, poverty, especially nonwhite poverty, and underprivileged are more typical of the suburbs; most central city dwellers are relatively well off.

These generalizations about region and metropolitan size must be further modified by considering population dispersal and relative size of the nonwhite population. Disparities in all regions and size groups tend to be exaggerated in metropolitan areas whose total populations are largely suburbanized. While central cities are more likely to represent underprivileged segments of the population, suburbs in highly suburbanized metropolitan areas, rather than being wealthy as in the large and Northeastern SMSA's, are likely to represent the large middle class. Where nonwhites constitute an important element of the total metropolitan population, the classic disparity pattern occurs in the North, but in the South and West the pattern runs the other way--high socioeconomic status in the cities and lower status in the suburbs.

In addition to contradicting the popular notion of uniformly low socioeconomic status cities and high status suburbs, the analysis demonstrates a lack of significant central city-suburban disparity in some unexpected cases.

Education

One of the most surprising findings has to do with education. On the whole, cities and suburbs show little difference in the proportion of their adult populations with less than four years of high school--an inadequate education by today's standards-- or in their high school dropout rates. Undereducation of youth and adults is an equally serious problem in both urban and suburban segments of most metropolitan areas.

The economic welfare of an individual in mid-century America, with its emphasis on occupational specialization, depends primarily upon the amount of education he achieves. Education largely determines occupation and occupation, in turn, largely determines income. The predominant levels of these three factors within a community population together characterize the general economic strength or weakness of that community. Where educational, occupational, and income levels are generally low, substantial public health and welfare services are likely to be needed, but the financial resources required to provide them may be inadequate.

Table 1. Percent of Persons 25 Years and Older with Less Than 4 Years of High School

	TOTAL POPULATION		NONWHITE	
	Central City	Suburbs	Central City	Suburbs
United States	57	56	74	73
Northeast	65	56	76	70
North Central	56	54	74	70
South	57	61	79	83
West	47	49	63	59

Disparities for the highly educated (college graduates), on the other hand, are much wider than for the undereducated, but do not occur uniformly in either city or suburb.

Suburbs are usually considered to be relatively much more heavily populated with school children than central cities. This is true for ages under 10, but for the age group of 10-19 there is virtually no difference between central cities and suburbs. Moreover, this lack of disparity holds true for all metropolitan areas more consistently than any other characteristic analyzed.

Family Composition

Central city-suburban differences in family composition result in different kinds of public service demands. Where families with young children dominate the social structure, educational and recreational services catering to children are most urgently required. Where single persons constitute

an important segment of the community, transportation services and educational and recreational opportunities suitable to adults are more important. Housing demand, with its accessory laws such as zoning and building codes, will also vary according to the dominant family pattern.

Table 2. Percent of all Families with Children Under 18

	TOTAL POPULATION		NONWHITE	
	Central City	Suburbs	Central City	Suburbs
United States	54	62	57	58
Northeast	51	59	61	55
North Central	54	62	59	57
South	55	63	53	57
West	57	66	60	67

The average proportion of families with children under 18 ranges from 10 to 20 percent higher in the suburbs than in the central cities. This disparity is quite consistent among all metropolitan areas for the total population. For nonwhites, however, average disparities are neither so large nor so consistent. In the two northern regions, nonwhite families with children constitute a larger proportion in the central cities, while in the South and West they constitute a larger element in the suburbs.

Unemployment

In 1960 unemployment was almost as serious in suburbs as in central cities, especially in nonmanufacturing areas, though the rate of unemployment in suburban areas averages about 20 percent below central cities for the total population. For nonwhites the average rate of unemployment ranges from 40 percent more than the total population in the suburbs of the West to two and one-half times higher than total population in the suburbs of the North Central region.

Table 3. Unemployed Persons as a Percent of the Labor Force

	TOTAL POPULATION		NONWHITE	
	Central City	Suburbs	Central City	Suburbs
United States	5	4	9	8
Northeast	6	5	11	18
North Central	5	4	10	10
South	5	4	7	7
West	5	5	9	7

The moderate disparities shown in the table are somewhat surprising in light of the conventional central city-suburban dichotomy.

One may conclude from the analysis that problems associated with unemployment are almost as important for whites in the suburbs as they are in the central cities, although within the cities the unemployed are disproportionately nonwhite.

Occupation

The two middle status occupations of clerical and sales workers and craftsmen, and the low status household and service workers, display consistently large disparities between central cities and suburbs, while among other occupations the level of disparity varies greatly among SMSA's. Clerical and sales workers are consistently more frequent in central cities, as are household and service workers, while craftsmen are everywhere found in substantially higher proportion in the suburbs. Apparently the "suburban middle class" represents primarily the families of craftsmen, foremen, and kindred workers; where there is an important middle class element in central cities, it is related to clerical and sales occupations. Household and service occupations are also heavily city oriented in all regions, even where the nonwhite population is small.

Family Income

Family income is another category for which average disparities are surprisingly small. Such differences as there are occur primarily in the lowest and highest income groups

notably in the big metropolitan areas, especially in the Northeast. Middle income families are most evenly distributed in that region, however, while elsewhere they tend to be slightly more important in the suburbs. The same relationships hold for occupation groups, but disparities are much wider by occupation than by income class.

Table 4. Percent of Families by Income Group

TOTAL POPULATION

	Under $4,000		$4,000-7,999		$8,000-14,999		$15,000 & Over	
	Central City	Suburb	Central City	Suburb	Central City	Suburb	Central City	Suburb
U.S.	29	26	44	46	22	23	4	4
N.E.	27	20	48	48	21	26	4	6
N. Cent.	23	21	48	48	25	26	4	4
South	37	35	39	43	18	18	4	3
West	23	24	44	46	27	25	6	5

Outside of the large metropolitan areas and the Northeast, the problem of low income is equally important in cities and suburbs. Poverty, in and of itself, does not create disparate social problems for cities and suburbs. Other social characteristics are usually associated with poverty, such as race, broken families with children, and elderly persons.

Race

Almost everywhere the proportion of nonwhites in the central city is higher than it is in the suburbs, and the obvious differentials, outside the South, are found where the nonwhites are most numerous.

Table 5. Percent of Nonwhites

	1960		1950		1940	
	Central City	Suburbs	Central City	Suburbs	Central City	Suburbs
U. S.	15	7	12	7	11	8
Northeast	9	2	5	1	3	1
N. Cent.	10	2	7	2	5	2
South	25	15	25	17	26	21
West	10	6	5	3	4	4

The 1960 proportion of nonwhites in central cities is twice as large, on the average, as it is in the suburbs of all metropolitan areas combined, but there are substantial variations from this average among individual SMSA's. The largest SMSA's with the least concentrated (most dispersed) populations and the highest overall proportions of nonwhites display the greatest central city-suburban disparities in nonwhite population, especially if they are located in the North Central region. The central city proportion of nonwhites is 25 times as large as the suburban nonwhite percentage in the metropolitan area of Indianapolis, for example. Racial disparities tend to be smaller, on the other hand, or even reversed in favor of the suburbs, in small SMSA's whose population is concentrated in the central city, and which contain a small overall percentage of nonwhites. The strong association between disparities in the proportion of nonwhites and the overall SMSA percentage of nonwhites seems to support the popular hypothesis that segregation tends to be more intense where the Negro makes up a larger proportion of the population.

Racial disparities are, on the average, larger in the big metropolitan areas and in the North than they are in the small ones and in the South and West. But they are largest in the big and Northern SMSA's where the overall percentage of nonwhites is highest in the total metropolitan population. Furthermore, among nonwhites themselves, disparities in education, occupation, and income are widest in the North, where higher-status nonwhites seek to separate themselves in the suburbs from the more unfortunate members of their race in the cities. In the smaller metropolitan areas, especially in the South and West, nonwhites in general are more equally represented in

both metropolitan locations, and high status nonwhites tend either to live in both segments or constitute a larger central city proportion, while those of low status predominate in the suburbs.

It is even more difficult to generalize about nonwhite disparities than about total population, however, because disparity patterns for nonwhites differ widely from one metropolitan area to another. It appears that nonwhite disparities, except for the highest status nonwhites, are accounted for largely by historical factors of residence, perpetuated by racial segregation practices.

Broken Families and Single Persons

The other important elements of low status for which disparities are consistently very large are (1) broken families with children, and (2) elderly persons. Everywhere both of these groups are much more important in cities than in suburbs.

Table 6. Percent of Families with Children Under 18 Which are Broken Families

	TOTAL POPULATION		NONWHITE	
	Central City	Suburbs	Central City	Suburbs
United States	10	5	23	13
Northeast	9	4	25	13
North Central	8	4	21	12
South	12	5	24	15
West	10	6	20	11

In the total population, on the average, twice as many broken families with children live in the central city as in the suburbs, and this relationship is quite consistent from one SMSA to another.

The relative importance of single persons not living with their families (unrelated individuals in Census parlance) in the central city is statistically commensurate with that of broken families with children. Consistently, about twice as large a proportion of such persons is found in the cities than in the suburbs.

Table 7. Percent of Single Persons not Living with their Families

	TOTAL POPULATION		NONWHITE	
	Central City	Suburbs	Central City	Suburbs
United States	10	5	11	11
Northeast	10	5	12	15
North Central	10	5	10	11
South	10	6	11	9
West	11	9	12	13

Two to three times more broken (divorced, other) families with children are found in the nonwhite than in the total population, however, so that in metropolitan areas with a high proportion of nonwhites the problem of broken families in central cities is largely nonwhite. Elderly persons in central cities, however, are predominantly white. Indeed most of the white, central city poor are probably elderly persons and broken families with children. 6/

Housing

Another concomitant of poverty and underprivilege which tends to reverse the classic dichotomy is unsound housing because it is much more conspicuous in the suburbs than in the

6/ The 1959 median income of elderly heads of households was two-thirds of the median income of all persons 14 years and older who had income that year. Housing and Home Finance Agency, Senior Citizens and How They Live, Washington, July 1962.

central cities, especially outside the Northeast. Furthermore, in the suburbs, it is as much a problem for whites as for nonwhites, although in the cities substandard housing is occupied disproportionately by nonwhites.

A major visible criterion of economic and social well-being is the quality of the house in which a person lives. The tenure in which the house is held, however, differs sharply between central cities and suburbs. In central cities an average 47 percent of all occupied housing is owner occupied, while for suburbs the proportion jumps to 73 percent; only 31 percent of nonwhite housing in the central cities is owner occupied, however, compared with 52 percent in the suburbs. Thus the tenure of nonwhite housing in the suburbs corresponds with that of the total population in the central cities, while the proportion of nonwhite city renters compares with the rate of total owner occupancy in the suburbs.

Children

A number of nonstatus population characteristics are significant for disparity patterns. An example is the proportion of children under 10 which is everywhere larger in the suburbs than in the central cities, but nonwhite children under 10 are primarily located in the central cities of the North and the largest metropolitan areas. Thus, the school population of the northern and big cities is disproportionately nonwhite. This may change somewhat in the future, however, if the 1960 index of residence preference persists for both white and nonwhite persons aged 20-29. This age group, of both races, as well as the 10-19 group discussed earlier, represented equivalent proportions of city and suburban populations. If they remain where they are when they marry and have children, the proportion of white children in the cities and nonwhite children in the suburbs may very well rise, effecting a more balanced city school population in the near future. A much longer range suburban balance is also possible, especially in view of the fact that nonwhite migrants from other States, who are also likely to be aged 20-29, tend to settle in the suburbs. If, on the other hand, the young whites currently living in the cities move to the suburbs, as their parents did, when they marry and raise children, the racial disparity in city schools may increase further, and the prospect of reducing suburban disparity will recede.

Mobility

The central city population of almost all metropolitan areas is substantially more mobile than the suburban population. In the North there is, on the average, very little difference between cities and suburbs in the proportion of migrants from other States.

The nonwhite population in the cities is much more mobile than the white, especially in terms of local moving, but in the suburbs nonwhites are more settled.

Although the suburban population, white and nonwhite, is more settled once it has arrived, substantially more persons of both races are in-migrants from other States to the suburbs than to the central cities. Data indicate that the peak of suburbanization from central city origins in the same metropolitan area may have passed and that future accretion to the suburban population of many metropolitan areas will come primarily from interstate migration in addition to a continuing movement from nonmetropolitan areas.

The rate of nonwhite suburbanization from the central city of the same metropolitan area is likely to increase, however; in the North Central region it exceeded the white rate in 1960. Unfortunately, there are no comparable mobility data for the years prior to 1960, and mobility patterns may be highly volatile. It is risky, therefore, to speculate on future trends. Nevertheless, the characteristics of those who move into and out of the various metropolitan locations will probably exert a stronger impact on socioeconomic disparities in the future than any other single factor.

Commuters

It is no surprise to find that approximately three times as many workers who live in the suburbs commute to the central city as commute in the opposite direction. What is in fact a bit surprising is that the rate of out-commuting (from the central city) is as high as it is, up to an average of 16 percent in the West. Furthermore, disparities are not significantly related to size, taken by itself, as one might expect. Disparities are not narrower in the larger SMSA's which would be the case if a greater dispersal of work places occurred in the big metropolitan areas. The excess of in-commuting over

out-commuting is explained primarily by the concentration of the population and the proportion of nonwhites in the SMSA. Where population is more dispersed, so is employment and a smaller proportion of suburban residents commute into the city, while many city dwellers commute out.

Table 8. Percent of Workers Who Commute

	TOTAL POPULATION		NONWHITE	
	Central City	Suburbs	Central City	Suburbs
United States	12	37	11	31
Northeast	12	30	13	20
North Central	10	41	10	38
South	11	38	10	30
West	16	37	16	34

Outside of the Northeast, average disparities for nonwhites are almost the same as for the total (white) population. The home-workplace relationship is essentially the same for both races; nonwhites do not live in the suburbs primarily because they work there, nor do they commute out of the central city in any larger proportion than the whites in most SMSA's. Only in the Northeast is the average proportion of out-commuters higher for the nonwhite than for the total.

Conclusion

In sum, statistical analysis of central cities and suburbs has revealed that population components are similar in many more respects than casual observation indicates. The important differences between them vary primarily according to metropolitan area size, regional location, and population dispersal. There is a definite community of interest between central cities and suburbs where they share an equivalent burden of social problems, as in the case of high school dropouts. On the other hand, other problems, such as education for underprivileged nonwhites, are primarily the concern of central cities in the North and the suburbs in the South and West. Finally, a category of issues is primarily suburban in its impact, such as substandard, owner occupied housing.

In Appendix A, the results of the statistical analysis for both total and nonwhite populations are analyzed in much more detail for each major population characteristic. Each section includes a summary table showing the average central city and suburban proportions of the population sharing the characteristic under discussion for the four regions and all metropolitan areas combined. Under each table is a list of the predictor variables (structural characteristics of SMSA's) which are statistically significant in explaining disparities for that characteristic in the order of their importance.

In Appendix B of the report is listed, for each of the 190 largest standard metropolitan statistical areas, a tabulation of the central city-suburban data for population characteristics of whites and nonwhites.

The next section of this chapter examines findings for individual population characteristics in terms of disparity magnitudes and metropolitan characteristics, so as to identify the significance of these disparities for policy making.

The Pattern of Disparities

Very few generalizations about central city-suburban population differences are applicable to most metropolitan areas. The extent and direction of disparities for most characteristics vary enormously, especially with respect to the nonwhite population. Furthermore, this variation is explained by different forces for different population characteristics and for the two racial groups. With these limitations in mind, it is useful to classify disparities by magnitude and consistency and by the types of SMSA's where they occur.

Magnitude and Consistency of Disparities

1. Consistently Divergent Disparities (central cities and suburbs least alike)

Total and Nonwhites	Total only	Nonwhites only
Broken families with children	Age 45 and over	Percent nonwhite
Unsound owner occupied housing	Unrelated individuals	Unsound rentals
Low housing values	Clerical and sales	Movers
Commuters	Craftsmen	
	Household and service	

Persons aged 45-59, unrelated individuals, clerical and sales workers, craftsmen and commuters may be considered middle status or nonstatus characteristics, while the remainder represent low socioeconomic status. Thus the low status characteristics of race, advanced age, broken families with children (not necessarily low status), and household and service workers are consistently more prominent in the central cities than in the suburbs. But the low status characteristics of unsound and low value housing are far more common in the suburbs, and offer an additional argument against the stereotype of the metropolitan dichotomy. The relatively small variation that does occur in these large disparity characteristics is explained chiefly by population dispersion (concentration in the case of the housing characteristics), percent nonwhite in the SMSA, and location in the South.

2. Widest Disparities (over 20 percent differential) With Large Variation Among SMSA's (central cities and suburbs least alike)

Total and Nonwhites	Total only	Nonwhites only
College graduates		Migrants
Highest housing values		Professional and technical
Highest rentals		Clerical and sales
		Laborers
		High income
		Unemployment
		Middle housing values
		Low rentals

For the high status characteristics, disparities are greatest in the largest Northern and most dispersed SMSA's; while for the low and middle status nonwhites, the variation is explained primarily by location in the South and population concentration or dispersion. By and large, disparities for high status nonwhites occur in the same direction as for high status whites, while disparities for middle and low status nonwhites seem to operate independently of the total or white populations.

3. Smallest Disparities (central cities and suburbs most alike)

Total and Nonwhites	Total only	Nonwhites only
Age 10-44		Managers
Undereducated		Craftsmen
School dropouts		
Low and middle income		

The classic metropolitan dichotomy according to which the poor, uneducated, and unskilled dominate the central city, while persons of the opposite characteristics dominate the suburbs applies primarily to the largest metropolitan areas and those located in the Northeast. The fact is that for the majority of metropolitan areas in the United States there is not a ten percent difference between central cities and suburbs in their respective proportions of undereducated adults, high school dropouts, and families with low income. The underprivileged half of the dochotomy, with respect to these characteristics at least, represents fairly uniform segments of the population in both metropolitan locations, and its problems occur with equal force in both. For the highly educated, affluent segments of the population disparities are somewhat larger, and these characteristics are proportionately more striking in the suburbs, according to the generally accepted view, mainly in the large and northeastern SMSA's.

Types of SMSA

Four of the metropolitan area structural characteristics included in the analysis explain most of the variation in disparities for most of the population characteristics we have been discussing. These are: population dispersion, which provides a significant explanation for the variation in 15 of the characteristics and its reverse, population concentration, which explains 5; large SMSA size, which accounts for large disparities in 15 cases and small disparities in 3; location in the Northeast, which accounts for large disparities in 10 characteristics and small differences in 5; and percent nonwhite in the SMSA, which explains the variation in 13 characteristics.

For nonwhites, location in the Northeast is by far the most important predictor, explaining large disparities for 9 characteristics and small disparities for 2; concentration of SMSA nonwhites in the central cities is second in importance, explaining 7; population dispersion and concentration follow with 3 each; then location in the South with 5; and large SMSA size explains 4.

For SMSA's classified by the four most important structural characteristics, it is most convenient to summarize significant central city-suburban differences by a series of successfully modified lists, as follows: 7/

Central City Proportion Higher	Equivalent Proportions	Suburban Higher
	In SMSA's in general, all regions and sizes:	
Elderly	Ages 10-44 total and nonwhite	Young children
Unrelated individuals	Nonwhite craftsmen	Migrants-total and nonwhite
Broken families with children	Education	Families with children
Clerical and sales workers	Dropouts	Craftsmen
Household and service-total and nonwhite		Upper middle rentals
Working wives		Commuters
Unemployed		Highest nonwhite housing values (except South)
Nonwhite movers		
Nonwhites		
	In addition to the above, in large SMSA's in all regions:	
Nonwhite clerical and sales		Upper middle nonwhite housing values
Unsound rentals		Highest rentals
Low income		

7/ Reference is to total population unless the characteristic is prefixed by "nonwhite."

Central City Proportion Higher	Equivalent Proportions	Suburban Higher
	And in the North as well as large SMSA's:	
Nonwhites		Managers
Young nonwhite children		Highest housing values
Middle age		
Movers		
Undereducated		
Operatives		
Low rents		
	But in the large and Northeast SMSA's:	
		College graduates
		Professional and technical workers
		Income over $8,000 total and nonwhite
	In the North without respect to size:	
Nonwhites under age 10	Working mothers	Nonwhite professional and technical
Nonwhite families with children		Nonwhite managers
Nonwhite undereducated		
School dropouts		
Laborers-total and nonwhite (also in West)		
Nonwhite operatives		

Central City Proportion Higher	Equivalent Proportions	Suburban Higher
And in the Northeast, without respect to size:		
Operatives	Nonwhite middle income	Middle age and elderly nonwhites
Nonwhite low income	Unsound owner occupied housing-total and nonwhite	Nonwhite unrelated individuals
Nonwhite unemployment		Nonwhite college graduates
		Upper middle housing values
		Highest nonwhite rentals
But in the South and West, without respect to size:		
Middle age and elderly nonwhites	Nonwhite professional and technical	Young nonwhite children
College graduates (also in North Central)	Nonwhite managers	Nonwhite families with children
Managers	Nonwhite operatives	Undereducated-total and nonwhite
Income over $8,000	Nonwhite unemployment (North Central instead of West)	School dropouts
Nonwhite middle income (also in North Central)	Upper middle housing values	Nonwhite low income
Nonwhite middle housing values (also in North Central)	Lower middle rents (also in North Central)	Middle income-total and nonwhite
Professional and technical (also in North Central)		Working mothers (also in North Central)
		Unsound owner occupied housing
		Lowest nonwhite rents (South only)

Central City Proportion Higher	Equivalent Proportions	Suburban Higher
In small SMSA's, all regions:		
College graduates	Movers	Undereducated
Professional and technical	Nonwhite clerical and sales	Operatives
Managers	Unemployment	Middle income
Household and service-total and nonwhite	Highest rents	Unsound rentals
Income over $8,000		
Highest housing values		
Upper middle nonwhite housing values		
In SMSA's with a high percentage of nonwhites, irrespective of region, size, or population dispersal:		
Nonwhite age 30-44		Families with children
Nonwhite movers		Craftsmen
Broken families with children		Migrants
Household and service workers		
Unemployed		

These lists clearly indicate that disparities common to all SMSA's refer, with one or two exceptions, to middle status or nonstatus social and economic characteristics. In the large and northern metropolitan areas, disparities place low economic and social status persons and families in the central city and their opposites in the suburbs among nonwhites as well as whites; but in the small SMSA's and those in the South and West, cities tend to constitute the upper status, residential location, while the suburbs accommodate the less privileged, and nonwhites of all status are more evenly distributed. Population dispersal and a high proportion of nonwhites in the SMSA tend, by and large, to accentuate the tendencies of the large and northern SMSA patterns.

Census Bureau Analysis of Socioeconomic Characteristics of Central City and Urban Fringe Populations

In the SMSA definition used in this report, the suburban or noncentral city area includes all the land and population within county boundaries. In some cases, only a small portion of the county area is urbanized. While this approach has many advantages with respect to fixing political responsibility for action and for intergovernmental relations' positions generally, it does have the effect of including many rural nonfarm and rural farm persons in the suburban data. The effect of including these nonurban residents may be to lower the suburban averages which include both wealthy and poor suburban jurisdictions and the disparities between central cities and suburban populations.

An analysis of central city-suburban differences, based on a socioeconomic index, was recently carried out by the Census Bureau, excluding rural areas from the comparison. 8/ The result, at least for the Nation as a whole, shows somewhat wider central city disparities than the Commission study. The Census Bureau analysis, unfortunately, is not broken down by region or other metropolitan area characteristics. It uses a new analytical approach which, rather than attempting to analyze individual population characteristics, sets up a multiple item, socioeconomic status scale which combines measures of occupation, education, and income. The results are indicated by the following table in which the socioeconomic status score of 80-99 represents the highest status level of all occupation, education, and income, and 0-19 the lowest population group.

Place of Residence and Color	Total Population	Percent of population with socioeconomic status score of: 80 to 99	50 to 79	20 to 49	0 to 19
ALL AGES					
Total--					
Central cities	100%	13.7%	42.4%	35.2%	8.6%
Urban fringe	100	22.8	50.1	23.4	3.7
White--					
Central cities	100	16.0	46.8	31.1	6.1
Urban fringe	100	23.7	51.3	22.0	3.0
Nonwhite--					
Central cities	100	3.0	21.9	54.5	20.6
Urban fringe	100	3.6	25.2	52.7	18.4

8/ Bureau of the Census, Current Population Reports, Technical Studies, Series P-23, No. 12, July 31, 1964.

In all areas, whites scored higher than nonwhites. Proportionately more persons with high status scores were found in the urban fringe surrounding medium to large size cities than elsewhere. Central cities of urbanized areas and other urban places had the next highest proportion of persons with high status, and rural farm areas the smallest.

The disparities between central city and urban fringe were striking at the two ends of the socioeconomic status scale with under 14 percent of the central city population falling within the highest grouping while 23 percent of the urban fringe residents were so reported. Likewise, almost twice as many (8.6 percent) central city residents were found in the lowest socioeconomic grouping as in the urban fringe around central cities of 50,000 population or more.

* * * * *

In summary, it may be stated that economic and social disparities indeed exist among central cities and suburban communities. However, these disparities vary from region to region and from SMSA to SMSA.

The classic dichotomy of the poorer central city contrasted with the comfortable suburb does not hold up when the populations involved are analyzed by region and size of metropolitan area. Major elements of the dochotomy--education, income, employment, and housing--fit the stereotype consistently only in the largest metropolitan areas and those located in the Northeast. But in the South and West, the pattern tends to run the other way.

Low income is a problem of equivalent importance in cities and suburbs except in the large and Northeast SMSA's where it is definitely more of a problem in the central cities. Unsound and low value housing is much more conspicuous in the suburbs than in the central cities, especially outside the Northeast.

Almost everywhere the proportion of nonwhites in the central city is higher than in the suburbs, and the most striking central city-suburban differentials, outside the South, are found where nonwhites are concentrated. Likewise, proportions of elderly persons and broken families with children are much larger in the central city than in the suburbs.

United States Totals

LOCAL GOVERNMENT EMPLOYEES AND PAYROLLS WITHIN AND OUTSIDE STANDARD METROPOLITAN STATISTICAL AREAS, BY FUNCTION: OCTOBER 1962

Function	United States total	Within SMSA's	Outside SMSA's	United States total	Within SMSA's	Outside SMSA's	United States total	Within SMSA's	Outside SMSA's
	All local government employees (full-time and part-time)			Full-time local government employees			Part-time local government employees		
All functions, total	5,168,860	3,253,989	1,914,871	4,264,478	2,818,061	1,446,417	904,382	435,928	468,454
Education, total	2,669,810	1,598,205	1,071,605	2,209,452	1,338,945	870,507	460,358	259,260	201,098
Teachers	1,797,607	1,088,263	709,344	1,665,904	992,036	673,868	131,703	96,227	35,476
Other	872,203	509,942	362,261	543,548	346,909	196,639	328,655	163,033	165,622
Functions other than education, total	2,499,050	1,655,784	843,266	2,055,026	1,479,116	575,910	444,024	176,668	267,356
Highways	291,744	138,573	153,171	234,782	130,710	124,072	36,962	7,863	29,099
Public welfare	88,850	63,654	25,196	82,296	61,290	21,006	6,554	2,364	4,190
Hospitals	309,367	202,257	107,110	283,808	191,037	92,771	25,559	11,220	14,339
Health	55,965	41,476	14,489	49,239	38,142	11,097	6,726	3,334	3,392
Police protection	322,431	243,696	78,735	271,744	210,957	60,787	50,687	32,739	17,948
Fire protection	218,883	150,565	68,318	150,597	126,550	24,047	68,286	24,015	44,271
Sewerage	53,233	39,214	14,019	47,447	36,417	11,030	5,786	2,797	2,989
Sanitation other than sewerage	109,723	84,113	25,610	102,553	81,718	20,835	7,170	2,395	4,775
Parks and recreation	110,112	93,507	16,605	83,715	73,609	10,106	26,397	19,898	6,499
Natural resources	30,968	10,959	20,009	21,434	9,128	12,306	9,534	1,831	7,703
Housing and urban renewal	37,132	32,573	4,559	33,110	30,185	2,925	4,022	2,388	1,634
Airports	9,797	8,584	1,213	9,245	8,288	957	552	296	256
Water transport and terminals	7,749	6,783	966	5,745	5,297	448	2,004	1,486	518
Correction	35,895	29,395	6,500	33,962	28,663	5,299	1,933	732	1,201
Libraries	56,658	41,292	15,366	37,884	29,685	8,199	18,774	11,607	7,167
Financial administration	148,595	72,687	75,908	97,240	61,294	35,946	51,355	11,393	39,962
General control	172,183	98,476	73,707	136,723	85,086	51,637	35,460	13,390	22,070
Local utilities, total	247,138	184,503	62,635	230,689	177,254	53,435	16,449	7,249	9,200
Water supply	110,005	75,863	34,142	96,057	69,214	26,843	13,948	6,649	7,299
Electric power	54,114	31,270	22,844	51,992	30,895	21,097	2,122	375	1,747
Transit	72,192	71,907	285	72,013	71,744	269	179	163	16
Gas supply	10,827	5,463	5,364	10,627	5,401	5,226	200	62	138
Other and unallocable	192,627	113,477	79,150	122,813	93,806	29,007	69,814	19,671	50,143

NOTE: Because of rounding, detail may not add to totals.

United States Totals

LOCAL GOVERNMENT EMPLOYEES AND PAYROLLS WITHIN AND OUTSIDE STANDARD METROPOLITAN STATISTICAL AREAS, BY FUNCTION: OCTOBER 1962 (Cont.)

	United States total	Within SMSA's	Outside SMSA's	United States total	Within SMSA's	Outside SMSA's	United States total	Within SMSA's	Outside SMSA's
	Full-time equivalent number of local government employees			Full-time equivalent employment per 10,000 population[1]			Percent of full-time equivalent employment, by function		
All functions, total	4,480,158	2,931,317	1,548,841	241.1	248.1	228.8	100.0	100.0	100.0
Education, total	2,340,157	1,411,775	928,382	125.9	119.5	137.2	52.2	48.2	59.9
Teachers	1,692,073	1,011,457	680,616	91.1	85.6	100.6	37.8	34.5	43.9
Other	648,084	400,317	247,766	34.9	33.9	36.6	14.5	13.7	16.0
Functions other than education, total	2,140,002	1,519,543	620,459	115.2	128.6	91.7	47.8	51.8	40.1
Highways	264,151	133,104	131,047	14.2	11.3	19.4	5.9	4.5	8.5
Public welfare	84,010	62,070	21,940	4.5	5.3	3.2	1.9	2.1	1.4
Hospitals	294,960	196,180	98,780	15.9	16.6	14.6	6.6	6.7	6.4
Health	51,285	39,304	11,981	2.8	3.3	1.8	1.1	1.3	0.8
Police protection	282,928	218,784	64,144	15.2	18.5	9.5	6.3	7.5	4.1
Fire protection	153,566	127,843	25,723	8.3	10.8	3.8	3.4	4.4	1.7
Sewerage	48,590	36,933	11,657	2.6	3.1	1.7	1.1	1.3	0.8
Sanitation other than sewerage	104,391	82,534	21,858	5.6	7.0	3.2	2.3	2.8	1.4
Parks and recreation	90,067	78,586	11,481	4.8	6.7	1.7	2.0	2.7	0.7
Natural resources	23,537	9,513	14,025	1.3	0.8	2.1	0.5	0.3	0.9
Housing and urban renewal	34,161	30,786	3,375	1.8	2.6	0.5	0.8	1.1	0.2
Airports	9,393	8,379	1,014	0.5	0.7	0.1	0.2	0.3	0.1
Water transport and terminals	6,556	5,953	603	0.4	0.5	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.0
Correction	34,533	28,907	5,626	1.9	2.4	0.8	0.8	1.0	0.4
Libraries	42,385	32,466	9,919	2.3	2.7	1.5	0.9	1.1	0.6
Financial administration	104,848	63,816	41,033	5.6	5.4	6.1	2.3	2.2	2.6
General control	144,604	88,487	56,117	7.8	7.5	8.3	3.2	3.0	3.6
Local utilities, total	233,607	178,335	55,272	12.6	15.1	8.2	5.2	6.1	3.6
Water supply	98,465	70,133	28,332	5.3	5.9	4.2	2.2	2.4	1.8
Electric power	52,384	30,977	21,407	2.8	2.6	3.2	1.2	1.1	1.4
Transit	72,082	71,811	271	3.9	6.1	(2)	1.6	2.4	0.0
Gas supply	10,677	5,415	5,262	0.6	0.5	0.8	0.2	0.2	0.3
Other and unallocable	132,429	97,564	34,864	7.1	8.3	5.2	3.0	3.3	2.3

NOTE: Because of rounding, detail may not add to totals.

[1] Calculation based on the estimated resident population of the United States as of July 1, 1962 (185,822,000), and its distribution at that date between the 212 areas recognized as SMSA's for the 1960 Census of Population and the balance of the country. The population of the combined SMSA's was estimated on the basis of data collected in the Current Population Survey of the Bureau of the Census.

[2] Less than 0.5 employees per 10,000 population.

United States Totals

LOCAL GOVERNMENT EMPLOYEES AND PAYROLLS WITHIN AND OUTSIDE STANDARD METROPOLITAN STATISTICAL AREAS, BY FUNCTION: OCTOBER 1962 (Cont.)

	United States total	Within SMSA's	Outside SMSA's	United States total	Within SMSA's	Outside SMSA's	United States total	Within SMSA's	Outside SMSA's
	Percent of full-time equivalent employees, by type of area			October payroll of local governments (thousand dollars)			Average earnings of full-time employees		
All functions, total	100.0	65.4	34.6	1,984,682	1,406,692	577,990	446	482	377
Education, total	100.0	60.3	39.7	1,123,270	739,519	383,751	486	529	420
Teachers	100.0	59.8	40.2	911,051	596,888	314,163	537	589	461
Other	100.0	61.8	38.2	212,219	142,631	69,587	329	358	279
Functions other than education, total	100.0	71.0	29.0	861,413	667,173	194,240	404	440	312
Highways	100.0	50.4	49.6	99,827	58,233	41,595	379	438	317
Public welfare	100.0	73.9	26.1	30,504	24,228	6,275	364	391	285
Hospitals	100.0	66.5	33.5	89,020	65,313	23,707	302	333	239
Health	100.0	76.6	23.4	21,517	17,356	4,162	421	442	347
Police protection	100.0	77.3	22.7	131,057	108,354	22,703	464	496	353
Fire protection	100.0	83.2	16.8	74,497	64,884	9,614	487	509	376
Sewerage	100.0	76.0	24.0	20,314	16,518	3,796	419	447	324
Sanitation other than sewerage	100.0	79.1	20.9	38,576	32,606	5,971	370	395	271
Parks and recreation	100.0	87.3	12.7	34,136	30,659	3,477	378	389	297
Natural resources	100.0	40.4	59.6	8,531	4,086	4,445	366	432	317
Housing and urban renewal	100.0	90.1	9.9	14,356	13,196	1,160	421	429	344
Airports	100.0	89.2	10.8	4,440	4,103	336	473	489	329
Water transport and terminals	100.0	90.8	9.2	3,574	3,298	276	546	555	451
Correction	100.0	83.7	16.3	15,059	13,167	1,893	437	456	336
Libraries	100.0	76.6	23.4	14,491	11,592	2,899	340	354	286
Financial administration	100.0	60.9	39.1	40,265	26,990	13,275	385	424	319
General control	100.0	61.2	38.8	59,070	41,834	17,236	410	473	304
Local utilities, total	100.0	76.3	23.7	109,244	88,501	20,743	469	497	376
Water supply	100.0	71.2	28.8	40,287	30,831	9,456	410	440	333
Electric power	100.0	59.1	40.9	26,341	17,120	9,222	503	553	431
Transit	100.0	99.6	0.4	38,146	38,043	103	529	530	379
Gas supply	100.0	50.7	49.3	4,470	2,507	1,962	419	463	373
Other and unallocable	100.0	73.7	26.3	52,934	42,256	10,678	403	435	301

NOTE: Because of rounding, detail may not add to totals.

POPULATION OF STANDARD METROPOLITAN STATISTICAL AREAS, BY REGIONS, FOR THE UNITED STATES: 1960 AND 1950

[Minus sign (−) denotes decrease]

Region and component parts of SMSA	1960	1950	Change, 1950 to 1960					
			Total		Based on 1950 limits of central cities		From annexations	
			Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
UNITED STATES								
In SMSA's	**112,885,178**	**89,316,903**	**23,568,275**	**26.4**	**23,568,275**	**26.4**		
Central cities	58,004,334	52,371,379	5,632,955	10.8	767,209	1.5	4,851,483	9.3
Outside central cities	54,880,844	36,945,524	17,935,320	48.5	22,801,066	61.7	−4,851,483	−13.1
NORTHEAST								
In SMSA's	**35,346,505**	**31,267,169**	**4,079,336**	**13.0**	**4,079,336**	**13.0**		
Central cities	17,321,731	17,881,490	−559,759	−3.1	−594,078	−3.3	20,115	0.1
Outside central cities	18,024,774	13,385,679	4,639,095	34.7	4,673,414	35.0	−20,115	−0.2
NORTH CENTRAL								
In SMSA's	**30,959,961**	**25,074,674**	**5,885,287**	**23.5**	**5,885,287**	**23.5**		
Central cities	16,510,746	15,836,656	674,090	4.3	−257,583	−1.6	931,673	5.9
Outside central cities	14,449,215	9,238,018	5,211,197	56.4	6,142,870	66.5	−931,673	−10.1
SOUTH								
In SMSA's	**26,447,395**	**19,417,751**	**7,029,644**	**36.2**	**7,029,644**	**36.2**		
Central cities	15,061,777	11,720,843	3,340,934	28.5	615,801	5.3	2,725,133	23.3
Outside central cities	11,385,618	7,696,908	3,688,710	47.9	6,413,843	83.3	−2,725,133	−35.4
WEST								
In SMSA's	**20,131,317**	**13,557,309**	**6,574,008**	**48.5**	**6,574,008**	**48.5**		
Central cities	9,110,080	6,932,390	2,177,690	31.4	1,003,069	14.5	1,174,562	16.9
Outside central cities	11,021,237	6,624,919	4,396,318	66.4	5,570,939	84.1	−1,174,562	−17.7

POPULATION OF STANDARD METROPOLITAN STATISTICAL AREAS, BY SIZE OF AREA: 1960 AND 1950

[Minus sign (−) denotes decrease]

Size in 1960 and component parts of SMSA	1960	1950	Change, 1950 to 1960					
			Total		Based on 1950 limits of central cities		From annexations	
			Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
ALL SIZES								
In SMSA's	112,885,178	89,316,903	23,568,275	26.4	23,568,275	26.4		
Central cities	58,004,334	52,371,379	5,632,955	10.8	767,209	1.5	4,851,483	9.3
Outside central cities	54,880,844	36,945,524	17,935,320	48.5	22,801,066	61.7	−4,851,483	−13.1
3,000,000 OR MORE								
In SMSA's	31,763,499	25,788,967	5,974,532	23.2	5,974,532	23.2		
Central cities	17,828,227	17,655,217	173,010	1.0	99,318	0.6	73,692	0.4
Outside central cities	13,935,272	8,133,750	5,801,522	71.3	5,875,214	72.2	−73,692	−0.9
1,000,000 TO 3,000,000								
In SMSA's	29,818,571	23,858,113	5,960,458	25.0	5,960,458	25.0		
Central cities	12,707,503	12,037,125	670,378	5.6	−270,275	−2.2	940,653	7.8
Outside central cities	17,111,068	11,820,988	5,290,080	44.8	6,230,733	52.7	−940,653	−8.0
500,000 TO 1,000,000								
In SMSA's	19,214,817	14,125,628	5,089,189	36.0	5,089,189	36.0		
Central cities	10,126,684	8,340,585	1,786,099	21.4	396,636	4.8	1,389,463	16.7
Outside central cities	9,088,133	5,785,043	3,303,090	57.1	4,692,553	81.1	−1,389,463	−24.0
250,000 TO 500,000								
In SMSA's	15,829,067	12,603,137	3,225,930	25.6	3,225,930	25.6		
Central cities	7,750,597	6,671,381	1,079,216	16.2	146,234	2.2	932,982	14.0
Outside central cities	8,078,470	5,931,756	2,146,714	36.2	3,079,696	51.9	−932,982	−15.7
100,000 TO 250,000								
In SMSA's	14,497,817	11,525,685	2,972,132	25.8	2,972,132	25.8		
Central cities	8,235,553	6,617,624	1,617,929	24.4	305,082	4.6	1,298,584	19.6
Outside central cities	6,262,264	4,908,061	1,354,203	27.6	2,667,050	54.5	−1,298,584	−26.5
UNDER 100,000								
In SMSA's	1,761,407	1,415,373	346,034	24.4	346,034	24.4		
Central cities	1,355,770	1,049,447	306,323	29.2	90,214	8.6	216,109	20.1
Outside central cities	405,637	365,926	39,711	10.9	255,820	69.9	−216,109	−59.6

Population of States by Metropolitan-Nonmetropolitan Residence: 1960 and 1950

[Figures relate to areas as defined for 1960. Minus sign (−) denotes decrease]

State	1960		1950		Percent increase, 1950 to 1960	
	In SMSA's	Outside SMSA's	In SMSA's	Outside SMSA's	In SMSA's	Outside SMSA's
United States	112,885,178	66,437,997	89,316,903	62,006,895	26.4	7.1
Alabama	1,488,101	1,778,639	1,230,249	1,831,494	21.0	−2.9
Alaska		226,167		128,643		75.8
Arizona	929,170	372,991	472,986	276,601	96.4	34.8
Arkansas	341,351	1,444,921	293,501	1,616,010	16.3	−10.6
California	13,590,821	2,126,383	8,988,655	1,597,568	51.2	33.1
Colorado	1,191,832	562,115	776,839	548,250	53.4	2.5
Connecticut	1,966,427	568,807	1,576,688	430,592	24.7	32.1
Delaware	307,446	138,846	218,879	99,206	40.5	40.0
District of Columbia	763,956		802,178		−4.8	
Florida	3,246,826	1,704,734	1,679,970	1,091,335	93.3	56.2
Georgia	1,814,069	2,129,047	1,334,381	2,110,197	35.9	0.9
Hawaii	500,409	132,363	353,020	146,774	41.8	−9.8
Idaho		667,191		588,637		13.3
Illinois	7,754,932	2,326,226	6,439,062	2,273,114	20.4	2.3
Indiana	2,241,307	2,421,191	1,796,904	2,137,320	24.7	13.3
Iowa	915,762	1,841,775	776,366	1,844,707	18.0	−0.2
Kansas	813,804	1,364,807	555,809	1,349,490	46.4	1.1
Kentucky	1,036,038	2,002,118	846,475	2,098,331	22.4	−4.6
Louisiana	1,627,157	1,629,865	1,224,675	1,458,841	32.9	11.7
Maine	190,950	778,315	188,368	725,406	1.4	7.3
Maryland	2,425,346	675,343	1,763,982	579,019	37.5	16.6
Massachusetts	4,387,101	761,477	4,041,791	648,723	8.5	17.4
Michigan	5,720,692	2,102,502	4,552,370	1,819,396	25.7	15.6
Minnesota	1,752,698	1,661,166	1,387,478	1,595,005	26.3	4.1
Mississippi	187,045	1,991,096	142,164	2,036,750	31.6	−2.2
Missouri	2,499,968	1,819,845	2,118,891	1,835,762	18.0	−0.9
Montana	152,434	522,333	108,902	482,122	40.0	8.3
Nebraska	530,043	881,287	416,455	909,055	27.3	−3.1
Nevada	211,759	73,519	98,494	61,589	115.0	19.4
New Hampshire	107,637	499,284	95,257	437,985	13.0	14.0
New Jersey	4,787,604	1,279,178	3,986,569	848,760	20.1	50.7
New Mexico	262,199	688,824	145,673	535,514	80.0	28.6
New York	14,352,693	2,429,611	12,656,238	2,173,954	13.4	11.8
North Carolina	1,119,210	3,436,945	896,736	3,165,193	24.8	8.6
North Dakota	66,947	565,499	58,877	560,759	13.7	0.8
Ohio	6,748,362	2,958,035	5,445,395	2,501,232	23.9	18.3
Oklahoma	1,021,610	1,306,674	775,504	1,457,847	31.7	−10.4
Oregon	890,978	877,709	745,298	776,043	19.5	13.1
Pennsylvania	8,813,274	2,506,092	8,024,682	2,473,330	9.8	1.3
Rhode Island	740,819	118,669	697,576	94,320	6.2	25.8
South Carolina	768,024	1,614,570	572,989	1,544,038	34.0	4.6
South Dakota	86,575	593,939	70,910	581,830	22.1	2.1
Tennessee	1,632,747	1,934,342	1,349,511	1,942,207	21.0	−0.4
Texas	6,072,706	3,506,971	4,267,442	3,443,752	42.3	1.8
Utah	600,770	289,857	440,126	248,736	36.5	16.5
Vermont		389,881		377,747		3.2
Virginia	2,020,626	1,946,323	1,462,898	1,855,782	38.1	4.9
Washington	1,800,945	1,052,269	1,427,316	951,647	26.2	10.6
West Virginia	575,137	1,285,284	556,217	1,449,335	3.4	−11.3
Wisconsin	1,828,871	2,122,906	1,456,157	1,978,418	25.6	7.3
Wyoming		330,066		290,529		13.6

Chapter III

ECONOMIC ACTIVITY, GOVERNMENTAL STRUCTURE, AND PUBLIC FINANCE IN METROPOLITAN AREAS

The following statistical data on economic activity and resources, governmental structure, and public finance in metropolitan areas are presented as a counterpart to Chapter II, which examined the extent of social and economic differences between residents of central cities and suburbs, and as a backdrop to the recommendations for structural adjustments of governmental jurisdictions and responsibilities and modifications of intergovernmental financial arrangements. These statistical highlights, largely derived from the 1962 Census of Governments, indicate the prominence of the metropolitan area in terms of economic activity, the growing fragmentation of governmental units, and the significant range of revenue sources and expenditures by local governments in these areas.

Economic Activity

The economic resources of the United States are concentrated in its metropolitan areas. In almost all cases, indices that measure economic resources and activity were higher than the proportion of the population (63 percent), shown by the 1960 Census of Population, that resides within the 212 metropolitan areas.

As of June 1960, metropolitan areas accounted for 78.6 percent of all bank deposits. 1/ In 1958, metropolitan areas accounted for more than three-fourths (76.8 percent) of the value added by manufacture, contained 67.2 percent of the country's manufacturing establishments, accounted for 73.8 percent of the total number of industrial employees, and 78.5 percent of all manufacturing payrolls. Of the total amount of value added by manufacture in

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1/ Federal Reserve System, "Distribution of Bank Deposits by Counties and Standard Metropolitan Areas." (Information reflects 212 metropolitan areas.) December 1960.

that year, 55.2 percent was attributable to 40 major metropolitan areas, in which 52 percent of all industrial establishments were located with 62.8 percent of industrial employees and 57.1 percent of the payrolls. 2/ A major portion of building activity in the Nation takes place in metropolitan areas. In 1959, and again in 1960, 69 percent of all "housing starts" occurred in these areas. 3/

As of 1961, over 69 percent of the Nation's taxable assessed valuation involved property in metropolitan areas. As indicated in the following table, types of assessed valuation differ considerably within and outside of metropolitan areas.

Class of Property	Percent of taxable assessed valuations	
	Within SMSA's	Outside SMSA's
State assessed property	5.8	12.4
Locally assessed property:		
Real estate	79.8	68.4
Personal property	14.4	19.2
TOTAL	100.0	100.0

State assessed property makes up a significantly smaller part of the property tax base in metropolitan areas than elsewhere. This may reflect the fact that State assessment pertains mainly to railroads and utilities whose operations tend to be geographically dispersed.

Further analysis of the gross assessed value of locally assessed real estate by class of property indicates that the more valuable residential, commercial, and industrial properties comprise a significantly larger portion of the property tax base in metropolitan areas than outside. Acreage and farms are considerably more important to the property tax base outside metropolitan areas.

2/ Bureau of the Census, "1958 Census of Manufactures" (Information pertains to the 188 metropolitan areas then designated.)

3/ Construction Review (March 1961), p. 15.

Class of Real Property	Percent of taxable assessed valuations	
	Within SMSA's	Outside SMSA's
Residential	63.7	42.9
Acreage and farms	3.5	32.8
Commercial and industrial	29.7	18.6
Other	3.1	5.7
TOTAL	100.0	100.0

Another significant measure of local tax resources is family income. The 1960 Census of Population revealed that larger, rather than smaller, metropolitan areas as a whole had a lower proportion of families with incomes under $3,000 and a higher proportion of families with incomes over $10,000. Of more immediate interest to intergovernmental concerns in metropolitan areas generally and to this study in particular, however, is the nature of the interrelationship of income distribution between the city and its suburban area. Seymour Sacks, in a study of metropolitan fiscal problems sponsored by the Brookings Institution, found that even though central cities in larger metropolitan areas have less absolute poverty (defined as family income below $3,000) than central cities in smaller metropolitan areas, they have more relative poverty when compared to their suburban neighbors. 4/ Likewise, the larger, metropolitan area central cities have less relative affluence (family income over $10,000) than their suburban jurisdictions. The pattern is reversed for smaller metropolitan areas where there is a greater relative concentration of families with incomes under $3,000 outside the central city and a greater concentration of families with incomes over $10,000 in the central city.

Governmental Structure in Metropolitan Areas

Metropolitan areas today (SMSA's) are located in 47 States and the District of Columbia. The only exceptions are Alaska, Vermont, and Wyoming.

4/ Seymour Sacks, "Metropolitan Area Finances." Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the National Tax Association, November 1963.

In 1960, 133 metropolitan areas consisted of a single county each; by 1963, there were 22 less--111 single county metropolitan areas. Of 108 intercounty areas, 32 include territory in two or more States, an increase of 8 from 1960 to 1963. Altogether, these interstate areas were populated in 1960 with 41 million persons, 23 percent of the Nation's total.

There were 18,442 independent governmental units performing public services within some 212 metropolitan areas, or 20 percent of all local governments in the Nation. Within these 212 areas reside two-thirds of the population in the United States--113 million persons of the nationwide total of 179 million.

The following is a summary of 1962 data on numbers of local governments, by type, within and outside of metropolitan areas.

Type of Government	United States, total	Within SMSA's	Outside SMSA's	Percent in SMSA's
All local governments	91,185	18,442	72,743	20.2
School districts	34,678	6,004	28,674	17.3
Other	56,507	12,438	44,069	22.0
Counties	3,043	310	2,733	10.2
Municipalities	17,997	4,142	13,855	23.0
Townships	17,144	2,575	14,569	15.0
Special districts	18,323	5,411	12,912	29.5

The following tabulation distributes metropolitan areas and their population and local governments by population size groups of areas.

SMSA Size Group (1960 Population)	Number of SMSA's	Population, 1960 (000)	Local Governments, 1962
All SMSA's	212	112,885	18,442
1,000,000 or more	24	61,582	7,227
500,000 to 999,999	29	19,215	2,857
300,000 to 499,999	28	10,373	2,146
200,000 to 299,999	41	10,182	3,141
100,000 to 199,999	68	9,772	2,540
50,000 to 99,999	22	1,761	531

The average number of independent units of government per metropolitan area is 87. This average covers a wide range, from 24 for SMSA's of less than 100,000 population up to 301 for SMSA's of a million or more; the Chicago metropolitan area leads the Nation with 1,060 local governments. Metropolitan areas, with 23 percent of the Nation's municipalities, contain all cities of 50,000 or more and over half of those with 25,000-50,000 population. Yet half of the municipalities within SMSA's serve fewer than 2,500 people each, and 25 percent of SMSA populations live outside municipalities.

Residents of metropolitan areas are typically served by more layers of overlapping local governments than residents of nonmetropolitan areas. The number of municipalities in metropolitan areas increased by 8 percent between 1957 and 1962, compared with 4.5 percent for the country as a whole. This relationship results in large part from the more rapid growth of population in SMSA's and the concentration of whole new settlements in suburban areas. Changes in the numbers of local governments in SMSA's between 1957 and 1962 are shown in the following tabulation.

Type of local government	Local governments in the 212 SMSA's		Increase or decrease (-) 1957 to 1962	
	1962	1957	Number	Percent
Total	18,442	17,984	458	3
School Districts	6,004	7,486	-1,482	-20
Other	12,438	10,498	1,940	18
Counties	310	311	-1	(*)
Municipalities	4,142	3,844	298	8
Townships	2,575	2,607	-32	-1
Special districts	5,411**	3,736	1,675**	45

* Less than 0.5 percent.

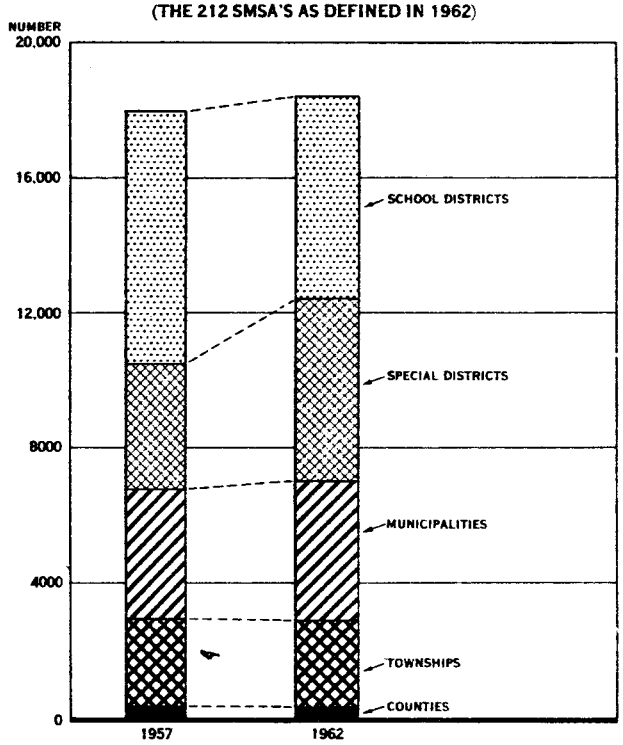
** Including some types of entities not formerly subject to classification as independent governmental units.

Because the 1962 Census of Governments reclassified special districts, it is not possible to determine how much of the dramatic national increase in these units occurred in SMSA's. Metropolitan areas account for 30 percent of all special districts, but they contain 51 percent of water supply districts and 61 percent of sewerage districts.

Reduction in school districts has been taking place at a slower rate in metropolitan areas than in the rest of the country--

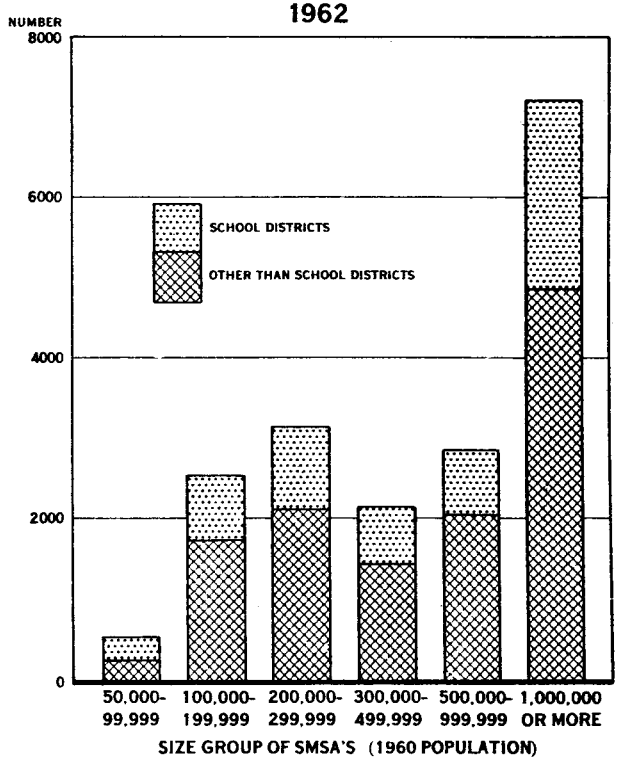
LOCAL GOVERNMENTS IN STANDARD METROPOLITAN STATISTICAL AREAS, BY TYPE, 1957 AND 1962

(THE 212 SMSA'S AS DEFINED IN 1962)



G/13 U.S. DEPARTMENT OF COMMERCE, BUREAU OF THE CENSUS

LOCAL GOVERNMENTS IN STANDARD METROPOLITAN STATISTICAL AREAS, BY POPULATION SIZE OF AREA: 1962



G/14 U.S. DEPARTMENT OF COMMERCE, BUREAU OF THE CENSUS

INTERSTATE METROPOLITAN AREAS
Revised 1963

Metropolitan Area	States with Part of Territory 1/	Number of County Areas	1960 Population
New York-Northeastern New Jersey 2/	New York-New Jersey	13 3/	14,759,429
Chicago-Northwestern Indiana 4/	Illinois-Indiana	8	6,794,461
Philadelphia	Pennsylvania-New Jersey	8	4,342,897
St. Louis	Missouri-Illinois	6	2,060,103
Washington	District of Columbia-Maryland-Virginia	7	2,001,897
*Cincinnati	Ohio-Kentucky-Indiana	7	1,268,479
Kansas City	Missouri-Kansas	4	1,039,493
Portland	Oregon-Washington	4	821,897
Providence-Pawtucket	Rhode Island-Massachusetts	8	816,148
Louisville	Kentucky-Indiana	3	725,139
**Memphis	Tennessee-Arkansas	2	674,583
**Springfield-Chicopee-Holyoke	Massachusetts-Connecticut	4	493,999
**Toledo	Ohio-Michigan	3	630,647
Allentown-Bethlehem-Easton	Pennsylvania-New Jersey	3	492,168
Omaha	Nebraska-Iowa	3	457,873
*Wilmington	Delaware-New Jersey-Maryland	3	414,565
**Binghamton	New York-Pennsylvania	3	283,600
Chattanooga	Tennessee-Georgia	2	283,169
Duluth-Superior	Minnesota-Wisconsin	2	276,596
Davenport-Rock Island-Moline	Iowa-Illinois	2	270,058
Huntington-Ashland	West Virginia-Kentucky-Ohio	4	254,780
Columbus	Georgia-Alabama	3	217,985
Augusta	Georgia-South Carolina	2	216,639
Evansville	Indiana-Kentucky	2	199,313
Wheeling	West Virginia-Ohio	3	190,342
Lawrence-Haverhill	Massachusetts-New Hampshire	2	187,601
Steubenville-Weirton	Ohio-West Virginia	3	167,756
Fall River	Massachusetts-Rhode Island	2	138,156
**Fort Smith	Arkansas-Oklahoma	4	135,110
**Sioux City	Iowa-Nebraska	2	120,017
Fargo-Moorhead	North Dakota-Minnesota	2	106,027
Texarkana	Texas-Arkansas	2	91,657

1/ The State containing the central city (or more populous one when there are two central cities) is listed first.

2/ A "standard consolidated area" consisting of 4 SMSA's (New York, Newark, Jersey City, and Paterson-Clifton-Passaic) plus Middlesex and Somerset Counties, N.J.

3/ Counting New York City as a single area, rather than in terms of its 5 component counties.

4/ A "standard consolidated area" consisting of 2 SMSA's (Chicago and Gary-Hammond-East Chicago).

* Former interstate metropolitan area which has become tri-state area.

** New interstate metropolitan areas.

LOCAL GOVERNMENTS AND PUBLIC SCHOOL SYSTEMS
WITHIN AND OUTSIDE STANDARD METROPOLITAN
STATISTICAL AREAS, BY STATES: 1962

Item	United States		All standard metropolitan statistical areas		
	Total United States	Outside SMSA's	Total All SMSA's	Central Portions	Outlying Portions
Land Area (Square Miles)	3,548,974	3,238,741	310,233	238,220	72,013
NUMBER OF LOCAL GOVERNMENTS					
All Types, Total	91,185	72,743	18,442	11,718	6,724
With property taxing power	82,319	66,136	16,183	10,191	5,992
School Districts	34,678	28,674	6,004	3,714	2,290
Other Local Governments, Total	56,507	44,069	12,438	8,004	4,434
County Governments	3,043	2,733	310	188	122
Municipalities	17,997	13,855	4,142	2,548	1,594
With a 1960 population of 50,000 or more	310	--	310	281	29
25,000 to 49,999	368	173	195	127	68
10,000 to 24,999	980	524	456	266	190
5,000 to 9,999	1,285	773	512	279	233
2,500 to 4,999	1,770	1,206	564	334	230
1,000 to 2,499	3,527	2,683	844	514	330
Less than 1,000	9,757	8,496	1,261	747	514
Township Governments	17,144	14,569	2,575	1,681	894
With a 1960 population of 10,000 or more	713	197	516	348	168
1,000 to 9,999	5,805	4,274	1,531	950	581
Less than 1,000	10,626	10,098	528	383	145
Special Districts	18,323	12,912	5,411	3,587	1,824
Having power of property taxation	9,457	6,305	3,152	2,060	1,092
Single Function Districts	18,013	12,780	5,233	3,458	1,775
Natural resources	6,158	5,212	946	716	230
Local fire protection	3,229	2,055	1,174	631	543
Housing and urban renewal	1,099	708	391	315	76
Sewerage & sewage disposal	937	367	570	326	244
Water supply	1,502	738	799	605	194
All other	5,088	3,700	1,353	865	488
Multiple Function Districts	310	132	178	129	49

20 percent since 1957 as compared to 31 percent in the Nation as a whole. Of 6,600 school systems in SMSA's, however, 26 percent enroll fewer than 300 pupils and 14 percent are nonoperating. Metropolitan areas and many rural areas have a long way to go toward eliminating small and inefficient school districts.

As indicated in the above table, contrary to national trends and the decline in school districts, the total number of local governments in SMSA's are not declining. Metropolitan areas are leading the Nation in municipal incorporations and lagging in reduction of school districts.

The significance of the foregoing is that local government in metropolitan areas is unbelievably complex; few, if any, metropolitan areas receive their local governmental services from a single responsible unit of government; and finally, the fragmentation and overlapping of governmental units in metropolitan areas are increasing.

Government Employment and Finances

Studies of metropolitan finance have rarely been based on any comprehensive surveys of metropolitan areas and, until the 1957 Census of Governments, comparative analyses were not possible. In addition to the unavailability of data, the complex network of fiscal interrelationships of Federal, State, and local governments, the interrelationships among local governments themselves, and the nature of governmental reviews performed make analysis extremely hazardous.

Questions of comparative fiscal resources and governmental expenditures among central cities and suburbs are only now beginning to be explored. Most such analysis in the past, and for the near future, is likely to be limited to comparative analysis of particular local functions and their financing as between metropolitan and nonmetropolitan governments rather than variation of the functions within metropolitan areas. Such basic information as is available, primarily from the Census of Governments, follows.

Employment

Employment is a useful measure of the extent to which various local government functions are carried on. The Census of Governments reports this information for within and outside of metropolitan areas but unfortunately does not provide a central city-suburban breakdown.

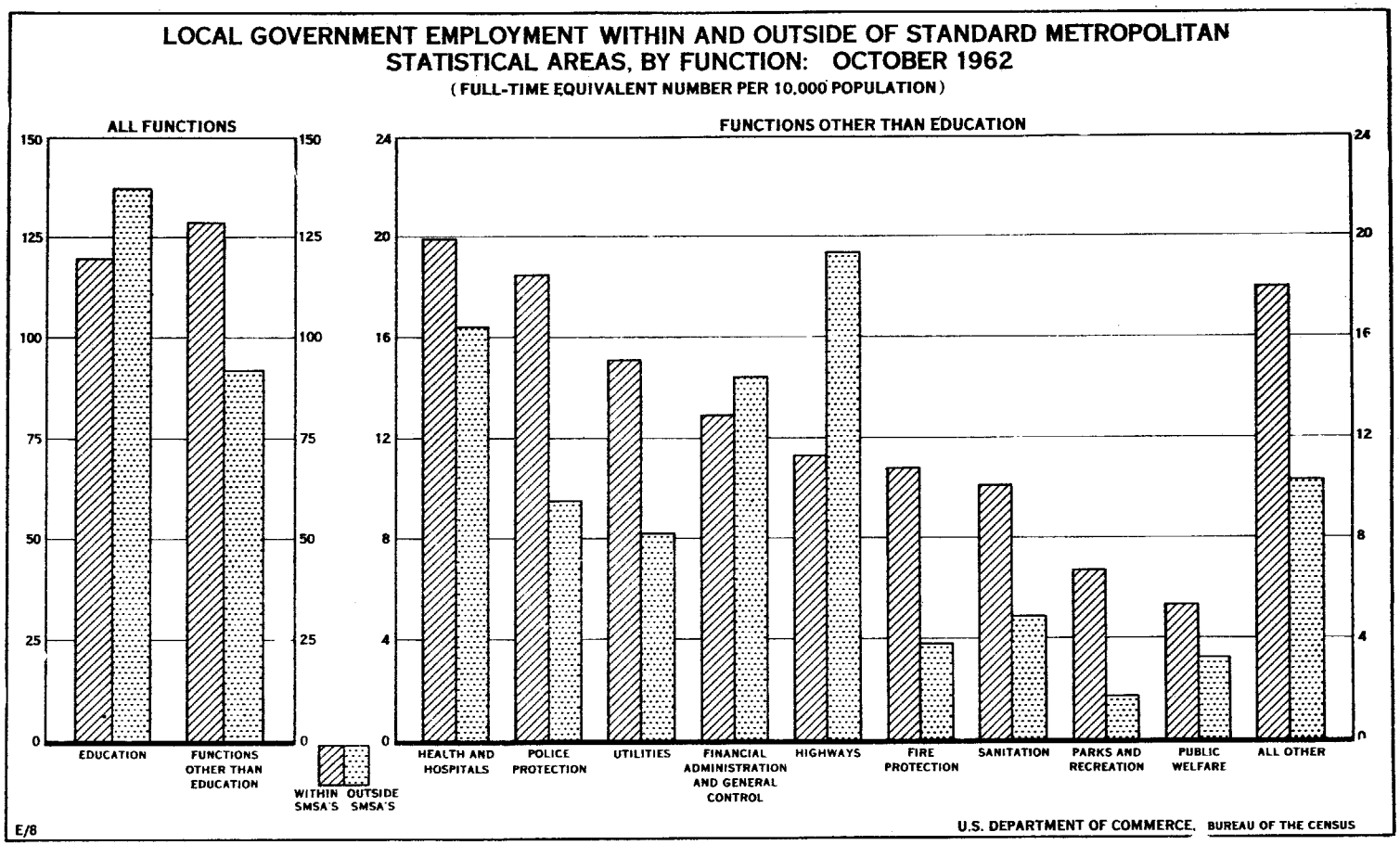
In relation to population, local governments within metropolitan areas employ considerably more public servants than local governments elsewhere for numerous functions, including police and fire protection, sewerage and other sanitation, parks, libraries, and various other services, mainly urban. Nonetheless, there are some important offsetting tendencies, especially with regard to local government employment for education. In October 1962, local government employment for education averaged only 119.5 persons per 10,000 population within SMSA's, as compared with 137.2 persons per 10,000 population outside such areas. A similar tendency is found for the "highways" function (11.3 persons per 10,000 in SMSA's, but 19.4 per 10,000 elsewhere), and for such functions as natural resources, financial administration, and general control. As a net result of these divergent tendencies, the total of local government employment for all functions averaged only slightly higher within SMSA's than elsewhere--i.e., on a full time equivalent basis, 248.1 per 10,000 in SMSA's and 228.8 per 10,000 outside.

Patterns of local government reveal a number of other significant differences between metropolitan areas and other areas. There is considerably less part time employment in metropolitan areas. Monthly earnings are higher for local government employees in metropolitan areas then elsewhere for all of the many functions reported. Thus, full time teachers in public school systems showed an October 1962 average of $589 within SMSA's, as against $461 elsewhere; the respective October average for full time fire protection employees was $509 and $376; and for water system employees, $440 within SMSA's and $333 elsewhere.

Revenues

Local governments within metropolitan areas in 1962 accounted for 70 percent of the $38.3 billion of general revenue received by all local governments in the United States. They received over $48 per capita revenue, or 27 percent, more than local governments outside metropolitan areas. The greatest part of this difference

Graphic Summary



was due to relative reliance on the property tax. Local governments in SMSA's obtained 50 percent of their total general revenues from property taxes, whereas local governments outside SMSA's received 43.6 percent--in money terms, a difference of $36 per capita. On the other hand, local governments in SMSA's received relatively less on State aids than non-SMSA localities: 24.7 percent and 36.7 percent respectively, or a dollar difference of $9 per person.

Per Capita Local Government General Revenue Patterns Within and Outside Metropolitan Areas in the United States: 1962

	Within SMSA's		Outside SMSA's		United States	
	Per Capita Amount	Percent	Per Capita Amount	Percent	Per Capita Amount	Percent
Total general revenue	$223.78	100.0	$175.06	100.0	$206.36	100.0
Property taxes	111.78	50.0	76.30	43.6	99.09	48.0
Other local taxes	18.41	8.2	5.74	3.3	13.88	6.7
State aids	55.35	24.7	64.29	36.7	58.54	28.4
Other general revenues	38.24	17.1	28.73	16.4	34.85	16.9

Expenditures

In 1962, local governments in SMSA's spent over $68, or 34 percent, more per capita than local governments outside SMSA's. The types of services associated with urban centers accounted for much of the difference. Public welfare expenditures were $16.13 in SMSA's, $9.78 outside; police protection $12.59 and $5.28; fire protection $7.79 and $2.91; sewerage $8.44 and $3.98; housing and urban renewal $8.69 and $1.61; and parks and recreation $6.43 and $1.77. On the other hand, local government expenditures outside SMSA's were greater than those inside SMSA's for highways ($22.85 compared to $18.46) and almost as great for education ($95.29 outside SMSA's compared to $97.29 inside). Education accounted for 47.7 percent of local governments' expenditures per capita outside SMSA's compared to 36.4 percent inside SMSA's.

Per Capita Local Government General Expenditure Patterns Within and Outside Metropolitan Areas in the United States: 1962

	Within SMSA's	Outside SMSA's	United States
Total	$267.05	$199.68	$242.96
Education	97.29	95.29	96.57
Highways	18.46	22.85	20.03
Public welfare	16.13	9.78	13.86
Police protection	12.59	5.28	9.98
Fire protection	7.79	2.91	6.05
Sewerage	8.44	3.98	6.85
Housing and urban renewal	8.69	1.61	6.16
Parks and recreation	6.43	1.77	4.77

Central City-Suburban Fiscal Differences

More directly relevant to this study is an analysis of central city-suburban differences. Harvey Brazer, in a study of the 12 largest metropolitan areas in the country, found that there are substantial differences between the central city and the rest of the metropolitan area in the amount spent per capita, in total, and for separate major functions such as education, highways, welfare, etc. 5/

Highway expenditures were found to be inversely associated with population density; that is, they were slightly higher in the suburbs. Rapid population growth requiring large capital outlays for new schools also resulted in higher education expenditures in the suburbs. On the other hand, police and fire protection and welfare had the highest level of per capita expenditure in the central cities. Likewise, expenditures for such functions as health and hospitals, urban renewal, public housing, and sanitation were consistently higher in the central city than in the suburban jurisdictions of these 12 largest metropolitan areas in the country.

5/ Harvey E. Brazer, "Some Fiscal Implications of Metropolitanism," in Metropolitan Issues: Social, Governmental, Fiscal (Syracuse: Syracuse University, 1962), pp. 61-82.

Sacks, in his studies for Brookings Institution, has analyzed per capita expenditures of the central city and the remainder of the metropolitan areas for the 24 largest metropolitan areas of the country. 6/ In 1960, these 24 SMSA's had almost 55 percent of the total population of the 113 million residing in metropolitan areas. As indicated by the table below, levels of expenditures measured both in per capita terms and as a percent of income, are almost uniformly higher on the average for the central city than for the remainder of the metropolitan area. Per capita expenditures for the central city averaged slightly over $200 per capita. The average outside the central city was $168 per capita.

Because of the complexities imposed by intergovernmental financing, comparison between central city and suburbs within individual metropolitan areas is more significant than a comparison of central cities (and suburbs) among metropolitan areas. Local fiscal differences between and within metropolitan areas are a result of, among other factors, State assumption of responsibility for direct expenditures on such functions as: (a) public welfare and highways; (b) State aid in financing of education, public welfare and, to a lesser extent, highways and health; and (c) differences in tax bases, especially the extent to which the nonresidential portion of the property tax base is used by local governments.

Sacks' work to date indicates that the key to an understanding of local government finances in metropolitan areas is the State. The State government provides services directly to metropolitan areas or provides aid to such areas in varying amounts. Sacks concludes that for the 24 largest metropolitan areas, differences among metropolitan areas in local expenditures and taxes are far in excess of differences in income or other socioeconomic characteristics. The principal differences among metropolitan areas are the result of differences in State responsibility for direct expenditures and for taxes. The extent of State responsibility is the most important determinant of the local levels of expenditure and taxes.

The analysis of economic and social population disparities in Chapter II reveals that these disparities vary significantly by size of metropolitan area and region. Additional research is needed to determine if the higher expenditure rate, both in absolute terms and

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6/ Sacks, op. cit.

RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN PER CAPITA EXPENDITURES AND INCOME OF CENTRAL CITY AND OUTSIDE CENTRAL CITIES FOR THE 24 LARGEST STANDARD METROPOLITAN STATISTICAL AREAS, 1957

Standard Metropolitan Statistical Area (In descending population size)	Central City Per Capita			Outside Central City Per Capita		
	Expenditures	Income	Percent expenditures to income	Expenditures	Income	Percent expenditures to income
New York	$257	$2,306	11.1	$259	$2,734	9.5
Los Angeles	290	2,541	11.4	202	2,422	8.3
Chicago	203	2,294	8.7	141	2,661	5.3
Philadelphia	165	1,875	8.8	138	2,273	6.1
Detroit	202	2,006	10.0	200	2,261	8.8
San Francisco	224	2,534	8.9	230	2,468	9.3
Boston	273	1,916	14.2	182	2,304	8.0
Pittsburgh	188	1,944	9.7	132	1,945	6.8
St. Louis	147	1,801	8.2	125	2,214	5.6
Washington	234	2,403	9.7	148	2,548	5.8
Cleveland	180	1,856	9.7	186	2,784	6.7
Baltimore	199	2,049	9.7	142	1,869	7.6
Newark	243	1,793	13.6	182	2,748	6.6
Minneapolis	186	2,210	8.4	194	2,174	8.9
Buffalo	193	1,910	10.1	210	2,114	9.9
Houston	155	2,063	7.5	187	1,934	9.7
Milwaukee	229	2,105	10.9	210	2,550	8.2
Pat., Clif., Pass.	156	2,104	7.4	156	2,646	5.9
Seattle	174	2,522	6.8	142	2,132	6.7
Dallas	175	2,216	7.9	118	1,965	6.0
Cincinnati	246	2,040	12.1	118	2,153	5.5
Kansas City	157	2,175	7.2	134	2,158	6.2
San Diego	191	2,302	8.3	189	2,050	9.2
Atlanta	158	1,934	8.2	100	1,853	5.4

Source: 1957 Census of Governments; 1960 Census of Population.

in relationship to per capita income in central cities, and the importance of State financial aids in determining local expenditures in the largest SMSA's, holds true in the smaller metropolitan areas.

Summary of Findings

In brief, metropolitan areas of the United States, containing two-thirds of the country's population, account for a major share of its economic activity measured by such yardsticks as bank deposits, industrial production, housing construction, and property valuation.

A great obstacle to effective use of these resources, however, is the pattern of local government in metropolitan areas. It is unbelievably complex, and marked by an increasing number of units that frequently overlap one another and fragment the area.

A measure of the relative burdens of governmental problems and efforts to deal with them at the local level, within SMSA's and outside, is provided by data on employment, revenues, and expenditures. Local governments within metropolitan areas engage only slightly more employees, relative to population, than do local governments outside SMSA's, but they pay considerably higher salaries. Local governments within SMSA's receive over 27 percent more revenue per capita than those outside SMSA's, depending more heavily on property taxes and other local taxes and less on State aids. They also spend more per capita overall, mainly because of greater demand for services of a basically urban nature, such as police and fire protection and urban renewal and housing.

Only limited data are available permitting fiscal comparisons between central cities and suburbs in SMSA's. Available studies indicate, however, that there are substantial differences in expenditure patterns of central cities and suburbs. Highway and education expenditures per capita tend to be higher in the suburbs; police and fire protection, welfare, hospitals, urban renewal, public housing, and sanitation in the central city. For at least the larger metropolitan areas, expenditures, measured in both per capita and percent of income terms, are higher for the central city than for the rest of the metropolitan area. The differences vary from area to area, and among the most significant causes of the variations are the differences in State responsibility for direct expenditures, grants-in-aid, and taxes.

MUNICIPAL GOVERNMENTS AND THEIR POPULATION, WITHIN AND OUTSIDE OF STANDARD METROPOLITAN STATISTICAL AREAS, BY POPULATION SIZE: 1962

Item	United States, total	Outside SMSA's	Within standard metropolitan statistical areas								
			All areas			By population size-group, in terms of 1960 population of SMSA's					
			Total	Central portions	Outlying portions	1,000,000 or more	500,000 to 999,999	300,000 to 499,999	200,000 to 299,999	100,000 to 199,999	50,000 to 99,999
NUMBER OF MUNICIPALITIES[1]											
Total.....	17,997	13,855	4,142	2,548	1,594	1,875	619	419	605	522	102
1960 population of--											
50,000 or more.....	310	...	310	281	29	103	48	34	45	61	19
25,000 to 49,999...	368	173	195	127	68	131	25	12	9	14	4
10,000 to 24,999...	980	524	456	266	190	294	73	27	31	28	3
5,000 to 9,999.....	1,285	773	512	279	233	307	71	52	52	29	1
2,500 to 4,999.....	1,770	1,206	564	334	230	268	82	70	82	58	4
1,000 to 2,499.....	3,527	2,683	844	514	330	341	112	100	160	119	12
Less than 1,000....	9,757	8,496	1,261	747	514	431	208	124	226	213	59
PERCENT OF MUNICIPALITIES											
Total.....	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
1960 population of--											
50,000 or more.....	1.7	...	7.5	11.0	1.8	5.5	7.8	8.1	7.4	11.7	18.6
25,000 to 49,999...	2.0	1.2	4.7	5.0	4.3	7.0	4.0	2.9	1.5	2.7	3.9
10,000 to 24,999...	5.4	3.8	11.0	10.4	11.9	15.7	11.8	6.4	5.1	5.4	2.9
5,000 to 9,999.....	7.1	5.6	12.4	10.9	14.6	16.4	11.5	12.4	8.6	5.6	1.0
2,500 to 4,999.....	9.8	8.7	13.6	13.1	14.4	14.3	13.2	16.7	13.6	11.1	3.9
1,000 to 2,499.....	19.6	19.4	20.4	20.2	20.7	18.2	18.1	23.9	26.4	22.8	11.8
Less than 1,000....	54.2	61.3	30.4	29.3	32.2	23.0	33.6	29.6	37.4	40.8	57.8
POPULATION, 1960 (000)[1]											
Total.....	179,323	66,438	112,885	91,805	21,080	61,582	19,215	10,373	10,182	9,772	1,761
In municipally governed areas.....	116,244	31,352	84,892	74,046	10,847	49,236	14,029	6,652	6,715	6,827	1,435
1960 population of-											
50,000 or more.....	63,460	...	63,460	61,101	2,359	36,230	10,896	5,051	4,983	5,131	1,170
25,000 to 49,999...	12,784	6,046	6,737	4,505	2,232	4,418	921	403	303	549	142
10,000 to 24,999...	15,074	7,993	7,081	4,095	2,986	4,653	1,092	370	445	460	61
5,000 to 9,999.....	9,054	5,415	3,638	1,984	1,654	2,190	540	355	346	199	8
2,500 to 4,999.....	6,262	4,260	2,001	1,176	826	958	289	246	288	207	13
1,000 to 2,499.....	5,586	4,202	1,384	837	547	580	190	167	245	183	19
Less than 1,000....	4,025	3,435	590	347	243	204	101	60	104	98	23
Outside municipally governed areas.....	63,079	35,086	27,993	17,759	10,234	12,347	5,186	3,722	3,467	2,946	326
PERCENT OF POPULATION											
Total.....	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
In municipally governed areas.....	64.8	47.2	75.2	80.7	51.5	80.0	73.0	64.1	65.9	69.9	81.5
1960 population of--											
50,000 or more.....	35.4	...	56.2	66.6	11.2	58.8	56.7	48.7	48.9	52.5	66.4
25,000 to 49,999...	7.1	9.1	6.0	4.9	10.6	7.2	4.8	3.9	3.0	5.6	8.1
10,000 to 24,999...	8.4	12.0	6.3	4.5	14.2	7.6	5.7	3.6	4.4	4.7	3.5
5,000 to 9,999.....	5.0	8.2	3.2	2.2	7.8	3.6	2.8	3.4	3.4	2.0	0.5
2,500 to 4,999.....	3.5	6.4	1.8	1.3	3.9	1.6	1.5	2.4	2.8	2.1	0.7
1,000 to 2,499.....	3.1	6.3	1.2	0.9	2.6	0.9	1.0	1.6	2.4	1.9	1.1
Less than 1,000....	2.2	5.2	0.5	0.4	1.2	0.3	0.5	0.6	1.0	1.0	1.3
Outside municipally governed areas.....	35.2	52.8	24.8	19.3	48.5	20.0	27.0	35.9	34.1	30.1	18.5

[1]Data for municipalities and municipally governed areas include municipalities incorporated after 1960. with their actual or estimated population at the time of their establishment.

Chapter IV

COSTS AND BENEFITS OF METROPOLITANWIDE SERVICES

Previous chapters have revealed a metropolitan distribution of populations with significantly varying governmental needs and capabilities. Noted as well was a complex pattern of fragmentation and overlapping of local government in metropolitan areas with a likelihood of increasing complexity rather than simplification. As the trend continues toward population growth and increasing number of independent governmental jurisdictions, equitable financing becomes more difficult to achieve for those governmental services which cut across such disparities and political boundaries. As the Commission indicated in its earlier report, Performance of Urban Functions: Local and Areawide, this is especially the case with respect to such areawide services as air pollution control, sewage disposal, transportation, hospitals, and welfare. These services require large and integrated physical facilities with service boundaries economically dictated by population density and topography, often involving little or no relationship to boundaries of the city or county. The issues involved in financing these services generally revolve around determining an equitable distribution of costs among local governments rather than equalizing costs based on the ability to pay.

Aside from proposals for major or minor revision of local government structure in metropolitan areas, devices have been advanced for limiting the difficulty of achieving equitable financing of many local government services in metropolitan areas. Such devices include heavier reliance on Federal and State grants, more widespread use of service or user charges, and establishment of new and broader tax levies. Additional proposals of the Commission dealing with certain of these approaches are contained in the recommendations (Chapter V).

In addition, because local governments in metropolitan areas must pay all or part of the costs of such areawide programs, much could be done to improve the manner in which they negotiate and agree on equitable financing.

The Commission has long been interested in the possibility of improved methods for areawide agreement and sharing of costs on a fair and equitable basis. It feels that progress could be made if it were possible to determine costs for the areawide program, and benefits to residents and governments through objective analytical studies using agreed upon methods of analysis. Such determinations are especially needed in providing areawide services where the reliance on user charges cannot be expected to cover the cost of the services, such as mass transit and parks and recreation.

Cost-benefit analysis designed to provide a basis for cooperative negotiations among jurisdictions has come into rather extensive use recently in conjunction with many Federal programs, especially in regard to water resources, recreation, and highways. This technique may offer helpful guidelines for use by separate jurisdictions in metropolitan areas.

For many metropolitan areas, a single areawide government whose boundaries are coterminous with the scope of a particular service is neither likely nor necessarily appropriate. In many situations it appears more likely that ad hoc or function by function arrangements among existing local units will assure that these functions will be performed more efficiently on an areawide basis. Such arrangements will require allocating the costs of services among the independent units on a fair and equitable basis. The rub, of course, enters when one seeks to determine what is a "fair and equitable" basis--reason enough for the increasing attention being given techniques known as cost-benefit analysis.

This chapter examines the feasibility of transferring or adapting concepts of cost-benefit analysis to the urban scene. Past and current use of cost-benefit analysis on governmental projects is examined and methods suggested for using it to bring about more equitable financing of urban services. Although our study shows that cost-benefit analysis cannot answer all questions raised in reaching intelligent decisions, it does answer some and clarify others.

Applications of Cost-Benefit Analysis

Techniques of cost-benefit analysis have been prominently applied to such publicly supported projects as highway construction and the development of water resources. In fact, much published literature is concerned with the latter. Both services are amenable to charging or imputing prices for their output and hence approximate private market conditions more closely than most governmental activities. Following is a brief discussion of some of the cost-benefit studies 1/ of these services.

Highways

Benefits from new or improved highways have been classified in two groups: (1) Savings in money and time to the present highway users in the region. These savings include vehicle operating cost reductions, fewer accidents, and reduced travel time requirements. (2) Increased production and economic activity due to improved access to particular locations and due to the reductions in transport costs and time requirements. These reductions enlarge marketing areas for present projects and provide the opportunity for products new to the region to compete successfully in the national market. The extent to which these benefits can be qualified depends on the adequacy and availability of needed statistical data. Few detailed studies of this nature have been done in the United States, though a number of "before and after" studies in American urban areas have been made dealing with such factors as land values, tax bases, retail activities, and building permits. 2/

1/ Tilo E. Kuhn, Public Enterprise Economics and Transport Problems (Berkeley, University of California Press, 1962), pp. 210-232.

2/ For details of such studies, see Mohring and Harwitz, Highway Benefits: An Analytical Framework (Northwestern University, 1962), Chapter IV and Bibliography.

One suggested format of analytical procedures and standards for applying cost-benefit analysis to decisions about the development of rural highways has been developed by the American Association of Highway Officials. 3/ The stated objective--efficient planning and design of highways--requires consideration of: (1) the costs of construction; (2) improvement and maintenance of highways; and (3) the direct benefits to road users in terms of savings in operation, costs and travel time, increased comfort and convenience, and reduction in accidents. Additionally, land and community benefits and the solvency of the road system must be taken into account. Each cost is quantified and benefit estimates obtained by applying standard benefit values to projections of future use. The analysis thus equates user benefits with capital costs. The project with the highest cost-benefit ratio among several alternatives is selected.

As an example, an old route between two urban areas may be deemed inadequate. A highway cost-benefit study would compare possible new routes by showing, in the numerator, cost savings to users when compared with the old route and, in the denominator, costs of building each new route less repair and maintenance costs of the old route. The route with the most favorable ratio would be given highest priority.

Water Resources Development

Most cost-benefit studies in water resource development emerge from official procedures and criteria followed by Federal agencies. The so-called "green book," Proposed Practices for Economic Analysis of River Basin Projects, 4/ and supplementary governmental documents have stimulated much

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3/ American Association of State Highway Officials, Road User Benefit Analyses for Highway Improvement (Washington, D.C., 1960).

4/ U. S. Federal Inter-Agency River Basin Committee, Proposed Practices for Economic Analysis of River Basin Projects, May 1950.

discussion about applying cost-benefit analysis to public expenditure decisions. It defines acceptable costs and benefits, describes procedures for treating price level and employment, and suggests appropriate interest rates to be used. Proposed projects in reclamation, power development, or flood control must show an excess of benefits over costs. The ratio of Benefits/Costs helps not only to rank projects but, as well, to hold expenditures within limited budgets.

Problems in Implementation

Any plan to apply cost-benefit analysis to local activities in metropolitan areas should not overlook secondary advantages that may accrue when the primary project gets into operation. These advantages may be considered under these categories: (a) secondary gain and costs; (b) intangible effects; and (c) costs and benefits to those outside the jurisdiction providing the service.

(a) Secondary or indirect benefits (and costs) induced by a particular program are a net increase in income resulting from the primary objective of the activity. Increased valuation of real estate around a rapid rail transit line in an urban area is an example. Clean water for downstream users resulting from construction of a sewage treatment plant is another. The Corps of Engineers and the Bureau of Reclamation count flood control and recreational use as primary benefits in any power project and have evolved detailed methods for evaluating these effects. Secondary benefits in irrigation projects, counted by the Corps of Engineers in calculating cost-benefit ratios, include such derivatives as stimulating establishment of new processing plants in the area and related service type business development.

Effects, which although proximate and identifiable are not capable of simple expression in dollars because of the difficulties of measurement, are defined as intangibles in cost-benefit analysis. As noted above, examples of these effects in the field of dam construction, for example, are: recreational use, including upstream fishing, and flood control.

They may in fact be measured in other units and so lack only the attribute of being commensurable with other measured gains or losses.

(b) Intangibles in cost-benefit analysis are defined as effects which, although proximate and identifiable, are not capable of simple expression in dollars. Examples of these effects related to dam construction projects are: recreational use, including upstream fishing, and flood control. Decisions about allocating costs among governments should reflect these intangibles. They become most meaningful, of course, when it is possible to estimate their value in dollar units.

Any decision on the allocation of costs among governments should reflect these relative weights by counting these intangibles and considering them properly. When it is possible to gain an indirect estimate of value of these intangible effects in dollar units, the analysis greatly gains.

(c) "Spillovers" are defined as impacts of actions by some decision making units on the activities of others, impacts which are not directly felt by the first group. Thus, mosquito spraying in one community reduces bites in a neighboring community. Such gains or losses are uncompensated because the first group is not affected. If such effects were recoverable, they would be like any other gain or loss and conventionally counted by the initiating group in the cost-benefit analysis as secondary effects (as under (a) above).

Spillovers of benefit, or spillovers of cost, as in the case of, say, the absence of an air pollution control program, represent net gains or losses to individuals or governments and thus should be counted in any cost-benefit framework, particularly when applied to intergovernmental negotiations.

Certain projects may have the effect of not providing a net increase for a region as a whole, but merely a shifting of benefits to one community at a commensurate cost in other parts of the region.

The difficulties in measuring these impacts are well illustrated by two recent studies of specific areas which provide a useful insight into the problems.

Disease Prevention

Prevention of social diseases has long been recognized as a legitimate concern for governmental bodies because it forestalls higher public expenditures later on for hospital and welfare costs. Klarman 5/ demonstrates success in evaluating both the primary benefits of a program to prevent syphilis and in measuring the intangible aspect of the social stigma of the disease.

Benefits are measured by total costs avoided when a case of the disease is prevented. Direct costs are defined as costs incurred in treatment. Indirect costs are defined as loss of income which results from death or disability as consequences of the disease.

The direct benefit measure is relatively easy to calculate--cost of treatment obtained from private or institutional medical sources. They are computed under the simple assumption that no other diseases are present and that syphilis does not contribute directly to death. The indirect income loss in production in taken to be the median wages and salaries for the specific age-sex-income group. These cost estimates are applied to a population which is determined by applying, sequentially, estimates of disease incidence, life expectancy and labor force participation, and employment.

Under the apparently valid assumption that there is social stigma attached to the disease which is manifested in wage and employment discrimination, the Klarman report estimates the income loss by assuming the economic loss at 5 percent of the present value of total future earnings of the infected population. Even for the group which obtains prompt treatment, the loss is large. The social stigma becomes the most significant economic loss over the entire life of the disease.

5/ Herbert E. Klarman, Measuring the Benefits of a Health Program - The Control of Syphilis (Brookings Institution: Conference on Government Investment Expenditures), Washington, D.C., November 1963.

School Dropouts

In a paper devoted to applying cost-benefit analysis to the high school dropout problem, Weisbrod 6/ attacks what in the past has been considered a personal or family problem but which has recently become "social." Previously, the dropout was thought either an optimal solution given individual preferences or, if lack of information or foresight existed, still an exercise of consumer sovereignty with the consequences to be borne by the individual. The problem is currently urgent because of the high unemployment rate among dropouts (despite a high aggregate rate of employment) with the resultant need for welfare assistance, unemployment compensation, and other aids.

Direct benefits of dropout prevention are measured by incremental market productivity as reflected in income differentials which accrue to the graduate. Although the statistical gain may not be fully realizable because of the differences in ability, motivation, and continuing unemployment, it nevertheless indicates average individual gain from the completion of high school.

Weisbrod further identifies certain spillovers, both technological and pecuniary. The technological spillover, which should be counted in total benefits, although conceptually it does not enter into the student's evaluation of his situation, is "the foregone costs of crime and delinquency; the reduced cost of welfare administration; better citizenship; a more positive attitude toward education which will be communicated to future generations; and improvement in the quality of the labor supply, which increases both the productivity of labor and the productivity of resources combined with this labor."

Pecuniary returns are redistributive, but still constitute impacts which result from prevention of high school dropouts. Weisbrod identifies two: reduced welfare payments

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6/ Burton A. Weisbrod, Preventing High School Dropouts--A Benefit-Cost Analysis (Brookings Institution: Conference on Government Investment Expenditures), Washington, D.C., November 1963.

to dropouts obtained from a more equal distribution of unemployment, and increased tax revenues from increased income as a result of less unemployment.

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We conclude, therefore, that cost-benefit analysis, while useful, has not fully resolved problems of estimating intangibles and "unmeasurable" impacts, or what we have referred to as the social benefits and costs impact. When applied to urban environments, cost-benefit analysis raises acute problems of measurement because of the effect on its neighbors of actions taken by an adjacent jurisdiction. While the last two case studies noted above indicate the potentials of cost-benefit analysis when applied by capable researchers, the problems with which they dealt are perhaps less complex than those facing urban administrators over the provision of such major services as air pollution, sewage disposal, and mass transportation.

The Method of Analysis

This final section will seek answers to the following questions: (1) What kinds of data can be developed to suggest orders of magnitude of benefits and costs even if they fall short of the desired? (2) In terms of allocating costs to separate jurisdictions, what sort of arrangements can be made on a cooperative or negotiated basis? Answers may come more easily if we first identify the kinds of information we want.

Desired Cost-Benefit Information

Although the particulars of cost-benefit analysis will vary from function to function and area to area, general information requirements for decision making will remain pretty much the same. Thus, the task could be to evaluate an intrametropolitan rapid transportation proposal, a possible recreational area for the Los Angeles metropolitan region, or an air pollution control problem for the Detroit area. In each case, the general questions or steps are the same.

First question: Is the project or program worthwhile? The answer involves a comparison of costs and benefits. If the project or program is not worthwhile on an areawide basis, presumptive evidence is adduced that the overall project as originally conceived is not worthwhile for the separate communities.

Second question: What portion, if any, of the costs are to be covered by user charges, i.e., fees for use? Insofar as user charges prevail, the task of allocating costs to separate local governments is reduced.

Third and final question: How can costs of worthwhile projects be apportioned among separate communities within the area? Relevant costs are those not covered by user charges.

Overall Project Evaluation

The overall value of a project or program to an area is the first piece of necessary information. As a practical matter, some steps necessary to determine the value of a project will be discussed below where the measurement of costs and benefits are considered separately.

In addition to its usefulness in helping to determine whether a particular undertaking is worthwhile, cost-benefit analysis serves, as noted earlier, to rank public projects; i.e., project C is better than project D. It serves as well as an aid in determining the size of the governmental budget in a metropolitan area. If cost-benefit studies indicate a large number of projects are worthwhile, a larger public budget is implied. Here, budget is defined to include both tax and bond-financed expenditures.

For purposes of this report, we shall assume that a given project or program is under consideration, not which of a whole set of programs is the most desirable. Put another way, the issue is whether a mass transit system for a particular area is desirable, not whether such a system is to be preferred over an enlargement of the sanitary district.

With interest focused on one program or project, the question arises: Is it really necessary to measure all benefits? Note that the question is concerned only with benefits, not with costs. It is important to measure all costs, but not necessarily all benefits. Why?

Suppose the annual cost of a project is $100,000 at present value. In the process of measuring benefits, suppose a conservative estimate of the return from realistically anticipated user charges is $150,000 annually. If costs have been properly measured, this is a sufficient condition to proceed even without knowing any extra benefits which might accrue beyond user charges. More generally, if a convincing case can be made without exhausting all possible benefits, a project may be deemed worthwhile.

A supplementary facet of this procedure should be mentioned. It was shown above that, even if benefits from user charges exceed costs, other nonuser benefits resulting from the project should not be ignored. If they exist, some portion of the costs should be charged to these ancillary beneficiaries and not all of it paid by user fees. For the proper allocation of costs to separate jurisdictions, additional information may be desired. It could be, for example, that many nonuser benefits of a beach improvement program accrue to nearby communities. If user fees and concession charges cover acquisition costs and upkeep, one might question whether these communities should not pay part of the costs.

Measurement of Benefits

In applying cost-benefit concepts, such experts as Margolis, Eckstein, and Litchfield have repeatedly called for a more dedicated effort to measure the intangible or social benefits. 7/ In order to suggest ways to obtain information

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7/ Otto Eckstein, Water Resource Development (Cambridge: Harvard University Press, 1958); Nathaniel Litchfield and Julius Margolis, "Benefit-Cost Analysis as a Tool in Urban Government Decision Making," in Public Expenditure Decisions in the Urban Community, ed. by Howard G. Schaller (Washington, D.C., Resources for the Future, Inc., 1963).

desired by decision makers, we have reviewed the literature of past efforts about cost-benefit studies. Some approaches suggested below are derived from the literature; others may be new. The first discussion considers briefly the question of evaluating possible user charges. Next, attention is focused on the more difficult question of measuring benefits enjoyed by all residents of the area to be served (e.g., mosquito abatement program), or what economists call "social benefits."

User Charges. For many projects and programs, part of the benefit can be measured in terms of anticipated user charges, an evaluation often used by private enterprise in the decision making process. Whether the firm produces legal services, tennis rackets, or apartment buildings, losses will result if the revenue from demand (benefits) does not cover costs.

How can the metropolitan community evaluate user charge demand? Obviously, past experience is the major element. For each function, expert advice and review studies provide the best evidence. Four sets of information are critical: (1) What changes have been made in the service? (2) How does demand vary with population changes? (3) How does demand vary as incomes rise and fall? And, (4) how does price affect use?

(1) Changes in the nature of the service are often overlooked. Economists consider them as product change or change in quality. For example, one would be hard put to explain the increased demand for outboard motors over the past few decades in terms of the traditional economics of income and price. Today's motor is significantly better than yesterday's. In like manner, a modern, air conditioned, rapid transit system is vastly superior to yesterday's trolley car. Failure to account for these differences can lead to faulty evaluations.

(2) Population changes, especially rapid increases, are commonplace in most metropolitan areas. They have about a one-to-one relationship with the private market--if the population doubles, retail food sales can be expected to double, other things constant. This is not the case for urban

government functions. Brazer, for example, has shown that governmental expenditures rise more than proportionately with increased population size. 8/

(3) Changes in per capita income can significantly affect the demand for a given service. Economists refer to this relationship as the income elasticity of demand. A cost-benefit study of a possible marina, for example, would have to take into account the fact that as per capita incomes rise, expenditures on boating rise more than proportionately.

(4) Changes in the price (user charge) for a service are probably the most significant affecting use. Benefits are revealed by how much people demand a given service. In turn, the amount demanded depends upon the price. To the marketing analyst of a private firm, this is a daily fact of life. Yet, in many cases of cost-benefit analysis, this fact is taken into account only casually. Too often, demand (benefits) is considered only at one price and not a whole range of prices.

Failure to account for the effect of prices on the amount of service demanded leads not only to an erroneous estimate of benefits, but can lead to a nonoptimal decision regarding project size. A hypothetical example will illustrate this point. Suppose an areawide recreation site is under consideration. Further, assume that 1,000 daily users are attracted at an admission fee of $2.00 to cover costs. The area purchases the site and adds facilities. If, for some reason, it is decided not to charge admission, facilities to handle 1,000 daily visitors will not be adequate because at a zero charge the number of visitors might double. Recognition of the effects of price is, therefore, important for determining benefits as well as scale of operation.

The four foregoing factors which affect benefit estimates are not exhaustive. Others can and do enter. One purpose in mentioning these was simply to highlight some

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8/ Harvey Brazer, City Expenditures in the United States (New York: National Bureau of Economic Research, Inc., 1959).

elements technicians do (or at least should) consider in undertaking benefit analysis, especially in connection with estimating user charges.

A second purpose is also involved. Estimates of the impact of these factors depend in large part on forecasts of future income and population in the metropolitan area. Almost universally, the starting place for reviewing specific cost-benefit studies is some estimate of income and population for the region under consideration. All too often these estimates are based on hopelessly inadequate information. Moreover, two or more separate cost-benefit studies can come up with substantially different forecasts of future income and population. Perhaps that hazard is less severe than the danger of having only one "official" forecast which obscures genuine disagreement. Despite difficulties, it does seem worthwhile to encourage a general economic analysis of community resources to serve as a basis for specific cost-benefit studies. This is especially true in obtaining information about income and changing spending patterns within a region. Almost insoluble problems in obtaining data on income and spending have continually plagued efforts to establish meaningful forecasts as a necessary step in cost-benefit analysis.

Where user charges are not feasible, part or all of the benefits are enjoyed by the community as a whole--social benefits. Althougn labeled "intangibles" or "unmeasurables" in traditional cost-benefit studies, the objective for intergovernmental purposes is indeed to measure them as accurately as possible--preferably in dollars.

Demand Approximations. Almost all cost-benefit studies attempt to approximate demand as a measure of benefits. We examine three variations of this effort: (1) demand as estimated from other consumer evidence, such as travel time; (2) demand estimated on the basis of the nearest private alternative good; and (3) demand estimated on the experience of similar situations in other communities. While these measures are more concerned with estimating overall demand, they are also germane to the particular problem of benefits which accrue to separate jurisdictions. We will consider each application.

(1) Consumer Evidence. Perhaps the best known expression of demand is found in ascribing value to a recreation facility through a computation of travel time. The original concept was developed by Hofelling and has been used by others such as Clawson and Ullman. The essential notion is quite simple.

Consumers of recreation sites spend a given amount of money on gas and oil in traveling to and from the sites. Even ascribing no cost to driving time and disregarding it entirely, an estimate of demand can be determined by distances people are willing to drive. Although imperfect, this technique may find some application within metropolitan regions.

A second approach seemingly implicit in some cost-benefit studies may be termed the "at least as much" method. Although it is less satisfactory than the first and requires some major assumptions, it does yield some indices to the level of demand.

The essential notion is that consumers of a government service spend money to buy goods that are an inherent part of the consumption. Sportsmen spend on camping equipment, households buy second cars for commutation purposes, and citizens even buy air fresheners to get rid of smog--the opposite of the government enforced good, a "fresh air district." If it can be determined that families, for example, spend $100 on camping equipment, then by assumption a camp site is worth at least $100. Of course, it is worth much more, but any attempt to arrive at its true value will certainly include on one side of the equation estimated amounts of money consumers spend on camping equipment.

(2) Alternative Private Equivalents. Another method for estimating benefits as measured by consumer demands might be termed "alternative private equivalents." The rationale behind this method is quite straightforward. Consumers are viewed as spenders of a certain amount of money on particular goods or services, depending upon their incomes and the prices charged. Moreover, consumers make a number of substitutions in the process of choosing various goods and services. Thus, a consumer shopping for canned asparagus may well substitute canned peas if for some reason there are no cans of asparagus

in the store. The presumption is that the consumer is committed to spending so much on canned vegetables and so chooses among the alternatives available.

Consider the case of a recreation site acquisition for a metropolitan area. Again, the question is raised: What are the benefits? The alternative private equivalent approach would begin by determining what privately operated recreation areas now exist. What use is made of them by residents of the area and at what prices? From this information, some clues may be obtained about the level of demand for a public facility.

The pitfalls should be obvious. How does the cost-benefit analyst know, before the fact, that a particular private good is a close substitute for the proposed government service? Further, even if it can be expected to be a reasonably close substitute, what share of the total market will go to the governmentally provided service? These are some of the questions which remind us that judgments must be made in the analysis. It is not mechanical.

(3) Past Experience in Other Areas. One of the first phrases taught beginners in Latin is experientia docet--experience teaches. The experiences of other communities are a good teacher of beginners in the use of benefit analysis concepts.

The benefits of mass transit or new freeway systems are difficult to measure. In the case of transit, user charges are a partial reflection of benefits. However, the additional or social benefits are hard to measure. The question relevant for benefit analysis is: Where would these extra benefits arise? If there are benefits above and beyond those reflected by user charges, somebody has received an economic gain. Who? In almost every case, most benefits accrue to owners of real property--land and buildings 9/--and are reflected in higher

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9/ This is also true of the costs. Site acquisition for a freeway may give the home owners a fair value for land actually taken. It is questionable, however, if compensation for property values lost for these homes just missed is adequately considered as a cost of the project.

land and rental values. By studying the experience in other communities, analysts of proposed projects can begin to grasp the range of benefits.

Experience in other communities might also be used in conjunction with the alternative private equivalent approach. The notion here is that two areas, similar in other respects, may differ in a particular governmental service offered. If there are private market alternatives to these goods, the community without the public service may show higher expenditures on the private substitutes. For example, a metropolitan area without branch libraries may be compared to one with many branches. Insofar as branches serve more for recreational reading then research functions, it is reasonable to suppose that private circulating libraries may be more common. The value of books rented from the latter vis-a-vis the value of books rented in the area with many branches may offer an approximate measure of benefits.

As with the others suggested, this approach is not completely satisfactory. Experience in one area may be difficult to transpose. Furthermore, although governments are not apt to make follow up studies of specific programs in an effort to measure benefits which actually accrue, it would seem wise to do so, including in project proposals funds adequate for that purpose. This would help evaluate the original decision and would also enable the community and other communities to use the experience record to measure the value of prospective projects.

All measures for assessing benefits offer some usefulness. Which method or combination is most appropriate depends upon both the particular project or program and the metropolitan area involved.

Nonuser Charges: Indexes of Community Benefits. Efforts to measure the dollar value of communitywide or "social" benefits of a governmental program seek to convert some physical or psychological unit to dollars. Like the economic measure of value, the relationship is one of price multiplied by quantity. Abstractly, the total value of benefits in a health program can be measured in "units of health" multiplied

by the benefit per unit--just as the value of a barrel of apples is derived by multiplying the number of apples by the price per apple.

Particular attention should be paid to the role of value judgments in such analysis. As the economist, Tilo E. Kuhn, aptly sums up the situation with respect to the measurement of benefits to the community:

> The ubiquity and practical importance of ethical, aesthetic, social, political, and other nonmarket values are a challenge to decision makers and analysts. No matter how hard one may try to avoid it, some value judgments have to be made at every turn. Only if they are recognized as such and are made consciously can they be made intelligently. The official, the consultant, engineer, or economist must, then, state his articles of faith plainly, without camouflaging them behind "information" and technical jargon. 10/

In the present context, this view stresses the importance of stating clearly the assumptions and sources of data used to measure the dollar value of community benefits. Merely to present such figures on the basis of "expert judgment" does not really tell the decision maker anything.

Kuhn, among others, has pointed out that it is extremely difficult to quantify some of the community benefits. Instead, he suggests that various indexes of outputs might be constructed. 11/ Consider the example of traffic safety and a highway program for a metropolitan area.

10/ Tilo Kuhn, Public Enterprise Economics and Transport Problems (Berkeley and Los Angeles: University of California Press, 1962), p. 29.

11/ Ibid., Kuhn, pp. 24-25.

Area residents benefit from reduced accidents on any given highway system. To build a safer highway system would involve additional costs. If we assume that no system can be 100 percent accident proof, the issue before the decision makers is one of balancing additional benefits in the form of safety versus added construction and operating costs. What value can we ascribe to safety benefits? What is the value of lives saved? Any attempt to measure benefits in such terms will be unsatisfactory. Instead of measuring benefits in dollars, decision makers can obtain estimates of improved traffic safety in terms of fatal and nonfatal accidents associated with alternative costs. The choice, then, rests on the decision makers' own evaluations of the benefits of life and limb. Insurance company and court awards for automobile accidents and deaths might be used as initial guides.

Similar measures of benefits, in the form of scales or indexes, can be estimated for other services. Indeed, even aesthetic values of alternative renewal programs have been considered a possibility. If these indexes or scales are constructed, they serve to remind decision makers that there are few absolutes. As McKean has succinctly shown, there are very few public functions where some specified level of output is a "must" or "the amount needed with no more or no less." 12/ Instead, various possible levels associated with various costs and benefits should be considered.

Nonuser Charges: Community Benefits and General Economic Impact. Another approach to measuring benefits above and beyond those accruing to users is in some ways both the least elaborate and most practical. It recognizes the fact that although the techniques and measures of social benefits suggested above are not precise, judgments must be made which require reasonably precise information. Without introducing

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12/ Roland N. McKean, Efficiency in Government Through System Analysis: With Emphasis on Water Resources Development, A RAND Corporation Research Study (New York: John Wiley and Sons, Inc., 1958), Parts I and II.

any formally structured analysis, it simply asks the analyst to describe the economic impact of a proposed project as best he can. What will be the impact of a proposed project on land values, on retail sales, on the attractiveness of the area for industry? He says, in effect, "If you tell me this and the costs, I can make a decision." Indeed, the analyst might be a metropolitanwide planner, a local government official, or even a citizen voting on a referendum.

This procedure can be used to evaluate two or more alternative plans. Lichfield, in his study of Cambridge, England, goes to detailed analytical lengths to show the implications of two suggested town plans. 13/ While the Cambridge case may be somewhat simpler than the problems facing large metropolitan areas, Lichfield's approach does merit attention.

An example will illustrate the possibilities of this kind of analysis. Suppose a metropolitan planning agency proposes a new industrial zoning scheme which is to "benefit the entire region." One of the benefits claimed is that new industry attracted to the area will help fill in the tax base. Part of the overall impact, then, is the question of the benefits of added taxes versus the costs of needed additional services, especially in schools, in each of the communities in the region. A St. Louis study by Hirsch, which supports a feeling held by a number of economists, "calls for a rejection of a hypothesis that local industrialization in all cases improves the net fiscal resource status of the district." 14/ While this may represent only one aspect of the issue, it suggests how a comprehensive economic analysis of a proposed project can provide useful information--information which may counter to popular notions.

13/ Lichfield and Margolis, op. cit.

14/ Werner Z. Hirsch, "Fiscal Impact of Industrialization on Schools," Review of Economics and Statistics, XLVI (May 1964), p. 198.

Measurement of Costs

Measuring costs of particular urban projects or programs is not so difficult as measuring benefits. Certain difficulties are present, however, and we will first consider some of the problems associated with cost measurement in general. They fall under three broad categories: (1) "social" or "hidden" costs; (2) interest rate charges; and (3) sources of funds.

(1) Hidden Costs. One rationale for undertaking government projects and programs is that private market forces do not reflect full costs. In this connection, hidden costs refer to those which the market does not ordinarily take into account. The classic illustration is foundry smoke that creates a cost to society, but a cost that is not entered in the firm's accounting.

Just as private production may involve hidden costs, so, too, may the programs and projects of governments. Cost-benefit analysis requires that all costs be taken into account. In mass transit, for example, the hidden costs of noise from elevated tracks can be considerable on nearby residents. When the tracks, and hence the noise, are removed, the neighborhood may improve quickly--as indeed it did along New York's Third Avenue. Or, again, the value involved in the loss of a recreational facility should be considered before converting a lake into a reservoir.

(2) Interest Rate Charges. The interest or discount rate question is one of the most controversial issues in cost-benefit analysis. As Lichfield and Margolis note:

> Few topics in the cost-benefit analyses for federal projects have been more controversial than the appropriate discount rate. But as yet in municipal planning the selection of a discount rate has not been a debated issue. Cities have generally accepted their borrowing rate as the appropriate discount factor by which to weigh the benefits and

costs of different years. But there is as little logic in the municipality accepting its borrowing rate as the discount factor as the federal government doing so. 15/

This cogent summary of the issue requires some amplification. While the exact cutoff is not known, it seems safe to state that if the interest rate calculated as a cost for most Federal projects were raised one percent, a large number of projects now accepted would fail the cost-benefit test. This statement shows how important the interest rate is for capital intensive projects with a long life. In cost-benefit studies, the interest rate shows the cost of capital. Its calculation is in terms of what could have been earned if the same funds had been invested elsewhere. In consequence, small differentials in the cost of capital (interest charges) make a substantial difference in costs.

In analyzing Federal projects, some have suggested that the interest rate used is too low. Harberger, for one, argues that the private market rate for equivalent projects in the private sector would be much higher. If the higher rate represents real costs, he believes it should be used. 16/ Others, such as Samuelson, disagree and argue that large firms, which can spread risks, borrow at lower rates than smaller firms. In like manner, governments can be viewed as a "pooler of risks." 17/

15/ Lichfield and Margolis, op. cit., p. 131.

16/ Arnold Harberger, "The Interest Rate in Cost-Benefit Analysis," in Federal Expenditure Policy for Economic Growth and Stability. Papers submitted by panelists appearing before the subcommittee on fiscal policy, Joint Economic Committee, November 5, 1957, pp. 239-241.

17/ Paul A. Samuelson, "Comment on Principles of Efficiency," American Economic Review, LIV (May 1964), p. 96.

(3) Sources of Funds. Cost-benefit analysis assumes that the benefit area (geographically) is at least as large as the scope of the project. Thus, all benefits from a recreation site should be measured regardless of the geographic area. In like manner, all costs should be considered regardless of who pays them. Yet, as an economist, Selma Mushkin, notes:

> For the local policy maker, cost is translated into local tax rates (with an eye, however, on the taxes paid inside the locality to other jurisdictions). Benefits are the value of services to the local voter. 18/

She further points out:

> If we think of costs in terms of the local budget, as additional taxes to be raised locally, and of benefits in terms of the value of services to voters and their families in the area, then a rational set of decisions would suggest more spending if taxes can be shifted outside and less if benefits accrue in substantial share outside. 19/

While most cost-benefit studies ignore this issue, it is extremely germane to metropolitan areas. In one context, this statement is at the heart of the problem considered by this chapter--allocation of costs of areawide services. For immediate purposes, this point raises a different question: What is the impact of Federal grants-in-aid on cost-benefit studies in metropolitan areas?

Grants-in-aid imply that the full cost of a project will not fall on the community. In consequence, often a project with Federal support, when compared with one financed

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18/ Selma J. Mushkin, "Intergovernmental Aspects of Local Expenditure Decisions," in Public Expenditure Decisions in the Urban Community, p. 55.

19/ Ibid., p. 56.

locally, will be preferred by local officials even if a cost-benefit study would rank it inferior. The point is obvious: Federal participation can substantially reduce the cost to local citizens.

For the local decision maker, relevant costs are those that affect his area. A suggestion that all costs be included in such projects and programs as the basis for a final decision is not always helpful to decision makers. The very intent of some federally sponsored programs is to induce communities to undertake specific enterprises. Furthermore, many Federal programs do not require all matching funds in "cash," and make allowance for the imputed value of local services: staff time, other local projects in the area, and similar allowances. Such actions relieve hard pressed communities from the need to raise tax rates.

One consequence of these kinds of inducements may be a tendency for communities to undertake projects which best qualify for in-kind funds even if other projects have a higher cost-benefit ratio. A pilot investigation of several urban areas in the Pacific Northwest suggests that this is true of urban renewal programs. 20/ Insofar as this is generally true, an unintended distortion may tip the cost-benefit scale towards inferior enterprises.

Allocation of Costs to Separate Jurisdictions

Up to this point, our analysis has concentrated on practical ways for implementing cost-benefit analysis. An areawide approach was implicitly assumed, i.e., that decision makers approached the problem from an areawide viewpoint. Although there were implications for sub-areas within the region, these were not considered per se. Now, the questions involved in allocating costs to separate jurisdictions are examined directly.

20/ Richard Cornils and Alan McLeod, "Urban Renewal in Selected Pacific Northwest Cities." Unpublished paper, Graduate School of Public Affairs, University of Washington, 1964.

The presentation begins by considering first some of the conceptual issues involved in allocating costs to separate jurisdictions. It is followed by a consideration of practical alternatives. Finally, two somewhat opposite cases of individual community behavior are considered in a bargaining context.

Conceptual Issues

Allocation of program costs not covered by user charges among jurisdictions can be viewed several ways. A cost accounting approach would deal with the problem in much the same manner as a joint cost approach. In effect, the question raised is: What costs are incurred in serving each community, including overhead costs? A benefits approach would allocate costs in proportion to benefits received. Because these are not always the same, the difference needs examination.

Secondly, beneficiaries need to be defined. In a fundamental sense, only people benefit from services, just as only people can bear the burden of taxes. While this is true in an ultimate sense, it is immediately true that business firms benefit from governmental services to the extent that the services lower their costs of production. But neither people nor business activities are necessarily confined within a single community. Commuters, for example, generally lead double community lives with some 37 percent who live in the suburbs and 12 percent also living in the city commuting to work. Let's diagnose our problem by using a simple hypothetical example.

Suppose a particular project is deemed worthwhile for an area. Further, suppose costs amount to $100, exclusive of user charges. Finally, assume three separate jurisdictions share the social or nonuser benefits. The task is to prorate the $100 among the three communities.

A cost approach would begin by asking: What would be the total cost if jurisdiction A were left out, but B and C participated? Supposedly, the total cost would be less because fewer roadways, drainage pipes, open space sites, and

so forth, are required. Assume the cost for the same level of service without A participating drops by $20, above and beyond cost reductions assigned to user charges. This means that the project costs $20 more because of A's participation.

If this same process is repeated for jurisdictions B and C, the extra cost of their participation can also be calculated. Suppose these amount to $10 and $30 for B and C, respectively. It may well be that costs will not add up to $100, but only $60 as in this example. Why? Very likely, economies of scale have been realized, with a larger facility reducing average cost. In a sanitary district, for example, separate lines to separate jurisdictions add to costs. At the same time, a larger filtration plant may reduce unit costs. Thus, the added cost of serving a community is partly offset by a lowering of the joint costs for overhead facilities.

This hypothetical example underscores two important points: (1) part of the costs can be allocated as described; and (2) if one of the separate jurisdictions feels that nonuser benefits do not even cover extra costs, there is no requirement that it participate in the project nor will costs necessarily be lowered to other jurisdictions if it does.

So far, then, $60 of the costs which accrue as nonuser benefits have been assigned to separate jurisdictions. What about the remaining $40? The answer turns to the benefit side. Each pays in proportion to its benefit, just as railroads assign costs of tracks to freight and passenger trains. The allocation guidelines discussed below will be relevant.

Beneficiaries. The question of who benefits from a particular service must begin by identifying the potential beneficiary. Because this problem is not so simple as it sounds, a hypothetical illustration will highlight the issues involved in pinpointing who benefits.

Suppose four separate jurisdictions within a metropolitan complex are considered. Jurisdiction A, a suburb, has people who live and work there, but also a sizeable commuter population. Jurisdiction B is entirely self-contained--people live and work within the boundaries. Jurisdiction C is an

industrial district, with no resident population. Finally, let's assume that jurisdiction D is an empty space. Now, introduce an areawide mass transit enterprise. In terms of community benefits, who are the beneficiaries?

In the case of the self-contained unit, jurisdiction B, there is no particular problem. If the real property in the community is owned by the residents, they are the sole beneficiaries. Any tax paid as part of B's contribution towards covering the cost of the social benefits will come from the beneficiaries. While the particular form of the tax may be important in terms of equity within B, it is not germane to this presentation.

What can be said about jurisdiction D, the empty community? Here, benefits must accrue to owners of the land, regardless of where they live. A new transit system, supposedly, will increase the land value as a potential site for housing developments. Property taxes should reflect the increased land values.

Jurisdiction C, industry only, reflects the business benefit situation. The industry benefits from free advertising because the transit system goes right by its plant. In turn, this type of benefit should be reflected in land values and general business profitability. It might also be argued that part of the benefit accrues to the workers during their day at the plant.

The more typical urban case is that of jurisdiction A, a commuter community. The problem, of course, is to identify the residence of the commuter. This involves the well known case of the city-suburb issue: Who provides services for whom? Is the city providing services to the commuter who, on the other hand, pays taxes in the suburb?

People often enjoy the benefits of other communities' services without paying a penny. Just what particular arrangement or division of burden is most appropriate is beyond the scope of this report.

Practical Alternatives

Once user charges and extra costs for serving separate communities have been determined, there remains the final task of assigning remaining costs to communities on a benefit basis. In terms of the example used above, the $40 not assignable to extra costs attributable to serving three communities needs to be apportioned. Because we found no experience record germane to the issue, we have developed our own criteria.

User Charges. The simplest method of assessing jurisdictions is on the basis of user fees originating in each community. This is roughly the procedure used by some mass transit systems--Boston, for example. The logic and implications of this apportionment procedure are not difficult to follow.

Presumably, benefits which accrue to users have a spatial implication. Thus, people who live 75 miles from a library, transit system, or sanitary district receive little return either as user benefits or nonuser benefits to themselves or their property. On the other hand, those who live nearby and use the facilities or services are more likely to be those who enjoy nonuser charge benefits for themselves and their property. In this circumstance, assessments to cover communitywide benefits can be made proportional to receipts from user charges.

This system of assessment requires careful identification of beneficiaries. A transit rider gets on the system coming and going to work. A municipal zoo can be visited by people from other States as well as from nearby suburbs. Thus, it is easy to say jurisdictions should be charged in proportion to the user fees paid by their people. But who are "their" people? While in the abstract, the problem is difficult; identification of "their" people is usually not an insuperable problem for particular governmental services.

One note of caution should be sounded. Programs or projects are often not wholly new. They replace or expand existing services. An improvement in a sanitary district may bring wider total benefits to the area, some of which may be

unassignable to individuals. At the same time, the improvement will cost more and jurisdictions need to be assessed their proper portion to cover community benefits. Jurisdiction X may enjoy substantial benefits under an old system and the same amount after improvement. In other words, it gains nothing. What should be its equitable share of costs? If total areawide benefits after improvement are measured, jurisdiction X will appear as a large beneficiary. If only added or marginal gains in nonuser benefits are measured, it pays nothing at all. Which is correct? In a private market system, consumers pay only for added benefits, not total. By this standard, jurisdiction X could well protest any additional levies.

In practice, this difference between total and marginal benefits may often be overlooked. Measurements of benefits such as those discussed above are not refined and often suggest only total benefits. Perhaps the very ambiguity may serve as a reminder of an important point: Increasing a service need not imply proportionate increases in benefits to separate jurisdictions.

Perspective on Implementation

This chapter has described ways that cost-benefit studies may be put into practice. It is easier to describe these methods conceptually than it is to put them into practice operationally. Nevertheless, some measures are better than none, especially when decision makers know what information they want and appreciate the advantages and disadvantages of cost-benefit analysis.

Chapter V

RECOMMENDATIONS

The purpose of this report is to identify and analyze the nature and extent of economic, fiscal, and social (including racial) disparities between central cities and their suburbs. It seeks to identify friction points in the relationships among Federal, State, and local governments which grow out of this central city-suburban dichotomy, and recommends ways to relieve them.

The statistical analysis reported in Chapter II established the existence of social, economic, and racial disparities which vary in amount and direction between central cities and suburbs according to the structural characteristics of metropolitan areas. The analysis modifies the popular stereotype of metropolitan areas which depicts central cities as representative of poverty and underprivilege and suburbs as representative of affluence and high social status. Nevertheless, the complex array of large and small disparities, which this study documents, with its variation by region and size, provides valuable insights into the problems and conflicts confronting local government in metropolitan areas.

Chapter III, analyzing economic activity, governmental structure, and revenue and expenditure patterns in metropolitan areas, revealed an extremely complex picture of local government in metropolitan areas, and identified a continuing trend toward further diffusion of responsibility and overlapping of governments. Per capita central city expenditures were shown to be higher than for the remainder of the metropolitan areas. These vary by function, with expenditures for education and highways being higher in the suburbs and most other functions, especially police and welfare, highest in the central cities. The chapter identifies the crucial role of State expenditures as a determinant of the level of local revenue producing and spending.

Next examined was the availability of improved methods and procedures to serve as the basis for negotiating the allocation of costs among local governments in metropolitan areas for areawide urban services. Examination of the literature, in Chapter IV, revealed that procedures so far developed for cost-benefit analysis, though sketchy, could go far toward providing an objective basis for intergovernmental accord in meeting common metropolitan area needs.

This Commission has not been content simply to study problems of intergovernmental relations. From its inception, the Commission has sought practical legislative and administrative solutions to such problems as they have been uncovered. The statistical analysis and findings of the preceding chapters, therefore, lead us to the difficult but necessary question: What changes in Federal-State-local relations are indicated by the existence of, and trends in, central city-suburban disparities?

Assumptions and Criteria

"Goals for Americans" has ever been, and probably always will be, an essay title that generates millions of words and endless debate. For the present purpose, however, three commonly accepted goals provide the most useful reference for an evaluation of central city-suburban disparities: (1) equality of opportunity; (2) freedom of choice; and (3) intergovernmental amity.

Ingredients needed to attain these goals lie within every metropolitan area, and in some of them a reasonable approximation to the desired balance has been achieved. In the rest, major or minor alterations in the conditions of urban life are required to render these goals compatible and their attainment possible.

Insofar as central city-suburban disparities isolate unfortunate and dependent members of society, white or nonwhite, opportunity to acquire capabilities to live a productive life is not only unequal, it is often denied. When the causes of their poverty or dependency are irrelevant to the general economic prosperity, as in the case of the elderly, the undereducated, or the occupationally obsolete, the climate of opportunity that will ultimately enable them to exercise free choice must be created, or at least protected, by government. But if the very persons who most require opportunity-broadening governmental services dominate the community in which they live, be it city or suburb, the local government thereby finds itself without the financial and leadership resources with which to supply these needs.

In developing recommendations for specific policies and programs to meet the problems raised by the findings of this report, the Commission was guided by a number of criteria or assumptions.

First, although resources needed to meet the social and economic problems of our metropolitan areas are, in large part, present within the metropolitan areas themselves, these resources, being unevenly distributed, are not necessarily available to those parts of

the area most in need. Furthermore, these problems will not be solved simply by transferring funds and functions among jurisdictions in metropolitan areas, though in many situations such adjustments will help. The approach needed is nationwide. Federal and State governments have a crucial role to play in better matching capacity with need wherever that need exists. National and State responsibilities and standards, as well as local standards and initiative, are involved.

What is needed is machinery--fiscal, structural, and intergovernmental--and the will--to utilize the physical, financial, and leadership resources from all three levels of government to meet the legitimate public service needs of all residents of the metropolitan area.

We know that the metropolitan areas of the United States account for a major portion of the country's economic wealth, although the distribution between and within them ranges widely, as do the public service needs of their residents. As pointed out earlier, metropolitan areas, with two-thirds of the Nation's population, accounted for 78.6 percent of all bank deposits in the United States in 1960. In 1961, they had nearly 70 percent of the Nation's assessable property. In 1958, they accounted for more than three-fourths (76.8 percent) of the value added by manufacture, contained 67.2 percent of the country's manufacturing establishments, and accounted for 73.8 percent of the total number of industrial employees and 78.5 percent of all manufacturing payrolls.

Second, the purpose here is not the solution of particular social and economic problems identified by the study--problems such as those of the aged, broken families, substandard housing, school dropouts, juvenile delinquents, alcoholics, drug addicts, criminals, mental cases, diseased, etc.--but rather to remove intergovernmental barriers to the solving of these problems, including the modification of existing programs.

Recommendations in this report deal with human resources planning, housing, employment, education, and finance and are directed primarily to reducing intergovernmental frictions, providing needed public services more effectively, eliminating distortions created by existing legislative and administrative limitations, and removing obstacles to free movement and free operation of market forces.

Third, in making recommendations, emphasis is not placed on programs for causing people to move to or locate in a particular place, in order to reduce disparities between central cities and suburbs, but rather (a) on adjusting Federal, State, and local policies to meet problems where they exist, and (b) on creating a price market situation

in our metropolitan areas whereby a broader range of choices is made available to the individual in his selection of jobs, housing, and level of governmental services.

In many parts of the country, a large number of residents have left the central city because it failed to provide them and their families with opportunity for leisure time activities and high educational standards. It is assumed that many of the disparities revealed--especially those social in nature, such as single persons, childless families, persons moving from rural areas tending to live in the city; and childless and home oriented persons tending to live in the suburbs--are due at least in part to a natural or market place division of the metropolitan area to serve the needs of these groups. Focusing the recommendations on people and problems rather than on location carries with it the implication for a significant role to be played by Federal and State encouragement to areawide approaches by local governments in providing and financing a number of urban governmental services.

Fourth, most of the recommendations are designed to deal with governmental aspects of metropolitan disparity problems wherever they exist and are not directed exclusively, or even primarily, to either the central city or to the suburbs.

Depending on their nature, changes in law and administrative practice may be directed to the individual, the city, the county, the metropolitan area as a whole, or conceivably, might best be approached on a regional basis, larger than a particular metropolitan area. This report and its recommendations are directed to solving problems created by metropolitan disparities wherever they exist through the use of all appropriate governmental machinery available--local, State, and Federal.

We have seen that the extent and direction of disparities for most population characteristics vary enormously. Significant disparities were revealed in almost all metropolitan areas. This is especially true with respect to the white and nonwhite population. But the regional patterns are not consistent. Thus, in the large and northern metropolitan areas persons and families with low economic and social status tended to be concentrated in the central city and their opposites in the suburbs, while the contrary pattern was revealed for small SMSA's and the metropolitan areas in much of the South and West.

Fifth, in adopting this report and making these recommendations, the Commission believes that meeting the problems created by these disparities is critically important to the future of our federal system of government under the Constitution.

Increasingly, populations at the lower end of the social and economic scale in the central cities of our northeastern and other large metropolitan areas are becoming better organized politically and economically to the point where they are already a major, and may become the dominant, interest group. Given the potential differences in interest, values, and orientation, if such disparities increase, both the central cities and the suburbs will find it increasingly difficult to bring about the interjurisdictional cooperation so badly needed in a number of public service fields.

Likewise, future governmental reorganization and structure adaptation in metropolitan areas through changes in political boundaries may become increasingly difficult. Traditional rural-urban differences in State legislatures have already been supplemented by an equally fundamental central city-suburban split. If disparities continue to extend it, this split is likely to be reflected also in the National Congress.

Spreading of business and housing slums, decline in local tax bases, increasing demands for welfare services, increased racial tensions, and a breakdown in communication with the "invisible poor" are all fearful alternatives to vigorous action by Federal, State, and local governments. The need, therefore, is to rise to the occasion and, as this Nation has done so often in the past, act before a point of no return is reached.

Sixth, and finally, problems as basic and complex as the range of social and economic disparities in our metropolitan areas are likely to require a number of solutions rather than a single approach.

As in the case of problems of local government structure in metropolitan areas, the Commission sets forth no single "pat" solution for easing these disparity problems. No single approach is likely to be the most desirable, either nationally or within a given State. The nature and extent of socioeconomic disparities vary widely among metropolitan areas. Policies and programs must be tailored to these wide variations and to the wide range of types of metropolitan areas (e.g., size, age, growth rate, government pattern, etc.) to which they will apply. The recommendations made to the Federal, State, and local governments in such diverse fields as human resources planning, as well as physical planning, zoning practices, housing, urban renewal, employment, education, welfare, taxation, and governmental reorganization might be better looked on as an "arsenal" of permissive powers available to localities to fit their individual situations.

The task of developing and implementing specific policies to meet problems caused by disparities within metropolitan areas must be worked out along three fronts: (1) the socioeconomic, (2) the jurisdictional, and (3) the fiscal. The interrelationship of these three important factors is to be found in the fact that the primary social and economic disparities--differences in income, occupation, housing, and education, outlined in Chapter II--combine with the fragmented character of local government within metropolitan areas described in Chapters III and IV to produce fiscal and public service disparities within each area as a whole.

Fiscal or financial disparities are reflected in wide differences in the ability of various local governments within a metropolitan area to finance and to provide public services. This fosters the development of "rich" and "pauper" communities. Residents of the poorer communities must assume either a disproportionately heavy tax load or accept a decidedly lower level of public services.

The objective of the following recommendations, therefore, is the reduction of fiscal and public service disparities within the area by (a) promoting a wider range of choice, especially in housing and employment within the metropolitan area, (b) permitting local governments to adjust their boundaries and to cooperate and provide for performance of functions across jurisdictional lines, and (c) developing a more sophisticated Federal-State-local equalization system to begin to compensate for existing fiscal disparities among local governments within metropolitan areas. These recommendations are, therefore, interdependent and mutually supportive of each other in dealing with the problem of metropolitan disparities.

With these assumptions and the findings contained in the previous chapters as a background, the Commission recommends the following specific programs of legislative and administrative action.

Promoting Wider Choice

The American ideal of equal opportunity for individuals to seek creative fulfillment in a free economic market has been frustrated by the fragmentation of local political boundaries in metropolitan areas. The economic self-interest of these local governments within metropolitan areas tends to produce this result regardless of whether there is discrimination by race or class. Thus, unless specific attention is directed toward problems of economic and social, including racial, differences among the many separate jurisdictions within a metropolitan area, disparities tend to grow and inequities magnify.

To a large extent, the task of assuring equal economic and social opportunity to metropolitan residents becomes one of creating a free and adequate housing market. Residence is the basis for both receipt of, and payment for, a large number of urban services. In addition, housing values and quality are major visible criteria of economic and social well-being. Housing ranks high among the consistently greatest disparities revealed by Census data: these include unsound owner occupied housing, unsound rentals, and lowest housing values, all of which predominate outside the central cities, generally speaking. Further, nearly four-fifths of the housing for nonwhites is in the central cities. Thus, any effort to reconcile present economic and social disparities in metropolitan areas must begin with local studies and the reasoned application of housing and development policies designed to promote diversity and opportunity throughout those areas.

1. The Commission recommends that each local governmental unit and agency within metropolitan areas, whether central city or suburban, ascertain, analyze, and give recognition to economic and social disparities affecting its programs. Federal planning aids for urban development, including "Section 701" urban planning assistance and comprehensive transportation planning, should specifically authorize and encourage economic and social policy planning for the community as a basic justification for physical planning.

Since there is so much variation in disparities from community to community, and since disparities change continuously, detailed studies of the socioeconomic makeup of each community is the logical first step in identifying disparity problems and their implications for physical development plans and for public policy generally.

Such studies should ascertain the size and character of the local constituent of dependent groups: children under 18, elderly of 60 years or older, broken families with children, undereducated and inadequately trained adults and youth, racial groups, occupationally obsolete and consequently unemployed persons, and low income families. It should, in addition, assess the constituency of more highly developed resources in the community: working age groups, college graduates, high status and skilled occupations, and middle and upper income groups. Such studies as The Changing Age Profile: Implications for Policy Planning in Metropolitan Washington, recently completed by the Washington Center for Metropolitan Studies, are illustrative of what can be done.

The major use of disparity studies should be in coordinating all governmental programs concerned with or affecting the conservation and development of human resources. Planning to meet social and economic problems within each individual city or suburb should be used by physical planners in determining local needs for various kinds of physical development, neighborhood conservation, and renewal programs. Likewise, social and economic planning, as well as physical planning, should be coordinated with the work of neighboring local governments and areawide units.

Writing in 1960 for President Eisenhower's Commission on National Goals, the late Catherine Bauer Wurster concluded her section on "Housing: a wider range of choice for everyone" by saying that:

> In the housing field the general goals are much clearer than the specific means. What we need primarily is responsible programming of local requirements....Public agencies must set overall goals, then provide assistance and incentives to private enterprise to carry out as much of the program as possible....Future housing requirements, to insure a balanced inventory in both central and outlying areas, and to meet the needs of displaced families, must be determined by local agencies on a metropolitanwide and citywide basis....Inducements rather than rigid controls are necessary, particularly to encourage local programming of needs.

In order to encourage local planning to give attention to all classes of housing and other physical facilities in relation to local needs, all Federal aid for the planning of relocation, urban renewal, community renewal, and poverty reduction, as well as for planning under the urban planning assistance program, should specifically authorize and positively encourage efforts to give adequate attention to social and economic disparity problems. All such planning should be areawide or at least meaningfully integrated with areawide plans.

Community renewal planning already requires areawide economic and market studies covering "prospective supply and demand for housing, including estimated requirements for new and rehabilitated housing at various price ranges (to provide base data and analyses of both relocation requirements and the market for new housing in urban renewal areas.)" Some disparity problems are now being covered under the 701 urban planning assistance program.

The 1964 Economic Opportunity Act to alleviate poverty requires "community action" plans to organize comprehensive attacks on poverty, and the overall economic development programs required of localities for participation in the Area Redevelopment Program cover some aspects of economic policy. Public roads planning requires studies of economic and population projections, including data on employment, income, and car ownership patterns. Areawide health planning is also becoming more common at the urging of the Federal Government and of a few States.

Nevertheless, economic and social data are seldom used in depth in comprehensive planning for local governmental services, or used to develop broad social policies and related physical planning decisions. This situation is aggravated by such factors as inadequate funds, inadequately trained staff, timorous Federal insistence that aided studies be comprehensive in terms of human resources as well as physical resources, and belated recognition of this interrelationship in the planning profession itself.

The typical use of economic and population statistics in aggregates which lump together all classes of people regardless of their differences in race, educational status, income status, housing conditions, and other social or economic factors is not sufficient for planning orderly urban development or renewal. For example, neither relocation planning nor the use of data that would make it possible are required by the public roads program. Although community renewal and antipoverty planning programs promise to make more detailed and discriminating use of social and economic data than has been typical of urban planning in the past, these programs will not penetrate all-important centers of metropolitan decision making. They will, in fact, be largely limited to central cities or other localized jurisdictions where the worst urban blight and worst poverty exist. Since problems of health, recreation, relocation, and a host of other economic and social difficulties related to urban growth are not limited to such localities, planning for them should not be limited.

Programs of urban planning assistance, transportation planning, and open space planning, which affect whole metropolitan areas, must lead the list of social problems that require consideration as they relate to urban growth. Open space planning, for instance, should be based as much on data concerning juvenile delinquency, mental health, crime, disease, and population density as on data concerning land prices and natural geographic features. Analysis of affected neighborhood social patterns and planning for necessary relocations of

families, individuals, businesses, and public facilities, as part of public roads planning, would do much to facilitate appropriate governmental action designed to ease the social impact of highway construction. Similar considerations will be necessary in mass transportation planning.

But perhaps the key program in which expanded use of economic and social data would pay off is the "Section 701" urban planning assistance program under the provisions of the Housing Act. It is of key importance in the effective use of economic and social data because increasingly it is setting a comprehensive and objective framework for such sociophysical development programs in the metropolitan area as housing, commercial and industrial employment, and transportation. Areas eligible for Federal planning assistance have been broadened to encompass most of the urban scene; the amount of Federal money available is increasing; and metropolitan planning agencies, which are among the most important recipients of assistance, are increasingly being given review authority (but not veto authority) over all applications for Federal grants and loans for urban development purposes. In order to avoid duplication and conflict among the numerous federally aided planning programs, it is appropriate and necessary for one of them to be singled out for special emphasis in coordinating the rest.

In almost all cases, action necessary to authorize and encourage adequate recognition of social and economic aspects of fiscal planning in such programs as 701 urban planning assistance and highway research and planning legislation can be achieved through administrative decisions of the Federal agencies concerned. Such action should be actively pursued and, to the extent that it is impeded by existing planning assistance laws, Congress should amend them.

2. The Commission recommends that State legislation be enacted to restrict zoning authority in metropolitan areas to larger municipalities and to county government and to require that such zoning authority be exercised in a manner to permit a wide range of housing prices within the area covered by such city or county. The Commission also recommends that metropolitan planning agencies prepare plans and ordinances for adoption by individual local governments in the area, such plans to provide for an appropriately wide range of housing prices.

Many local communities have been criticized for siphoning off lucrative types of development to increase their tax base, while excluding less desirable land uses which would be expected to require more local expenditures to support than they would produce in tax revenue. For instance, the California cities of Emeryville, Vernon, Union City, Irwindale, Industry, and Commerce, are classic examples of cities devoted almost entirely to industry. It has been reported that Vernon, where over 70,000 people work but only 236 live, has an assessed valuation of about one-half million dollars per capita, affording a low tax rate for attracting new industry, in order to raise the assessed value and lower the tax rate even more.

The case of Vernon is extreme, but it differs only in degree from the widespread use of fiscal considerations as justification for local government development policies. This practice, known as "fiscal zoning," is primarily based on the fact that most local governments depend quite heavily on real estate taxes to finance their programs.

Some other local governments seek to keep governmental costs at a minimum and protect existing rural surroundings by zoning exclusively for beautiful homes on large lots. Elaborate relationships between housing costs, family incomes, number of school children, and other governmental services are figured in as arguments for or against zoning changes. Although zoning provisions requiring that buildings cost a minimum amount have been declared unconstitutional exercises of police power, fiscal reasoning is frequently disguised or not officially recognized as justification for zoning changes actually designed to carry out fiscal policy. The extent to which fiscal zoning is actually effective in creating or reinforcing socioeconomic disparities has not been statistically tabulated, and its most intense manifestations are undoubtedly obscured by the data analyzed in this report, because all suburban governmental jurisdictions are lumped together. Nevertheless, fiscal zoning has been partially documented in many other sources and is certainly an important intergovernmental problem.

The tendency toward fiscal zoning sharply points up the need for some type of regional or metropolitan planning in order that courts may have a standard against which to measure legislative determinations dealing with exclusion of uses. Overall relationships among transportation systems, employment locations, utility service areas, housing, and general land use patterns should not be subordinated to fiscal considerations. For fiscal reasons, every jurisdiction would exclude low cost housing and seek to attract high value commercial and

industrial development. But this kind of policy would lead to a large number of job opportunities without providing housing for the employees. Geographic planning factors should take precedence over fiscal factors in locating freeways or other major facilities such as regional parks, incinerator sites, sanitary land fills, sewage treatment plants, and reservoirs. In the case of freeways, for example, origin and destination data cannot be completely disregarded because a certain incorporated area, which happened to be located so as to be disrupted more than helped, objects to an unusual burden on itself, whereas the same location would be relatively unobjectionable if the incorporation boundary were a couple of blocks from the right-of-way. Regional parks, incinerator sites, sanitary land fills, sewage treatment plants, and reservoirs all require rather rare site features, and the exclusion of suitable sites on the grounds of fiscal impact on individual local jurisdictions unreasonably limits the choices. Ways must be provided to compensate effectively for loss of tax base and for necessary land use and zoning adjustments caused by such facilities. Their location should not be proscribed by the historical accident of local political boundaries. As long as each community has its own zoning and land use control without reference to its neighbors and to the urban area as a whole, fiscal competition will continue to be attractive to local political leadership, thus aggravating disparities already apparent.

Zoning is a relatively weak tool for carrying out plans for urban development, especially when competing with incompatible financial incentives. Although by itself zoning based on areawide planning will not solve disparity problems, it is nevertheless an indispensable part of the solution. Adjusting governmental responsibilities and, in some cases, boundaries so that larger units are provided to tackle larger problems, and equalizing local government finances so that fiscal incentives for zoning are reduced, are also part of the solution. The fiscal recommendations, made later in this chapter, provide for reappraisal of tax and grant systems to avoid fiscal zoning incentives, but recognition of the jurisdictional aspects of zoning is appropriate at this point.

For local government to act responsibly, its units must be large enough to consider issues in context and balance the needs of diverse groups of people. Deficiencies of special interest governments, based on either limited geographical or limited functional jurisdiction, have been documented elsewhere and need not be repeated here except to say that the higher the degree of special interest, the more likely is the practice of fiscal zoning. Small municipalities often fall in the

special interest category and may, indeed, have incorporated specifically to gain or protect a specially advantageous fiscal position. Larger municipalities and counties, in contrast, usually represent a diversity of viewpoints which make fiscal zoning objectives less dominant. Thus, reservation by the State legislature of zoning authority to large municipalities or counties would reduce the ability of the small special interest municipalities to practice fiscal zoning.

In the event that it is not feasible to raise the full responsibility for zoning from small municipalities to the larger county government, a two-tier approach could be used in which the county would be given responsibility for establishing major land use patterns within small municipalities, as well as within unincorporated areas, while leaving the detailed character of development under the control of municipalities. This would mean that State legislation would have to be amended to authorize generalized county zoning on the basis of broad land use categories and densities, supplemented by adoption of more detailed development regulations by municipal governments. Like the suggestion for raising full zoning authority to the county level, this two-tier approach would help to avoid unduly localized zoning which tends to be used for fiscal purposes.

Metropolitan planning should include areawide housing plans as a guide to determining essential needs for housing of different types and different income levels. Metropolitan planning agencies should study and encourage the use of zoning categories which are favorable to the various types of housing required, especially low income housing for which the market cannot provide adequately without special encouragement. These activities are generally already within the scope of metropolitan planning agency responsibilities and would require no new legislation. A recent survey by the Housing and Home Finance Agency has shown that three-quarters of the existing metropolitan planning agencies have prepared residential plans, but statistical information is not available to indicate whether such plans consider housing costs. General impressions indicate that they do not. Metropolitan planning data dealing with housing costs could be used by the courts in judging the appropriateness of zoning exclusions in local communities within metropolitan areas.

3. The Commission recommends (a) the enactment by the States of legislation authorizing the adoption of uniform housing, building, zoning, and platting codes within metropolitan areas, and (b) action by local governments to utilize such authority.

Many rural and suburban communities, whether incorporated or not, lack adequate building, housing, zoning, and platting codes. The result is suburban and semirural "slums" accompanied by increasing health and welfare burdens. On the other hand, when such regulations are enacted in the suburbs, they are frequently different from those in the central city and from those in other suburbs. This puts a burden on housing developers who operate in several jurisdictions. Many housing, building, zoning, and platting codes are also out of date and require types of development which are more expensive than necessary. Regulations which are uniform from one jurisdiction to another within an urban area would decrease the diversity, increase the coverage, and allow more expert application of reasonable requirements. It has been estimated that modernized building codes alone can often reduce building costs by $1,000 per house, while assuring safe and sound construction.

Analysis of the 1960 Census of Housing shows that substandard owner occupied housing, far from being exclusively a central city problem, actually accounts on the average for a larger proportion of all housing in the suburbs where codes are more lax. While there is no significant disparity in the Northeast, the North Central and South are near the average, and the West has 100 percent more substandard houses in the suburbs than in the central cities. The average suburban excess of unsound housing, both owner and renter occupied, is a clear indication of the inadequacy of housing and building codes in many suburban communities. Despite the fact that the vast bulk of new housing is located in the suburbs, an average of 16 percent of the owner occupied homes and 36 percent of the rental units remain substandard. It is, therefore, quite apparent that slums and near-slums exist in the suburbs as well as in the cities. Indeed, many of these substandard dwellings are less than 20 years old. They were constructed mainly in unincorporated areas which lacked building, zoning, and platting codes. Even in many incorporated suburbs, however, codes, where they exist, are inadequate to the demands of rapid urban development.

Municipal and county codes should be administered jointly wherever possible to assure uniform application of their provisions. This could be accomplished through interlocal contracting or the voluntary transfer of functions between cities and counties, two devices recommended for widespread use in previous Commission reports.

County governments should enact uniform codes to apply within unincorporated areas, and metropolitan planning agencies or councils of

governments within multijurisdictional metropolitan areas should actively encourage all the municipalities and counties involved to cooperate in the enactment of uniform codes.

Another possible way of obtaining uniform housing and building codes has been demonstrated by California which has enacted a State Housing Act governing all apartments and hotels within the State, all dwellings within incorporated jurisdictions, and all dwellings within unincorporated county areas where county boards of supervisors choose to adopt the State provisions. Enforcement of the State Housing Act is carried out by local officials, with State officials available to assist and assure adequate enforcement. Where localities are reluctant to adopt adequate codes, assertion of State legislative authority such as this can be meaningfully helpful in reducing health and safety disparities in housing, regardless of locally fragmented governmental conditions.

Code enforcement has often been the weak link in programs to improve or maintain the quality of housing. Even in major cities where qualified staff is most available, code enforcement may include little more than responding to tenants' or neighbors' complaints. The HHFA workable program prerequisite for urban renewal and public housing requires an active local program of code enforcement, but establishing such enforcement activities has been so difficult and slow in the past that major new efforts have been initiated against considerable opposition in the last two or three years to make the workable program code requirement effective. The Housing Act of 1964 has just reinforced this effort by making code enforcement activities eligible for cost sharing as part of limited duration urban renewal projects.

The need for uniform zoning and platting standards hinges not only on the need to assure adequate protection to home buyers' investments, but also on the tendency for these standards to be used for purposes of excluding lower income persons from a community. Thus, zoning sometimes has required minimum lot sizes to be very large for all subdivisions within a certain jurisdiction, and platting regulations have established excessive improvement standards over and above those necessary, thereby tending to restrict housing to upper income groups.

4. The Commission recommends that diversification and geographic dispersal of housing for low income groups be encouraged by amending Federal housing legislation and, where necessary, State public housing

statutes to (a) facilitate purchase, rehabilitation, and lease of existing private housing by local public housing authorities; (b) authorize subsidizing of rents of low income families in existing private housing;* and (c) permit financial assistance to private non-profit organizations to enable them to provide subsidized housing for low income families.

The appropriate income range of families requiring housing in many communities extends below what the private housing market can provide without assistance. For instance, about one-quarter of the families in metropolitan areas have incomes of less than $4,000; one-third of renter occupied housing in such areas is unsound; more than one-tenth of owner occupied housing is unsound; one-third of the owner occupied housing is values at less than $10,000; and more than one-tenth of the renter occupied housing rents for less than $40 per month. Those conditions prevail in suburbs as well as in central cities. It seems clear that many low income families are going to continue to need a governmental subsidy if they are to have adequate housing.

The usual way of providing this subsidy has been through construction and operation of public housing units by local governments, aided by loans and annual contributions from the Federal Government. Public housing units have played a vital role in furnishing shelter for low income groups, but they have come in for increasing criticism

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* The views of Governor Anderson, Mrs. Wilcox, and Mayor Goldner: We oppose item (b) in this recommendation which calls for new Federal and State legislation to "authorize subsidizing of rents of low income families in existing private housing." This is an unnecessary and unwarranted extension of the Federal Government in the housing field. Public assistance payments are currently available to cover rental costs of welfare recipients. These payments, plus the existing public housing program, the FHA below market interest rate program for rental and cooperative housing, and the other proposals in Commission recommendation number 4, should go far to meeting this very difficult problem of providing decent rental housing for low income families without further involving the Government in the total rental housing market of the community.

in recent years because of their large, institution-like character. Critics claim they tend to repeat, in more modern structures, the ghetto conditions they seek to supplant, and make insufficient progress toward assimilating their residents into the community at large. Partly as a reaction to these characteristics of public housing, but also because of a desire to keep out low income and minority groups, many communities have resisted establishment of public housing programs of their own. The result has been further aggravation of the problem of housing low income groups.

In recent years, the Federal Government has supplemented the basic program of aids for public housing construction by providing below market interest rates on mortgages for special low income groups, such as displacees from urban renewal areas and the elderly. A similar approach was proposed in section 102 of the Administration's 1964 bill on housing and community development. This would have provided loans to people over 62 years of age at below market interest rates to help them rehabilitate their homes up to urban renewal standards. The "new community" requirement in the same bill provided for meeting "the housing and related needs of families with varying incomes and personal requirements, including lower income and elderly families."

Additional approaches now are desirable in order to increase the flexibility of the low income housing program and otherwise improve the lot of those qualifying for and using public housing. Three such measures are (a) direct purchase or lease of existing private housing by local public housing authorities; (b) direct payment of rental subsidies to low income families for their use in obtaining private rentals of their choice; and (c) authorization of capital loans and operating grants to private nonprofit organizations to enable them to provide subsidized housing for low income families.

Supplementing the traditional public housing construction program, these would diversify the means of assisting low income families to obtain sound dwellings. Local housing authorities could provide units more quickly through the use of existing housing than through new construction. They would also find it easier to provide housing for different kinds of families, as in obtaining units for larger families and conveniently located units for elderly families. Furthermore, rent subsidies would provide a more suitable form of housing aid for elderly persons on low fixed income, who prefer to remain in the same dwelling they occupy but can no longer afford.

The more varied program would also have the collateral advantage of helping to overcome the unfavorable image public housing has acquired by concentrating on the use of institutional project type units. Low income families could be located in single family houses or small apartment buildings scattered throughout normal neighborhoods, in both publicly owned and leased or privately owned dwellings. In smaller central cities, and especially in suburban communities where resistance to conspicuous public housing projects is strong, where the number of low income families requiring housing aid is small enough to permit their residential assimilation with the surrounding community, and where there is a sufficient stock of older, moderately priced rentals, the advantage of "scatteration" would be particularly benign toward making a subsidy program for low income housing more acceptable.

Conservation and improvement of residential properties would also be encouraged, since publicly owned housing and housing occupied by recipients of direct rental subsidies would have to be in full compliance with local code requirements and able to meet basic statutory standards of adequate, safe, and sanitary housing. This is because, under the Federal public housing program, loans and grants administered through local housing authorities are confined to localities that have an approved workable program, one element of which is existence and enforcement of a housing code. Housing conservation and improvement would help stabilize the vast "gray" areas of older housing in large cities, permitting retention of the large middle class of both races still resident in the cities, and the middle class families of the future as well. The city would also be likely to be a more attractive destination for migrants from other States and metropolitan areas who are now settling in the suburbs in more dense proportions than they are in the cities.

The workable program requirement does, however, have an indirect deterrent effect on the provision of adequate housing for low income groups, despite its laudable merit in encouraging localities to undertake a comprehensive approach to community redevelopment. Relatively few suburban communities are interested in or willing to comply with the seven elements of the workable program. Not only does this mean that these communities cannot themselves provide federally aided public housing units, it means as well that the lack of a workable program would prohibit a local housing authority from granting direct rent subsidies, as advocated in part (b) of the above recommendation, to low income families desiring to rent private housing in the adjoining suburb. The inability of low income families to move outside the central city is a crucial cause of the increasing pressure on the low income housing of central cities, tending to increase further inter-local service and fiscal disparities.

Authorization of direct Federal loans and grants to nonprofit organizations to provide subsidized housing for low income families would help overcome this barrier to dispersal of low income housing throughout the metropolitan area since dealings would be directly between the Federal Government and the nonprofit organization and no workable program would be involved. The nonprofit organization would, of course, be subject to local zoning, building, and housing codes, but otherwise would not be prohibited from going to any place in the metropolitan area because a community failed to achieve a workable program. As a reasonable requirement to insure that at least minimum standards of housing facilities and maintenance in the low income units would be achieved, the community should meet the housing code requirement of HHFA's workable program for community improvement.

With respect to local housing agencies' acquisition of existing housing, Federal housing legislation already authorizes annual contributions by the Public Housing Administration for such purpose. State laws also generally allow local authorities to buy and lease existing structures for low rent use. Yet, according to the Housing and Home Finance Agency, only 1,600 units in management throughout the country in early 1964 had been brought into the public housing program by such use of existing housing.

The major legal barrier to wider use of the authority to purchase existing housing is the Federal annual contributions formula. It authorizes maximum fixed annual contributions in terms of a stated percentage of the development or acquisition cost of the project. This percentage (the current Federal rate of interest plus two percent) was designed for amortizing bonded debt incurred in developing a project over a long period, and the standing practice has been to contract for periods of 40 years.

This formula is appropriate for newly built housing or housing rehabilitated to new standards. Such structures normally have a useful economic life well over 40 years. The formula does not, however, permit use of many kinds of existing housing which may be perfectly suitable for use over shorter periods but not such as to warrant a very long term contract for Federal contributions. It is even less adapted for use in connection with relatively short term leases since, in such cases, there is no significant "development or acquisition" cost to which the allowable statutory percentage may be applied. A new formula proposed in the Administration's 1964 bill on housing and community development, Section 404, would have allowed use of existing housing, either by purchase or lease, in a way that would permit shorter periods of use than are now required.

The 1964 amendments to the National Housing Act included a "relocation adjustment payment," not to exceed $500, on behalf of any family or individual of 62 years or over, displaced by urban renewal and public housing projects. The purpose is to enable the displacees to relocate in private housing if they are eligible for public housing and it is not available for them. The rental subsidy program proposed in this report essentially would apply the rental scheme of the 1964 amendments to low income groups generally rather than to urban renewal and public housing displacees alone.

In a number of cities, demonstration programs are being conducted on various aspects of governmental acquisition and leasing of existing housing and direct rent subsidies. These are financed under the Federal Government's low income housing demonstration program. A Philadelphia project involves evaluation of the Philadelphia Housing Authority's acquisition, rehabilitation, and use of existing housing for low income families. The Housing Authority has 40 units of such housing in operation and expects to expand to 200. Demonstration programs in the District of Columbia, New Haven, Chicago, and St. Louis involve the rental subsidy approach. These demonstrations should provide valuable experience about proper administration of programs for acquiring existing housing and using direct rental subsidies.

5. The Commission urges appropriate Federal and State agencies to accelerate adoption of cooperative agreements for enforcing Federal and State laws and regulations forbidding discrimination in housing.

From two to three times as much nonwhite as white housing of all kinds is unsound:

Percent of Dwelling Units Which are Unsound:
190 Largest U. S. Metropolitan Areas

	TOTAL POPULATION		NONWHITE*	
	Central City	Suburb	Central City	Suburb
Owner occupied	11	16	33	51
Rented	33	36	56	70

* Data for nonwhites refer to only 126 SMSA's because housing condition was not reported by tenure of occupancy for 51 of the smaller metropolitan areas with a small number of nonwhite dwellings.

Other evidence indicates, moreover, that as nonwhites improve their occupational and income status, they are unable to make commensurate improvements in housing. Thus, one study by the Housing and Home Finance Agency, based on analysis of social and economic data in the 1960 Census for 21 metropolitan areas, found that a "sizeable nonwhite middle-class has emerged in all sections of the country. These families typically occupy houses of inferior quality and lower value than those of white families in similar economic circumstances in the same community." Racial discrimination is a barrier to their acquiring good quality housing they can afford.

Improved educational and welfare programs seek to eliminate social problems. Yet these problems are only compounded when nonwhites are confined by racial discrimination to a "ghettoized" environment of poor housing, slum streets, discouragement and defeat. Little is gained from elaborate programs of urban renewal if another slum is created on the borders of the old one because displaced families are merely shifted to a more confined area. Efforts and resources are especially wasted when many of these families are financially capable of securing good housing if only the market were open to them.

Since the end of World War II, some barriers to equal housing opportunity have given way. In 1948, the U. S. Supreme Court in Shelly v. Kraemer held, for the first time, that judicial enforcement of restrictive covenants, aimed at keeping minority group members out of housing they desired and could afford to buy, constituted a denial of equal protection of the laws guaranteed by the Constitution. Under this decision, the courts cannot be utilized as a means of enforcing discriminatory agreements.

In 1957, New York City adopted the first city ordinance barring racial and religious discrimination in private housing. A number of other cities have since adopted similar ordinances. In addition, some 50 cities have enacted measures applicable to government aided accommodations, such as those in public housing or urban redevelopment projects, and four cities have special legislation barring real estate brokers from engaging in certain practices designed to induce panic selling due to entry or prospective entry into a neighborhood of persons of another racial or ethnic background.

Adoption of antidiscrimination housing measures in central cities has obvious limitations, however, in terms of opening up the housing market of a metropolitan area. Moreover, it can operate to

contribute to the exodus of whites and result in greater concentration of nonwhites. Statewide nondiscrimination legislation, on the other hand, can achieve a more rational metropolitan population distribution by permitting freer market conditions to operate. At last count, 18 States maintained such laws, varying in their coverage of publicly owned housing; housing supported to some degree by public funds, such as loans, grants, or tax abatements; and private housing. Private housing was covered by the laws of 12 of these States.

With passage of State laws against discrimination in housing, it became clear that their effectiveness would depend on cooperation with governmental agencies having responsibility for providing or supervising housing accommodations or any related responsibilities. At the Federal level, this led, in 1959, to negotiation of agreements with such agencies as Federal Housing Administration, Veterans Administration, and Urban Renewal Administration. A typical agreement with FHA provided, for example, that a rider be attached by FHA to applications for mortgage insurance spelling out the main provisions of the State's nondiscrimination legislation and indicating the Federal agency's requirement that the builder or developer seeking the insurance abide by the laws, and that FHA provide the State administrative agency with regular listings of subdivision and project approvals by the Federal agency. In addition to formal agreements, agreements of a less formal nature were reached between State agencies enforcing antidiscrimination in housing statutes and the Public Housing Administration. These permitted a close working relationship and exchange of information.

The Federal Government took direct action against discrimination in housing in November 1962 when President Kennedy issued Executive Order 11063 on Equal Opportunity in Housing. The Order applies to housing (1) owned or operated by the Federal Government; (2) provided in whole or in part with the aid of Federal loans, grants, advances, or contributions; (3) provided in whole or in part by loans insured, guaranteed, or otherwise secured by Federal credit; or (4) provided by development or redevelopment of real property made available by a State or local public agency through Federal financial assistance for slum clearance or urban renewal.

The Housing and Home Finance Agency and all other executive departments and agencies are given primary responsibility for obtaining compliance with the Order as it applies to programs they administer. The President's Committee on Equal Opportunity in Housing, also created by the Order, is directed to promote coordination of activities of the departments and agencies.

Issuance of the Federal Executive Order created the need to avoid duplication and inconsistency between the Federal Order and State laws and, thereby, assure maximum total effectiveness in barring housing discrimination. As a consequence, the States and the Federal Government have instituted negotiations to develop comprehensive agreements for coordination in administering fair housing laws of both levels of government. The first such agreement was concluded in late 1963 and early 1964 between the Minnesota State Commission Against Discrimination and Urban Renewal Administration, Public Housing Administration, Federal Housing Administration, Community Facilities Administration, and Veterans Administration. The "memorandum of understanding" provides, for example, that URA will furnish the Minnesota agency with copies of legislation, Executive Orders, URA regulations, and other requirements involved in administration of URA nondiscrimination housing provisions; that the HHFA Regional Office and the local public agency will notify the State agency of any complaints received by them alleging violation of the State antidiscrimination housing laws; and that the State agency will reciprocate vis-a-vis the Federal Order.

In its role as coordinator, the President's Committee on Equal Opportunity in Housing has also acted to develop cooperation between Federal and State agencies. In May 1964, its chairman, former Governor David Lawrence of Pennsylvania, signed a memorandum of understanding with the Massachusetts Commission Against Discrimination. The agreement provides that each Federal department and agency affected will designate an officer to be responsible for liaison between the State Commission and the Federal department or agency. A subsequent agreement between the State agency and the Federal departments and agencies, as in Minnesota, would provide the procedure for more detailed cooperation. The President's Committee is urging other States to negotiate agreements similar to that in Minnesota.

The Commission hopes that all Federal agencies and States having antidiscrimination housing laws will move rapidly to reach agreements similar to that concluded between the Federal agencies and the Minnesota department to assure most effective enforcement of equal housing opportunity laws and regulations and thereby achieve reduction in housing disparities as among neighborhoods and suburban towns, and between central city and suburbs.

6. The Commission recommends that the Congress remove existing limitations on nonresidential renewal from the Federal urban renewal program.

The original urban renewal legislation enacted in 1949 required all projects to be predominantly residential either before or after renewal, but the 1954 act introduced a 10 percent exception to this rule which was raised to 20 percent in 1959. These exceptions define the percentage of Federal urban renewal appropriations which may be allocated to projects which are neither residential to start with nor residential in reuse. The present 30 percent limitation on nonresidential projects was enacted in 1961, and the Housing and Home Finance Agency earlier this year requested, unsuccessfully, that this limitation be raised to 35 percent, testifying in 1964 hearings before the House Banking and Currency Committee that:

> The authority to undertake a limited amount of nonresidential renewal has been extremely valuable to cities in helping them eliminate blight and obsolescence in their commercial and industrial areas. The revitalization of these areas through urban renewal is essential to prevent the continued erosion of cities' economic and tax resources and to maintain their capacity to provide essential public services and to undertake comprehensive renewal programs including both residential and nonresidential projects. Unless their commercial and industrial areas are renewed, many cities will continue to lose the job-producing private enterprise that help many of their residents to afford better housing, new or rehabilitated. Cities are becoming increasingly aware of the valuable part that nonresidential projects can play in a balanced urban renewal program, and are indicating a growing interest in undertaking these projects. The 30 percent limitation is now being fully utilized and the known demand for nonresidential projects exceeds the limitation.

Urban renewal is a basic tool for meeting the overall needs of urban communities. Decisions affecting the equitable allocation of housing types, tax bases, employment locations, and public facility and service needs, among various governmental jurisdictions within a metropolitan area, are often partially determined by renewal programs. The present limitation of 30 percent of the total Federal urban renewal appropriation which may be spent on commercial renewal projects is an arbitrary limitation which unnecessarily limits flexibility in renewal planning. Local communities which apply first may exhaust the funds available for nonresidential renewal, leaving other cities without similar possibilities. Removal of this limitation would allow closer attention to projects for improving the city tax base and providing employment centers close to appropriate population groups.

Unemployment among central city residents is proportionately 25 percent more serious than among suburban residents, even though 12 percent of the central city residents commute to suburban jobs. Part of this unemployment differential is undoubtedly due to the higher proportions of low income families, nonwhites, and household and service workers who live in the central cities. In many cases, nonresidential renewal may be able to create jobs for these people within the central cities and thus help to reduce central city unemployment. Arbitrary limitations on nonresidential projects can hobble unnecessarily the planning and carrying out of renewal projects designed to meet social and economic needs of the metropolitan area as a whole.

7. The Commission recommends that Governors of the several States and the Secretary of Labor take steps to assure that public employment services are provided to all job applicants and employees within metropolitan area labor markets regardless of State lines; these steps should include interstate agreements and action by the Secretary to assure himself that such arrangements are being effectively carried out as a condition to Federal grants for employment security administration.

Under the Federal-State employment security program, maintenance of a public employment service is a joint responsibility of the State and Federal governments. The United States Employment Service, among other responsibilities, helps establish and maintain systems of public employment offices in the States, assists in training of staff, develops and disseminates employment information, provides coordination of the State systems, develops and prescribes minimum standards of efficiency, and maintains a system for clearing labor among the States. The Federal Government pays all administrative costs of the State agencies and approves their staffing. State agencies submit detailed operating plans for approval of the Secretary of Labor and are subject to regulations of the Secretary in administering their employment service programs.

In metropolitan areas covering parts of two or more States, problems of coordination are created by the existence of divided administrative responsibility within an essentially single labor market. These problems tend to obstruct the most effective matching of job applicants and job vacancies. In 1963, there were 32 such interstate standard metropolitan statistical areas, with a 1960 population of 40.9 million.

The U. S. Employment Service has taken a number of steps to overcome this arbitrary division of the labor market in interstate metropolitan areas, most of which are directed toward improved coordination within metropolitan areas in general. The Federal agency is carrying on an educational campaign, for example, to persuade State employment agencies to establish employment offices in metropolitan areas on the basis of industry occupation specialty rather than geography, mainly for the higher skills and professions. Thus, the applicant needs to be registered in just one office to be certain of being tapped for all jobs available in the area or at least within that portion of the area of his State. Under the older system of setting up numerous offices on a geographic basis and having each one responsible for all types of skills, the problems of coordinating job and personnel information were more complicated and uncertain. Forty-four of the 55 metropolitan areas over 500,000 had undergone this reorganization by the fall of 1964.

Also being encouraged in metropolitan areas is biweekly circulation among all offices of the area of lists of job vacancies and more frequent communication by telephone. Encouraged as well is establishment of a formal agreement among States with jurisdiction in a particular metropolitan area to have cooperative procedures among their employment offices in the area. For example, the cooperative agreement in the Washington, D.C., area among the States of Maryland and Virginia and the United States Employment Service for the District of Columbia establishes certain basic principles with respect to intra-area handling of job orders, employer visiting by agency personnel, and special situations such as recruitment efforts and reporting.

Despite these formal and informal coordinating devices, however, the basic division of ultimate responsibility between two or more State employment agencies interposes obstacles to coordination which would not be present were all employment offices in the metropolitan area responsible to a single State agency as they are when the metropolitan area is located entirely within a single State. The basic organizational separation, in other words, makes it difficult to assure complete cooperation in dealing with the metropolitan labor market as an entity. Employees of the local agency are conscious of their first responsibility to the policies and goals of the State, rather than the metropolitan labor market and the individuals in it, regardless of their residence. In case of a conflict, coordinated areawide policy comes off second best, and there is not a free flow of information of job vacancies and applicants.

The problem is likely to be most serious in metropolitan areas in which the nonwhite unemployed are concentrated in the central city, part or all of the suburbs are in another State or States, and job opportunities are in the suburbs. Should discrimination against nonwhites exist in the suburbs, for example, there will be a tendency for less than full cooperation on the part of the suburban employment office, in spite of informal and formal procedures and organizational devices for assuring such cooperation.

In these circumstances, it might be expected that nonwhite applicants would register in all available employment offices regardless of their residence, since that is their right. The nonwhite unemployed, however, are essentially the undereducated, unskilled, and semiskilled who are less likely to seek additional possible contact points for employment in two or more different State employment offices. Thus, if the employment office in the place of their residence--for example, the central city--does not provide them with positive assistance in locating job opportunities, they are unlikely to seek it themselves. If there is then less than full cooperation with the central city employment office by the suburban office, the unemployed person is, for practical purposes, out of reach of the registration service of the suburban office.

So far as the foregoing difficulties are due to administrative responsiveness to separate State organizations rather than to an organization responsible for the metropolitan area as a whole, the Commission urges the State and Federal Governments to work more effectively in assuring coordinated action in the metropolitan areas. As heads of State administration, governors should see to it that their State employment agencies wholeheartedly support such coordination. Cooperative agreements of the type in effect in the Washington, D.C., area should be negotiated in interstate metropolitan areas. So that these are more than paper agreements, however, every effort should be made by responsible Federal officials actively participating along with State agencies to assure that they actually produce full flow of information and service over State lines in the metropolitan area. Such efforts should include periodic meetings of representatives of the local agencies in the metropolitan areas to review the manner in which the agreement is working, to discuss obstacles to full exchange of information on jobs and applicants, and to institute procedures for removing obstacles.

The extensiveness of the problem of administration (32 interstate metropolitan areas containing 23 percent of the Nation's population), the tendency of local employment agencies to be oriented to their States' employment service organizations, and the lack of local employment office incentives to a metropolitan area approach require that the governors of the affected States and the Secretary of Labor play a positive role. Specific procedures should be established by the Secretary of Labor to satisfy himself that the job employment services provided job applicants and employers within these interstate metropolitan areas fully take into account the metropolitan labor market. Such assurance would be a reasonable condition to Federal support for the administration of these programs.

Nothing in this recommendation is meant to apply to the much broader question of the proper distribution between the Federal and State governments of responsibllities, financing, and administration of the current employment security program. Rather, it is designed to insure that necessary administrative action is taken under the present program to meet the needs of residents of what is becoming a more common intergovernmental environment--the interstate metropolitan area. Recommended changes in the Federal and State roles would be justified only by an intensive study of the employment security program itself.

Promoting Adjustment of Governmental Jurisdictions

Recommendations of this Commission have emphasized the need for adjusting local governmental boundaries, functions, and financial powers in metropolitan areas to meet growing needs. Two-thirds of the Nation's population and even a greater proportion of its economic activities are found in metropolitan areas. These areas have resources to meet their own needs for urban services if only they could be tapped equitably. However, the fragmented pattern of local government prevents access to such resources. Some local governments in metropolitan areas have much stronger or weaker tax bases than others. Similarly, some local governments have greater or lesser needs for serving special segments of the metropolitan population. Finally, their philosophies about service levels and population groups to which they choose to cater often vary considerably. Many of these interlocal differences do not show up with full force in the analysis of this report which compares each central city with the aggregate of its suburban jurisdictions. But, even with an aggregate analysis that tends to average out disparities, unequal service needs do appear. If

local governments had broad enough geographic jurisdiction and governmental powers, an adequate revenue base, and flexibility to adjust governmental boundaries, they would be in a much better position to cope with problems created by the disparities described herein.

The Commission has made a number of recommendations which would, if carried out, substantially minimize the impact of many factors which have been influential in making it difficult for local government to cope with disparity problems. Recommendations seeking to ease local government boundary problems have urged (1) simplified statutory requirements for municipal annexation of unincorporated territory, (2) stricter State standards for new incorporations, (3) control of the formation of new special districts, (4) authorization for interlocal contracting, joint performance of urban services, and voluntary transfer of functions among city and county governments, and (5) authorization and facilitation for the establishment of metropolitan councils of governments, metropolitan planning agencies, metropolitan study commissions, and metropolitan service corporations for performance of particular governmental services that call for areawide handling.

Recommendations seeking to strengthen local governments functionally and financially have urged (1) that units of general local government--counties, cities, and towns--be given all powers not expressly reserved to the State in its constitution nor pre-empted by the State through action of the legislature, (2) that State limitations on local government tax and debt powers be removed, and (3) that cities and adjoining jurisdictions in large metropolitan areas be given uniform authority for levying and cooperative administration of nonproperty taxes.

The Commission has also recommended that States assert their legislative authority so as to afford leadership, stimulation, and, where necessary, supervision with respect to metropolitan area problems, especially in those metropolitan areas which involve more than one county. States have also been urged to assume an active role in resolving disputes among local governments within metropolitan areas and lending their good offices for the facilitation of interlocal contracting and for other similar purposes within metropolitan areas.

Without structural and administrative adjustments in local government, it will be extremely difficult to deal with disparity problems on a local basis.

The Commission urges State and local governments to make renewed efforts to adjust local governmental structure and administration to meet areawide needs by easing local government boundary problems, by strengthening local governments functionally and financially, and by asserting State legislative authority and leadership with respect to metropolitan problems.

In addition to renewed efforts in applying those previous recommendations, the data in this report suggest specific needs for broadening the political jurisdiction for the functions of urban renewal, public housing, vocational education, retraining, and for certain local tax powers.

8. The Commission recommends that States enact legislation authorizing counties in metropolitan areas to provide urban renewal and public housing services to unincorporated areas and small municipalities; and further provide for financial and technical assistance to the counties as well as municipalities for establishing such services and coordinating their administration, especially in multicounty metropolitan areas.

The concept of urban renewal, as broadened in 1954, includes rehabilitation and conservation activities as well as land clearance. Conservation and rehabilitation may be appropriate in almost any residential neighborhood except the very newest. Broadening the concept of urban renewal further to provide cost write-downs for low cost housing and land assembly advantages in new community development, and to provide surer capabilities in solving a wide variety of land use problems, including undeveloped land, in addition to what is normally thought of as urban blight, would help to induce suburban participation in renewal. Notwithstanding the relatively small amount of current suburban concern, urban renewal programs are needed and should be carried out in all parts of most of our metropolitan areas.

County responsibility for urban renewal programs would tend to broaden the area of jurisdiction by including unincorporated areas and incorporated areas that do not have programs of their own. Only 16 States have enabled counties to undertake urban renewal. According to the best information available, about 32 counties have urban renewal agencies, but only about one-third of these agencies operate in unincorporated areas. A similar situation is believed to apply to public housing agencies. In those counties where slum clearance and residential dislocation would be substantial, public housing would probably be necessary to enable relocation needs to be met. At least

this has been the case in central cities where the proportion of families with incomes under $4,000 is nearly as large as it is in the suburbs. Cooperation between county and city renewal and housing agencies, and even joint city-county programs in certain cases, would be contemplated. Such cooperation is already common where county programs exist.

County renewal and public housing powers would not exclude continued exercise of similar powers by municipal governments but, to the contrary, might facilitate the programs of small municipalities which could not maintain full professional staffs of their own nor provide adequate relocation housing within their own borders. Examples of this can be found in the Pittsburgh metropolitan area, among others, where county renewal staffs perform, under contract, the technical services needed to carry out renewal projects for which the individual municipality is the actual sponsor. Larger municipalities within counites, especially major central cities, will undoubtedly want to continue using their own highly developed staffs, with the counties performing renewal services and sponsoring projects only in unincorporated areas. In some cases where central city renewal staff is available, the county may find it advantageous to contract with it for staff services. But aside from economic considerations, the role of the counties that is indispensable is the role of project sponsor and provider of the workable program certification in unincorporated areas where there is no other government capable of performing this role.

Large central cities are making strong efforts to strengthen and renew their deteriorating and blighted neighborhoods, but the task is enormous and complex and necessarily slow of accomplishment. In many suburban areas which surround them, on the other hand, the problems are not yet so formidable although they are likely to become so as the suburbs grow, particularly the older ones whose industrial and residential character is becoming more like the central cities they border. Disparities in unsound owner occupied housing are greatest in metropolitan areas whose populations are most concentrated in the central cities, but disparities in unsound rental housing are greatest in the smallest SMSA's. In both types of SMSA, the suburban areas containing the high proportion of unsound housing are likely to be of relatively small size and population, so that the task of gradually eliminating substandard housing through building code standardization and urban renewal programs is much more hopeful than in the large cities. Fragmentation of governmental responsibility in suburban areas, which presents a major obstruction to suburban renewal, must be overcome, however, before the promise of success in meeting still manageable problems can be realized.

Many counties in metropolitan areas have large rural populations that may resist having the county provide urban renewal and public housing services to the suburban parts of the county. Municipalities in the county with active renewal and public housing programs of their own may also resist contributing to these programs out of general county revenues. In such situations, the Commission has already recommended that it may be appropriate to create a county subordinate tax area in order to provide the service and set tax rates there at a higher level than the overall county tax rate. At least 20 States currently utilize the subordinate taxing area device to provide governmental services.

Urban renewal and public housing are highly technical programs. They require highly qualified professional personnel to plan and carry them out, and may also require an upgrading of many local programs in such fields as planning, code enforcement, and capital improvement financing. The Federal workable program requirement is often difficult for small localities to meet without help. Recognizing these problems, the State of Kentucky has established a program, with the assistance of a Federal urban renewal demonstration grant, which provides localities with technical and staff assistance in preparing workable programs needed to qualify for Federal urban renewal and public housing grants. In addition, the State of Maine is considering establishment of a program to provide its localities with similar types of assistance for all phases of urban renewal. State staff services such as these can do much to encourage needed urban renewal and public housing programs in small suburban jurisdictions and to point out the mutual advantages of interlocal cooperation in such programs.

9. The Commission recommends that States enact legislation authorizing and encouraging areawide coordination and administration--through county governments or other appropriate means--of vocational education and retraining programs within metropolitan areas.

Relative to its population, the average suburb has almost as great a need as the central city for new and specialized education programs to train dropouts and near dropouts and retrain adults who are undereducated or whose occupations have become obsolete. Educational, employment, and unemployment data analyzed in this report substantiate this conclusion as follows:

Education--On a national average, persons 25 years of age and older with less than four years of high school (dropouts) are nearly as common in the suburbs as in the central cities. Although in northeastern SMSA's they are 16 percent more common in the central cities

than in the suburbs, they are nearly equal in the North Central and significantly more common in the suburbs of the South and West. The percent of 16 and 17 year olds not enrolled in school (dropouts) is nearly equal in central cities and suburbs for the Nation as a whole: they are 20 percent less in the northeastern suburbs and slightly less in the North Central suburbs, but slightly greater in the southern and western suburbs. College graduates, who would be expected to have least need for vocational education and retraining, live more commonly in the central cities on the national average and for all regions except the Northeast.

Employment--Occupational groups which are declining in relative demand (craftsmen, operatives, and laborers) are just as common or more so in suburbs as in central cities, with only slight exceptions in the Northeast for operatives, and in the Northeast and North Central for laborers.

Unemployment--Although unemployment is 20 percent less common among suburban residents, it still accounts for 4 percent among them.

Large central cities usually constitute a single school system and have capital facilities and administrative organization to conduct adequate vocational education and retraining programs as well as a sufficient number of potential students for efficient and relatively low unit cost operation. Individual suburban school districts, which are sometimes very small, do not generally enjoy these advantages. They lack appropriate plant or staff for vocational training either as part of a comprehensive high school or as a separate vocational institution because there is an insufficient number of vocational students within any one district to warrant the investment. Analysis of census data indicates, however, that there are enough such students in the suburban area as a whole to justify the investment.

By virtue of their basic responsibility for providing public education, State governments have a key role in helping assure adequate vocational education opportunities for their citizens, inside and outside metropolitan areas. This responsibility is recognized in the several Federal programs of grants for vocational education. All require State boards of education to develop State plans as a condition for approval of grants. It is appropriate, therefore, that States develop and administer these plans so as to help overcome deficiencies in vocational education in metropolitan areas as an important part of their responsibility for dealing with inadequacies throughout the entire State.

Just how States go about providing necessary direction, coordination, and stimulus will necessarily vary because of wide variations among States as to State and local sharing of responsibility for providing vocational education and retraining programs. In most States, for example, vocational training is a responsibility of local school boards. In Virginia, however, a 1963 law (Ch. 405) provides for direct State operation of area vocational schools. Local school districts may continue their programs, but may also turn them over to the State for incorporation in the State's area vocational system. Again, vocational education is usually administered by local school districts along with general education, but in Wisconsin an entirely separate system administers the program. Another instance of diversity of practice concerns community colleges, which increasingly are providing vocational programs for high school graduates. In California, much vocational education is provided by the junior colleges. States vary as to whether the State department of higher education or local school districts operate community colleges. They also vary with respect to whether vocational education and retraining programs are conducted as part of general community colleges or separate technical community colleges, as in Georgia.

Organizational and financial patterns developed by the State to meet vocational education needs in metropolitan areas may also need to vary from SMSA to SMSA because of the differences in SMSA's. These differences relate to such matters as size of the SMSA; the relative dominance of the central city; whether the SMSA lies in a single county; the number, size, and needs of individual school districts within the SMSA; and the degree to which they are individually capable of providing an adequate vocational education program.

Experience indicates that States have indeed used a variety of approaches to the problem of establishing the framework for financing and coordinating vocational education programs. A recent summary listed six general types of "area vocational education programs," a term incorporated in Federal vocational education laws. They are programs provided by a unit that has an attendance area of sufficient size to ensure enough students to warrant the provision of many different training courses. Emphasis is on developing an adequate administrative unit and financial base, which may require cutting across or replacing existing governmental patterns. Under the Federal Vocational Education Act of 1963, for example, aids for construction can go only to projects which the State certifies are "area vocational education school facilities."

The six general types of organizational patterns in existence for area vocational education programs are as follows:

1. A decentralized area vocational program, which makes arrangements for exchanging students among schools that provide different kinds of occupational training. A number of suburban school districts, for example, might have comprehensive high schools each offering a small number of occupational courses but pool their individual programs, with students being transported to the school offering the programs they wanted.

2. Expansion of the area served by a vocational school to include contiguous nonserviced territory. Thus, a central city school district might make available its vocational courses in comprehensive high schools, or its programs in vocational schools, on a charge basis to adjoining suburban school districts.

3. A separate school for vocational education built and maintained cooperatively by two or more existing school districts or units. The Bucks County, Pennsylvania, Technical School is a vocational-technical training service center for seven cooperating school districts in the Philadelphia metropolitan area.

4. County units established as a basis for vocational education within a county or group of counties. The Sussex County Vocational-Technical Center, in Delaware, is an example, servicing students from 13 different feeder high schools in the county. A Board of School Trustees is in charge and is directly responsible to the State Board of Education. In States where the school district operating general education programs is on a county basis, it can conveniently be responsible for the area vocational education program as well. This situation is likely to be found in the South, where county school districts are most common.

5. County schools controlled and financed jointly with a State.

6. State controlled and financed vocational schools in specified regions or areas of a State. The area vocational school located at Ashland, Kentucky, serving seven counties, is an example.

By adapting one or more of these organizational patterns to their individual needs and conditions, using Federal and State funds, and exercising effective supervision and coordination, States can better assure that growing needs for vocational education in metropolitan areas are met despite the fact that many local school districts in SMSA's are individually unable to provide necessary facilities and staff.

10. The Commission recommends that State legislation be enacted to authorize the use of taxing powers by responsible areawide metropolitan service agencies carrying on functions not solely financed by user charges.

In recommending in its 1961 report, Governmental Structure, Organization, and Planning in Metropolitan Areas, that States authorize local units of government to create multipurpose metropolitan service corporations, the Commission noted that whether a corporation would possess property taxing power as well as authority to impose service charges and special benefit assessments would depend on the range and nature of its authorized functional responsibilities. Functions the agency would need to perform in order to help modify disparities in service needs and fiscal resources in a metropolitan area are those whose benefits reach beyond individual political jurisdictions and yet cannot be financed wholly or substantially through user charges or special benefit assessments. Transportation, including roads and mass transit facilities, planning, parks, urban renewal, public housing, vocational education, and retraining require support of some general tax revenue or contributions through appropriations by the local governments involved.

Current examples of areawide service agencies utilizing taxing powers in addition to user charges would include the new transit district for the San Francisco metropolitan area; the Maryland National Capital Park and Planning Commission in its administration of a park acquisition program; port districts in Washington and Oregon, hospital districts in Texas; junior college districts in California, Florida, and Texas; and library districts in a number of States.

Many objections to use of a local sales or income tax lose their force when considered in terms of meeting service needs for an entire metropolitan area. These include the tendency for individuals to move their residence to avoid paying a local income tax levied on place of residence, the tendency for purchasers of costly consumer goods to avoid buying in a municipality levying a sales tax, and the cost of administration when handled separately by many small governmental units.

Even on a metropolitan basis, however, sales and income taxes fairly bristle with technical and administrative difficulties compared with property taxes. This might persuade a community to wish to restrict the taxing power of a multipurpose agency to use of the ad valorem tax, unless it could be demonstrated that property owners are carrying an unusually heavy tax load and that the functions to be financed by the agency required a significant increase in the net tax load.

Although an areawide property tax would present fewer compliance problems than sales or income taxes, it must be emphasized that the equitable distribution of this tax would require the State to (1) grant to the metropolitan agency responsibility for the assessment function, (2) conduct the assessment function with State government personnel, or (3) provide for interdistrict assessment equalization at the State level. For example, a metropolitan district located in more than one assessment jurisdiction must either be given the authority to adjust its property tax rate to compensate for variations in local assessment levels or the State tax agency must equalize local assessment levels at a uniform percentage of market value.

If it appears advisable to employ a nonproperty tax, the tax supplement device, such as California's "piggy-back" sales tax, stands out as the most promising tax alternative. By authorizing the enactment of a metropolitan supplement to a State sales or income tax, the State maximizes enforcement possibilities while minimixing taxpayer compliance costs.

Equalizing Local Governmental Finances

In considering recommendations dealing with local government finances, two facts must be kept in mind. First, in contrast to recommendations dealing with economic policies and local government jurisdiction, fiscal proposals tend to be compensatory rather than remedial in character. They do not attempt to deal directly with the

root causes of metropolitan disparities. Rather, the effort is directed toward partially offsetting or compensating for fiscal disparities among local governments within a metropolitan area.

Second, due to inadequate data and experience in what might be termed "urban public finance," the following recommendations can only be viewed as tending to equate fiscal capability with public service requirements. Lack of precise information on the extent of fiscal variations within metropolitan areas is illustrated by the fact that only very recently have assessment ratio data become available, thus permitting measurement of local property tax effort for certain local jurisdictions within metropolitan areas. This deficiency was clearly underscored in the Commission's recent report, The Role of Equalization in Federal Grants, in which the Commission urged that, as a first step, appropriate Federal agencies assemble data required for improving measures of State and local fiscal capacity and tax effort in order to assess the extent to which local fiscal variations, in particular, should be recognized in the distribution of Federal grants.

However, variations in local fiscal capacity can at best only partially account for differences in the quantity and quality of public services provided by governmental entities within a metropolitan area. Undoubtedly, political leadership, civic tradition, and community consensus patterns--factors not easily cranked into an equalization formula--may actually prove, in many cases, to be just as significant as the size of the local property tax assessment base or the level of personal income.

Notwithstanding these limitations on knowledge, adoption of one or more of the following recommendations for State action should tend to smooth out the fiscal contours of a metropolitan landscape broken up by local government boundaries. The point must be underscored that States have primary responsibility to deal effectively with this disparity problem by providing more assistance in financing local governmental services.

The first four recommendations in this section deal with policies governing State grants and tax sharing which are used to help support the financing of local public services. The last two recommendations concern action at all three levels of government for the use of effective methods of cost-benefit analysis in achieving equitable sharing among local units of government of the costs of areawide services.

11. The Commission recommends that each State examine its present system of grants, shared taxes, and authorization for local nonproperty taxes, and remove all features that aggravate differences in local fiscal capacity to deal with service requirements in metropolitan areas and that encourage or support the proliferation of local governments within such areas.

Formulas for distributing State grants and sharing State taxes can have a significant effect on the relative ability of localities to deal with their public service problems. It is important, therefore, that States examine these formulas carefully to assure that they operate so as not to aggravate these relative fiscal abilities to deal with public service needs.

State grants and shared taxes may also aggravate disparities by acting to proliferate local governments within metropolitan areas, whether or not these effects are intended. One example is where a State shares income tax revenue with local governments, or authorizes local governments to impose an income tax, solely on the basis of place of residence. Wealthy citizens, in particular, are given a tax incentive for leaving the central city and incorporating suburban communities in order to get a share of the State income tax and thereby lessen their property tax load. In other cases, where State grants are made to all incorporated units, there is a tendency to stimulate new incorporations without regard to whether they are in the interest of the best long range pattern of governmental development in the area. Annexation by an existing municipality or incorporation with adjoining territory to form a much larger unit might be more desirable alternatives from the standpoint of removing or forestalling disparities in services and finances.

In the case of the income tax sharing example, if the State revised its sharing formula or its authorization for local income taxes to reflect place of employment as well as residence, it would be pursuing a middle course between forces working for and against consolidation and fragmentation of government in metropolitan areas. Assuming that the central city stands in greater need of revenue, this policy would also tend to have an equalizing effect by bringing fiscal capabilities and service requirements into closer alignment. In any event, the central city would be more justifiably compensated because, as pointed out earlier in this report, approximately three times as many workers commute to the central city as commute in the opposite direction.

By the same token, if a State provided income tax revenue to local governments exclusively on the basis of place of employment, it would be providing positive encouragement to consolidation of governmental units.

12. The Commission recommends that the States consider the merit of using State grant funds to equalize local property tax loads among local jurisdictions in metropolitan areas.

The property tax is the major, and in many cases the sole, source of tax revenue of local governments. In 1962, it accounted for over 87 percent of local tax revenue. The extent to which local units use the property tax is, therefore, probably a good general index of the pressure of local public service needs and the degree to which the locality is taxing itself to meet those needs. Thus, a State grant program based on property tax effort will direct funds to those communities having the most acute public service needs and showing maximum local tax effort.

Because of variations in assessment practices, the raw tax rates alone are not fair measures of property tax effort and burden. It is necessary to adjust them by assessment ratio data to arrive at effective property tax rates. These measure, with a considerable degree of accuracy, the average weight of the property tax load borne by property owners in each local taxing district. Because of the substantially better comparative assessment data available on residential as contrasted with industrial and commercial property, the effective property tax rate on residential property should be used for comparison.

Armed with comparative tax load information, a State can equalize local government property tax loads simply by devising a distribution formula which channels most State aid to districts with the highest effective tax rates, with no expenditure strings attached to the grant. Essentially, this is the plan and objective of Wisconsin's recently enacted residential property tax credit system which is designed to channel a portion of its sales tax to those in greatest need of property tax relief.

The property tax equalization approach to the disparities problem, if effectively formulated and administered, modifies local fiscal disparities without disturbing local governmental organization and policies since no expenditure strings are attached to the aids.

Thus, the obvious drawback in this approach is that State funds would be helping to prop up inefficient units of local government and freeze the pattern of diffused local government within metropolitan areas. It is very important when considering this approach, therefore, that the State act first to remove features of its system of grants and shared taxes that tend to encourage local government proliferation, and second, recognize that remaining obstacles to removal of fiscal and service disparities, represented by governmental fragmentation in the metropolitan area, are likely to be perpetuated by the property tax equalization approach.

With respect to the use of grants to modify local fiscal disparities, the Commission, in its report on The Role of Equalization in Federal Grants, has recommended that the Federal Government should recognize variations in local fiscal capacity in making grants directly to local governments. While there are differences in State capacity to finance public programs of national concern, the range of variations among local governments in their capacity to support cooperatively financed public programs is even sharper.

In some Federal grant-in-aid programs, such as public housing, urban renewal, airports, open space, mass transportation, and air pollution, direct grants are made to local governments. Much useful work remains to be done by both Federal and State governments through use of assessment ratios, local property tax rate, income, and other data to provide procedures for improving measures for local as well as State relative fiscal capacity and tax effort. Such information on comparative fiscal abilities should be made available, to the extent practicable, to State and local governments and the necessary data collected and tabulated on a continuing basis.

13. In order to reduce educational disparities, the Commission recommends that each State make a critical review of its present school grant formula to insure that it provides for an educational level below which no community should fall and that it contains factors designed to measure as accurately as possible local tax effort and diverse community educational requirements (e.g., taking into account higher per pupil costs in slum areas), and to reflect such measurements in the allocation of aid funds.

As clearly reflected by the educational disparity data set forth in Chapter II, the economic well-being of the individual is now largely shaped by the level of his educational attainment. It is

critically important, therefore, to insure that the State financial contribution is geared to equalizing educational opportunity by bringing fiscal capabilities and needs into close alignment.

Over half of the States have refined their measurement of local tax effort by adopting the equalized property tax assessment concept, thereby warding off any attempt on the part of local officials to receive a disproportionate share of the State's school aid fund through the expedient practice of competitive undervaluation. Seven other States have turned to some index of capacity unrelated to property values because of the lack of reasonably comparable information.

In the appraisal of local educational needs, refinements in measurement techniques are just as critical. This is clearly reflected in the growing awareness that traditional measures of local educational responsibility, such as population or average daily attendance, fall short of presenting an adequate local needs index. A recent survey made by a University of Wisconsin faculty group isolated 52 factors which describe local educational responsibilities. The 52 factors describe eight classes of characteristics of local school districts: pupil-teacher-administrator ratios, character of the student body, number of students, special services, character of the teaching staff, subject areas of the high school curriculum, special education programs, and character of the school district population.

Some States have gone beyond equalization grants for the purpose of meeting educational problems in cities and suburbs. Grants are made, for example, to help finance school building construction in municipalities. New York State has special programs of aid for education of non-English speaking pupils, culturally disadvantaged children, and aid for educational services to children with special behavior problems. Also, proposals have been advanced for modification of equalization aids not only to adjust amounts of the foundation program but also, in some instances, to move toward an open-end grant. The open-end grant, in effect in a few States, provides that matching shares for the State and school districts would be set by the relative capacity position of each district but would extend over the whole amount of the local expenditure per pupil rather than a basic curriculum expenditure. It thus serves as a stimulus to expanded public school services.

14. <u>The Commission recommends that the States finance at least one-half of the cost of general assistance welfare programs, accompanied by adoption of State standards for such programs</u>.

For the majority of SMSA's, there is relatively small difference between central cities and suburbs in their respective proportions of undereducated adults, high school dropouts, and low income families. To the extent that disparities exist, the low income group constitutes a larger proportion of the total population in central cities than in suburbs, particularly in large SMSA's and the Northeast. The low income portion of the nonwhite group in the South and West, on the other hand, is larger in the suburbs than in the central city. Central cities have a larger proportion of unemployed than suburbs in all regions and sizes of SMSA. Disparity in unemployment is particularly sharp in SMSA's with a high percentage of nonwhites.

Insofar as disparities exist between central cities and suburbs with respect to the underprivileged, the fiscal burden of these disparities on the welfare budgets of individual localities in metropolitan areas is already considerably modified. This is because of the large extent to which Federal and State governments finance the so-called categorical public assistance programs. These programs, which amounted to $4,218 million in 1963 and accounted for over 90 percent of all public assistance payments, are old age assistance and medical assistance for the aged, aid and services to needy families with children, aid to the blind, and aid to the permanently and totally disabled.

In fiscal year 1963, the Federal government paid for 60.4 percent of the categorical aids. Of the total State-local share, State governments as a whole paid 80 percent, and local governments 20 percent. The least percentage of State participation in the non-Federal share of categorical public assistance was 48.8 percent in the State of Minnesota.

"General assistance" programs, however, are to a considerable degree still a very heavy charge on individual local governments. General assistance recipients are the residual group of indigents ineligible under any Federal categorical aid program. These include needy unemployed people who exhausted or never got unemployment benefits; needy unemployed approaching 65 years of age who do not have dependent children; needy people with partial or temporary disability; mothers of dependent children over 18; needy people in nonmedical institutions; and needy people who fail to meet all Federal and State requirements in the federally aided programs. Payments for such assistance amounted to $390 million in 1963.

General assistance is rooted in the basic responsibility recognized in the legal framework of all States for helping those whose resources are inadequate to meet their essential needs. States vary

considerably, however, in the extent to which they participate in financing the cost of public assistance. In 1960, seven States financed general assistance and its administrative costs entirely with State funds: Alaska, Arkansas, Hawaii, Louisiana, Pennsylvania, Utah, and Washington. On the other hand, local governments in eleven States financed the program completely from their own funds: California, Florida, Indiana, Kentucky, Mississippi, Nebraska, Nevada, New Hampshire, South Dakota, Tennessee, and Texas. In ten additional States, local funds in 1960 bore 80 to 99 percent of general assistance costs with the balance from State sources: Colorado, Georgia, Iowa, Massachusetts, Minnesota, Montana, North Carolina, North Dakota, Vermont, and Wisconsin.

The Commission believes States should finance a substantial portion of general assistance costs. Benefits redounding from maintaining the welfare of individuals and fostering their rehabilitation spread well beyond the limits of localities in which they happen to reside. Indigents tend to migrate to urban centers in search of employment, to join relatives, and, perhaps, because they know a city has a welfare program which will assure them a minimum of assistance. Indeed, smaller, less urbanized communities have been known to establish strict standards of general assistance eligibility in order to encourage indigents to leave, knowing that the indigents inevitably will migrate to the cities where they will find more liberal eligibility policies.

With the States already financing over 80 percent of the non-Federal share of welfare costs represented by the much larger Federal categorical aid programs, there is little justification for States not to finance at least one-half of the residual general assistance program. By doing so, they would help further modify the disparate fiscal effects of differences in unemployment, low income, and other social conditions of the underprivileged between central cities and suburbs.

* * * * *

In consideration of the foregoing recommendations for State fiscal action directed toward modifying fiscal and service disparities in metropolitan areas, it is appropriate to reiterate an earlier Commission recommendation, namely, that States assist local governments in all local government functions that are aided by the Federal

Government, including public housing and urban renewal. If "States' responsibilities as well as States' rights" is not to be an empty slogan, State government in this country must accept the principle that taxpayers of the State have a precedence of responsibility over taxpayers of the Nation in financing local government functions within the State. Extending Federal aid to local governments while the respective States stand idly by is incompatible with the philosophy of the American Federal system. If any function of local government is critical enough to warrant intervention of the Congress, then it is axiomatically critical enough to receive the attention and assistance of the State. Present State activity in many of these fields leaves much to be desired.

In most States, the burden of financing urban renewal and public housing projects is borne exclusively by the Federal and local governments. At present, only five States participate in urban renewal financing, and only 14 States extend some form of aid to local governments in the housing field.

While other arguments might be marshalled in favor of this recommendation, the critical one having direct relevance to the fiscal disparity problem is the equalizing effect of State financial participation. By assuming a portion of financial responsibility, States help spread the burden of financing this metropolitanwide need across the metropolis and across the rest of the State.

Calling upon the State to assist in financing these urban programs can also be justified in light of fiscal and governmental realities. For most States, a large share of their revenue comes from metropolitan areas. This fact and the absence of some form of metropolitan government combine, therefore, to make a persuasive case for State financial and technical assistance in all fields of local government endeavor receiving aid from the Federal government.

15. The Commission recommends that local governments in metropolitan areas negotiating the sharing of costs for areawide urban services utilize cost-benefit studies (including identification of all direct and indirect benefits to individuals and the communities involved) as a basis for such negotiations.

One of the, if not the, most pressing problems facing our central cities and suburban jurisdictions in urban areas today is the lack of governmental machinery to deal with financing areawide programs. Needs, and the services required to satisfy them, do not fit neatly within boundaries of existing governmental units. Benefits and damages spill over from one jurisdiction to another.

The possibility of areawide agreement and sharing costs on a fair and equitable basis has long been of interest to the Commission. Attempts to provide such services often founder, not so much on governmental organization or structural problems as on inability to reach agreement on the sharing of costs. The problem is most severe with respect to such services as sewage disposal, air pollution, and mass transportation. These services, by their very nature, require a major system of physical facilities with service boundaries dictated by population density and physical characteristics of the land, often involving little or no relationship to governmental boundaries. Furthermore, these services involve long life capital investments and capital costs that loom large as a major element in annual charges. Efficiency in the use of such capital requires that future needs for the entire service area be estimated as accurately as possible. The larger the number of independent governments surrounding the central city in a metropolitan area, the more inequitable and difficult becomes the process of financing these areawide governmental services.

If it were possible to determine benefits through objective analytical studies utilizing appropriate frameworks of analysis, increased cooperative efforts for sharing of costs might be forthcoming. This is especially true for providing those areawide services where reliance on user charges and Federal and State grants cannot be expected to cover costs of the service. Accordingly, the Commission has looked to an approach which might help to solve these problems: cost-benefit analysis.

Cost-benefit analysis has recently come into rather extensive use in conjunction with many Federal programs, especially in the fields of water resources, recreation, and highways. If these techniques offer useful guidelines to the decision making process in these regional programs, their potentialities merit attention as aids in solving problems of providing areawide services for separate jurisdictions Findings in Chapter IV reflect the effort to transfer or adapt cost-benefit analysis to the urban scene. While they clearly show that cost-benefit studies cannot answer all questions necessary for intelligent decision making, they very definitely provide a useful framework for answering some questions and, in the longer run, for thinking about others and improving intergovernmental relations in metropolitan areas. Actual application to urban problems has been limited, but a start has been made for such programs as highways, public health, school dropouts, and alternative proposals for comprehensive development of an urban area.

It is fully recognized that cost-benefit analysis, if applied to a specific urban development problem with its inevitable complex social, political, and other factors, would not provide a simple automatic basis for decision making. It is expected, however, that such analysis can help considerably in reducing the number of outstanding issues and identifying value judgments involved in deciding to proceed or not proceed on a cooperative project.

Such studies cannot be initiated unless basic relevant data are available. Our metropolitan areas and the various governments within them have few sound economic studies which can be used as a basis for estimating future needs. The Committee for Economic Development, in its policy statement on metropolitan areas, Guiding Metropolitan Growth, pointed out the necessity of understanding the economic base of the area. In view of this need for basic information common to all cost-benefit studies, local governments, perhaps through the metropolitan planning agency in the area, should collect the economic information necessary for more precise forecasts of future income, employment, and population levels on a uniform basis in the metropolitan area.

16. The Commission further recommends that the States and the Federal government develop standards of measurement of costs and benefits for areawide services that they support through grant and loan programs for the purpose of providing objective measures and ground rules for areawide participation and local assignment of costs to separate jurisdictions.

Efforts to apply cost-benefit analysis to programs such as mass transit, open space, and other areawide services, often suffer from the lack of uniform standards and data. As a result, separate jurisdictions may not be able to agree because they operate from a different assumption and factual base. Federal programs, for example, in the fields of urban renewal, air pollution, and highways, necessarily allow for different sources of data. However, for the task of apportioning costs for specific projects to separate jurisdictions, more precise uniformity is desirable.

The work of the Department of the Interior and other departments and agencies of the Federal government concerned with water resources development is indicative of what can be done to provide reasonably uniform and objective measures of costs and benefits. Thus, the point of departure for most cost-benefit studies in water resources development is the so-called "green book," Proposed Practices for Economic

Analysis of River Basin Projects. This document outlines official procedures and criteria to be followed by governmental agencies in selecting projects. The "green book" and supplementary governmental documents, developed over a long period of years, have stimulated many current attempts to apply cost-benefit analysis to other public expenditure decisions. The documents indicate acceptable definitions of both costs' and benefits' procedures for agreement on price levels and employment, appropriate interest rates to be used in analysis, and the value to be assigned such benefits as flood control and irrigation.

In developing cost-benefit standards and methodology, much reliance of necessity must be placed on past experience with a service or the experience in other metropolitan areas. Just as private firms learn from the experience of others, so too can governmental units learn from others in estimating the need for services. Unlike private firms which must stand the test of profitability, services provided by governments often do not "sell" their services. For this reason, there is little incentive to carry out follow-up studies once a new or extended service has been introduced. From the point of view of other areas benefiting from this experience, however, such follow-up studies are eminently worthwhile. In light of the urgent need for this type of information, Federal and State agencies should carry on follow-up studies in cooperation with the local jurisdictions involved.

To illustrate, the benefits of mass transit or new freeway systems are difficult indeed to measure. Benefits, except as expressed in user charges, are hard to measure. The question relevant for benefit analysis is, where would these extra benefits arise? In almost every case, most benefits accrue to owners of real property: land and buildings. These gains are reflected in higher land and rental values. By studying the experience in other communities, analysts of proposed projects can begin to grasp the range of benefits. This is also true of costs.

Federal and State guides assigning values for various benefits are especially needed as administrative aids to local governments for such programs as open space and mass transportation grants of the Housing and Home Finance Agency, public hospital and medical facilities construction grants, and waste treatment grants of the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, and airport aids of the Federal Aviation Agency.

Concluding Observations

The picture revealed in this report is disquieting. Population disparities between central cities and suburbs and among suburban jurisdictions themselves are significant. Governmental structure in our metropolitan areas is growing more complex. The resultant need for services and the ability to provide those services are drifting apart. Methods for determining equitable allocation of costs for area-wide governmental services cutting across jurisdictional lines are still relatively undeveloped.

Unfortunately, the availability of data and the resources available are such that a still picture rather than a motion picture account of our metropolitan areas has been revealed. One wishes it were possible to look ahead and to have answers to the tantalizing questions raised by the research undertaken in this report. What are the specific trends with respect to social, economic, and racial disparities in our metropolitan areas? How rapid are the trends? How permanent? What is the real fiscal capacity and effort of our central cities and suburban jurisdictions? What are the trends in fiscal effort?

The late, eminent student of American intergovernmental relations, Morton Grodzins, in 1958, could write:

> Almost nothing is being done today to meet what is likely to be the Nation's most pressing social problem tomorrow. The problem can be simply stated in all its bleakness: many central cities of the great metropolitan areas of the United States are fast becoming lower class, largely Negro slums.

While our study has revealed that the economic and social (including racial) pattern of our population in metropolitan areas varies by region, most observers would agree that the problems of "disparities" have become more baffling since 1958 and that little has been done in the way of concerted efforts to meet the problem.

Remedies proposed in this report are as wide ranging as the subject itself: gaining a better knowledge of just what disparities exist, providing lower cost housing throughout the metropolitan areas, creating more jobs and strengthening the local tax base for cities that have undergone fiscal decline and increased dilapidation, adjustment of governmental jurisdictions, providing more equitable bearing of costs, and equalizing local government finances through positive action by Federal and State governments.

These recommendations deal not so much with root causes of social and economic problems within our metropolitan areas but with intergovernmental machinery to assist in their resolution. More fundamental solutions to the social and economic problems require action by the general governments themselves--the cities, the counties, the States, and the National Government. Can governments and citizens turn their backs ón the problems of their neighbors? Can they pursue a policy of economic and social autarchy or self-sufficiency? If they do, they are likely to pay more for their governmental services, deprive residents of scarce resources and opportunities and, in the long run, reap a harvest of tensions on the one hand and stagnation and the spreading of slums on the other. In twentieth century America--urban America--good fences do not make good neighbors.

For the problems of disparities, solutions are easily stated but difficult to achieve. We must revitalize depressed parts of the urban community, establish a freer market so that all should be allowed to choose more freely where they want to live and work. Governments involved should have sufficient authority and geographic areas of jurisdiction to meet the legitimate demands for services, and such services should be equitably financed.

The facts revealing the dimension and nature of the situation are becoming clearer and the resources increasingly available. Our Federal system of government under the Constitution provides a sound framework for meeting the social and economic problems of our metropolitan areas. The need is for continuing imagination, ingenuity, sensitivity to our neighbors' needs, and leadership at all levels of government.

APPENDIX A

Analysis of 1960 Census Data

Method

In order to obtain a portrait of the inhabitants of central cities on the one hand, and those of their surrounding suburban areas on the other, a list of salient demographic characteristics was selected for analysis: 1/

Race (total and nonwhite)
Age (6 groups)
Movers
Migrants
Families with children under 18 (2 groups)
Unrelated individuals
Education (3 groups)
Occupation (7 groups)
Married women in the labor force (2 groups)
Family income (4 groups)
Unemployment
Housing condition (owner and renter occupied)
Value of owner occupied housing (5 groups)
Gross rent of renter occupied housing (4 groups)
Commuters

Taken together for an individual, these characteristics largely determine how he lives: with whom, in what kind of housing and neighborhood, doing what kind of work, the level of goods and services he can command, the social and economic position he may anticipate for his future. When these individual sketches are added up for central cities and suburbs, they present a composite of the population for which they are summed, a composite which provides insights into the public needs of the community and the kinds and amounts of governmental services required.

1/ A full description of these characteristics appears in Appendix B.

Mere summation of the number of people conforming to a given characteristic, however, is by itself inadequate. We are concerned primarily with the relative importance of various population subgroups, such as children under 10 or families with income under $4,000, in central cities and suburbs, respectively. Consequently, the basic datum in the analysis consists of the proportion of the population found in each demographic category in each location. These data were derived from the 1960 censuses of population and housing for 190 of the Nation's 212 standard metropolitan statistical areas. 2/

While these proportions are significant, per se, as they relate either to central cities or to suburban areas, the primary focus of this study rests upon the characteristic differences between these two areas of metropolitan residence. The object is to find out whether the difference between central cities and suburbs in the proportion of the population accounted for by school age children or families with income below $4,000 per year, for example, is great enough to warrant the conclusion that the two types of communities represent fundamentally distinct socioeconomic population groups. Accordingly, the unit of measurement used in the analysis is the difference between central city and associated suburban area proportions of the population conforming to each of 41 characteristics. In all cases, the suburban proportion was subtracted from the central city percentage to obtain an algebraic difference.

If any generalizations are to be drawn concerning the relationships between central cities and suburbs, however, the 7790 individual observations (190 differences for 41 population characteristics) must be combined into groups which reflect the significance of differences in each characteristic for central city-suburban disparities in general. A simple average (arithmetic mean) for each of these differences is entirely inadequate because the variations around that average are, in most cases, extremely large. Nor do the averages, by themselves, even if they are obtained for subgroups such as SMSA's

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2/ Tabulation of these proportions for 41 population characteristics in 190 SMSA's appears in Appendix B.

by region or population size, offer sufficient insight into the nature of the disparities. The objective is to know why and how these disparities arise.

There are several methods for approaching the important "why" and "how" of these matters. The one selected for this study involves correlating the 190 central city-suburban differences for each population characteristic with six basic "structural" characteristics for the metropolitan areas themselves: 3/

Geographic region (4)
Population size of the SMSA
Percent of the SMSA population residing within the central city (population concentration)
Percent of SMSA population change, 1950-1960
Percent of nonwhites in the SMSA
Percent of SMSA employment in 3 categories: manufacturing, trade, finance and services

The correlation process enables us to ascertain how much of the very large variation around the average disparity for each population characteristic is explained by basic structural differences among the SMSA's themselves. Further, the analysis tells the relative importance of each of these structural or "predictor" characteristics taken by itself in the total explanation of disparities. With this information, it is then possible to classify disparities according to basic relevant metropolitan area characteristics and ultimately develop policy recommendations appropriate to each general type of metropolitan area.

The analysis considers the matter of race both as a demographic characteristic to be explained (dependent variable) and as an explanatory characteristic of the SMSA. The overwelming importance of race in the life and problems of our metropolitan areas, startlingly apparent since World War II, has induced us to consider it in a third way. The stereotype of our larger metropolitan areas depicts the central city as the home of the poor, undereducated Negroes, while the suburbs are the domain of prosperous and contented whites. Observation

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3/ For a full discussion of these variables, see Appendix B.

in many places, however, has called into question the validity of such a picture. Moreover, as more Negroes acquire education, skills, and higher incomes, as family life stabilizes among second, third, and fourth generation urban Negroes, and as the drive for civil rights achieves an increasing measure of success, it may be safe to predict that in the future middle class status for the Negro will be typified by residence in the suburbs as it is for the white today. There is reason to believe that such a trend is already underway. Therefore, the correlation analysis was repeated separately for the nonwhite population in 177 metropolitan areas, for which the data are reported separately. 4/

For the analysis of the nonwhites, an additional predictor variable was introduced: percent of SMSA nonwhites who live in the central city. This variable is meant to test the proposition that differences in social and economic characteristics between central city and suburban nonwhites are, to some extent, a function of the extent to which they are "ghettoized" in the central city. When results of the analysis for the total and nonwhite populations are compared, the pattern of disparities for whites can be deduced. In many instances, the total population can be considered tantamount to the white population, because of the relatively small number of nonwhites in most SMSA's and because nonwhite proportions of the population conforming to a characteristic are not substantially greater in magnitude than the total. Where the proportion of nonwhites in a particular category is far higher than the total, however, the proportion of whites in this category is correspondingly reduced by an amount dependent upon the total proportion of nonwhites in the city or suburban area.

Analysis of Population Characteristics

In the remainder of this Appendix, the results of the statistical analysis for both the total and nonwhite populations are summarized successively for each major population characteristic. Each section includes a summary table showing the average central city and suburban proportions of the population having the characteristic under discussion for the

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4/ Tabulation of the central city-suburban data for 36 population characteristics of nonwhites also appears in Appendix B.

four regions and all metropolitan areas combined. Under each table is a list of the predictor variables (structural characteristics of SMSA's), which are statistically significant in explaining disparities for that characteristic in the order of their importance. The final section of the Appendix integrates the findings for the individual population characteristics, in order to delineate the pattern of disparities for different types of metropolitan areas.

Two dimensions of socioeconomic disparity are considered in this discussion: amount and direction. The amount or size of disparities refers to the comparative importance of a particular population characteristic in the central city and suburban ring; it does not refer to the concentration within the city of persons in the entire SMSA conforming to that characteristic or their dispersion in the suburbs. The focus of attention is on the two major locational segments of the metropolitan area to see if they differ in their respective components and is not concerned with the distribution of the SMSA population between them.

Direction of disparities refers to the location, central city or suburban, whose population has the larger proportions of the characteristic being measured. If the suburbs have a higher proportion of children under 10, for example, than the central city does, it is said that the direction of disparity favors the suburbs. It quite frequently occurs that two metropolitan areas may experience disparities for a particular characteristic which are identical in amount but move in opposite directions, with quite different implications for public policy.

1. Percent Nonwhite

In order to place in perspective the comparative white and nonwhite population characteristics of central cities and suburbs, the racial makeup of the two metropolitan locations must be examined first as it exists and then as it has changed. The impressive rate at which nonwhites have become urbanized since 1940 and the massive shifts in their regional location

have been well documented elsewhere. 5/ Their respective central city and suburban constituency now requires closer examination.

Table 1. Percent of Nonwhites

	1960		1950		1940	
	Central City	Suburb	Central City	Suburb	Central City	Suburb
United States	15	7	12	7	11	8
Northeast	9	2	5	1	3	1
North Central	10	2	7	2	5	2
South	25	15	25	17	26	21
West	10	6	5	3	4	4

Significant Predictors a/

Population Concentration
Percent Nonwhite in SMSA
Size of SMSA
North Central Region

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a/ A significant predictor is a characteristic of the Standard Metropolitan Statistical Area which correlates significantly with the population or housing characteristic, which is the subject of the table. It refers only to the columns of statistics under which it is typed in descending degree of correlation.

5/ Paul F. Coe, "Nonwhite Population Increases in Metropolitan Areas," Journal of the American Statistical Association, June 1955, pages 283-308, and "The Nonwhite Population Surge to Our Cities," Land Economics, August 1959, pp. 197-210. Marion Hayes, "A Century of Change: Negroes in the United States Economy, 1860-1960," Monthly Labor Review, December 1962, and Leo F. Schnore, "The Changing Color Composition of Metropolitan Areas," Land Economics, May 1962, pp. 169-185.

The 1960 proportion of nonwhites in central cities is twice as large, on the average, as it is in the suburbs of all metropolitan areas combined, but there are substantial variations from this average among individual SMSA's. The largest SMSA's, with the least concentrated (most dispersed) populations and the highest overall proportions of nonwhites, display the greatest central city-suburban disparities in nonwhite population, especially if they are located in the North Central region. The central city proportion of nonwhites is 25 times as large as the suburban nonwhite percentage in the metropolitan area of Indianapolis, for example. Racial disparities tend to be smaller, on the other hand, or even reversed in favor of the suburbs, in small SMSA's whose population is concentrated in the central city, and which contain a small overall percentage of nonwhites. There is a close relationship between this predictor and disparities for a number of the other socioeconomic characteristics.

In many metropolitan areas in the South and West, the suburban proportion of nonwhite is substantially higher than the central city proportion. In the South, this is explained largely by historical patterns of Negro settlement, while in the West the inclusion of Indians and Orientals in the category "nonwhite," under Census Bureau definitions, affects this finding.

In many of the Western SMSA's, such as Tucson, where nonwhites constitute a much larger proportion in the suburbs than in the central cities, these nonwhites are primarily Indians on reservations. In others, such as San Jose, California, where disparities are small, Orientals account for most of the nonwhite population. Where the nonwhite population is largely Negro, as in Bakersfield, California, the pattern of disparities is little different from the rest of the country; the central cities have three times as many Negroes in relation to their total populations as do the suburbs. A tabulation of the proportion of Negroes, Indians, and Orientals in the nonwhite population of the 26 Western SMSA's appears at the end of Appendix B.

The differences in the racial makeup of the nonwhite population in the West carry important implications for public policy. The Indian is typically of a lower socioeconomic status than the Negro, while the Oriental is frequently more educated and affluent. Moreover, the Negro is not always at

the bottom of the socioeconomic ladder in the West as he is elsewhere in the country; Indians and frequently Mexicans (who are included in the white population) are generally poorer, less well educated, and so on. In the West, therefore, suburban location of nonwhites may or may not imply an improved status over nonwhites in the central cities, depending on the individual SMSA and the kinds of nonwhites in question. Similarly in the South and other parts of the country, suburban residence for nonwhites frequently means rural or semirural poverty.

Several of the inferences drawn from the analysis of the 1960 data are supported by the record of changes in the nonwhite composition of metropolitan populations since 1940. For the 160 metropolitan areas, which are comparable over the 20 year period, the average proportion of nonwhites in the central cities has risen substantially, while the suburban proportion has declined. Disparities have thereby widened over the two decades from an average differential in 1940 of 3 points, or 37.5 percent, to 8 points, or about 114 percent difference in 1960. From 1940 to 1950, the central city nonwhite population rose almost 5 times faster than the white, and between 1950 and 1960, the average increase was over 10 times as large. Meanwhile in the suburbs, the white increase exceeded the nonwhite in 1940-1950 by only 12 percent, but by 36 percent between 1950 and 1960. Although the suburbs have been gaining three to four times their proportionate share of nonwhite population over the 20 year period, this growth has been far overshadowed by massive racial shifts in the central city populations, resulting in greatly enlarged disparities.

Table 2. Percent Change in Population 1950-1960

	CENTRAL CITIES				SUBURBS			
	1940-1950		1950-1960		1940-1950		1950-1960	
	White	Non-white	White	Non-white	White	Non-white	White	Non-white
U. S.	10	48	5	51	36	32	49	36
Northeast			-8	52			34	50
N.Central			-3	62			57	40
South			26	37			53	19
West			27	73			66	72

Source: HHFA, Our Nonwhite Population and Its Housing, Washington, July 1963, Table 6, pp. 24-26 for 1950-1960 data. 1940-1950 data appear in Paul F. Coe, "Nonwhite Population Increases in Metropolitan Areas," Journal of American Statistical Association, June 1955, p. 288.

As Tables 1 and 2 above clearly show, the changes being discussed varied considerably among regions. The average suburban proportion of nonwhites in the North Central region remained virtually unchanged during the 20 year period, while the average central city proportion doubled, so that disparities almost tripled. In the Northeast, even though the suburban proportion of nonwhites doubled, the central city proportions tripled, resulting in more than a threefold increase in disparities. Relative to the level of the nonwhite population, however, the increase in disparities in the North Central region was greater than occurred in the Northeast; the change in the North Central central city-suburban ratio from 5:2 to 10:2 is greater than the Northeast change from a ratio of 3:1 to 9:2. The importance of the North Central region in explaining disparities in the proportion of nonwhites, established by the analysis, has been achieved over the last 10 years; in the preceding decade the average disparity was relatively higher in the Northeast.

The 25 percent decline in the suburban proportion of nonwhites in the South clearly indicates a major source for the vast nonwhite population increases of the North and West. But even in the South, disparities doubled because the average

central city proportion of nonwhites in this region barely changed. Individual SMSA's in the South show some of the most drastic changes that occurred during this period. In Charleston, South Carolina, for example, the suburban proportion of nonwhites dropped from 56 percent in 1940 to 30 percent in 1960, while the central city proportions rose from 45 percent to 51 percent, resulting in a shift of disparities over the period from a differential of 11 percentage points in favor of the suburbs to 21 percentage points in favor of the central city. Even in SMSA's like Memphis, where both the suburban and city proportions declined, the former did so at so much faster a rate that disparities shifted direction from -10 percentage points (suburban excess) to a 4 point excess in the city.

Disparities rose by the greatest amount in the West, where in 1940 nonwhites constituted about the same average proportions of the population in both cities and suburbs. But by 1960 the average central city proportion had risen two and one-half times, while the suburban had increased only 50 percent, so that average disparities quadrupled. Relative to the size of the nonwhite population, however, no change in disparities occurred between 1950 and 1960 (the ratio of 10:6 equals 5:3), so that all of the net change in the 20 year period took place between 1940 and 1950. This contrasts with the other regions of the country where disparities rose in relative as well as absolute terms with each succeeding decade.

These trends also substantiate the importance of the other significant predictors that emerged from the analysis. As the numbers of nonwhites rose dramatically in SMSA's all over the country between 1940 and 1960, central city-suburban differences increased in almost every case. And disparities increased by the greatest amounts in the largest SMSA's with the greatest relative numbers of nonwhites: in New York and Philadelphia disparities tripled; in Chicago and Detroit they more than quadrupled; in Washington and Baltimore disparities more than tripled; in Los Angeles they almost tripled while in San Francisco disparities increased over 10 times.

Corresponding shifts, in the opposite direction, occurred for the white population in metropolitan areas during this period. Relative to their total number, however, the changes in their locational proportions were not generally so dramatic, except for the absolute decline in whites in some of the largest central cities in the North and the large increases in several

SMSA's in the South. Having established the existence of large and growing racial disparities between central cities and suburban rings generally throughout the country, attention is now turned to the question of whether these disparities are created by selected subgroups within either the white or nonwhite populations. Is the proportion of whites of all ages and status levels declining uniformly within the central cities? Do the nonwhites who live in the suburbs represent the same social and economic status as their counterparts in the cities?

2. Age

The population characteristics of most fundamental significance is age. "Almost any aspect of human behavior, from states of subjective feeling and attitudes to objective characteristics such as income, home ownership, occupation or group membership, may be expected to vary with age." 6/ The age distribution within any community not only determines many of its current public service needs, but provides the most reliable base for estimates of future requirements.

Disparities in the total population by age group are greatest, but still quite small, at the extremes of the age distribution. Children under 10 are consistently found in higher proportions in the suburbs, while persons over 45 are more important in the central cities. Persons aged 30-44 constitute a slightly higher proportion in the suburbs, but the differences are not as great as for the youngest and oldest age groups. For young people between 10 and 30, central city-suburban disparities are virtually insignificant, on the average, but while this holds true quite consistently for the 10-19 age group, for ages 20-29 the variation from one SMSA to another is extremely large. Indeed for all age groups, except 20-29, the pattern of disparities is among the most consistent of any of the socioeconomic characteristics in the study.

For ages 10-19 and 20-29, none of the predictor variables offers a significant explanation of disparities, in the former case because there is very little disparity to explain, and in the latter because the variation is so large that no pattern

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6/ Donald J. Bogue, The Population of the United States, The Free Press, Glencoe, 1959, p. 92.

Table 3. Percent of Persons by Age Group

TOTAL POPULATION

	Under 10		10-19		20-29		30-44		45-59		60 and Over	
	Cent. City	Suburb	Cent. City	Suburb	Cent. City	Suburb	Cent. City	Suburb	Cent. City	Suburb	Cent. City	Suburb
U. S.	21	24	16	17	13	13	20	21	16	14	14	10
NE	18	21	15	16	12	10	20	22	18	17	17	13
N. Cent.	21	25	16	17	13	13	19	21	16	14	14	10
South	22	24	16	18	14	14	20	21	16	14	12	9
West	21	25	16	18	13	14	20	21	16	13	14	9

Significant Predictors

South
Population concentration

Population concentration
Rate of growth

Northeast
Size

Population concentration
South

NONWHITE

	Under 10		10-19		20-29		30-44		45-59		60 and Over	
	Cent. City	Suburb	Cent. City	Suburb	Cent. City	Suburb	Cent. City	Suburb	Cent. City	Suburb	Cent. City	Suburb
U. S.	27	26	16	18	14	14	20	19	13	13	9	9
NE	28	23	16	17	15	14	21	22	13	15	8	10
N. Cent	28	25	16	17	14	15	20	20	13	14	8	9
South	26	28	17	20	13	13	19	17	15	13	10	9
West	27	28	16	17	15	17	19	20	13	11	8	7

Significant Predictors

Northeast
N. Central

% of nonwhite

Northeast
% employed in management

Northeast
% of SMSA of nonwhite in central city

emerges. For the remaining age groups, population concentration is the most important factor in explaining disparities, but the relationship is inverse. That is, disparities for children under 10, persons aged 30-44 and elderly people over 60 are greatest where the population is most dispersed. "Middle married" aged 30-44 and "their children" under 10, the two largest age groups, constitute the bulk of the dispersing population, while the elderly tend to be "left behind" in the city.

Persons aged 30-44 are also relatively more important in the suburbs of the slower growing SMSA's, which probably explains the somewhat higher disparity in the Northeast for persons in this age group, although location in the Northeast is not by itself a significant factor.

For persons aged 45-59, disparities in favor of the central city tend to be larger in the larger SMSA's, but for this one age group population concentration is not significant. It would appear that persons aged 45-59, who are likely to be at the peak of their careers and earning power and whose children are likely to be grown, choose to locate in the central city of the larger SMSA's.

Region, where it affects age distribution, tends to exert an inverse influence on disparities. Thus disparities for ages 45-59 tend to be smaller in the Northeast than elsewhere. In the South, on the other hand, disparities tend to be least for children under 10 and persons aged 60 and over. For persons aged 30-44, there is no difference among regions.

The age pattern for nonwhites is in most respects similar to the total, but there are important differences as well, particularly in the predictors that explain disparities. There is a higher overall proportion of nonwhites under 10 and a substantially lower overall proportion of nonwhites over age 45. Like the total population, nonwhites display relatively insignificant disparities for ages 10-45 and the greatest central city-suburban differences in the youngest age group, although these large disparities occur in opposite directions for the two races in the Northeast and North Central. The nonwhite pattern is quite different from that of the total population for persons over 45, because average disparities for nonwhites of these ages are not greater than they are for any other age group.

Region is the most important predictor for nonwhite disparities by age. For children under 10, it is the only significant factor; in the Northeast and North Central regions, disparities which favor the central cities are substantially higher than in the South and West, where the suburban proportion is somewhat higher. The Northeast is significantly different from the rest of the country for the two oldest age groups as well. In this region, disparities are significantly higher in favor of the suburbs. Average disparities for nonwhites over 45 also favor the suburbs in the North Central region, but here the importance of region by itself is overshadowed by other factors.

As for the total population, none of the predictors explains variation in nonwhite disparities for ages 10-29. For nonwhites in these age groups, the variation is so great from one SMSA to another that no pattern of relationships with the 11 predictor variables exists.

In the age group of 30-44 years, the average suburban proportion tends to be higher than the central city for the nonwhites, as for the total, except in the South. But the significant predictor for this age group is percent of nonwhites in the SMSA, rather than region, indicating that in SMSA's outside the South, which have large numbers of nonwhites, the proportion of nonwhites aged 30-44 is likely to be higher in the central cities.

In addition to region, rate of employment in manufacturing exerts a strong influence on disparities for ages 45-59, but its effect is likely to lessen disparities in SMSA's with a high proportion of total employment engaged in manufacturing. This relationship implies that insofar as manufacturing plants may be dispersed in the suburbs of heavily industrial metropolitan areas, nonwhites in this age group are also likely to be more dispersed in their residence.

For elderly nonwhites the degree of concentration of nonwhites generally in the central city is an important element in disparity. Where the nonwhite population is concentrated in the central cities, the growth of that population by both natural increase and immigration takes place in the young age groups, which come to dominate the central city population, while the age patterns of the small number of suburban nonwhites remains fairly stable.

The pattern of disparities in age does not differ substantially for the total and nonwhite populations. However, the totally different set of significant predictor variables influencing them indicates that the metropolitan location of the nonwhite population is conditioned by an entirely different complex of forces than is the majority white population. It is known that discrimination in housing and employment places constraints upon location of nonwhite populations. But this is an entirely inadequate explanation of central city-suburban differences within the nonwhite population itself.

Additional insights into the pattern of disparities can be obtained from the statistical relationships among the age groups themselves and between age and the other population characteristics being measured. Children under 10 in the total population tend strongly to be more common, as one would expect, in areas with "families with children under 18" and persons aged 30-44, and less common in areas with high proportions of unrelated individuals and persons of 45 and over. Disparities for children aged 10-19, however, do not show statistically significant relationships with any other population characteristics. These war babies seem to be distributed with considerable uniformity and the analysis does not offer much of a clue as to how they may be expected to locate in the future. This age group constitutes the base for new family formation during the 1960-1970 decade, however. If they tend to remain in the same metropolitan location, either city or suburb, then families with children and young children may constitute more nearly equal proportions in the two metropolitan segments in 1970 than they did in 1960. If they move to the suburbs by 1970, disparities for families with children and persons under 10 will become greatly enlarged.

The location of persons aged 20-29 in 1960 offers some suggestions for prognosis. For this age group, as for the 10-19 year olds, disparities are small and none of the predictor variables explains them. But when the age 20-29 group is correlated with other socioeconomic characteristics, there appears a strong direct locational association with unrelated individuals, married women in the labor force who have children under 6, and migrants, and a strong tendency for them to locate in areas with relatively few persons 45-60 (their parents). It can be inferred that single persons aged 20-29 are likely to be found in the cities, while those who are married tend to be in the suburbs, especially if they have migrated from another State.

In similar fashion the location of persons aged 30-44 tends strongly to be in areas with relatively few persons aged 60 or over (their parents). While the average central city-suburban disparities for persons aged 30-44 is not very large, the location of this age group is closely associated statistically with many of the socioeconomic characteristics that indicate suburban felicity: young children, income of $8,000-$14,999, professional, technical, managerial and clerical and sales occupations, and owner occupied housing valued at $15,000-$20,000. Conversely, this age group tends to be divorced locationally from: nonwhites, elderly persons, low income persons, persons with less than 4 years of high school, laborers, unsound housing and low housing values and rentals. This group is the only age group that shows a significant relationship to disparities in the proportion of nonwhite, and the only group, in addition to age 60 and over, whose location is so strongly tied to indicators of economic welfare. It might therefore be inferred that it constitutes the "middle class" that has accentuated the disparate socioeconomic development of central cities and suburbs.

Persons aged 60 and over are likely to be located similarly to the less fortunate: persons with less than 4 years of high school, low income, housing values, and rentals. The elderly are, by the same token, located in areas with relatively few children, children under 10, persons aged 30-44 (and all that group represents) and upper middle incomes, housing values, and rentals.

The location of persons aged 45-59 is directly associated only with persons of 60 and over, but there is a strong tendency for this upper middle age group to locate away from families with children, persons aged 20-29, and migrants.

The relationships between age and other population characteristics are neither as strong nor as revealing for the nonwhites as for the total population. Children under 10 tend to be located where movers constitute a large proportion of the population and away from unrelated individuals, persons aged 30-44, and persons aged 45-59. Children of 10-19, on the other hand, are locationally associated with persons aged 30-44, but with no other characteristic.

The location of nonwhites aged 20-29 is associated with other characteristics in similar fashion as the total population

in this age group; directly with unrelated individuals and migrants, but away from persons over age 45.

The revealing relationship found between persons aged 30-44 in the total population and characteristics of social and economic well-being is only hinted at for the nonwhites. There is a moderate tendency for this age group to locate away from unsound owner occupied housing. Pallid as this relationship may be, it is nevertheless the only instance for the nonwhites in which age is related to any measure of economic welfare. The implications of this relationship are supported by the lack of association between persons in this age group and either movers or migrants. It is, therefore, possible to suggest that nonwhites aged 30-44 are likely to be the most stable and securely housed group in the nonwhite population.

The relationship between nonwhites over 45 and other age groups has already been discussed. In addition, the two oldest age groups tend to be located with one another and away from migrants, as one would expect.

Central city-suburban disparities in age may now be summarized as follows: There is very little difference, on the average, between the two metropolitan locations in the composition of their populations between ages 10 and 44. The greatest disparities occur in the youngest age group, but these disparities occur in opposite directions for whites and nonwhites. As a result, the number of nonwhite children under 10 in the central city tends to be disproportionately large, relative to the importance of the total nonwhite population there, and the proportion of young white children correspondingly lower. In the suburbs the white children constitute the disproportionately large age group, while the nonwhite children are located there in the expected proportion relative to the total number of nonwhites. The first effect is more likely to occur in metropolitan areas in the Northeast and North Central regions, while the latter situation is expected to prevail in SMSA's with a dispersed population and a large proportion of nonwhites. These results indicate that by and large the demand for education and related public services to children is equally strong in both metropolitan locations.

Disparities for whites over age 45 are substantially higher than for nonwhites in these age groups. Moreover, whites in these older age groups are consistently more common

in the central city, while nonwhites in the same groups are frequently more common in the suburbs. As a result, the public service needs of the elderly in central cities relate primarily to the white population, especially in SMSA's outside the South with dispersed populations. Disparities for the nonwhite elderly and those approaching that status are small, but tend to favor the suburbs, especially in the Northeast, so that services for this age group in the suburbs will frequently cater to a racially mixed population.

Additional insights into the future pattern of age disparities can be obtained by comparison of disparities in 1960 with those prevailing in 1950. The average central city and suburban proportions for 24 of the largest SMSA's, analyzed by Bogue for 1950, appear below. 7/ Because he used different age brackets from those used in this study, some combinations were necessary for comparison purposes.

Table 4. Percent of All Persons by Age Groups

	1950		1960	
	Central City	Suburb	Central City	Suburb
Under 19	28	34	34	41
20-29	17	16	13	12
30-44	24	24	20	23
45 and Over	31	26	33	25

The proportion of children under 19 rose greatly in both cities and suburbs during the decade, but by a somewhat larger amount in the suburbs, so that disparities, already large in 1950, increased moderately. Moreover, a great deal of the central city increase in children was accounted for by nonwhites, whose numbers increased much faster than the white, while the suburban increase was largely white.

Disparities for age 20-29 did not change between 1950-1960, although their overall proportions declined, reflecting the low birth rate of the depression years. This is the only age group whose central city-suburban pattern has remained stable during a period of otherwise drastic change.

7/ Ibid., p. 118. Data for each of the 24 SMSA's appear in Appendix B.

The biggest change in disparities during the 1950-1960 decade occurred for persons aged 30-44. In 1950 there was virtually no difference between the central city and suburban proportions in this age group, but by 1960 the suburban proportion was considerably larger, at least in the 24 largest SMSA's. This change occurred largely because of a drop in the central city proportions of persons in this age group rather than because of a suburban increase.

Very substantial increases in disparities occurred between 1950 and 1960 for persons over 45. As their total numbers rose, the proportions in the central cities enlarged greatly, while the suburban proportions in this age group either declined or increased only slightly. If the currently larger proportion of suburban 30-44 year olds remain where they are, disparities will be reduced again in the 1960-1970 decade, and the suburban age distribution will become more balanced. On the other hand, if they return to the cities, whose facilities may be more attractive to older people, disparities for the elderly, which are already large in favor of the central cities, will become greatly enlarged.

Depending upon how people now in the key age groups shift their residential locations, both cities and suburbs may come to reflect similarly "balanced" age distributions in the future, or the cities may come to be peopled largely by young nonwhites and elderly whites, while the suburbs will be composed primarily of young whites with some older nonwhites. Therefore the mobility pattern of metropolitan populations is examined next, although the mobility data were not available by age group for present central city and suburban residence.

3. Mobility

The mobility pattern of metropolitan populations can be analyzed in terms of three major groups: movers, who shift their residential location from one part of the metropolitan area to the other (city to suburbs and vice versa); migrants, who enter the metropolitan area from another State; and migrants, into the metropolitan area from elsewhere in the same State. The significance of the first group for changing patterns of age distribution between central cities and suburbs has already been discussed. The relative numbers of newcomers and longtime residents in either the cities or the suburbs are, in addition, important indicators for change in the general social and economic fabric in these communities.

The analysis was conducted for the first two mobility groups because they are the strongest indicators of the relative drawing power of the cities or suburbs for persons radically changing their living and working place (migrants from outside the State) and for persons seeking to improve their residential location while maintaining their employment and broader social ties (movers within the metropolitan area). 8/

Metropolitan populations are highly mobile, but the pattern has generally been considered to differ according to ultimate location of residence. City dwellers are notorious movers from one dwelling within the city to another, often within the same apartment building; before World War II, if not since then, October 1 was "moving day" in New York. Movers in the suburbs, on the other hand, are usually considered to be newcomers from the central city. In view of the enormous growth of suburban areas since 1950, and the consequent changes in central city populations, one might expect the proportion of movers to be higher in the suburbs than in the cities. But the data reveal that, on the average, the rate at which people move around within the city still exceeds the combined rate of moving within and entry into the suburbs by a moderate amount, and exceeds by a substantial differential the rate of shift from city to suburb alone.

The table below shows the average proportions of persons 5 years old and over who moved within the SMSA between 1955 and 1960, according to their 1960 residence. The figures in parentheses show the proportion of those movers who came from the opposite metropolitan location in the 101 SMSA's, for which such information is available. For example, 33 percent of central city residents in the Northeast moved within the metropolitan area between 1955 and 1960, and 12 percent of these movers, or 4 percent of the population (12 percent of 33 percent), came from the suburbs of the same area. In the suburbs of the Northeast, on the other hand, 29 percent of the population moved within the SMSA during the period, of whom 27 percent, or 8 percent of the population (27 percent of 29 percent), came from the central city.

8/ The assumption is made that moving, whether within or from outside the metropolitan area, represents an expected improvement in the mover's circumstances. This may not always be the case.

Table 5. Percent of Movers Within SMSA

	TOTAL POPULATION				NONWHITE			
	Central City		Suburb		Central City		Suburb	
United States	34	(12)	32	(34)	40	(5)	29	(36)
Northeast	33	(12)	29	(27)	43	(5)	26	(26)
North Central	34	(10)	33	(40)	42	(3)	30	(49)
South	34	(10)	32	(35)	40	(5)	30	(32)
West	32	(19)	32	(35)	35	(11)	29	(38)

Significant Predictors

Northeast	West
SMSA Size	Percent Nonwhite in SMSA

On the average, approximately one-third of the total population in both metropolitan locations moved during this period, but a surprising 10-20 percent of the central city movers came from the suburbs of the same SMSA, while only about one-third of the suburban movers had shifted from the central city. Part of the suburb-to-city movement may be a return of former city dwellers, but the great bulk of it is undoubtedly initial movement to the city of persons from formerly rural and semirural areas within the metropolitan ring. Some of this percentage is also accounted for by annexation during the 5 year period.

As suburban areas become more populous, it can be expected that the rate of suburbanization will decline in the future. Unfortunately comparative data are not available for the 1950-1955 period, but it is likely that the rate of movement from city to suburb within the same metropolitan area was higher during those earlier years. Mobility within suburban areas in the future will probably assume its traditional central city form, the quest for improvement in dwelling standards within the general locale of residence. The rate of internal suburban mobility may not attain the same proportions as the central city, however, because of the higher rate of home ownership in the former location which acts as a deterrent to frequent moving. On the other hand, the acceleration of apartment building in many suburban areas could tend to bring the city and suburban mobility patterns into closer conformity. Yet the

greatest disparities in internal mobility are found in the largest SMSA's and those in the Northeast, both of which are likely to have long established populous suburbs with a substantial number of apartment dwellings. On balance, the greater mobility of central city residents, in contrast to the more settled character of suburban life, seems firmly established.

The data for the nonwhites substantiate this conclusion. The growing proportions of nonwhites in virtually all central cities, discussed earlier, is a direct consequence of the moving and migration of both racial groups. As nonwhites become more numerous in the cities, their mobility pattern becomes more important. The rate at which nonwhites move around in central cities is substantially higher than the mobility rate for the total (white) population. Their rate of movement in the suburbs, on the other hand, is lower despite the fact that they move to the suburbs from the city at as great or greater rate than the whites. Disparities in internal mobility are, therefore, substantially greater for the nonwhite population than for the white; central city nonwhites are more mobile and suburban nonwhites are more settled.

Given the fact that change of dwelling is more common in the cities than in the suburbs, especially for nonwhites, one might expect internal mobility to be closely associated with measures of economic welfare and social status. These relationships are highly tenuous, however. The analysis reveals only a weak tendency for movers in the total population to be located in areas of high proportions of persons completing less than 4 years of high school, operatives, unsound rental housing, and low proportions of college graduates and professional and technical workers. For the nonwhites, the only significant association is found between movers and children under 10. Moving appears to be a pervasive characteristic or metropolitan populations, irrespective of age or social and economic status. Migration, on the other hand, is more selective.

Table 6. Percent of Migrants from Another State

	TOTAL POPULATION		NONWHITE	
	Central City	Suburb	Central City	Suburb
United States	9	11	10	12
Northeast	5	6	10	11
North Central	8	8	11	15
South	11	14	6	7
West	16	18	16	19

Significant Predictors

SMSA Growth
Percent Nonwhite in SMSA

For the total population, the average proportion of migrants is not very large in the suburbs compared to the central cities. For the nonwhites, however, the differential in favor of the suburbs is substantially greater. Because the suburban nonwhite population is, in most metropolitan areas, so small to begin with, one would expect a large proportion of them to be newcomers, but not necessarily newcomers from another State. The central cities are commonly considered to be the major destination for immigrating nonwhites. Conversely, because virtually all net metropolitan growth since 1950 has taken place in the suburbs, the proportion of total (white) migrants there would be expected to be higher than it is. Analysis shows, however, that white migrants tend to be almost as important in the central cities as they are in the suburbs, although variation about the mean disparity is very large, while nonwhite migrants tend to be much more important in the suburbs. Indeed nonwhite migrants constitute, on the average, twice the proportion in the suburbs of the North that white migrants do. Bogue concluded from the mobility data in the 1950 Census that, "The old theory that the metropolitan area grows largely by outward radial expansion from the center is no longer valid. At least one-half of the growth in 1940 to 1950 came from direct accretion at the edges, without benefit of mediation through the central city." He also observed that "a surprisingly large share...of all net nonwhite migration to metropolitan areas accrued to the suburban rings" and that "the central cities continued to

attract a large share of immigrating young whites although losing whites over 30 and their children to the suburbs." 9/ These trends continued through the 1950-1960 decade.

The moderate disparities for migrants in the total population are explained chiefly by rate of SMSA growth and percent of nonwhites in the SMSA. Thus newcomers from another State are more likely to settle in the suburbs of the rapidly growing metropolitan areas and those with a large number of nonwhites. No significant explanation emerges from the analysis for the considerably larger disparities for nonwhite migrants, however. They tend to constitute a more important segment of the suburban population irrespective of any structural metropolitan area characteristics. The disproportionately large increase in the suburban nonwhite population over the last 20 years, discussed in Section 1, is accounted for in the North and West primarily by in-migration rather than movement from the central city. Nevertheless, despite the greater importance of migrants in the nonwhite suburban population, their numbers have been insufficient to arrest the increase in disparities between cities and suburbs in their respective proportion of all nonwhites. It is interesting to note that although region is not a significant predictor for migrants, the regional averages show just what one might expect. Almost twice as many nonwhites as whites are migrants in the cities and suburbs of the two northern regions, while the reverse is true in the South, and the two races display virtually equal proportions of migrants in the West.

Migrants of both races tend strongly to be more important where the proportion of persons aged 20-29 constitute a larger proportion of the population, and in the total population they are also associated directly with rentals of $80-$120 per month. Migrants of both races also tend to locate away from persons aged 45-60, and nonwhite migrants are likely to be located opposite to nonwhites with less than 4 years of high school education. One may conclude from these relationships that migrants are likely to be young people, of middle economic status among the whites, and with at least a high school education among the nonwhites. It may then be further inferred that, in addition to enjoying the freedom of youth, persons who are educationally and economically better equipped to take advantage of opportunities away from home are most likely to do so. Bogue drew similar conclusions for the 1940-1950 period.

9/ Bogue, op. cit., pp. 406-407.

To summarize the mobility patterns of central cities and suburbs, the city populations are more mobile, and include a substantial proportion of in-migrants from other States, while the suburban populations are more settled once they have arrived, but include a larger proportion than the cities of in-migrants from other States.

Equivalent proportions of both whites and nonwhites are newcomers to the central cities (except in the South where the nonwhites are emigrating), in the neighborhood of 10 percent in the North and 20 percent in the West. In the suburbs outside the South, the proportion of nonwhite newcomers is substantially higher than the white. Furthermore, average disparities for the nonwhites are considerably larger in the North Central and Western regions than elsewhere. Nonwhites appear to be suburbanizing in the North Central region at a greater rate than elsewhere and at a rate which exceeds that for white suburbanization by a larger amount than elsewhere. A trend toward rapid nonwhite suburbanization, which Bogue noted in 1950, appears to have accelerated in the decade that followed, in all regions outside the South, and is especially marked in the North Central.

4. Family Composition

Since the family constitutes the basic social unit, central city-suburban differences in family composition result in different kinds of public service demands. Where families with young children dominate the social structure, educational and recreational services catering to children are most urgently required. Where single persons constitute an important segment of the community, transportation services and educational and recreational opportunities suitable to adults are more important. Housing demand, with its accessory laws, such as zoning and building codes, will also vary according to the dominant family pattern.

Table 7. Percent of All Families with Children Under 18

	TOTAL POPULATION		NONWHITE	
	Central City	Suburb	Central City	Suburb
United States	54	62	57	58
Northeast	51	59	61	55
North Central	54	62	59	57
South	55	63	53	57
West	57	66	60	67

Significant Predictors

Population Concentration
SMSA Size
Percent of Nonwhite in SMSA

The average proportion of families with children under 18 ranges from 10 to 20 percent higher in the suburbs than in the central cities. This disparity is quite consistent among all metropolitan areas for the total population. For the nonwhites, however, average disparities are neither so large nor so consistent. In the two northern regions, nonwhite families with children constitute a larger proportion in the central cities, while in the South and West such families constitute a larger element in the suburbs. Indeed, for the nonwhites, region provides the only significant explanation for variations in disparities, while for the total population regional location is irrelevant. Disparities for total, or white, families with children under 18 are largest in favor of the suburbs in the largest SMSA's with the greatest population dispersion and a high proportion of nonwhites. Disparities for nonwhites with children under 18, on the other hand, are largest and favor the central city in the Northeast, while elsewhere in the country they are smaller and even favor the suburbs in some cases.

For the total population, which we may interpret as white, the location of families with children under 18 is directly associated with children under 10 (but not with youth aged 10-19), persons aged 30-44, and income of $8,000-$15,000. These families tend to be located away from persons over 45 and

families with income of less than $4,000. While there are many young families with income below $4,000, these relationships imply that, insofar as metropolitan disparities are concerned, low income among whites reflects much more directly the problem of the elderly (demonstrated further by the analyses for age and income) than the problems of youth.

Table 8. Percent of Families with Children Under 18 Which are Broken Families

	TOTAL POPULATION		NONWHITE	
	Central City	Suburb	Central City	Suburb
United States	10	5	23	13
Northeast	9	4	25	13
North Central	8	4	21	12
South	12	5	24	15
West	10	6	20	11

Significant Predictors

Population Concentration
Percent Nonwhite in SMSA
South
SMSA Growth

In the total population, on the average, twice as many broken families with children live in the central city as live in the suburbs, and this relationship is quite consistent from one SMSA to another. Over one-third of the variation in disparities that does occur is explained by the four predictors listed above. Both percent nonwhite and location in the South share about equally in importance with population concentration. Thus wherever nonwhites are important in the population, and especially in the South, disparities for broken families will be large. This result is supported by the fact that there are from two to three times as many nonwhite broken families with children as there are in the total population. Although the proportion of broken white families, at least in the central cities, is somewhat lower than for the total population, disparities for broken white families tend to be greater than for the nonwhites.

For the total population, and therefore for the whites, there is a direct association between disparities in broken families and income. These families tend to locate similarly to household and service workers and families with less than $4,000 and away from families with income of $8,000-$15,000, in contrast to the reverse associations found for all families with children. Thus the qualification of an earlier conclusion refers to the fact that insofar as white families with children are located in the central cities they will tend to be broken families with low income, or conversely, low income white families with children tend to be broken families.

It can be concluded, then, that the problems attendant upon broken families are likely to be much more important in the central cities than in the suburbs, especially in the SMSA's with dispersed populations and large numbers of nonwhites. Further, these central city problems are likely to involve a disproportionate number of nonwhites although white broken families dominate numerically. The less prominent suburban broken family problems are also related to both whites and nonwhites, but to a disproportionate number of nonwhites relative to their share in the suburban population.

The relative importance in the central city of single persons not living with their families (unrelated individuals in Census parlance) is commensurate with that of broken families with children. There is consistently about twice as large a proportion of such persons in the cities as in the suburbs.

Table 9. Percent of Single Persons not Living with Their Families

	TOTAL POPULATION		NONWHITE	
	Central City	Suburb	Central City	Suburb
United States	10	5	11	11
Northeast	10	5	12	15
North Central	10	5	10	11
South	10	6	11	9
West	11	9	12	13

The percentage of nonwhite unrelated individuals in the central cities is only slightly higher than the proportion for the total population, but in the suburbs the average nonwhite

percentage runs from one and one-half to three times the proportion of unrelated individuals in the total, or white, population. Moreover, nonwhite unrelated individuals tend to be more important in the suburbs than in the central cities. Because of the very large variation in nonwhite disparities, however, no systematic pattern emerges from the analysis and none of the predictor variables contributes a significant explanation.

For the total population, disparities are explained chiefly by location in the North Central region and dispersion of the SMSA population. It appears from the table that average disparities in the North Central region are not different from the Northeast and South. After population dispersion has been accounted for in the statistical process, however, North Central SMSA's show greater disparities than metropolitan areas elsewhere. In SMSA's outside that region, disparities are greatest where the population is most dispersed. As expected, there is a significant correlation between disparities in unrelated individuals and persons aged 20-29. One may infer from this relationship that the location of military installations and universities may account for much of the variation left unexplained by the analysis.

For nonwhites, too, there is a direct association between location of unrelated individuals and persons aged 20-29. In addition, there is a significant correlation with migrants, which indicates that unrelated nonwhites in the suburbs are likely to be young migrants, and supports the observation made earlier that the large proportion of nonwhite migrants in the suburbs is not only young, but single. If these people continue to live in the suburbs after they marry and have children, disparities in the proportion of nonwhite families with children may be reduced in the North in the future and enlarged in the West.

5. Education

In mid-century America with its emphasis on occupational specialization, the economic welfare of an individual depends primarily upon the level of education he achieves. Education largely determines occupation and occupation, in turn, largely determines income. The predominant levels of these three factors within a community population together characterize the general economic strength or weaknesses of that community as a whole. Where educational, occupational, and income levels are

generally low substantial public health and welfare services are likely to be needed, but the financial resources required to provide them may be inadequate. Where education, occupation, and income levels are high, a generous source of public financing permits the provision of optimal educational, recreational, and "amenity" services. Where the two extremes are found in equivalent proportions, accompanied or not by a large "middle" group, there is greater likelihood of achieving a "balance" in service needs and financial resources for the population as a whole.

Table 10. Percent of Persons 25 Years and Older with Less than 4 Years of High School

	TOTAL POPULATION		NONWHITE	
	Central City	Suburb	Central City	Suburb
United States	57	56	74	73
Northeast	65	56	76	70
North Central	56	54	74	70
South	57	61	79	83
West	47	49	63	59

Significant Predictors

Northeast	Percent of SMSA Non-
SMSA Size	whites in Central Cities

Over 50 percent of the total population 25 years old and over has completed less than 4 years of high school, and there is, on the average, very little difference between central cities and suburbs in this regard. Although the variation in educational disparity from one SMSA to another is very large, the greatest disparities are found in the Northeast and in the largest SMSA's. For the majority of SMSA's, however, problems of "undereducation" are proportionally almost equally important in the suburbs and the central cities. The direction of disparities in the South and West is opposite to the two northern regions, undereducation predominating in the suburbs of the former, but the average magnitude is not significantly different among the three regions outside the Northeast.

Although a much larger proportion of nonwhite adults has less than 4 years of high school, 70 to 80 percent outside the West, the pattern of disparities closely parallels that for the total population. Region is not a significant predictor in this case, but almost 25 percent of the large variation in educational disparities for nonwhites is explained by the extent to which they are concentrated in the central cities. Where nonwhites are more dispersed, disparities in education tend to be smaller, or reversed. One may conclude that in the central cities a disproportionate number of undereducated adults are likely to be nonwhites, but there are large numbers of whites in this category as well. In the suburbs there are also a disproportionate number of undereducated nonwhites, but in the northern suburbs the total number is so small that suburban undereducation problems refer primarily to whites, while in the South and West, this category of persons is racially mixed.

As expected, disparities in education are highly correlated with disparities in income, occupation, and quality of housing. Persons with less than 4 years of high school have a strong tendency to live in the portion of the SMSA having the higher proportion of low income families, operatives, laborers, the unemployed, unsound housing, and low housing values and rentals; they are also associated, although less strongly, with persons of 60 years or more. Conversely, this same "under-educated" group is highly correlated with locations having relatively small proportions of persons aged 30-44, family income over $8,000, college graduates, professional, technical, managerial and clerical and sales occupations, and upper housing values and rentals. Persons with less than 4 years of high school are not associated, one way or the other statistically, with craftsmen, household and service workers, family income of $4,000-$8,000, housing valued at $10,000-$15,000, and rentals of $40-$80. Except for household and service workers, these are the primary middle class characteristics.

For nonwhites the only direct relationships of significance are between undereducation and unsound owner occupied housing and housing valued at less than $5,000. On the other hand, nonwhite persons with less than 4 years of high school tend significantly to live in the opposite metropolitan location to nonwhite college graduates, professional and technical, and clerical and sales workers, and migrants.

Table 11. Percent of Persons 25 Years and Older With 4 Years or More of College

	TOTAL POPULATION		NONWHITE	
	Central City	Suburb	Central City	Suburb
United States	9	8	4	5
Northeast	6	9	3	7
North Central	9	7	4	6
South	10	8	4	3
West	11	9	6	6

Significant Predictors

Northeast	Percent of SMSA Nonwhites in Central City
Rate of Employment in Manufacturing	Population Concentration
SMSA Size	

Central city-suburban disparities in the proportion of college graduates are relatively a great deal larger than they are for non-high school graduates. In comparing Tables 10 and 11, it is at first surprising to observe that for the total population, on the average, the central city proportion exceeds the suburban at the highest educational level as well as the lowest. For individual SMSA's, however, disparities in the two educational levels lie consistently in opposite directions. Only in the North Central region does the average disparity for college graduates occur in the same direction as that for non-high school graduates, and this is explained to a great extent by the extremely large proportion of college graduates in the university towns of Madison, Ann Arbor, and Champaign-Urbana. The widely accepted belief that undereducated persons predominate consistently in the central cities while college graduates are everywhere more important in the suburbs is not demonstrated by the data. These conditions prevail in the Northeast, in the largest SMSA's and those with a very high rate of manufacturing employment, but not elsewhere.

For the nonwhites, on the other hand, the conventional view of undereducated in the cities and highly educated in the suburbs is appropriate outside the South, where their respective

locations are reversed. Indeed the highly educated nonwhites exhibit an even stronger tendency than the same group of whites to separate themselves from the less privileged in the central city. Table 11 indicates that in the North Central region, the most highly disparate with respect to the central city-suburban dichotomy, the suburban proportion of nonwhite college graduates more closely approximates the white proportion than in any other region.

Although virtually the same predictors explain disparities for both the highest and lowest educational levels, their influence causes disparities to move in opposite directions. Thus, location in the Northeast and the largest SMSA's enhances disparities for non-high school graduates, but tends to reduce them or reverse their direction from the national average in the case of college graduates.

College graduates in the total population tend strongly to live in the same location as professional, technical, and managerial workers, families with income of $8,000 or more, and high housing values and rentals. Conversely, they tend to live in the opposite location from the undereducated, operatives, laborers, low income families, the unemployed, unsound housing and low housing values. Nonwhite college graduates, aside from their location opposite from undereducated nonwhites, are correlated significantly only with nonwhite professional and technical workers. Disparities for highly educated nonwhites are not apparently related to income or housing as in the case of whites.

The data for persons achieving less than 4 years of high school and 4 years or more of college give a good picture of the educational level of the adult population as presently constituted. For an indication of what the comparative central city-suburban educational levels might be in the future, and for insights into some of the educational problems confronting these communities now, the high school dropout rate affords a good measure.

Table 12. Percent of 16 and 17 Year Olds Not Enrolled in School

	TOTAL POPULATION	
	Central City	Suburb
United States	19	18
Northeast	20	16
North Central	17	15
South	21	22
West	14	15

These data reveal surprisingly little difference, on the average, between central cities and suburbs in the rate at which youngsters drop out of high school. The Northeast shows the largest average disparity, but this region is not quite significant statistically as a predictor because the variation among SMSA's in all regions is so large that region by itself does not explain much. Nor do any of the other structural characteristics of metropolitan areas account for the disparities in high school dropouts which do exist. The absence of a significant relationship between disparities for dropouts and percent of nonwhites in the population is especially striking, as nonwhites are much more likely than whites to be undereducated. (Unfortunately, census data for nonwhite dropouts are not reported by central city and suburban residence.) Nor do any significant relationships emerge from the analysis between dropouts and other population characteristics. One may conclude, therefore, that the dropout problem is almost equally acute in central cities and suburbs and that, while the rate is probably higher among nonwhites, it is a severe problem for white youth as well. Finally, it is worthy of note that the average educational level of adults is substantially higher in the West than elsewhere and the dropout rate there is considerably lower. A relationship, substantiated elsewhere 10/, appears clearly here; the educational level of the parents exerts a strong influence on the achievement of their children.

10/ James N. Morgan, Martin H. David, Wilbur J. Cohen, Harvey E. Brazer, Income and Welfare in the United States, McGraw-Hill, New York, 1962, p. 81.

6. Occupation

Occupation groups can be classified roughly into 3 categories: high status occupations are the professional and technical and managerial; middle status comprise the clerical and sales workers and craftsmen; and lower status workers are operatives, laborers, and household and service workers. The largest average disparities for the total population, nationally and by regions, occur for the two middle class occupations and the lowest status household and service workers. Furthermore, the disparities for these occupations are quite consistently large from one SMSA to another. For the other four occupations, on the other hand, average disparities are small, while the variation among SMSA's is very wide. The predictor characteristics are highly useful in explaining the variation in disparities for all occupation groups--region, population concentration, and SMSA size being significant for most of them.

The occupational pattern for nonwhites is vastly different from the total, or white, population. Nationally, about two-thirds of the nonwhites engaged in these 7 major occupations are found in the 3 lowest status groups, while only one-third of the total population here reported is so employed. On the other hand, the largest occupation group in the total population, clerical and sales workers, represents well under 10 percent of nonwhite workers. These comparisons represent very large improvements in the occupational status of nonwhites since 1940, however. The proportion of nonwhites in professional and technical occupations has been increasing at about the same rate as white, while nonwhite managers have been growing at a higher rate than white. Nonwhite clerical and sales workers have been increasing at 4 times the rate of the whites in these occupations, as did nonwhite craftsmen and operatives between 1940 and 1950, although during the next decade the latter increased at only twice the rate of the white. The proportion of nonwhite household workers has declined drastically since 1940, but nonwhites in other service and laboring occupations have increased faster than whites. 11/ By and large, occupational disparities for nonwhites are considerably smaller than for the total population. Moreover, considerably less of this variation for the

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11/ Bogue, op. cit., pp. 502-507.

nonwhites is explained by the predictor characteristics, and no consistency in explanatory factors appears for nonwhite occupations as we found for the total. Disparities for each occupation are explained by different factors.

The high status occupations--professional, technical, and managerial--constitute larger proportions of the population in the central cities than in the suburbs of smaller SMSA's, outside the Northeast (also outside the North Central for managers), whose populations are generally concentrated in the central city and, insofar as professional and technical occupations are concerned, have low rates of manufacturing employment. These occupations are of relatively greater importance in the suburbs of the largest SMSA's, particularly in the Northeast (and North Central for managers) with dispersed populations and high rates of manufacturing employment (for professional and technical). The location of professional, technical, and managerial workers is closely associated with college graduates, family income of $8,000 or more, and high housing values and rentals.

Disparities for professional and technical nonwhites are largest and favor the suburbs in SMSA's with the greatest concentration of nonwhites in the central cities. Professional and technical nonwhites behave as the nonwhite college graduates in suburbanizing themselves even more intensely than the whites. Nonwhite professional and technical workers, like the total or white professionals, tend to locate in the same place as college graduates, families with income over $8,000, and upper housing values. Nonwhite managers represent such a small proportion of the population that no generalizations concerning them could be drawn from the analysis.

The two middle status occupation groups, constituting over one-third of the total population whose occupations were included in the analysis, display divergent disparity patterns. Clerical and sales workers constitute a more important segment of the central city population, while craftsmen are considerably more important in the suburbs. There is relatively little variation in disparity for these two groups from one SMSA to another, yet the national and regional averages tend to be misleading because of the conflicting influences of the numerous significant explanatory variables.

When all factors are taken into account, the proportion of craftsmen in the suburbs is likely to be largest, relative to the proportion in the central city, in SMSA's with relatively low rates of employment in trade, low rates of growth, high proportions of nonwhites and generally dispersed populations, especially outside the Northeast. Conversely, disparities tend to be smallest (although still favoring the suburbs, so consistent is the pattern for this occupation) in SMSA's with high rates of employment in trade, rapid rates of growth, low proportions of nonwhite and a population which is relatively concentrated in the central city, especially where these factors are found in the Northeast (Stamford, Connecticut). Nonwhite craftsmen are, by and large, about equally important in central cities and suburbs, but the suburban proportion is most likely to be larger in SMSA's with low rates of employment in trade and manufacturing.

The location of clerical and sales workers in the total population is directly and significantly associated with persons aged 30-44, income above $8,000, professional, technical, managerial occupations, and high rentals. These workers tend, conversely, to live away from low income families, non-high school graduates, unsound housing, and low housing values. The location of craftsmen, on the other hand, is related strongly only to income of $4,000-$8,000 (the only occupation group which is related to this characteristic).

Operatives constitute a kind of "lower-middle" or "upper-low" occupational status in the total population. Like craftsmen, they tend to constitute higher average proportions in the suburbs than in the central cities, but not by nearly as large a differential, and the disparities vary far more widely from one SMSA to another. And, as both craftsmen and laborers do, they tend to be more or less important in the suburbs according to the extent to which the general population is dispersed. In the Northeast, however, where operatives constitute a higher overall percentage of the population than elsewhere, they tend to be more important in the central cities, as laborers are. In sum, the proportion of operatives will be relatively highest in the central cities of the largest SMSA's, especially in the Northeast, with the greatest concentration of population in the central city and the fastest rates of growth. Conversely, they will be more important in the suburbs of the smaller SMSA's, outside the Northeast, where population is more dispersed, and

Table 13. Percent of Employed Persons by Occupation

TOTAL POPULATION

	Professional & Technical		Managers		Clerical and Sales		Craftsmen		Operatives		Laborers		Household and Service	
	Cent. City	Suburb	Cent. City	Suburb	Cent. City	Suburb	Cent. City	Suburb	Cent. City	Suburb	Cent. City	Suburb	Cent. City	Suburb
U. S.	12	11	9	9	24	19	13	16	18	19	5	5	14	10
NE	10	12	6	9	23	22	13	16	24	22	5	4	12	8
N.Cent.	12	11	8	8	25	20	14	17	19	20	5	4	12	9
South	12	10	10	9	23	18	12	16	15	18	6	6	17	11
West	14	12	10	9	26	20	13	16	12	14	5	6	14	11
Significant Predictors	Northeast size; % in manufacturing; Pop. concen.		Northeast; N. Central; SMSA size; Pop. concen.		% nonwhite; % in manufacturing; South; % in trade		% in trade; Northeast; SMSA growth; % nonwhite; Pop. concen.		Northeast; Pop. concen.; SMSA size; SMSA growth		Northeast; N. Central; Pop. concen.		Pop. concen.; % in fin. & service; % nonwhite; South; SMSA growth; SMSA size	

NONWHITES

U. S.	5	7	2	2	7	6	7	7	20	18	12	12	36	30
NE	5	9	1	2	8	8	8	9	28	21	12	10	27	26
N.Cent.	4	9	1	2	8	9	8	9	23	20	12	10	33	29
South	5	4	2	2	5	3	6	6	16	16	13	15	44	37
West	8	8	4	4	12	10	7	7	13	13	10	9	34	22
Significant Predictors	% SMSA nonwhite in Central City				SMSA size		% in trade; % in manufacturing		Northeast; % SMSA nonwhite in Central City		SMSA growth		SMSA size	

the rate of SMSA growth is slower. Disparities for nonwhite operatives, the second most numerous occupation group for both races, are similar to those for the total population, in that they are largest in favor of the central cities in the Northeast and where nonwhites generally are most concentrated in the city, while elsewhere they tend to be more nearly equivalent in both locations or favor the suburbs.

As mentioned earlier, disparities for laborers in the total population are largest and favor the central cities in the two northern regions and where the general population is most concentrated in the central cities, while elsewhere they tend to be small or reversed in favor of the suburbs. Although the magnitude and direction of nonwhite disparities in the North is, on the average, about the same as for the total population, only the rate of SMSA growth exerts a significant influence. Disparities are largest in favor of the central city in the fastest growing SMSA's.

The largest occupational disparities occur in the household and service group, which also shows the least variation around the average disparity. Their proportions are almost everywhere higher in the central cities than in the suburbs, and they are higher by the greatest amounts in small SMSA's, those with the most dispersed general populations, the highest rates of employment in finance and service, the largest proportions of nonwhite, and low rates of growth, especially in the South. Although SMSA size is the least important factor in explaining disparities for the total population, it is the only one which is significant for nonwhite disparities in household and service workers. The proportion of nonwhite household and service workers is two to three times as large as the proportion of all workers in this category, but even in the SMSA's with small numbers of nonwhites, disparities for white household and service workers run heavily in favor of the central cities according to the SMSA characteristics listed above.

The discussion has indicated that the pattern of disparities for the 3 lower status occupations varies considerably in magnitude, direction and explanatory factors, unlike the upper and middle status occupations which behave more consistently among themselves. These differences among lower status occupations are further illustrated by the fact that they are not all associated with other demographic characteristics in the same

way and to the same extent. Operatives and laborers tend to locate similarly to the undereducated, the unemployed, and unsound housing, and away from high income, college graduates, high status occupations and the highest housing values and rents. But household and service workers are not associated with any of these characteristics. For them the only significant direct relationships are with nonwhites, broken families with children, and low income, as is true for laborers, but not for operatives. Finally, none of these three occupations is locationally correlated with the others. Among nonwhites in these occupations there are no significant relationships with any other demographic variable.

7. Family Income

Just as the greatest occupational disparities are found among the two lowest status occupations and the largest proportions are in the central city, the largest disparities in income occur, on the average, in the lowest group and in the same direction. Average disparities decline as one moves up the income scale, so that each group above $4,000 is proportionately as large or larger in the suburbs as in the central cities. This tendency corresponds roughly with the tendency for occupational differences to be smaller or in the direction of the suburbs as the occupational status scale goes up. By and large, however, income disparities are not as great as occupational disparities, although they vary more widely from one SMSA to another.

Table 14. Percent of Families by Income Group

	TOTAL POPULATION							
	Under $4,000		$4,000-$7,999		$8,000-$14,999		$15,000 & Over	
	Central City	Suburb	Central City	Suburb	Central City	Suburb	Central City	Suburb
United States	29	26	44	46	22	23	4	4
Northeast	27	20	48	48	21	26	4	6
North Central	23	21	48	48	25	26	4	4
South	37	35	39	43	18	18	4	3
West	23	24	44	46	27	25	6	5
Significant Predictors	Percent Employed in Manufacturing Population Concentration Percent Nonwhite SMSA Size		Northeast Population Concentration SMSA Size		Northeast Population Concentration SMSA Size Percent Nonwhite Percent in Manufacturing		Northeast Percent in Manufacturing SMSA Size Percent in Finance and Service	
	NONWHITE							
	Central City	Suburb	Central City	Suburb	Central City	Suburb		
United States	54	53	37	35	9	11		
Northeast	49	39	41	43	11	18		
North Central	45	43	44	42	11	12		
South	69	72	27	24	5	4		
West	42	44	43	38	16	19		

Location in the Northeast exerts the most important influence on disparities in family income, for both the total population and the nonwhites. As in the case of education and occupation, income disparities tend to be reversed in the South and West from their direction in the two Northern regions, although the magnitudes are not very different.

For the lowest income group in the total population, the influence of the Northeast is overshadowed by the other predictors, after all of them have been taken into account. Disparities for these families are largest, and favor the central city, in the largest SMSA's, where the rate of employment in manufacturing is high, population is generally dispersed, and there is a large proportion of nonwhites. The central city proportions of poor families are equivalent to or less than the suburban where the opposite conditions prevail.

Disparities for all lower middle income families, the $4,000-$8,000 class, are largest, in favor of the suburbs, outside the Northeast, where the population is dispersed, but in the smallest size SMSA's; disparities are likely to be small in the large SMSA's and in the North. Thus, in the large metropolitan areas, especially in the Northeast, the cities are likely to contain a higher-than-suburban proportion of poor families, but an equivalent-to-suburban proportion of middle income families.

Upper middle income families, $8,000-$15,000, are also most likely to be found in higher proportions in the suburbs of the Northeast, but in the largest SMSA's, as well as those with dispersed population, high rates of manufacturing and a large proportion of nonwhites. Conversely, in the small SMSA's outside the Northeast they are likely to be more important in the cities, while the lower middle income families are more important in the suburbs. Disparities for both upper middle income and the lowest income families are largest and occur in the opposite directions under the same conditions, exaggeratedly so in the Northeast.

The highest income families constitute a more important segment in the suburbs than in the central cities of the Northeast, large SMSA's, and those with high rates of employment in manufacturing and finance and services, but they, like the upper middle class, are likely to be more important in the cities of the smaller SMSA's outside the Northeast with more balanced employment patterns or those with more emphasis on employment in trade.

The income distribution pattern for nonwhites is vastly different from that of the total population or whites, and there is far greater variation in disparities from one SMSA to another. Almost twice as many nonwhite as total families receive income of less than $4,000 per year, while there are so few nonwhite families with income of $15,000 or more that this category is not even included in the Census reports. The high income nonwhites are equivalent to the upper middle income whites, $8,000-$15,000, but there are, on the average, only one-quarter to one-half as many of them, except in the suburbs of the Northeast and West where the nonwhite proportion is three-quarters that of the total. The overall proportion of middle income nonwhites is only slightly lower than the proportions in the $4,000-$8,000 category for the total population, except in the South where the differential is quite large.

Region provides almost the only significant explanation for disparities in nonwhite family income, and its influence is in the same direction for nonwhites as for the total population. For the lowest income group the largest disparities occur in the Northeast, but for the middle income nonwhites disparities are smallest or favor the suburbs in the Northeast. Although the average disparity, favoring the suburbs, for the highest income group is also largest in the Northeast, regional location is overshadowed in importance by population concentration. Disparities for the highest income nonwhites, like the nonwhite college graduates and professional and technical workers, tend to be greatest in favor of the suburbs where the general population is most dispersed. High income nonwhites are more likely to locate with the general population than other nonwhites. It is interesting, however, that disparities for high income nonwhites are not influenced by the degree of concentration of nonwhites in the central cities as professional and technical workers and college graduates are. Moreover, only disparities for the high income nonwhites show a significant relationship to other population characteristics. They tend mildly to locate similarly to housing valued at $15,000-$20,000 and away from families with income below $4,000. The other two income groups are associated only in an inverse relationship to one another; that is, the middle income and low income nonwhites tend to locate in opposite segments of the metropolitan area.

Income disparities in the total population, on the other hand, are generally associated with a large number of other economic and social characteristics. The middle income group,

$4,000-$8,000, like the middle status occupation of craftsman, however, displays the least such association. The location of this large and diverse income class is most strongly associated with craftsmen and more weakly associated with operatives and location away from household and service workers, lowest and highest incomes, and persons aged 45-59.

The lowest income families tend strongly to be located with: nonwhites, broken families, the elderly, the undereducated, household and service workers, unsound housing, and low housing values and rentals, while the upper middle income group ($8,000-$15,000) tends just as strongly to locate away from these characteristics. Conversely, the $8,000-$15,000 families are highly likely to locate with families with children, persons aged 30-44, income over $15,000, college graduates, professional, technical, managerial, clerical and sales workers, and upper housing values and rentals, with an almost equally strong tendency for the lowest income families to locate away from these characteristics.

The highest income families, on the other hand, are not as strongly inclined to locate according to the criteria of social and economic status. Their metropolitan residence is associated with that of college graduates, professional and technical workers, income of $8,000-$15,000, and the highest housing values and rentals, but their tendency to locate away from low income, the undereducated, the unemployed, operatives, laborers, unsound housing and low housing values and rents is not as strong as that of families in the second highest income group. Furthermore, there is no significant association between disparities for families in the highest income class and disparities for nonwhites or broken families; nor is there any relation between age and level of income.

These relationships between income and other population characteristics, in conjunction with the relevant predictor variables, indicate that exclusive, suburban, upper middle class affluence is represented primarily by families in the $8,000-$15,000 range, while the central city is almost as likely to contain the very wealthy as the poor and nonwhite, at least outside the Northeast. The very rich are better able to insulate themselves within islands of prestigious residence in the city, whereas the middle income and near wealthy require the accoutrements of suburban living to insure their status and enhance their welfare.

8. Women in the Labor Force

The level of annual family income is conditioned by two important factors in addition to education and occupation. The earnings of working wives, by supplementing those of the husband as chief wage earner, raise the annual total, while periods of unemployment for the principal or supplementary wage earners lower it.

Table 15. Married Women in the Labor Force

	Percent of all Married Women, Husbands Present, in Labor Force		Percent of Married Women, Husbands Present, in Labor Force with Children under 6	
	Central City	Suburb	Central City	Suburb
United States	34	30	21	23
Northeast	33	31	18	18
North Central	32	27	21	22
South	36	30	23	26
West	34	29	21	25

Significant Predictors

Rate of employment in trade	Northeast

In the metropolitan areas of the Nation as a whole, approximately one-third of the married women with husbands present consider themselves in the labor force, as either part time or full time workers. Of this number, about one-fifth have children under age 6.

A considerably larger proportion of central city married women work than do suburban women; and this relationship is highly consistent among SMSA's. Although the average disparity is smallest in the Northeast, region does not by itself exert a significant influence. Almost 35 percent of the variation in disparities is explained by the rate of employment in wholesale

and retail trade. In SMSA's where this rate is high, disparities are significantly larger than in areas where trade is less important. Although retail establishments are large employers of women, it appears that the burgeoning of regional shopping centers outside the central cities has had little effect on central city-suburban differences in the proportion of married women who work. Whatever contribution these centers make to increasing the overall rate of SMSA employment in trade is associated with enlarged disparities in favor of the central city.

When we single out from the total number of married women in the labor force those who have children under 6, average disparities swing the other way. This is partly a function of the larger proportion of families with children in the suburbs, but it is also an expression of the need for supplementary income in order to achieve the benefits of suburban living. The Northeast, which displays the greatest propensity for upper occupational status and higher incomes to be more important in the suburbs, yet contains the national average suburban excess of families with children, shows significantly smaller disparities in the proportion of married women in the labor force who have small children. Elsewhere, however, where the suburbs are less exclusively "upper class," the proportion of working mothers is significantly larger. Families "on the way up" are likely to contain two wage earners. Bogue reported that in 1956, 69 percent of families with income between $10,000 and $15,000 had more than one wage earner compared to 40 percent with incomes of $4,000-$5,000. 12/

These conclusions are supported by the fact that working wives in general tend to locate away from low income housing values, and working wives with small children tend to be located directly with persons aged 20-29 but away from persons aged 45-60. The fact that disparities for women in the labor force are not strongly associated with any other economic characteristics, such as income and occupation, may mean that labor force participation of wives and mothers cuts across occupational and income lines.

12/ Ibid., p. 667.

9. Unemployment

The rate of unemployment in suburban areas averages about 20 percent below the central cities for the total population. For nonwhites the average disparity is only half as large, but the average rate of unemployment ranges from 40 percent more than the total population in the suburbs of the West to two and one-half times as high in the suburbs of the North Central region.

Table 16. Unemployed Persons as a Percent of the Labor Force

	TOTAL POPULATION		NONWHITE	
	Central City	Suburb	Central City	Suburb
United States	5	4	9	8
Northeast	6	5	11	18
North Central	5	4	10	10
South	5	4	7	7
West	5	5	9	7

Significant Predictors

Percent employed in manufacturing	South
Percent nonwhite in SMSA	North Central
SMSA size	

The moderate disparities shown in the table are somewhat surprising in light of the conventional view of the central city-suburban dichotomy. Moreover, central city-suburban differences for whites are even narrower than for the total population after account is taken of the disproportionate number of nonwhite unemployed in the central cities. Indeed the proportion of nonwhites contributes significantly to the explanation of disparities for the total population. For whites and the total population, disparities also tend to be larger in the big SMSA's and those with high rates of employment in manufacturing. For

nonwhites, however, disparities vary significantly only with respect to region. They are largest in the Northeast and West, and smallest in the North Central and South. It is interesting to note that the smallest average disparities for nonwhites occur in the two regions with the smallest and largest numbers of nonwhites respectively.

The fact that average disparities in unemployment for nonwhites are smaller than for the total population, although variation from one SMSA to another is larger, indicates that unemployment is a severe nonwhite problem irrespective of residential location and economic and social status. This conclusion is further supported by the fact that unemployment among nonwhites is not related to any other population characteristics. In the total population, on the other hand, the unemployed are likely to be located similarly to non-high school graduates, operatives, laborers, low family income, unsound housing, and low housing values. Conversely, they tend to live away from college graduates, professional, technical, and managerial workers, high income families, and high housing values and rentals.

One may conclude from the analysis, however, that the problems of unemployment are almost as important in the suburbs as they are in the central cities, although within the cities the unemployed are disproportionately nonwhite.

10. Housing

The major visible criterion of economic and social well-being is the kind of housing in which people live, its quality, and value. The tenure in which housing is held differs sharply between central cities and suburbs, however. In central cities an average 47 percent of all occupied housing is owner occupied, while for suburbs the proportion jumps to 73 percent. Only 31 percent of nonwhite housing in the central cities is owner occupied, however, compared with 52 percent in the suburbs. Thus the tenure of nonwhites in the suburbs corresponds with that of the total population in the central cities, while the proportion of nonwhite city renters compares with the rate of total owner occupancy in the suburbs.

Owner Occupied Housing

Unsound housing 13/ is much more prominent in the suburbs, including the rural fringes with SMSA boundaries, than it is within the central cities, on the average, although disparities range from zero in the Northeast to 100 percent higher in the suburbs of the West. Average disparities occur in the same direction, but are slightly narrower for nonwhites, although approximately three times as much nonwhite housing is unsound as is true for the total population.

Table 17. Percent of Owner Occupied Dwelling Units Which are Unsound

	TOTAL POPULATION		NONWHITE a/	
	Central City	Suburb	Central City	Suburb
United States	11	16	33	51
Northeast	10	10	32	32
North Central	11	16	31	47
South	13	21	38	64
West	7	14	19	33

Significant Predictors

Northeast	Population concentration

Population concentration

a/ The data for the nonwhites refer to only 126 SMSA's because housing condition was not reported by tenure of occupancy for 51 of the smaller metropolitan areas with a small number of nonwhite dwellings.

Condition of owner occupied housing is one of the few characteristics in the analysis for which the same explanatory variables are significant for both the total and nonwhite

13/ Unsound housing is defined as housing which lacks some or all plumbing facilities, is deteriorating, or dilapidated.

populations. For both groups disparities are largest where the general population is most concentrated in the central city. For the total population, region exerts an additional significant influence, disparities being smallest in the Northeast. The similarity of disparity patterns between the two racial groups, coupled with the common predictor variable of population concentration, indicate that the extent of unsound housing is primarily a function of the existence and strength of building and housing ordinances. These are much more likely to be inclusive and effective in central cities, especially where the concentration of population is high, than in the small towns and semirural communities of the suburbs. Further support is given to this conclusion by the relative lack of disparity in the Northeast, where so many of the suburban communities are, in fact, old and substantial cities. It is also worthy of note that the central cities of the South do not contain an appreciably larger proportion of unsound housing than do cities elsewhere, while the suburbs of this region contain a far greater proportion of unsound housing than the suburbs of other regions, for the total as well as the nonwhite populations.

Occupancy of substandard housing is related exactly as one would expect to the percentage nonwhite, undereducated, operatives and laboring occupations (but not for the nonwhite), low income, unemployment, and low housing values and rents. Unsound housing tends, in similar fashion, to be located away from persons aged 30-44, college graduates, high status occupations, income of $8,000 or more, and high values and rents. Nevertheless, despite these significant relationships, in a large number of SMSA's the disparities for substandard housing run counter to the direction of disparities for other indicators of underprivilege. Thus unsound housing is consistently more common in the suburbs, while low income and education are more common in the central cities.

Disparities in the value of owner occupied housing reflect the suburban excess of unsound housing. The lowest valued housing, under $5,000, constitutes a larger proportion of all owner occupied housing in the suburbs, than it does in the cities, for both the total and nonwhite populations, while the two middle value groups constitute higher central city proportions for both races, and the two highest value groups are again more important in the suburbs.

Table 18. Percent of Owner Occupied Housing by Value Class

	Under $5,000		$5,000-9,999		$10,000-14,999		$15,000-19,999		$20,000 & Over	
	Central City	Suburb	Central City	Suburb	Central City	Suburb	Central City	Suburb	Central City	Suburb
TOTAL POPULATION										
United States	7	12	29	25	34	30	17	18	13	14
Northeast	6	6	29	21	34	33	18	22	12	16
North Central	6	10	28	25	36	29	19	20	11	16
South	11	19	33	30	30	27	13	13	13	10
West	3	8	22	21	35	32	22	20	17	18
Significant Predictors										
	Population concentration		SMSA growth		Population concentration		Percent nonwhite Northeast ?		SMSA size	
NONWHITE a/										
United States	20	34	46	33	24	19	7	8	4	5
Northeast	13	18	42	30	28	29	10	15	5	7
North Central	17	26	48	37	26	20	6	9	2	5
South	29	53	49	33	17	10	4	2	2	1
West	9	18	38	29	33	29	12	14	8	10
Significant Predictors										
	South		Percent SMSA nonwhite in central city SMSA size				South SMSA size			

a/ Data for nonwhites are reported by the Census for 171 SMSA's.

Disparities in the value of housing vary greatly from one SMSA to another and the extent of variation from the average tends to widen as housing values go up. Not a great deal of this variation is explained by the predictors used in the analysis, however. Disparities in the lowest housing values are influenced primarily by population concentration; the proportion of housing valued below $5,000 is relatively highest in the suburban areas where the population is most concentrated in the central cities, in accord with the findings for unsound housing.

The overall proportions of housing worth less than $5,000 are very small, however, and the next value class, $5,000-$10,000, comprises the bulk of cheap housing. This class tends to be more important in the central cities and provides primary accommodation for the large proportion of low income families who live there. Disparities are explained chiefly by the rate of SMSA growth; they tend to be larger in favor of the central city in the slower growing SMSA's which obviously contain a relatively larger supply of old, obsolete, hence cheap, housing than the more rapidly growing SMSA's where the bulk of new construction takes place in the suburbs.

Population concentration again offers the major explanation for disparities in the middle housing value class, $10,000-$15,000. The central city proportion of housing at this value level exceeds the suburban by the greatest amount in SMSA's where the population is most concentrated, and disparities are narrower or favor the suburbs where the population is more dispersed.

Upper middle housing values, like upper middle incomes, are more important in the suburbs of SMSA's with a high proportion of nonwhites, after all other factors have been taken into account. The average suburban excess of the highest value housing, over $20,000, is explained chiefly by location in the largest SMSA's, however.

Although the tables seem to indicate that disparities for housing value differ considerably among regions, the analysis demonstrates that the variation in disparities within regions is so much greater than the differences among regions that this factor, by itself, does not contribute significantly to the explanation. For example, the apparent lack of disparity for

the lowest class in the Northeast is explained more by the numerous SMSA's with dispersed populations there than by location in that region as such. In the same way, the apparently much larger disparity in the Northeast for housing valued at $5,000-$10,000 is accounted for primarily by the presence of numerous slowly growing or declining SMSA's rather than location in the region per se. For the $15,000-$20,000 value class, however, location in the Northeast is just slightly short of being statistically significant and so it has been included with a question mark.

The value of housing is related to other social and economic characteristics as one would expect. Housing in the two classes below $10,000 tends to be located similarly to low income, the undereducated, laborers (but not operatives or household and service workers), unsound housing and low rentals, and located away from persons aged 30-44, income over $8,000, college graduates, professional, technical and managerial occupations, and high values and rents. But the two lowest housing value classes apparently accommodate different groups of people, because the lowest group is correlated directly with the elderly, while the second class is not. The $5,000-$10,000 class, on the other hand, is related directly to unemployment, while the lowest class is not. The inference to be drawn is that the lowest valued owner occupied housing, which is also likely to be the oldest, most obsolete and unsound, is likely to be occupied primarily by elderly people. 14/

Middle value housing, like middle status occupations, is significantly associated only with family income of $4,000-$8,000 and away from housing valued below $5,000.

The two highest housing value groups are, of course, associated with high income, college education, high status occupations, and high rents, and tend to locate away from their opposites. But it is interesting to note that only the $15,000-$20,000 class is associated directly with age, tending to be located with (and probably occupied by) persons aged 30-44 and away from age 60 and over.

14/ See Housing and Home Finance Agency, Senior Citizens and How They Live, Washington, July 1962.

The pattern of disparities for nonwhite housing follows closely the pattern for the total population, although the magnitude of nonwhite disparities is, in general, considerably greater. And, like the occupation and income distributions, nonwhite housing falls primarily into the lowest classes. Whereas about one-third of all owner occupied housing is valued below $10,000, approximately two-thirds of nonwhite housing is so valued. Conversely, another third of all housing is valued at $15,000 or more, but on the average, only 10-15 percent of nonwhite housing is valued so high.

The explanation for disparities in nonwhite housing values also differs substantially from the total population. For the middle and highest value classes, none of the individual predictors emerges as significant. But disparities for the lowest value are far greater, in favor of the suburbs, in the South than anywhere else, while in this same region disparities in the $15,000-$20,000 class are likely to be smallest or favor the central city.

Disparities for nonwhite housing valued at $15,000-$20,000 are likely to be largest, in favor of the suburbs, in the largest SMSA's outside the South, while they will be smaller or favor the central city in the smaller SMSA's, especially in the South.

Size also influences disparities in the second lowest value class. Nonwhite housing valued at $5,000-$10,000, the most numerous group for the nonwhites, constitutes a larger proportion in the central cities than in the suburbs of the largest SMSA's and those with the greatest concentration of nonwhites in the central city.

There are very few significant relationships between disparities in the value of nonwhite housing and other measures of social and economic welfare. The lowest housing values tend to be located similarly to non-high school graduates, unsound housing and low rents, and away from college graduates and professional and technical workers. With one important exception, there are no significant relationships for the remainder of value classes. Nonwhite housing valued at $15,000-$20,000 tends significantly to be associated with nonwhite professional and technical workers and family income of $8,000-$15,000.

Rental Housing

Two to three times as much rental housing is classified unsound as owner occupied housing. Approximately one-third of all rental housing in metropolitan areas is unsound, while well over half of the nonwhite rental housing falls in this category.

Table 19. Percent of Renter Occupied Dwelling Units Which are Unsound

	TOTAL POPULATION		NONWHITE a/	
	Central City	Suburb	Central City	Suburb
United States	33	36	56	70
Northeast	30	25	54	55
North Central	35	36	55	66
South	37	44	61	82
West	26	27	42	49

Significant Predictors

SMSA size

a/ The data for the nonwhites refer to only 126 SMSA's because housing condition was not reported by tenure of occupancy for 51 of the smaller metropolitan areas with a small number of nonwhite dwellings.

As is true for owner occupied housing, unsound rentals constitute a higher proportion in the suburbs than in the central cities, but the magnitude of disparity is considerably smaller. The major exception to this tendency occurs in the Northeast, where unsound rentals are relatively more numerous in the central cities. Region, by itself, does not make a significant difference in disparities, however. The major influence is exerted by SMSA size, disparities tending to be greatest, in favor of the suburbs, in the smaller SMSA's, and narrower or reversed in favor of the central cities in the largest metropolitan areas.

It is reasonable to infer that disparities in unsound rental housing are also closely related to the existence of effective building codes, although the analysis does not demonstrate this as clearly as it does for owner occupied housing.

The differential between the proportions of nonwhite and total dwelling units which are unsound is not as large for rental housing as it is for owner occupied housing. Whereas three times as much nonwhite owner occupied housing is unsound as is true for the total population, the proportion of substandard nonwhite rental housing averages slightly less than twice as much as the total. Because a much larger percent of nonwhites are renters than are whites, however, the substandard rental problem is much more acute for the nonwhites.

The location of unsound rental housing is related to other social and economic characteristics in the same way as unsound owner occupied housing, similarly to undereducated, low income, low status occupations and low housing values and rents. For nonwhites, however, there is no significant relationship between substandard housing and occupation, except that it tends to be located away from professional and technical workers.

There is not as close a relationship between disparities by rental class and substandard condition as was found between owner occupied values and unsound condition. The two lowest rent classes are both more important in the central cities for all regions, except the South where rentals under $40 per month constitute a higher proportion in the suburbs than in the cities. Yet substandard housing tends to be more important in the suburbs. The lowest rent class, like the lowest value class, is not of great importance outside the South, however; about half of all rented dwellings fall into the second, $40-$79, rent class, which constitutes a considerably more important segment of central city housing than suburban. High rentals, like high values, are in all regions more important in the suburbs than in the central cities, and the average disparities are largest in the highest class, $120 and over.

None of the predictor variables exerts a significant influence on disparities for the lowest rent class, or the upper middle class of $80-$120 rentals. The suburban excess of rentals in the latter category may be partially attributed to the fact

that suburban rental housing is, by and large, quite new and has been constructed at higher cost than the bulk of older rental housing in the central cities. Disparities for the lower middle (largest) and highest rent classes are both explained primarily by the proportion of nonwhites in the population and the size of the SMSA. In the case of the $40-$79 rent class, disparities are largest in favor of the central cities in the largest SMSA's and those with a high proportion of nonwhites, especially in the Northeast, while for rentals of $120 or more disparities run high in favor of the suburbs in the large SMSA's and those with a high proportion of nonwhites.

For the nonwhites themselves, however, disparities in all rent classes above $40 are, on the average, smaller outside the South than they are for the total population. Furthermore, the proportion of nonwhites paying rentals between $40 and $120 differs very little from the proportion of the total population in these categories; white and nonwhite disparities in this range behave in close conformity, although the directions are reversed in the $80-$120 rent class.

Disparities for nonwhites in the $40-$79 class are greater in the South than elsewhere; and in the $80-$119 class, they are greater in the faster growing SMSA's.

Location in the South also makes a big difference in disparities for the lowest rent class, which are significantly larger, in favor of the suburbs in this region. It is interesting that at this rent level disparities are large in favor of the suburbs even in SMSA's outside the South with a large proportion of nonwhites, despite the fact that nonwhites with low incomes preponderate in the cities. Low income nonwhites in the central cities apparently pay higher rentals than nonwhites of similar income in the suburbs do. The suburban proportion of nonwhite rentals in the highest category averages two and a half times the central city proportion in the metropolitan areas of the Northeast, a far greater disparity than occurs anywhere else. Disparities also tend to be largest in this category where the rate of SMSA employment in finance and services is highest.

Table 20. Percent of Rental Dwelling Units by Gross Monthly Rent Class

	TOTAL POPULATION							
	Under $40		$40-79		$80-120		$120 and over	
	Central City	Suburb	Central City	Suburb	Central City	Suburb	Central City	Suburb
United States	13	13	54	48	27	31	6	8
Northeast	9	8	61	52	26	33	6	9
North Central	8	7	51	46	33	37	7	10
South	19	22	55	48	22	24	5	6
West	11	9	46	47	32	33	9	11
Significant Predictors			Percent nonwhite in SMSA Northeast SMSA size				SMSA size Percent nonwhite in SMSA	
	NONWHITE a/							
United States	20	27	59	51	18	16	3	4
Northeast	9	10	62	55	25	25	4	10
North Central	11	13	58	57	25	21	6	6
South	32	50	59	41	9	7	1	1
West	17	17	59	59	20	20	4	4
Significant Predictors	South Percent nonwhite in SMSA		South Population concentration		SMSA growth Population concentration		Northeast Percent employment in finance and service	

a/ Data for nonwhites are reported by the Census for 171 SMSA's.

As in the case of owner occupied housing, the location of all rentals in the lowest rent class, below $40, is associated directly, although more weakly, with the elderly, undereducated, low income, laborers, unsound housing, and low values, and inversely with persons aged 30-44, income over $8,000, managers (but not professional and technical), and rentals of $80-$120 (but not rentals of $120 or more). The $40-$80 rent class, however, is much more likely to accommodate "middle class" families as well as lower status families because its location is not related to age, laborers, unsound housing, or the lowest rent class, but does tend to be located similarly to low education, operatives, low income and housing values, and away from income above $8,000, college graduates, professional, technical, and managerial workers, and high housing values and rentals. The two highest rent classes tend to be located with persons aged 30-44, upper status occupations and corresponding income and housing value classes, and migrants, and away from the elderly, undereducated, operatives and laborers, low income, unsound housing, and low values and rentals. Nonwhite rental housing, on the other hand, shows no significant relationships with any other population characteristics, not even with college graduates and professional and technical workers at the highest rentals, as in the case of the highest housing values.

To summarize disparities in housing, substandard units are more of a problem in the suburbs than in the central cities for both owner and renter occupied housing. Disparities are much greater for owner occupied housing, however. From almost two to three times as much nonwhite housing of all kinds is unsound as is true for white housing. Since the rate of home ownership is much lower for nonwhites, however, substandard housing in this category, outside the South, is primarily a white problem especially in the suburbs. Nevertheless, to the extent that nonwhites do own their own homes, a much greater proportion of them are unsound. On the other hand, a far greater percentage of nonwhites than whites are renters, so that the problems of substandard rentals involve a disproportionate amount of nonwhite housing, in both cities and suburbs. Metropolitan location does not make much difference to the quality of nonwhite housing; for nonwhite renters, disparities are much smaller than they are for the total population.

11. Commuters

It is no surprise to find that approximately three times as many workers who live in the suburbs commute to the central city as commute in the opposite direction. What is in fact a bit surprising is that the rate of out-commuting (from the central city) is as high as it is, up to an average of 16 percent in the West. Furthermore, disparities are not significantly related to size, taken by itself, as one might expect. Disparities are not narrower in the larger SMSA's, which would be the case if a greater dispersal of work places occurred in the big metropolitan areas. The excess of in-commuting over out-commuting is explained primarily by the concentration of the population and the proportion of nonwhites in the SMSA. Where population is more dispersed, so is employment and a smaller proportion of suburban residents commute into the city, while many city dwellers commute out.

The high average proportion of out-commuters from the central cities indicates that the traditional idea of residential location conditioned by location of the work place may no longer be valid. Many metropolitan residents select their homes in city or suburban neighborhoods which are socially and financially congenial and remain there through several subsequent changes in job location. Moreover, when they do move within the metropolitan area, they are more likely to do so in order to improve their housing standard than to gain proximity to their place of employment.

Table 21. Percent of Workers Who Commute

	TOTAL POPULATION		NONWHITE	
	Central City	Suburb	Central City	Suburb
United States	12	37	11	31
Northeast	12	30	13	20
North Central	10	41	10	38
South	11	38	10	30
West	16	37	16	34

Significant Predictors

Population Concentration	Northeast
Percent Nonwhite in SMSA	Percent of SMSA Nonwhite in Central City
	Population concentration

Outside of the Northeast, average disparities for nonwhites are almost the same as they are for the total (white) population. The home-workplace relationship is essentially the same for both races; nonwhites do not live in the suburbs primarily because they work there, nor do they commute out of the central city in any greater proportion than the whites in most SMSA's. Only in the Northeast is the average proportion of out-commuters higher for the nonwhite than for the total.

Virtually the same predictor variables explain the variation in nonwhite disparities as are significant for the total, indicating further the similarity of commuting patterns for the two racial groups. The significance of the percent of SMSA nonwhites in the central city for nonwhite disparities, analogous to the contribution of percent nonwhite in the SMSA to disparities for the total population, offers another indication that suburban residence for nonwhites reflects an escape from the ghetto and not mere happenstance of employment and residence. In the Northeast, however, disparities are considerably narrower; in this region a relatively larger proportion of the suburban nonwhites work in the suburbs as well, while a slightly larger-than-the-total percentage commute out from the central cities.

Although the pattern of disparities for commuters is so distinct, and the explanatory factors pronounced, there is no significant association between these disparities and the central city-suburban differences for any other social and economic characteristics, for either the total or nonwhite populations. Commuting by and large cuts across occupational and income lines.

12. Summary of Findings

It is possible to make very few generalizations about central city-suburban population differences, which will apply to most metropolitan areas. The extent and direction of disparities for most characteristics vary enormously, especially with respect to the nonwhite population. Furthermore, this variation is explained by different forces for different population characteristics and for the two racial groups. With these limitations in mind, it is useful to classify disparities by magnitude and consistency and by the types of SMSA's where they occur.

Magnitude and Consistency of Disparities

1. Smallest disparities (central cities and suburbs most alike)

Total and Nonwhites	Total Only	Nonwhites Only
Age 10-44		Managers
Undereducated		Craftsmen
School dropouts		
Low and middle income		

This list appears to refute the commonly held view that disparities for low education and income run heavily in favor of the central city, and for the majority of SMSA's it does. But, of the foregoing characteristics, only disparities for ages 10-19 are uniformly narrow for most metropolitan areas. All of the others vary greatly, and the variation is explained primarily by SMSA size, location in the Northeast, and population dispersion.

The "classic" metropolitan dichotomy according to which the poor, uneducated, and unskilled dominate the central city, while persons of the opposite characteristics dominate the suburbs applies primarily to the largest metropolitan areas and

those located in the Northeast. The fact is that for the majority of metropolitan areas in the United States there is not a ten percent difference between the central cities and suburbs in their respective proportions of undereducated adults, high school dropouts, and families with low income. The underprivileged half of the dichotomy, with respect to these characteristics at least, represents fairly uniform segments of the population in both metropolitan locations, and its problems occur with equal force in both. For the highly educated, affluent segments of the population disparities are somewhat larger, and these characteristics are proportionately greatest in the suburbs, according to the generally accepted view, mainly in the large and northeastern SMSA's.

2. Consistently greatest disparities

Total and Nonwhites	Total Only	Nonwhites Only
Broken families with children	Age 45 and over	Percent nonwhite
Unsound owner-occupied housing	Unrelated individuals	Unsound rentals
Low housing values	Clerical and sales	Movers
Commuters	Craftsmen	
	Household and service	

Persons aged 45-59, unrelated individuals, clerical and sales workers, craftsmen and commuters may be considered middle status or nonstatus characteristics, while the remainder represent low socioeconomic status. Thus the low status characteristics of race, advanced age, broken families with children (not necessarily low status), and household and service workers are consistently more prominent in the central cities than in the suburbs. But the low status characteristics of unsound and low value housing are far more common in the suburbs, and offer an additional argument against the stereotype of the metropolitan dichotomy. The relatively small variation that does occur in these large disparity characteristics is explained chiefly by population dispersion (concentration in the case of the housing characteristics), percent nonwhite in the SMSA, and location in the South.

3. Greatest disparities (over 20 percent differential) with large variation among SMSA's

Total and Nonwhites	Total Only	Nonwhites Only
College graduates		Migrants
Highest housing values		Professional and technical
Highest rentals		Clerical and sales
		Laborers
		High income
		Unemployment
		Middle housing values
		Low rentals

For the high status characteristics, disparities are greatest in the largest Northern and most dispersed SMSA's, while for the low and middle status nonwhites, the variation is explained primarily by location in the South and population concentration or dispersion. By and large, disparities for high status nonwhites occur in the same direction as for high status whites, while disparities for middle and low status nonwhites seem to operate independently of the total or white populations.

4. Consistently moderate disparities (10-20 percent differential)

Total and Nonwhites	Total Only	Nonwhites Only
Families with children	Movers	Household and service
	Age under 10	
	Working wives	
	Low rentals	

Disparities are uniformly moderate primarily for middle status characteristics or those which do not particularly signify status at all.

5. Moderate disparities, with large variation among SMSA's

Total and Nonwhites	Total Only	Nonwhites Only
Upper middle rentals	Migrants	Age under 10
Operatives	Professional and technical	Age 60 and over
	Managers	Unrelated individuals
	Laborers	
	High income	
	Working mothers	
	Unemployment	
	Unsound rentals	
	Middle housing values	

This group of moderate, but highly varied, disparities represents all socioeconomic levels, but the variation for both high and low status characteristics, except housing value and rent, is accounted for primarily by large SMSA's and those in the Northeast, for which disparities are larger than elsewhere, as well as population dispersion.

It is apparent that four of the metropolitan area structural characteristics included in the analysis explain most of the variation in disparities for most of the population characteristics we have been discussing. These are: population dispersion, which provides a significant explanation for the variation in 15 of the characteristics and its reverse, population concentration, which explains 5; large SMSA size, which accounts for large disparities in 15 cases and small disparities in 3; location in the Northeast, which accounts for large disparities in 10 characteristics and small differences in 5 characteristics; and percent nonwhite in the SMSA, which explains the variation in 13 characteristics. The frequency with which the remaining predictors are found to be significant drops off to 7 for rate of employment in trade and SMSA growth; 6 for rate of employment in manufacturing; 4 each in the South and North Central regions; 2 in employment in finance and services; and 1

in the West. For nonwhites, location in the Northeast is by far the most important predictor, explaining large disparities for 9 characteristics and small disparities for 2; concentration of SMSA nonwhites in the central cities is second in importance, explaining 7; population dispersion and concentration follow with 3 each; then location in the South with 5; large SMSA size explains 4; North Central, percent nonwhite in SMSA, high SMSA growth, and rate of employment in manufacturing each explain 2 characteristics; and location in the West, employment in trade, and finance and services each account for 1.

Type of SMSA

For SMSA's classified by the four most important structural characteristics, it is most convenient to summarize central city-suburban differences by a series of successively modified lists, as follows: 15/

Central City Proportion Higher	Equivalent Proportions	Suburban Higher
In SMSA's in general, all regions and sizes:		
Elderly	Age 10-44--total and nonwhite	Young children
Unrelated individuals	Nonwhite craftsmen	Migrants--total and nonwhite
Broken families with children		Families with children
Clerical and sales workers		Craftsmen
Household and service--total and nonwhite		Upper middle rentals
Working wives		Commuters
Unemployed		Highest nonwhite housing values (except South)
Nonwhite movers		
Nonwhites		

15/ Reference is to total population unless the characteristic is prefixed by "nonwhite."

Central City Proportion Higher	Equivalent Proportions	Suburban Higher
	In addition to the above, in large SMSA's in all regions:	
Nonwhite clerical and sales		Upper middle nonwhite housing values
Low income		Highest rentals
Unsound rentals		
	And in the North as well as large SMSA's:	
Nonwhites		Managers
Young nonwhite children		Highest housing values
Middle age		
Movers		
Undereducated		
Operatives		
Low rents		
	But in the large and Northeast SMSA's:	
		College graduates
		Professional and technical workers
		Income over $8,000--total and nonwhite
	In the North without respect to size:	
Nonwhites under age 10	Working mothers	Nonwhite professional and technical
Nonwhite families with children		Nonwhite managers
Nonwhite undereducated		
School dropouts		
Laborers--total and nonwhite (also in West)		
Nonwhite operatives		

Central City Proportion Higher	Equivalent Proportions	Suburban Higher
And in the Northeast, without respect to size:		
Operatives	Nonwhite middle income	Middle age and elderly nonwhites
Nonwhite low income	Unsound owner occupied housing--total and nonwhite	Nonwhite unrelated individuals
Nonwhite unemployment		Nonwhite college graduates
		Upper middle housing values
		Highest nonwhite rentals
But in the South and West, without respect to size:		
Middle age and elderly nonwhites	Nonwhite professional and technical	Young nonwhite children
College graduates (also in North Central)	Nonwhite managers	Nonwhite families with children
Professional and technical (also in North Central)	Nonwhite operatives	Undereducated--total and nonwhite
Managers	Nonwhite unemployment (North Central instead of West)	School dropouts
Income over $8,000	Upper middle housing values	Nonwhite low income
Nonwhite middle income (also in North Central)	Lower middle rents (also in North Central)	Middle income--total and nonwhite
Nonwhite middle housing values (also in North Central)		Working mothers (also in North Central)
		Unsound owner occupied housing
		Lowest nonwhite rents (South only)

Central City Proportion Higher	Equivalent Proportions	Suburban Higher
In small SMSA's all regions:		
College graduates	Movers	Undereducated
Professional and technical	Nonwhite clerical and sales	Operatives
Managers	Unemployed	Middle income
Household and service--total and nonwhite	Highest rents	Unsound rentals
Income over $8,000		
Highest housing values		
Upper middle nonwhite housing values		
In addition to the list under all regions and sizes, in SMSA's with dispersed populations in all regions and sizes:		
Upper middle nonwhite rentals		Age 30-44
In dispersed as well as large SMSA's:		
Low income		
In dispersed SMSA's as well as large and Northern:		
Nonwhite		Managers

Central City Proportion Higher	Equivalent Proportions	Suburban Higher
	In dispersed SMSA's, as well as large and northeastern:	
		Nonwhite college graduates (Northeast only)
		Professional and technical
		Nonwhite income over $8,000
	In SMSA's which are dispersed as well as small or in the South and West:	
	Laborers	Middle income operatives
	But in SMSA's with population concentrated in the central city, all regions and sizes:	
		Unsound owner occupied housing--total and nonwhite
		Lowest housing value--total and nonwhite
		Commuters

Central City Proportion Higher	Equivalent Proportions	Suburban Higher
	In SMSA's with a high percentage of nonwhites, irrespective of region, size, or population dispersal:	
Nonwhite age 30-44 Nonwhite movers Broken families with children Household and service workers Unemployed		Families with children Craftsmen Migrants
	And in SMSA's with a high percentage of nonwhite, as well as large SMSA's all regions:	
Low income		Highest rents
	In SMSA's with a high percentage of nonwhite, as well as large and northeastern:	
Nonwhite Low middle rents		Upper middle income (Northeast only)
	In SMSA's with a high percentage of nonwhites as well as in the Northeast, all sizes:	
	Clerical and sales workers	Upper middle housing values
	In SMSA's with a high percentage of nonwhites and concentrated population, all sizes and regions:	
		Commuters

Central City Proportion Higher	Equivalent Proportion	Suburban Higher
	In small, concentrated SMSA's with a low percentage of nonwhite:	
	Low income	

These lists clearly indicate that disparities which are common to all SMSA's refer, with one or two exceptions, to middle status or nonstatus social and economic characteristics. In the large and northern metropolitan areas, disparities place low economic and social status persons and families in the central city and their opposites in the suburbs among nonwhites as well as whites; but in the small SMSA's and those in the South and West, the cities tend to constitute the upper status residential location, while the suburbs accommodate the less privileged, and nonwhites of all status are more evenly distributed. Population dispersal and a high proportion of nonwhites in the SMSA tend, by and large, to accentuate the tendencies of the large and northern SMSA patterns.

APPENDIX B

Data Used in the Statistical Analysis

A standard metropolitan statistical area, SMSA, is defined as an area containing "at least one city of at least 50,000 inhabitants...the county of such a central city and adjacent counties that are found to be metropolitan in character and economically and socially integrated with the county of the central city." 1/ The 190 SMSA's with population of 100,000 or more were selected for analysis of the total population. For analysis of the nonwhite population, only 177 were included because 13 of the metropolitan areas had insufficient nonwhite population to warrant census reporting of socioeconomic characteristics.

The data needed to measure socioeconomic disparities between central cities and suburban areas in each metropolitan area were obtained in the following manner. From Volume 1 of the 1960 censuses of population and housing, the number of persons, families, or housing units conforming to a particular characteristic in the central city or cities of each metropolitan area was deducted from the number reported for the entire SMSA to obtain the number of persons, families, or housing units of that type in the suburbs. Thus suburbs, or suburban areas, consist of the remainder of the metropolitan area outside central cities. The number of persons, families, or housing units of each characteristic in the central city or cities of each SMSA was then expressed as a percentage of the total number of persons, families, or housing units located there. The same percentages were obtained for the suburbs of each metropolitan area. These percentages are tabulated for the total population in the cities and suburbs of each metropolitan area in Table B-1 of this appendix and for the nonwhite population in Table B-2.

1/ Executive Office of the President, Bureau of the Budget, Standard Metropolitan Statistical Areas, Washington, 1961. In New England the town, rather than the county, provides the basic unit in the definition.

The population characteristics, for which the percentages were obtained, are defined as follows:

1. Percent Nonwhite: the total number of nonwhite persons, expressed as a percentage of the total number of persons.

2. Percent of Persons by Age: the number of persons in each of six age groups, expressed as a percentage of the total number of persons. The age classes were defined to correspond roughly to "life stages": under 10--young children; 10-19--older children; 20-29--youth; 30-44--young middle age; 45-59--older middle age; 60 and over--elderly.

3. Percent of Movers Within the SMSA: the number of persons five years old and over, who changed residence within the metropolitan area between 1955 and 1960, expressed as a percentage of the total number of persons five years old and over. The tables also show in parentheses the number of persons five years old and over who moved from the suburbs to the central city, or from the central city to the suburbs, between 1955 and 1960, expressed as a percentage of the total number of movers within the SMSA during that period.

4. Percent of Migrants from Another State: the number of persons five years old and over who lived in a different State in 1955, expressed as a percentage of the total number of persons five years old and over.

5. Percent of Families with Children Under 18: the number of families with children under 18, expressed as a percentage of the total number of families.

6. Percent of Families with Children Under 18 Which are Broken Families: the number of broken families with children under 18 was

obtained by deducting the number of married couples with children under 18 from the total number of families with children under 18. The number of broken families with children under 18 was then expressed as a percentage of the total number of families with children under 18.

7. Unrelated Individuals: the number of unrelated individuals, persons not living with their own families, expressed as a percentage of the total number of persons.

8. Percent of Persons with Less than 4 Years of High School: the number of persons 25 years old and over, who have completed less than 4 years of high school, expressed as a percentage of the total number of persons aged 25 years and over.

9. Percent of Persons with 4 Years or More of College: the number of persons 25 years old and over, who have completed 4 years or more of college, expressed as a percentage of the total number of persons 25 years old and over.

10. Percent of 16 and 17 Year Olds Not in School: from the total number of persons aged 16 and 17, the number of 16 and 17 year olds enrolled in school was deducted to obtain the number of persons in this age group not enrolled in school. The number of persons aged 16 and 17 who are not enrolled in school was then expressed as a percentage of the total number of persons aged 16 and 17. These data were not available for nonwhites.

11. Percent of Employed Persons by Occupation Group: the number of persons in each occupation group was expressed as a percentage of the total number of employed persons. A selection of seven occupations was made from the Census classification of major occupation groups, so that the percentages for any one city or suburban area do not total 100:

professional, technical and kindred workers; managers, officials, and proprietors, except farm; clerical and kindred workers and sales workers combined; craftsmen, foremen and kindred workers; operatives and kindred workers; laborers, except farm and mine; private household workers and service workers except private household combined.

12. Percent of Families by Income Class: the number of families in each annual income class expressed as a percentage of the total number of families. The income classes were defined to correspond roughly to economic status levels: under $4,000--inadequate, or low; $4,000-7,999--middle status; $8,000-14,999--upper middle status; $15,000 and over--upper status or wealthy.

13. Percent of Married Women in the Labor Force: the number of married women in the labor force whose husbands are present, expressed as a percentage of the total number of married women. The number of married couples was used as a proxy measure of the number of married women. These data were not available for nonwhites.

14. Percent of Married Women in the Labor Force with Children Under Six: the number of married women, husbands present, in the labor force who have children under six, expressed as a percentage of the total number of married women, husbands present, in the labor force. These data were not available for nonwhites.

15. Percent of Persons Unemployed: the number of unemployed persons, expressed as a percentage of the total number of persons in the civilian labor force.

16. Percent of Unsound Owner Occupied Housing Units: the number of owner occupied housing units which lack some or all plumbing

facilities, are deteriorating or dilapidated, expressed as a percentage of the total number of owner occupied housing units.

17. Percent of Owner Occupied Housing Units by Value Class: the number of owner occupied housing units in each value class, expressed as a percentage of the total number of owner occupied housing units. The value classes were defined to correspond roughly to status levels: under $5,000--very cheap; $5,000-9,999--cheap; $10,000-14,999--lower middle; $15,000-19,999--upper middle; $20,000 and over--high value.

18. Percent of Unsound Rental Housing Units: the number of renter occupied housing units which lack some or all plumbing facilities, are deteriorating or dilapidated, expressed as a percentage of the total number of renter occupied housing units.

19. Percent of Rental Housing Units by Gross Rent Class: the number of rental housing units in each monthly rent class, expressed as a percentage of the total number of renter occupied housing units. The rent classes were defined to correspond roughly to status levels: under $40--cheap; $40-80--low middle; $80-120--upper middle; $120 and over--high.

20. Percent of Workers Who Commute: the number of employed persons living in the central city but working in the suburban ring, expressed as a percentage of the total number of employed persons (including armed forces) living in the central city; the number of employed persons living in the suburban ring but working in the central city, expressed as a percentage of the total number of employed persons (including armed forces) living in the suburban ring.

The suburban percentage for each characteristic was deducted algebraically from the central city percentage to obtain a measure of disparity between the two. These differences were then correlated statistically with the following structural characteristics of the 190 metropolitan areas with population of 100,000 or more (177 SMSA's for nonwhites):

1. Region: Northeast, North Central, South and West, as defined by the Bureau of the Census.

2. Population Size of the SMSA.

3. Population Concentration: the percentage of the total metropolitan area population which lives in the central city or cities.

4. Rate of SMSA Growth: the percentage increase or decrease in the total metropolitan population between 1950 and 1960.

5. Percent Nonwhite in the SMSA: the percentage of nonwhites in the total population of the metropolitan area.

6. Rate of Employment in Manufacturing: the percentage of the total number of persons employed in the SMSA who are engaged in manufacturing.

7. Rate of Employment in Wholesale and Retail Trade: the percentage of the total number of persons employed in the SMSA who are engaged in wholesale and retail trade.

8. Rate of Employment in Finance and Services: the percentage of the total number of persons employed in the SMSA who are engaged in finance, insurance, real estate and service industries.

9. Concentration of Nonwhites in the Central City: for analysis of the nonwhite population only, the percentage of all SMSA nonwhites who live in the central city or cities.

These structural characteristics for each metropolitan area are tabulated at the beginning of Table B-1 for the total population and Table B-2 for the nonwhite population.

Table B-1 TOTAL POPULATION

Structural Characteristics of Standard Metropolitan Statistical Areas

	Pop. ('000's)[1]	% SMSA Pop. in C.C.[1]	% SMSA Pop. Change 1950-60[2]	% Non-White in SMSA[3]	Per Cent SMSA Employment in Manu.[4]	Trade[4]	Fin. & Ser.[4]	Per Cent SMSA Non-White in C.C.[5]
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)
Northeast								
1. New York, N.Y.	10,695	73	12	12	27	21	27	89
2. Philadelphia, Pa.-N.J.	4,343	46	18	16	37	20	19	78
3. Boston, Mass.	2,589	27	7	3	28	22	26	79
4. Pittsburgh, Pa.	2,405	25	9	7	38	20	19	62
5. Newark, N.J.	1,689	24	15	13	37	20	21	61
6. Buffalo, N.Y.	1,307	41	20	7	40	19	16	82
7. Paterson-Clifton-Passaic, N.J.	1,187	24	36	4	44	21	14	59
8. Providence-Pawtucket, R.I.-Mass.	816	35	7	2	45	18	17	75
9. Albany-Schenectady-Troy, N.Y.	658	42	12	3	29	20	19	88
10. Jersey City, N.J.	611	45	- 6	7	46	14	12	88
11. Rochester, N.Y.	586	54	20	4	48	18	15	83
12. Syracuse, N.Y.	564	38	21	3	37	20	18	83
13. Hartford, Conn.	525	31	29	6	37	19	25	86
14. Allentown-Bethlehem-Easton, Pa.-N.J.	492	44	12	1	53	16	14	79
15. Springfield-Chicopee-Holyoke, Mass.	479	60	16	3	42	19	20	96
16. Wilkes-Barre-Hazleton, Pa.	347	28	-12	--[b]	40	18	14	--
17. Harrisburg, Pa.	345	23	18	7	24	18	16	65
18. Bridgeport, Conn.	335	47	22	5	54	17	13	87
19. Utica-Rome, N.Y.	331	46	16	2	39	16	14	89
20. Worcester, Mass.	323	58	7	1	45	18	18	83
21. New Haven, Conn.	312	49	16	8	35	19	21	92
22. Johnstown, Pa.	281	19	- 4	1	36	17	16	72
23. Lancaster, Pa.	278	22	19	1	50	18	14	70
24. Reading, Pa.	275	36	8	2	51	15	16	88
25. Trenton, N.J.	266	43	16	13	36	16	19	75
26. Erie, Pa.	251	55	14	3	47	18	16	95
27. York, Pa.	238	23	18	2[b]	51	17	12	88
28. Scranton, Pa.	234	48	- 9	--[b]	39	19	17	--
29. Binghampton, N.Y.	213	45	15	1	51	16	12	8
30. Lawrence-Haverhill, Mass.-N.H.	188	63	3	1	49	16	16	--

B-1 Population Characteristics of Central Cities and Suburban Areas

	% Non-White[5]		Per cent of Persons by Age Group[5] Under 10		10-19		20-29		30-44		45-59		60 & Over		% of Persons 5 yrs. old & over[6] Movers within SMSA		Migrants from Another State		% of All Fams. w. Children under 18[8]		% of all Fams. w. Children under 18 Which Are Broken	
	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.
Northeast	(9)	(10)	(11)	(12)	(13)	(14)	(15)	(16)	(17)	(18)	(19)	(20)	(21)	(22)	(23)	(24)	(25)	(26)	(27)	(28)	(29)	(30)
1. New York	15	5	16	22	14	16	12	10	21	24	20	17	16	12	37 (2)	37 (44)	3	5	49	63	10	4
2. Philadelphia	27	6	19	22	15	16	12	12	20	23	19	16	15	12	34 (4)	33 (25)	4	10	50	60	10	4
3. Boston	10	1	17	21	15	16	14	11	18	20	18	17	18	15	36 (11)	32 (15)	6	6	49	56	13	5
4. Pittsburg	17	3	18	21	15	16	12	10	20	22	19	17	16	13	36 (11)	34 (12)	3	4	50	58	10	4
5. Newark	34	7	20	19	14	15	14	10	22	22	17	19	13	14	38 (11)	29 (16)	3	7	53	55	14	4
6. Buffalo	14	2	19	24	15	16	12	11	20	23	18	16	17	11	37 (10)	36 (39)	3	5	51	62	10	4
7. Pat.-Clif.-Pass.	9	2	18	21	14	15	12	10	22	24	19	18	15	12	31 (15)	23 (13)	5	11	52	59	8	3
8. Prov.-Paw.	4	1	18	21	15	16	12	10	19	22	18	17	18	14	33 (12)	31 (24)	5	7	50	58	10	5
9. Alb.-Sch.-Troy	6	1	18	22	15	16	12	10	18	22	19	17	19	14	33 (13)	29 (34)	4	5	49	58	10	4
10. Jersey City	14	2	18	17	15	14	12	12	21	21	19	20	15	16	34 (8)	30 (9)	4	5	51	50	10	8
11. Rochester	7	2	18	24	14	16	13	9	18	24	17	16	19	10	32 (8)	34 (68)	4	4	50	63	8	2
12. Syracuse	6	1	19	24	15	17	14	11	19	21	17	14	17	12	31 (14)	30 (32)	6	5	51	62	9	4
13. Hartford	16	1	18	22	14	16	14	10	20	23	18	16	16	12	37 (11)	31 (32)	8	10	50	61	13	3
14. All.-Beth.-Easton	2	0	18	20	15	16	11	11	21	22	18	17	16	14	30 (16)	29 (27)	5	4	52	56	5	2
15. Spring.-Chic.-Holy	5	0	21	21	15	17	12	10	20	22	16	16	16	14	37 (6)	21 (30)	9	8	55	58	7	4
16. W.-Barre-Hazl.	1	0	16	17	15	16	10	10	19	21	21	21	19	16	25 (18)	22 (19)	2	6	56	49	7	6
17. Harrisburg	19	3	18	21	14	17	12	11	18	22	19	16	19	12	36 (16)	31 (25)	4	5	47	58	15	5
18. Bridgeport	10	1	19	22	14	17	13	9	21	24	17	17	16	11	32 (10)	29 (40)	6	8	54	62	9	3
19. Utica-Rome	3	0	20	22	15	16	12	10	20	21	17	16	16	15	28 (14)	28 (27)	5	4	55	59	7	3
20. Worcester	1	0	18	22	15	16	11	10	19	22	18	16	19	14	35 (7)	32 (35)	4	4	51	61	8	4
21. New Haven	15	1	17	20	14	16	16	9	19	23	17	18	16	13	32 (9)	33 (44)	10	6	51	58	11	3
22. Johnstown	5	0	19	22	16	18	11	10	20	20	18	16	16	14	36 (15)	26 (14)	2	3	52	58	8	4
23. Lancaster	4	0	18	22	15	17	13	12	19	20	17	15	18	13	35 (19)	31 (17)	4	3	51	59	10	3
24. Reading	4	0	16	19	14	15	11	11	19	22	20	18	20	14	31 (17)	28 (25)	2	2	44	55	8	2
25. Trenton	23	6	17	20	14	16	12	12	21	24	18	17	17	11	29 (11)	28 (6)	6	10	49	58	8	2
26. Eire	5	0	22	24	16	18	11	10	21	21	16	15	14	12	34 (10)	32 (18)	4	5	57	61	8	4
27. York	9	0	19	22	15	16	12	11	19	21	18	16	18	13	36	29	3	4	49	58	12	4
28. Scranton	1	0	17	18	15	15	10	10	20	22	20	19	18	16	26	21	2	2	50	51	7	4
29. Binghampton	2	0	18	23	14	16	11	12	19	22	19	16	19	12	32	28	5	6	51	60	8	4
30. Law.--Haverhill	1	0	18	21	15	16	10	9	19	22	18	17	20	15	33	26	4	10	51	57	9	4
31. Waterbury	7	0	19	23	15	16	11	10	20	23	18	16	16	12	33	30	3	6	50	63	8	3

See footnotes at end of table.

B-1 Population Characteristics of Central Cities and Suburban Areas (Cont'd)[a]

	% of Unrelated Individuals[g]		% of Persons 25 yrs. old & over: Less than 4 yrs. Hi. Sch.		% of Persons 25 yrs. old & over: 4 yrs. or more College		% of 16 & 17 yr. olds not in Sch.[j,o]		Per Cent of Employed Persons By Occupation Group[10]: Prof. & Tech.		Man.		Cler. & Sales		Crafts. & Fore.		Oper.		Laborers		House. & Ser.	
	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.
	(31)	(32)	(33)	(34)	(35)	(36)	(37)	(38)	(39)	(40)	(41)	(42)	(43)	(44)	(45)	(46)	(47)	(48)	(49)	(50)	(51)	(52)
Northeast																						
1. New York	11	5	63	48	8	13	22	11	11	17	9	13	28	25	10	14	19	12	3	3	12	11
2. Philadelphia	10	6	69	54	5	10	14	24	9	15	6	10	25	25	13	17	22	19	4	4	13	9
3. Boston	15	7	55	43	8	13	26	13	12	16	5	10	27	27	11	14	18	16	4	3	13	9
4. Pittsburgh	10	4	65	57	6	7	20	15	11	12	6	7	26	23	13	18	15	18	8	8	15	12
5. Newark	10	6	73	50	4	13	28	11	7	16	4	11	20	26	11	14	28	16	6	3	12	8
6. Buffalo	10	4	70	56	5	8	18	12	10	13	6	8	23	23	14	18	22	19	6	5	12	9
7. Pat.-Clif.-Pass.	7	4	70	52	5	11	22	11	9	15	7	12	20	27	14	16	31	17	4	2	8	7
8. Prov.-Paw.	10	5	68	64	6	6	27	22	10	10	6	8	21	20	13	16	28	28	4	3	10	8
9. Alb.-Sch.-Troy	13	5	59	54	8	10	14	16	14	15	7	8	29	23	11	15	15	19	4	4	12	8
10. Jersey City	8	7	72	71	4	4	24	26	11	6	6	6	25	25	12	14	25	28	7	5	11	8
11. Rochester	1	4	66	45	6	14	16	10	12	18	5	9	24	26	15	17	23	17	4	2	11	6
12. Syracuse	13	6	56	54	11	10	18	13	14	14	8	8	27	22	12	16	17	19	6	2	11	9
13. Hartford	14	5	66	47	6	14	25	9	10	15	5	10	28	29	13	16	20	16	4	2	12	7
14. All.-Beth.-Easton	9	5	60	68	7	5	18	15	11	9	7	6	25	15	15	16	26	32	6	6	10	9
15. Spr.-Chic.-Holy.	9	7	61	54	6	9	20	15	10	13	7	9	24	23	14	16	25	21	3	4	10	10
16. W. Barre-Hazl.	8	5	62	66	5	4	23	21	10	8	7	6	21	18	12	12	27	34	4	4	8	8
17. Harrisburg	4	6	59	54	5	7	16	16	10	11	8	8	33	26	11	16	13	11	6	5	13	8
18. Bridgeport	9	4	68	52	5	10	21	10	9	15	5	9	23	21	15	19	27	20	4	3	9	7
19. Utica-Rome	8	6	65	59	4	9	22	16	13	13	7	7	26	19	12	14	19	22	3	3	12	10
20. Worcester	10	4	60	56	7	7	19	16	13	11	7	8	24	23	14	17	24	25	3	3	11	9
21. New Haven	14	4	62	50	9	13	21	11	13	14	6	10	23	28	12	17	23	18	4	2	11	7
22. Johnstown	8	4	69	66	3	6	18	18	8	9	4	7	22	17	17	16	20	27	12	8	13	9
23. Lancaster	12	5	68	66	5	6	22	29	10	9	5	7	22	17	14	15	24	26	5	4	14	8
24. Reading	12	6	73	65	4	6	20	19	8	9	6	7	21	17	14	16	31	30	5	5	11	7
25. Trenton	10	8	70	52	5	13	24	11	10	17	6	9	21	24	11	15	24	18	6	3	14	10
26. Erie	8	5	58	54	6	6	13	11	12	10	8	17	24	19	15	17	20	23	5	5	10	8
27. York	11	4	70	66	4	5	22	20	9	8	6	7	22	19	14	17	27	29	6	5	13	7
28. Scranton	7	5	63	63	5	5	15	22	9	8	8	6	25	18	13	13	28	35	4	4	9	8
29. Binghampton	9	5	60	56	7	7	18	13	13	15	8	7	21	22	11	13	23	14	2	3	12	8
30. Law.-Hav.	8	5	64	53	5	8	24	11	9	14	5	9	19	22	12	14	37	24	3	3	8	8

B-1 Population Characteristics of Central Cities and Suburban Areas (Cont'd)[a]

	% of Families By Income Group[11]: Under $4,000		$4,000 - 7,999		$8,000 - 14,999		$15,000 & Over		% Married Wom. in L.F.[k]		% Mar. ried Wom. in L.F. w. Child under 6[p]		% of L.F. Unemployed[q]		% Unsound Owner-Occ Housing[12]	
	C.C.	Sub	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.
	(53)	(54)	(55)	(56)	(57)	(58)	(59)	(60)	(61)	(62)	(63)	(64)	(65)	(66)	(67)	(68)
Northeast																
1. New York	25	12	44	39	25	35	6	14	31	26	13	13	5	3	6	3
2. Philadelphia	27	16	47	45	23	31	4	8	31	28	17	18	6	3	6	6
3. Boston	26	15	48	45	22	31	3	8	31	28	16	16	5	3	12	6
4. Pittsburgh	28	22	47	50	20	24	5	5	23	19	14	17	9	7	17	12
5. Newark	30	13	47	40	20	36	3	12	34	30	22	14	8	3	18	4
6. Buffalo	26	14	49	49	21	32	4	5	28	27	18	18	9	5	11	8
7. Pat.-Clif.-Pass.	23	10	48	41	25	38	4	10	33	31	17	13	6	4	8	3
8. Prov.-Paw.	33	23	48	52	16	21	3	4	34	35	18	20	6	5	9	9
9. Alb.-Sch.-Troy	28	20	46	48	22	27	4	4	32	30	17	17	5	6	12	12
10. Jersey City	23	20	50	50	24	27	3	4	30	32	15	14	6	5	12	8
11. Rochester	22	10	47	39	28	41	4	10	37	31	18	17	6	3	7	5
12. Syracuse	22	20	46	48	26	28	5	5	33	31	18	20	5	6	8	16
13. Hartford	24	10	48	44	25	38	3	9	41	34	17	16	5	2	7	3
14. All.-Beth.-Easton	24	23	50	53	22	21	4	3	32	34	17	19	5	3	10	13
15. Spr.-Chic.-Holy.	23	16	52	50	23	28	3	5	33	34	19	12	6	4	8	8
16. W. Barre-Hazl.	37	40	46	46	14	12	2	2	30	31	18	19	9	11	8	14
17. Harrisburg	32	21	45	52	20	24	3	4	35	33	16	25	4	3	12	12
18. Bridgeport	23	11	50	46	24	36	3	8	34	31	19	16	7	4	7	4
19. Utica-Rome	24	23	49	49	24	25	4	4	34	34	21	21	7	7	12	18
20. Worcester	25	17	50	54	21	26	4	4	30	32	15	17	4	4	9	8
21. New Haven	26	12	48	47	22	34	5	8	36	32	15	12	4	3	12	4
22. Johnstown	37	41	50	45	11	12	1	2	18	20	17	19	7	11	18	25
23. Lancaster	26	25	52	49	20	22	2	4	38	34	20	22	4	3	12	14
24. Reading	29	21	50	54	18	22	2	4	37	36	16	18	6	9	10	14
25. Trenton	26	13	45	44	23	34	5	8	36	36	19	18	5	2	10	6
26. Erie	25	25	52	51	20	20	3	3	26	29	20	21	9	8	9	15
27. York	29	24	51	53	18	19	2	4	39	36	21	17	7	4	12	15
28. Scranton	34	38	49	47	15	13	3	2	25	30	17	18	7	9	17	16
29. Binghampton	22	18	48	51	26	27	5	4	36	34	18	19	5	4	8	12
30. Law.-Hav.	27	17	50	50	21	28	2	5	42	38	24	13	4	3	12	9

See footnotes at end of table.

B-1 Population Characteristics of Central Cities and Suburban Areas (Cont'd)[a]

	% Owner-Occupied Housing Units By Value Class[13]										% of Unsound Rental Housing[12]		% of Renter-Occupied Housing Units By Gross Rent Class[13]								% of Workers Who Commute[14]	
	Under $5,000		$5,000 - $9,999		$10,000- $14,999		$15,000- $19,999		$20,000 & Over				Under $40		$40-79		$80-119		$120 & Over			
	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.
	(69)	(70)	(71)	(72)	(73)	(74)	(75)	(76)	(77)	(78)	(79)	(80)	(81)	(82)	(83)	(84)	(85)	(86)	(87)	(88)	(89)	(90)
Northeast																						
1. New York	2	1	7	5	25	23	37	32	29	39	22	18	5	2	54	32	28	38	13	28	3	29
2. Philadelphia	9	4	54	22	29	39	5	19	2	16	25	22	8	5	65	47	21	36	6	12	7	23
3. Boston	6	1	20	9	36	31	26	32	11	26	29	19	7	3	46	38	40	46	7	13	15	27
4. Pittsburgh	7	8	36	26	32	30	15	22	10	14	40	44	12	11	56	58	24	26	9	6	10	16
5. Newark	2	0	23	5	37	20	25	35	13	40	37	16	6	2	49	30	40	50	5	19	20	15
6. Buffalo	4	1	30	11	42	32	16	34	8	21	28	23	9	4	57	41	31	46	3	9	16	36
7. Pat.-Clif.-Pass.	1	0	8	3	24	15	41	38	26	44	27	12	5	2	53	28	38	49	5	21	22	10
8. Prov.-Paw.	2	3	26	23	44	47	15	17	12	10	28	30	14	10	69	68	15	18	2	3	14	29
9. Alb.-Sch.-Troy	5	11	24	33	37	34	20	15	14	8	29	27	9	8	64	61	24	25	3	6	14	41
10. Jersey City	3	1	34	15	36	33	17	30	10	21	29	24	6	5	62	59	28	33	3	3	16	7
11. Rochester	1	1	25	7	50	25	19	37	5	30	29	23	5	2	49	29	38	48	8	21	4	74
12. Syracuse	1	6	15	24	38	33	28	22	17	14	30	37	5	5	45	51	40	33	9	11	14	34
13. Hartford	0	0	3	4	31	28	46	38	19	30	25	19	4	3	43	34	46	46	6	16	17	32
14. All.-Beth.-Easton	6	8	41	36	33	32	11	15	9	9	27	32	11	9	63	67	22	21	4	2	12	34
15. Sprg.-Chic.-Holy.	2	3	21	18	54	42	17	22	7	15	27	26	6	5	64	56	29	28	3	4	6	31
16. W. Barre-Hazl.	21	27	50	44	18	18	5	7	6	5	20	31	9	20	76	70	13	9	2	1	10	26
17. Harrisburg	6	9	42	26	39	32	7	21	6	13	25	29	10	9	59	62	27	24	4	6	17	28
18. Bridgeport	2	1	13	4	26	23	39	42	21	31	26	22	6	2	55	41	33	42	6	15	13	35
19. Utica-Rome	3	7	20	32	41	32	25	18	12	11	35	36	10	9	60	65	27	23	4	4	10	30
20. Worcester	3	4	18	20	50	49	19	19	11	8	33	31	6	8	62	66	28	23	3	3	5	41
21. New Haven	1	1	11	5	31	29	25	36	32	29	31	15	6	2	53	40	34	44	6	15	12	46
22. Johnstown	12	31	49	33	30	20	8	9	2	6	39	50	17	31	71	59	12	9	0	1	9	21
23. Lancaster	7	9	53	28	34	31	5	18	2	13	32	32	7	9	67	67	24	19	2	4	15	22
24. Reading	16	10	64	34	13	33	3	14	4	9	30	35	16	13	70	66	13	18	1	3	17	26
25. Trenton	7	2	62	16	24	42	4	20	4	10	27	17	8	2	51	31	35	49	6	19	13	6
26. Erie	4	9	36	34	39	32	13	14	7	11	30	32	9	10	62	58	25	27	3	5	10	19
27. York	12	9	56	35	25	32	4	16	3	9	34	38	14	13	71	68	14	17	1	3	20	25
28. Scranton	13	17	46	45	24	23	10	9	7	6	27	32	14	19	71	71	13	8	2	2	7	28
29. Binghampton	1	3	17	17	42	38	22	27	18	14	26	28	7	3	58	56	30	35	4	6	21	33
30. Law.-Hav.	5	3	27	16	33	38	28	25	7	18	32	17	8	3	68	54	22	43	3	1	17	34

B-1 Structural Characteristics of Standard Metropolitan Statistical Areas

	Pop. (000's)[1]	% SMSA Pop. in C.C.[1]	% SMSA Pop. Change 1950-60[2]	% Non-White in SMSA[3]	Per Cent SMSA Employment in Manu.[4]	Trade.[4]	Fin.,[4] & Ser.[4]	Per Cent SMSA Non-White in C.C.[5]
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)
31. Waterbury, Conn.	182	59	17	4	57	15	13	96
32. Stamford, Conn.	178	52	32	5	39	20	21	82
33. Atlantic City, N.J.	161	37	22	18	17	27	29	76
34. Lowell, Mass.	158	58	16	1	44[6]	18[6]	9[6]	--
35. New London-Groton-Norwich, Conn.	157	46	44	3	58	20	13	70
36. Brockton, Mass.	149	49	25	1	44[6]	24[6]	10[6]	62
37. New Bedford, Mass.	143	72	1	3	54	17	13	80
38. Fall River, Mass.-R.I.	138	72	1	1	57	18	14	--
39. Altoona, Pa.	137	51	- 2	1	28	18	15	--
40. New Britain, Conn.	129	64	24	2[b]	60	14	11	86
41. Portland, Maine	121	60	1	--[b]	23	28	24	--
Northeast Average		45	14	4	42	19	17	80
North Central								
42. Chicago, Ill.	6,221	57	20	15	35	22	21	91
43. Detroit, Michigan	3,762	44	25	15	43	20	16	86
44. St. Louis, Mo.-Ill.	2,060	36	17	15	36	21	18	72
45. Cleveland, Ohio	1,797	49	23	15	40	21	17	97
46. Minneapolis-St. Paul, Minn.	1,482	54	29	2	27	25	21	91
47. Milwaukee, Wis.	1,194	62	25	6	43	20	17	98
48. Cincinnati, Ohio-Ky.	1,072	47	19	12	38	21	18	85
49. Kansas City, Mo.-Kans.	1,039	46	28	11	27	25	20	71
50. Indianapolis, Ind.	698	68	26	14	34	23	17	98
51. Dayton, Ohio	695	38	34	10	42	18	14	82
52. Columbus, Ohio	683	69	37	12	28	21	20	96
53. Gary-Hammond-East Chicago, Ind.	574	61	41	15	58	15	10	98
54. Akron, Ohio	514	57	25	8	48	19	14	91
55 Youngstown-Warren, Ohio	509	45	22	9	48	18	14	82
56. Omaha, Nebr.-Iowa	458	66	25	6	23	23	23	95
57. Toledo, Ohio	457	70	16	10	38	22	17	93
58 Flint, Mich.	374	53	38	10	59	15	10	94

See footnotes at end of table.

B-1 Population Characteristics of Central Cities and Suburban Areas

	% Non-White[5]		Per cent of Persons by Age Group[5]												% of Persons 5 yrs. old & over[8]						% of all Fams. w. Children under 18 Which Are Broken	
			Under 10		10-19		20-29		30-44		45-59		60 & Over		Movers within SMSA		Migrants from Another State		% of all Fams. w. Children under 18[8]			
	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.
	(9)	(10)	(11)	(12)	(13)	(14)	(15)	(16)	(17)	(18)	(19)	(20)	(21)	(22)	(23)	(24)	(25)	(26)	(27)	(28)	(29)	(30)
32. Stamford	8	2	20	20	14	17	11	8	23	22	18	21	13	13	29	22	12	19	56	60	4	2
33. Atlantic City	36	7	15	20	13	15	9	10	18	21	20	18	25	15	34	26	8	10	41	53	22	5
34. Lowell	0	1	20	26	16	16	11	11	19	22	17	13	17	11	34	31	3	5	53	67	8	3
35. N.London-Grot.-Nor.	4	2	20	24	16	16	15	13	20	22	15	14	14	12	30	30	17	19	56	64	8	5
36. Brockton	2	1	21	24	15	17	11	10	20	21	16	15	18	13	28	20	3	3	55	62	8	5
37. New Bedford	3	2	18	20	15	17	10	9	20	23	18	19	19	13	36	31	3	5	50	56	11	5
38. Fall River	1	0	18	20	16	18	10	9	20	23	18	18	17	12	35	27	3	9	54	58	3	5
39. Altoona	1	0	18	21	16	17	10	11	19	20	18	17	19	15	29	28	3	2	49	56	7	3
40. New Britain	3	1	20	23	15	16	11	11	23	24	17	15	15	11	34	30	5	7	55	61	6	3
41. Portland	1	0	19	22	16	17	10	10	18	21	18	17	19	14	37	33	6	6	51	57	12	15
Northeast Avg.	9	2	18	21	15	16	12	10	20	22	18	17	17	13	33	(12) 29 (5)	5	6	51	59	9	4
North Central																						
42. Chicago	24	3	20	24	14	16	13	11	21	22	19	16	15	10	42	(4) 39 (40)	5	10	50	62	11	3
43. Detroit	29	4	20	27	15	16	11	12	21	23	19	14	14	8	38	(9) 40 (38)	3	5	50	66	12	4
44. St. Louis	29	6	20	24	14	16	13	11	18	22	19	16	18	11	44	(6) 38 (30)	5	9	46	60	14	5
45. Cleveland	26	3	21	22	14	16	13	10	21	23	17	17	14	12	40	(7) 40 (45)	7	6	52	59	11	3
46. Minn.-St.Paul	3	0	19	30	15	16	14	12	17	22	17	12	18	8	34	(10) 39 (48)	7	10	50	71	10	3
47. Milwaukee	9	0	21	24	14	16	14	11	20	22	17	16	14	11	39	(8) 38 (48)	6	6	54	61	8	3
48. Cincinnati	22	4	20	24	14	16	13	12	18	21	17	16	16	12	42	(9) 40 (30)	7	9	49	59	13	5
49. Kansas City	22	5	20	26	14	16	13	12	19	24	18	14	16	9	40	(14) 38 (30)	11	17	49	61	11	4
50. Indianapolis	21	1	22	24	14	17	13	11	19	24	17	15	14	8	37	(6) 40 (58)	8	10	52	64	9	4
51. Dayton	22	5	21	25	16	17	13	13	20	23	16	14	14	9	40	(12) 41 (36)	8	10	54	64	11	4
52. Columbus	14	2	22	25	15	17	16	13	20	23	15	14	12	9	41	(8) 38 (50)	9	11	55	64	9	4
53. Gary-Ham.-E.Chi.	25	1	24	26	16	18	13	13	22	21	15	14	10	8	33	(10) 36 (38)	10	13	58	67	7	3
54. Akron	13	2	21	24	15	17	12	11	20	23	17	15	14	10	37	(10) 34 (44)	6	6	53	57	7	4
55. Youngs.-War.	17	3	21	24	15	17	12	11	21	23	16	15	15	11	35	(14) 33 (37)	5	6	53	62	5	2
56. Omaha	9	1	23	25	15	17	13	13	19	21	16	13	14	11	34	(8) 35 (33)	13	18	55	63	7	4
57. Toledo	13	2	21	25	15	17	11	11	20	22	18	16	16	9	35	(9) 36 (54)	5	6	52	62	9	4
58. Flint	18	1	24	28	15	18	14	13	20	20	16	13	11	8	36	(14) 37 (44)	6	4	57	68	7	3

B-1 Population Characteristics of Central Cities and Suburban Areas (Cont'd)[a]

	% of Unrelated Individs[9]		% of Persons 25 yrs. old & over[5]				% of 16 & 17 yr. olds not in Sch[5,9]		Per Cent of Employed Persons By Occupation Group[10]													
			Less than 4 yrs. Hi. Sch.		4 yrs. or more College				Prof. & Tech.		Man.		Cler. & Sales		Crafts. & Fore.		Oper.		Laborers		House. & Ser.	
	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.
	(31)	(32)	(33)	(34)	(35)	(36)	(37)	(38)	(39)	(40)	(41)	(42)	(43)	(44)	(45)	(46)	(47)	(48)	(49)	(50)	(51)	(52)
31. Waterbury	6	4	65	55	4	14	20	15	10	12	6	8	21	20	18	20	29	26	4	3	10	3
32. Stamford	7	7	51	32	12	26	16	6	13	18	10	19	23	22	13	10	17	8	3	4	11	12
33. Atlantic City	17	9	73	62	3	5	26	13	5	9	7	10	19	21	10	17	14	18	4	4	32	11
34. Lowell	8	3	64	54	5	6	31	24	10	12	6	7	19	20	13	20	30	24	4	3	10	8
35. N.London-Grot.-Nor.	14	6	61	54	7	12	8	38	13	15	7	8	21	19	16	21	19	18	4	3	13	9
36. Brockton	8	5	56	50	6	6	14	11	10	11	7	8	24	22	13	18	28	24	4	3	9	5
37. New Bedford	9	5	80	66	3	6	36	18	7	8	5	8	18	14	12	14	42	26	5	3	10	8
38. Fall River	7	3	80	68	3	5	36	56	8	8	5	9	16	19	12	16	43	31	4	4	8	7
39. Altoona	8	5	63	63	4	4	12	12	9	8	7	7	23	16	20	18	21	27	6	7	11	9
40. New Britain	7	4	67	59	6	9	15	6	9	10	5	8	23	23	17	22	30	27	3	2	8	8
41. Portland	12	5	52	48	6	8	19	7	10	11	10	9	30	25	12	15	16	21	5	5	12	8
Northeast Avg.	10	5	65	56	6	9	20	16	10	12	6	9	23	22	13	16	24	22	5	4	12	8
North Central																						
42. Chicago	10	5	65	48	6	12	20	16	9	14	6	11	27	26	13	16	21	16	5	3	16	16
43. Detroit	9	4	66	53	5	8	18	15	10	14	6	8	24	24	13	18	23	20	4	3	13	9
44. St. Louis	11	5	74	59	4	8	26	14	8	12	5	9	24	25	11	16	22	18	6	4	14	8
45. Cleveland	10	5	70	45	4	13	20	9	7	16	4	11	22	28	14	16	26	15	7	2	13	7
46. Minn.-St.Paul	14	3	52	40	9	12	14	11	13	15	7	11	30	26	12	16	15	15	4	4	12	8
47. Milwaukee	10	4	60	47	6	12	13	7	10	15	6	10	25	25	15	17	24	17	5	3	11	8
48. Cincinnati	11	5	66	59	8	9	24	16	12	11	7	9	23	26	11	16	18	18	6	4	14	8
49. Kansas City	12	4	53	48	8	9	25	15	10	12	8	10	29	27	11	15	16	17	5	4	12	8
50. Indianapolis	10	4	58	46	8	11	26	16	10	14	7	11	27	28	12	17	19	16	5	3	12	6
51. Dayton	10	4	62	49	6	10	18	14	10	14	5	8	23	23	14	16	21	20	5	3	13	7
52. Columbus	11	6	56	38	8	17	20	12	12	18	7	12	26	26	12	14	17	13	4	3	13	8
53. Gary-Ham.-E.Chi.	6	4	64	55	5	6	18	18	8	10	5	7	18	19	21	25	22	20	11	6	9	8
54. Akron	7	3	59	50	7	9	16	10	11	14	6	8	23	22	14	18	25	21	4	4	12	8
55. Youngs.-Warren	7	3	64	56	5	6	9	12	9	10	6	7	21	19	17	21	21	22	10	7	12	7
56. Omaha	9	6	49	48	9	7	17	18	11	10	9	8	29	24	12	16	16	16	5	5	12	9
57. Toledo	9	3	62	52	6	9	12	14	11	12	8	11	24	22	14	17	21	20	5	4	13	8
58. Flint	10	3	59	63	6	4	17	16	11	8	6	5	20	17	14	21	30	32	4	4	10	8

See footnote at end of table.

B-1 Population Characteristics of Central Cities and Suburban Areas (Cont'd)[a]

	% of Families By Income Group[11]								% Married Women in L.F.		% Mar. ried Wom. in L.F. w. Child under 6[9]		% of L.F. Unemployed[9]		% Unsound Owner-Occ Housing[12]	
	Under $4,000		$4,000 - 7,999		$8,000 - 14,999		$15,000 & Over									
	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.
	(53)	(54)	(55)	(56)	(57)	(58)	(59)	(60)	(61)	(62)	(63)	(64)	(65)	(66)	(67)	(68)
31. Waterbury	18	11	49	46	29	36	4	6	36	36	18	18	7	4	6	6
32. Stamford	14	9	39	26	35	30	13	35	35	24	16	14	3	2	5	2
33. Atlantic City	48	27	38	47	12	21	2	4	33	31	19	19	10	5	12	11
34. Lowell	26	15	51	56	20	26	3	3	37	34	23	23	5	4	8	12
35. N.London-Grot.-Nor.	23	19	48	46	25	30	4	5	30	22	17	21	4	3	12	10
36. Brockton	22	16	54	56	22	24	3	3	34	32	17	18	5	4	7	11
37. New Bedford	35	25	49	53	14	19	2	3	45	39	22	22	6	6	13	16
38. Fall River	34	24	52	52	12	21	2	3	44	40	23	19	6	5	15	10
39. Altoona	34	32	50	52	15	14	2	2	24	24	21	20	7	4	21	24
40. New Britain	16	12	52	51	28	32	4	4	39	36	17	20	6	5	4	7
41. Portland	29	21	50	53	18	22	3	4	28	21	17	17	5	4	9	10
Northeast Avg.	27	20	48	48	21	26	4	6	33	31	18	18	6	5	10	10
North Central																
42. Chicago	20	10	43	39	31	40	6	11	35	29	18	18	5	2	8	5
43. Detroit	26	14	43	44	26	36	5	7	29	26	18	22	10	6	7	6
44. St. Louis	32	17	46	47	19	29	3	7	33	27	20	20	5	4	14	11
45. Cleveland	28	10	49	41	24	39	2	11	32	28	20	14	8	3	9	3
46. Minn.-St. Paul	20	10	48	49	27	33	5	7	34	29	18	25	4	3	8	6
47. Milwaukee	17	10	50	44	29	35	4	10	33	28	21	19	5	3	7	5
48. Cincinnati	29	17	44	47	22	30	6	6	30	26	20	19	6	4	9	9
49. Kansas City	26	17	46	48	23	28	5	6	36	32	20	22	5	4	13	11
50. Indianapolis	24	12	46	42	25	37	4	9	36	33	22	20	5	2	13	8
51. Dayton	24	16	46	46	27	32	4	6	34	30	22	21	6	4	8	10
52. Columbus	25	13	48	42	24	34	3	10	35	30	22	20	5	2	11	9
53. Gary-Ham.-E. Chi.	20	14	50	49	27	31	4	5	24	22	20	22	4	1	9	12
54. Akron	20	13	48	48	28	34	4	5	29	27	20	19	6	2	10	12
55. Youngs.-Warren	24	18	50	52	22	26	4	4	24	24	20	20	7	6	11	14
56. Omaha	21	23	48	50	26	24	6	4	33	29	20	22	3	3	11	15
57. Toledo	23	15	46	47	27	31	4	8	31	28	19	20	7	5	8	11
58. Flint	19	17	49	52	28	28	4	3	30	29	24	28	6	6	10	14

B-1 Population Characteristics of Central Cities and Suburban Areas (Cont'd)[a]

	% Owner-Occupied Housing Units By Value Class[13]										% of Unsound Rental Housing[12]		% of Renter-Occupied Housing Units By Gross Rent Class[13]								% of Workers Who Commute[14]	
	Under $5,000		$5,000- $9,999		$10,000- $14,999		$15,000- $19,999		$20,000 & Over				Under $40		$40-79		$80-119		$120 & Over			
	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.
	(69)	(70)	(71)	(72)	(73)	(74)	(75)	(76)	(77)	(78)	(79)	(80)	(81)	(82)	(83)	(84)	(85)	(86)	(87)	(88)	(89)	(90)
31. Waterbury	0	1	9	8	48	37	28	32	14	21	26	24	5	5	71	57	22	32	1	6	12	31
32. Stamford	0	0	2	1	6	4	25	11	67	26	26	13	3	1	29	19	42	35	26	45	9	44
33. Atlantic City	7	7	43	32	31	36	10	14	8	11	18	22	7	5	69	51	19	35	5	9	6	26
34. Lowell	5	5	39	22	39	49	11	18	6	6	36	31	15	2	62	46	21	44	1	9	5	28
35. N. London-Grot.-Nor.	3	2	18	15	38	38	22	32	16	16	35	28	8	3	57	43	28	49	7	5	18	19
36. Brockton	2	3	23	24	52	52	16	17	7	4	28	27	8	3	69	61	22	33	1	3	9	16
37. New Bedford	5	7	36	36	40	33	13	13	6	10	42	33	14	4	74	60	12	29	1	6	3	60
38. Fall River	6	6	31	22	42	45	14	18	7	9	44	24	16	7	76	59	8	32	0	3	3	49
39. Altoona	41	27	40	42	12	20	4	7	2	5	50	49	19	21	73	65	7	11	1	3	12	35
40. New Britain	0	1	6	9	39	43	37	29	19	18	25	27	6	3	65	52	28	39	2	5	6	21
41. Portland	8	4	26	27	40	45	17	16	9	10	28	26	10	3	66	67	22	26	3	4	6	44
Northeast Avg.	6	6	29	21	34	33	18	22	12	16	30	25	9	8	61	52	26	32	6	9	12	30
North Central																						
42. Chicago	0	1	6	6	22	19	37	30	35	44	27	19	4	2	36	26	44	42	17	30	6	32
43. Detroit	3	2	28	17	42	38	20	25	7	18	24	23	5	3	51	38	38	44	7	16	16	33
44. St. Louis	5	7	28	21	39	35	19	20	8	16	40	34	10	9	61	44	25	31	3	15	8	34
45. Cleveland	1	0	15	3	45	14	31	39	8	44	28	11	6	1	46	20	41	47	7	32	7	50
46. Minn.-St. Paul	1	1	15	10	46	36	26	32	12	22	35	23	11	4	46	29	35	43	9	24	6	50
47. Milwaukee	1	0	12	6	36	24	38	34	13	37	25	18	5	4	35	28	49	62	11	6	8	46
48. Cincinnati	2	3	14	15	33	28	29	30	22	24	39	30	14	8	54	54	26	31	6	7	10	42
49. Kansas City	7	7	35	23	33	35	14	21	11	14	34	35	11	6	56	48	25	35	7	10	11	40
50. Indianapolis	8	4	35	18	38	30	12	22	6	26	34	30	5	3	50	37	38	42	7	17	6	39
51. Dayton	2	4	24	16	47	36	18	23	8	20	31	32	6	3	42	40	45	43	7	13	12	38
52. Columbus	2	2	20	10	42	28	23	24	12	36	35	23	5	2	42	21	47	56	5	21	7	48
53. Gary-Ham.-E.Chi.	10	4	15	19	47	33	26	23	11	20	38	32	7	3	52	42	36	44	5	11	78	47
54. Akron	2	3	24	16	42	29	20	28	12	25	36	32	8	5	54	40	31	39	7	16	9	46
55. Youngs.-Warren	4	6	31	24	36	29	19	23	10	18	36	36	8	6	54	52	32	35	6	7	17	41
56. Omaha	7	9	30	30	36	30	17	18	11	14	31	36	11	5	46	44	32	37	12	14	6	35
57. Toledo	4	5	33	19	36	31	17	21	10	24	28	33	7	4	59	36	29	44	5	15	8	52
58. Flint	3	6	33	38	43	33	14	14	6	9	39	34	4	3	42	46	46	45	8	6	12	57

See footnotes at end of table.

B-1 Structural Characteristics of Standard Metropolitan Statistical Areas

	Pop. (000's)[1]	% SMSA Pop. in C.C.[1]	% SMSA Pop. Change 1950-60[2]	% Non-White in SMSA[3]	Per Cent SMSA Employment in Manu.[4]	Per Cent SMSA Employment in Trade[4]	Per Cent SMSA Employment in Fin.,& Ser.[4]	Per Cent SMSA Non-White in C.C.[5]
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)
59. Grand Rapids, Mich.	363	49	26	4	43	21	16	96
60. Wichita, Kans.	343	74	54	6	37	22	17	96
61. Canton, Ohio	340	33	20	5	50	18	14	60
62. Lansing, Mich.	299	36	22	3	33	17	13	83
63. Peoria, Ill.	289	36	15	4	46[7]	21[7]	15[7]	94
64. Duluth-Superior, Minn.-Wis.	277	51	9	1	18	24	22	54
65. Davenport-Rock Island-Moline, Iowa-Ill.	270	68	15	2	47[6]	22[6]	15[6]	79
66. Des Moines, Iowa	266	79	18	4	22	26	25	97
67. South Bend, Ind.	239	56	16	6	47	19	18	92
68. Fort Wayne, Ind.	232	70	26	5	41	23	15	99
69. Madison, Wis.	222	57	31	1	17	21	18[6]	87
70. Lorain-Elyria, Ohio	218	52	47	6	58[6]	16[6]	7[6]	68
71. Rockford, Ill.	210	60	38	4	55[7]	18[7]	13[7]	62
72. Evansville, Ind.-Ky.	199	71	4	7	38	23	16	72
73. Hamilton-Middletown, Ohio	199	58	35	5	56[6]	17[6]	9[6]	87
74. Saginaw, Mich.	191	52	24	10	45[6]	20[6]	14[6]	88
75. Ann Arbor, Mich.	172	39	28	8	35[6]	13[6]	9[6]	33
76. Kalamazoo, Mich.	170	48	34	4	46[6]	18[6]	13[6]	90
77. Steubenville-Weirton, Ohio-W.Va.	168	36	6	4	62[6]	13[6]	6[6]	71
78. Lincoln, Nebr.	155	83	30	2	22[7]	29[7]	27[7]	73
79. Muskegon-Muskegon Heights, Mich.	150	44	23	9	55	16	12	87
80. Springfield, Ill.	146	57	12	4	36[7]	30[7]	33[7]	95
81. Racine, Wis.	142	63	29	4	47	18	16	88
82. Topeka, Kans.	141	85	34	7	14[6]	21[6]	20[6]	95
83. Cedar Rapids, Iowa	137	67	31	1	43[7]	22[7]	16[7]	96
84. Champaign-Urbana, Ill.	132	58	25	6	13[6]	34[6]	24[6]	84
85. Jackson, Mich.	132	38	22	6	41[6]	18[6]	13[6]	63
86. Springfield, Ohio	131	63	18	9	47[6]	20[6]	12[6]	96
87. Springfield, Mo.	126	76	21	2	27[7]	29[7]	20[7]	98
88. Green Bay, Wis.	125	50	27	1	35[6]	25[6]	16[6]	--
89. Waterloo, Iowa	122	59	22	4	46[7]	18[7]	14[7]	98
90. Decatur, Ill.	118	66	20	5	40[7]	22[7]	19[7]	99

B-1 Population Characteristics of Central Cities and Suburban Areas

	% Non-White[5]		Per cent of Persons by Age Group[5]: Under 10		10-19		20-29		30-44		45-59		60 & Over		% of Persons 5 yrs. old & over[8]: Movers within SMSA		Migrants from Another State		% of all Fams. w. Children under 18[8a]		% of all Fams. w. Children under 18 Which Are Broken	
	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.
	(9)	(10)	(11)	(12)	(13)	(14)	(15)	(16)	(17)	(18)	(19)	(20)	(21)	(22)	(23)	(24)	(25)	(26)	(27)	(28)	(29)	(30)
59. Grand Rapids	8	0	22	27	16	17	12	12	18	21	16	14	16	10	33 (13)	34 (38)	5	4	54	65	9	4
60. Wichita	6	1	23	29	16	17	14	13	21	23	15	11	11	6	37 (7)	37 (63)	12	12	60	70	8	4
61. Canton	10	3	20	23	15	17	12	11	20	22	16	15	17	12	36 (16)	33 (32)	4	4	52	68	7	4
62. Lansing	6	1	23	24	16	19	13	16	19	18	16	13	13	10	34 (24)	31 (27)	5	7	56	63	8	4
63. Peoria	10	0	20	24	16	16	13	12	18	21	18	16	17	11	33 (10)	35 (29)	6	6	50	61	11	4
64. Duluth-Superior	1	1	20	24	16	17	11	10	18	19	17	16	17	14	33 (10)	27 (17)	7	5	55	60	8	5
65. Dav.-R.I.-Mol.	3	2	21	24	16	17	12	12	19	20	17	16	15	11	32 (14)	41 (34)	10	8	53	63	6	4
66. Des Moines	5	1	21	26	16	17	13	11	19	22	16	14	15	10	34 (10)	34 (49)	8	8	55	65	8	3
67. South Bend	10	1	22	22	15	19	11	13	21	20	17	15	14	11	29	27	8	12	56	60	6	5
68. Fort Wayne	7	0	23	27	15	17	13	11	20	22	16	14	14	9	31	36	9	7	55	67	7	2
69. Madison	2	0	20	26	16	17	20	12	18	19	14	14	12	11	28	30	13	7	56	63	7	3
70. Lorain-Elyria	8	4	24	26	16	18	12	12	22	22	15	13	11	9	34	27	9	10	60	66	5	3
71. Rockford	4	4	22	27	15	17	12	12	20	21	16	13	15	8	36	34	10	12	57	66	6	4
72. Evansville	7	6	21	23	16	17	11	10	20	21	17	16	15	13	34	35	8	7	54	56	8	5
73. Ham.-Mid.	8	2	23	24	16	20	13	15	21	20	16	12	12	8	40	34	9	10	58	66	7	3
74. Saginaw	17	2	24	27	16	18	12	12	19	20	16	14	13	9	38	32	4	2	57	66	8	4
75. Ann Arbor	6	8	17	23	18	17	28	15	17	21	11	14	9	10	24	30	20	7	56	62	5	5
76. Kalamazoo	7	1	20	26	18	17	16	12	17	21	15	14	15	9	28	35	8	6	56	65	8	4
77. Steub.-Weir.	8	0	20	22	16	17	12	12	21	21	18	16	13	12	33	29	6	6	55	60	5	3
78. Lincoln	2	3	21	22	16	15	17	18	18	20	14	13	14	12	31	21	13	20	56	63	6	2
79. Musk.-Musk.Hgts.	17	2	25	26	17	19	11	11	18	21	17	14	10	11	32	34	4	4	55	69	9	5
80. Springfield,Ill.	7	0	19	23	14	16	11	10	18	21	19	28	18	13	32	33	6	4	49	58	10	4
81. Racine	5	1	23	26	15	17	12	11	20	20	16	16	14	12	35	24	6	6	57	63	6	3
82. Topeka	8	2	22	23	14	18	15	16	19	21	15	12	15	10	31	29	12	22	55	64	7	3
83. Cedar Rapids	1	0	22	25	15	17	13	14	20	19	16	13	14	12	32	32	8	7	56	63	6	3
84. Champ.-Urbana	9	2	19	24	19	20	24	18	17	19	11	10	10	8	26	22	13	28	57	65	6	3
85. Jackson	9	3	22	23	16	16	11	13	18	22	16	15	16	11	29	29	6	4	52	61	10	3
86. Springfield, Ohio	14	1	21	23	16	18	12	10	19	22	16	15	15	12	40	33	5	5	53	62	7	3
87. Springfield, Mo.	3	0	18	22	16	17	14	10	19	20	16	16	17	15	33	33	12	9	52	55	9	3
88. Green Bay	1	2	24	28	17	18	12	12	18	18	16	14	13	10	33	28	5	4	58	65	6	2
89. Waterloo	7	0	23	26	16	18	12	14	19	19	16	13	14	10	38	34	7	5	57	63	6	3
90. Decatur	8	0	21	24	15	18	12	12	20	21	17	14	16	11	35	37	6	5	53	62	9	4

See footnotes at end of table.

B-1 Population Characteristics of Central Cities and Suburban Areas (Cont'd)

	% of Unrelated Individs[8]		% of Persons 25 yrs. old & over[9]: Less than 4 yrs. Hi. Sch.		% of Persons 25 yrs. old & over[9]: 4 yrs. or more College		% of 16 & 17 yr. olds not in Sch.[9]		Per Cent of Employed Persons By Occupation Group[10]: Prof. & Tech.		Man.		Cler. & Sales		Crafts. & Fore.		Oper.		Laborers		House. & Ser.	
	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.
	(31)	(32)	(33)	(34)	(35)	(36)	(37)	(38)	(39)	(40)	(41)	(42)	(43)	(44)	(45)	(46)	(47)	(48)	(49)	(50)	(51)	(52)
59. Grand Rapids	10	3	59	55	7	7	16	15	12	10	8	9	26	22	13	18	22	24	4	4	12	8
60. Wichita	8	4	46	44	10	8	18	13	15	14	9	9	27	22	16	20	14	15	3	2	11	7
61. Canton	8	4	66	55	4	6	17	15	9	11	6	8	22	21	15	19	23	21	8	6	12	8
62. Lansing	8	10	51	50	8	12	12	13	12	14	7	7	29	21	14	14	17	18	2	3	13	11
63. Peoria	12	4	60	57	7	7	21	20	11	10	8	8	25	22	12	16	17	20	6	5	14	9
64. Dul.-Superior	10	6	54	59	8	5	12	10	12	10	11	9	24	15	15	20	15	24	5	5	14	12
65. Dav.-R. I.-Mol.	9	4	54	61	8	4	17	17	12	9	8	6	25	18	15	16	18	22	5	6	11	9
66. Des Moines	10	3	45	42	10	9	20	11	12	10	10	11	32	26	13	26	14	15	4	4	11	7
67. South Bend	7	10	54	59	9	6	9	12	13	12	8	6	25	20	12	16	21	26	4	4	11	10
68. Fort Wayne	8	3	53	50	8	6	18	12	13	11	9	8	26	21	14	16	19	22	4	3	11	8
69. Madison	18	4	35	48	21	11	6	10	22	12	8	8	29	19	10	13	10	14	3	4	14	11
70. Lorain-Elyria	6	5	60	54	5	7	22	8	9	10	6	7	19	18	18	20	26	23	6	5	9	9
71. Rockford	8	3	57	63	8	5	24	24	12	8	8	6	25	17	17	20	21	27	4	3	9	9
72. Evansville	7	4	61	66	6	5	16	18	11	8	9	8	24	17	13	15	21	22	4	6	13	10
73. Ham.-Mid.	6	8	62	62	11	7	24	17	11	11	7	5	22	18	16	19	22	23	5	6	12	10
74. Saginaw	7	3	63	64	6	4	14	16	12	8	7	7	22	18	15	27	24	26	5	3	12	9
75. Ann Arbor	29	7	26	55	39	10	11	17	36	14	8	6	22	19	6	15	6	20	2	3	15	14
76. Kalamazoo	15	3	53	51	12	9	21	14	15	11	8	8	23	20	12	17	18	24	4	4	14	8
77. Steub.-Weir.	6	4	63	66	5	4	19	18	9	8	7	5	19	16	20	22	18	24	12	12	11	7
78. Lincoln	12	9	37	52	15	5	8	5	16	7	10	6	28	17	12	15	12	12	4	6	14	11
79. Musk.-Musk.Hgts.	8	3	70	61	4	6	15	15	10	10	6	8	21	17	16	20	26	27	5	4	12	8
80. Springfield,Ill.	11	4	56	56	7	6	14	24	13	10	9	9	33	23	11	13	12	15	3	4	13	10
81. Racine	7	4	59	60	6	5	11	21	11	9	7	7	23	17	17	19	25	24	4	4	10	10
82. Topeka	8	10	46	46	12	6	18	19	14	8	9	8	29	23	13	16	11	14	4	5	12	8
83. Cedar Rapids	9	5	45	49	10	7	10	16	13	10	8	6	26	17	14	14	18	19	4	5	11	9
84. Champ.-Urbana	25	14	37	46	26	8	19	38	27	12	8	7	24	19	9	12	7	10	3	4	16	10
85. Jackson	10	4	57	60	8	5	25	16	13	9	8	7	23	20	12	17	19	23	4	3	13	10
86. Springfield, Ohio	9	3	61	55	6	6	26	8	11	11	7	8	24	21	15	20	20	18	4	3	13	7
87. Springfield, Mo.	11	3	56	63	8	4	24	17	11	6	15	8	26	16	13	17	17	20	5	5	13	7
88. Green Bay	7	4	54	60	6	6	10	15	10	8	8	7	25	18	15	14	19	20	4	4	12	10
89. Waterloo	8	7	52	46	6	9	13	24	10	13	8	7	25	20	14	14	22	20	5	4	13	10
90. Decatur	9	3	56	58	9	5	22	12	13	8	9	8	26	18	15	17	16	20	5	5	12	9

B-1 Population Characteristics of Central Cities and Suburban Areas (Cont'd)

	% of Families By Income Group[11]: Under $4,000		$4,000 - 7,999		$8,000 - 14,999		$15,000 & Over		% Married Wom. in L.F.[9]		% Mar. ried Wom. in L.F. w. Child under 6 [9]		% of L.F. Unemployed[9]		% Unsound Owner-Occ. Housing[12]	
	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.
	(53)	(54)	(55)	(56)	(57)	(58)	(59)	(60)	(61)	(62)	(63)	(64)	(65)	(66)	(67)	(68)
59. Grand Rapids	24	16	48	51	24	27	4	6	31	28	21	23	6	3	11	11
60. Wichita	22	18	48	52	25	26	5	5	34	28	21	26	5	4	10	10
61. Canton	26	18	50	51	22	26	3	4	26	26	20	19	8	5	12	14
62. Lansing	19	24	49	47	29	24	4	5	34	32	22	24	4	5	9	19
63. Peoria	25	17	48	51	23	28	5	4	30	15	19	19	5	4	12	13
64. Dul.-Superior	24	32	52	52	21	14	4	1	27	22	20	19	9	11	13	28
65. Dav.-R. I.-Mol.	19	20	48	51	29	26	5	3	31	28	18	21	4	4	11	19
66. Des Moines	21	18	48	48	26	28	5	6	36	28	19	22	3	2	17	18
67. South Bend	18	17	47	51	30	28	5	3	31	31	19	20	4	4	8	13
68. Fort Worth	20	17	48	47	28	30	5	5	32	29	23	24	4	2	9	16
69. Madison	18	24	46	46	30	24	6	5	39	33	21	26	1	2	6	15
70. Lorain-Elyria	20	18	53	53	24	26	3	3	24	24	20	21	5	5	6	14
71. Rockford	17	20	47	49	30	27	5	4	33	33	21	27	4	5	7	16
72. Evansville	32	39	46	43	18	15	4	3	29	26	19	25	6	5	13	23
73. Ham.-Mid.	20	18	46	50	28	29	5	3	28	26	20	24	6	5	9	19
74. Saginaw	22	21	51	52	23	23	3	4	28	25	24	26	6	2	14	18
75. Ann Arbor	17	20	37	46	34	30	12	5	38	38	20	25	3	6	6	13
76. Kalamazoo	21	16	47	51	26	29	6	4	34	32	24	21	4	4	10	12
77. Steub.-Weir.	18	24	46	54	30	20	6	2	18	17	14	19	4	6	8	25
78. Lincoln	23	41	50	46	23	12	4	1	40	27	24	28	3	2	12	23
79. Musk.-Musk. Hgts.	24	18	54	55	21	24	2	4	30	27	22	25	6	2	15	17
80. Springfield, Ill.	25	25	46	47	24	22	4	6	36	28	17	21	5	6	15	17
81. Racine	15	18	50	48	30	28	4	6	32	28	20	24	4	10	6	16
82. Topeka	24	30	48	49	24	20	4	2	35	30	20	21	3	2	14	21
83. Cedar Rapids	17	27	49	51	28	19	5	3	36	32	21	28	2	2	10	22
84. Champ.-Urbana	23	35	44	44	27	18	6	4	38	25	23	26	4	2	10	14
85. Jackson	23	19	44	51	28	26	5	4	32	31	21	23	8	5	13	21
86. Springfield, Ohio	26	22	50	50	20	25	3	3	32	26	22	19	7	4	12	16
87. Springfield, Mo.	37	45	45	43	14	11	4	2	31	25	18	19	4	3	16	30
88. Green Bay	20	20	56	53	22	22	3	5	24	22	21	23	4	8	10	16
89. Waterloo	17	21	51	52	27	24	4	3	31	28	23	23	6	5	12	15
90. Decatur	23	23	49	53	23	21	4	3	31	30	20	21	5	4	12	20

See footnotes at end of table.

B-1 Population Characteristics of Central Cities and Suburban Areas (Cont'd)[a]

	% Owner-Occupied Housing Units By Value Class[18]										% of Unsound Rental Housing[19]		% of Renter-Occupied Housing Units By Gross Rent Class[19]								% of Workers Who Commute[14]	
	Under $5,000		$5,000-$9,999		$10,000-$14,999		$15,000-$19,999		$20,000 & Over				Under $40		$40-79		$80-119		$120 & Over			
	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.
	(69)	(70)	(71)	(72)	(73)	(74)	(75)	(76)	(77)	(78)	(79)	(80)	(81)	(82)	(83)	(84)	(85)	(86)	(87)	(88)	(89)	(90)
59. Grand Rapids	3	5	32	25	40	37	16	17	10	15	30	28	7	5	64	50	25	35	4	9	13	40
60. Wichita	7	7	37	31	39	36	10	15	8	11	28	30	7	6	56	41	32	46	5	7	22	36
61. Canton	5	5	48	22	36	32	11	22	6	16	37	38	8	8	65	54	24	32	3	6	18	30
62. Lansing	2	9	33	33	38	26	17	16	8	16	31	27	4	4	47	46	41	41	8	9	10	39
63. Peoria	5	8	33	28	35	34	16	16	11	14	34	34	13	6	55	50	27	36	5	8	24	28
64. Dul.-Superior	12	14	36	30	29	30	15	16	8	10	45	44	23	17	51	58	21	23	4	2	5	16
65. Dav.-R. I.-Mol.	2	9	18	30	42	32	23	15	16	14	38	40	6	8	54	48	33	37	7	5	15	35
66. Des Moines	6	7	29	24	36	26	18	24	10	19	42	42	10	6	51	48	29	31	10	15	6	45
67. South Bend	6	11	41	43	32	27	12	11	9	8	32	28	6	4	54	59	34	32	6	5	11	44
68. Fort Wayne	4	5	33	19	39	31	15	24	9	21	30	39	5	7	55	51	34	33	6	10	9	53
69. Madison	1	4	8	19	34	31	33	28	24	18	27	28	8	3	26	38	45	42	21	16	5	42
70. Lorain-Elyria	1	3	16	18	45	30	24	28	13	22	30	38	4	4	45	44	42	45	8	7	10	32
71. Rockford	2	7	12	29	36	34	30	16	20	14	29	43	4	4	40	40	48	46	9	10	6	59
72. Evansville	18	20	44	34	24	25	8	13	6	9	35	53	16	24	62	60	19	14	3	2	7	32
73. Hem.-Mid.	3	5	21	21	41	34	21	24	14	16	40	50	7	4	50	49	35	42	8	6	8	45
74. Saginaw	6	10	40	29	35	27	13	18	7	16	38	45	6	8	54	49	34	36	6	6	8	50
75. Ann Arbor	0	3	4	17	24	42	32	22	39	16	21	33	4	2	19	38	50	47	26	14	9	31
76. Kalamazoo	3	5	31	29	38	33	15	20	13	13	36	29	7	4	54	45	33	38	6	14	11	50
77. Steub.-Weir.	2	19	20	35	36	27	25	12	16	7	32	50	6	16	58	65	29	18	7	0	9	36
78. Lincoln	6	49	30	38	35	15	17	4	12	6	37	41	10	5	49	47	33	43	7	5	10	28
79. Musk.-Musk. Hgts.	6	10	51	37	33	28	7	14	3	10	37	38	9	7	68	57	19	31	4	6	6	65
80. Springfield, Ill.	8	15	32	30	34	26	15	13	11	15	33	43	10	9	56	49	28	33	6	9	7	44
81. Racine	1	4	16	21	44	33	27	23	12	19	26	35	5	4	42	39	46	47	6	10	4	31
82. Topeka	8	14	30	27	36	27	16	21	10	11	37	30	9	6	50	31	33	51	9	12	13	37
83. Cedar Rapids	2	9	18	26	39	36	27	20	14	8	38	45	9	3	44	48	36	37	11	12	2	49
84. Champ.-Urbana	2	13	14	28	35	32	25	15	24	13	29	20	6	2	41	37	36	59	16	2	8	20
85. Jackson	7	10	44	36	30	30	10	14	9	10	37	43	7	6	51	49	35	37	7	8	16	46
86. Springfield, Ohio	7	9	35	27	38	31	12	20	8	13	37	43	7	8	64	53	27	30	2	9	4	44
87. Springfield, Mo.	20	24	36	31	26	22	11	16	8	10	38	52	18	27	62	56	17	14	3	4	3	56
88. Green Bay	3	4	29	26	47	38	16	19	5	12	33	31	8	6	57	52	30	33	4	9	8	41
89. Waterloo	4	8	30	29	42	31	15	22	9	10	41	37	8	7	53	54	33	34	5	5	4	43
90. Decatur	5	9	29	29	39	34	17	17	10	11	38	46	10	8	51	49	31	33	7	10	7	55

B-1 Structural Characteristics of Standard Metropolitan Statistical Areas

	Pop. (000's)[1]	% SMSA Pop. in C.C.[1]	% SMSA Pop. Change 1950-60[2]	% Non-White in SMSA[3]	Per Cent SMSA Employment in Manu.[4]	Trade[4]	Fin.,[4] & Ser.[4]	Per Cent SMSA Non-White in C.C.[5]
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)
91. Muncie, Ind.	111	62	23	5	51[7]	21[7]	13[7]	99
92. Terre Haute, Ind.	108	67	3	5	32[7]	28[7]	18[7]	96
93. Sioux City, Iowa	108	83	4	2	24[6]	29[6]	20[6]	97
94. Bay City, Michigan	107	50	21	1[b]	42[6]	22[6]	15[6]	--
95. Fargo-Moorhead, N. Dak.-Minn.	106	66	19	--[b]	7[6]	33[6]	25[6]	--
96. Lima, Ohio	104	49	18	7	51[6]	21[6]	10[6]	73
97. Kenosha, Wis.	101	68	34	1	59	13	11	94
North Central Average		57	24	6	39	21	16	86
South								
98. Washington, D.C.-Md.-Va.	2,002	38	37	25	5	20	24	84
99. Baltimore, Md.	1,727	54	23	22	32	20	19	86
100. Houston, Texas	1,243	76	54	20	25[6]	31[6]	20[6]	87
101. Dallas, Texas	1,084	63	46	15	27[6]	31[6]	21[6]	83
102. Atlanta, Ga.	1,017	48	40	23	23	27	21	80
103. Miami, Fla.	935	31	89	15	14	28	27	47
104. New Orleans, La.	868	72	27	31	16	26	22	87
105. Tampa-St. Petersburg, Fla.	772	59	89	12	18	30	21	79
106. Louisville, Ky.-Ind.	725	54	26	12	35[6]	22[6]	18[6]	84
107. San Antonio, Texas	687	86	37	7	17[6]	33[6]	26[6]	91
108. Birmingham, Ala.	635	54	14	35	30	23	18	62
109. Memphis, Tenn.	627	79	30	36	23	27	19	81
110. Norfolk-Portsmouth, Va.	578	73	30	26	11[6]	25[6]	15[6]	82
111. Fort Worth, Texas	573	62	46	11	36[6]	28[6]	19[6]	93
112. Oklahoma City, Oklahoma	512	63	30	9	12	25	19	88
113. Jacksonville, Fla.	455	44	50	23	14	28	23	78
114. Tulsa, Okla.	419	63	28	9	21	24	19	68
115. Richmond, Va.	408	54	25	26	25	24	17	86
116. Nashville, Tenn.	400	43	24	19	29	22	23	84
117. Knoxville, Tenn.	368	30	9	8	37	20	14	75
118. Wilmington, Del.	366	26	36	12	43	18	16	55

See footnotes at end of table.

B-1 Population Characteristics of Central Cities and Suburban Areas

	% Non-White[g]		Per cent of Persons by Age Group[h]												% of Persons 5 yrs. old & over[i]				% of all Fams. w. Children under 18[k]		% of all Fams. w. Children under 18 Which Are Broken	
			Under 10		10-19		20-29		30-44		45-59		60 & Over		Movers within SMSA		Migrants from Another State					
	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.
	(9)	(10)	(11)	(12)	(13)	(14)	(15)	(16)	(17)	(18)	(19)	(20)	(21)	(22)	(23)	(24)	(25)	(26)	(27)	(28)	(29)	(30)
91. Muncie	8	0	21	24	18	18	14	12	18	21	16	14	13	11	36	38	7	4	57	62	9	3
92. Terre Haute	6	0	19	20	15	18	11	12	18	20	17	16	19	14	32	26	6	9	49	56	10	4
93. Sioux City	2	0	22	24	16	18	11	9	18	18	16	16	16	16	33	24	9	6	54	57	7	4
94. Bay City	1	0	22	28	17	18	11	12	19	20	16	14	14	9	28	28	3	2	58	67	5	3
95. Fargo-Moorehead	0	0	23	26	18	17	15	12	18	17	14	15	12	13	28	24	17	9	61	64	4	3
96. Lima	10	4	22	24	16	17	12	11	19	21	16	15	15	12	35	30	6	5	54	60	8	4
97. Kenosha	2	0	22	25	16	17	12	12	20	19	16	15	14	12	34	23	8	17	57	60	6	3
N. Central Avg.	10	2	21	25	16	17	13	12	19	21	16	14	14	10	34	(10) 33 (40)	8	8	54	63	8	4
South																						
98. Washington	59	6	18	24	13	17	15	13	21	25	18	14	14	7	40	(7) 34 (25)	16	29	46	66	16	5
99. Baltimore	35	7	20	23	16	17	12	13	21	24	18	14	13	9	37	(5) 36 (44)	5	10	51	64	11	3
100. Houston	23	10	24	25	15	18	14	12	23	22	15	15	9	7	38	(8) 35 (40)	8	7	60	65	8	6
101. Dallas	19	8	22	24	15	17	13	15	22	20	16	14	10	10	43	(7) 35 (30)	9	9	56	61	9	4
102. Atlanta	38	9	20	25	16	17	15	14	20	23	17	13	12	8	37	(11) 38 (30)	8	12	51	66	13	4
103. Miami	23	11	15	21	12	15	13	11	21	23	21	16	18	13	30	(11) 31 (40)	17	26	42	56	16	8
104. New Orleans	37	14	22	28	16	17	12	12	20	23	18	13	13	6	38	(3) 38 (45)	7	8	52	69	12	4
105. Tampa-St.Peters.	16	6	18	19	14	14	10	10	19	18	17	16	23	22	26	(7) 26 (33)	24	37	45	46	11	7
106. Louisville	18	4	21	26	15	17	12	12	19	23	17	14	15	9	41	(8) 42 (36)	5	8	51	64	11	4
107. San Antonio	7	4	26	19	18	25	13	20	20	17	14	11	10	8	34	(4) 19 (44)	7	36	61	61	9	4
108. Birmingham	40	29	22	24	16	18	13	12	20	20	17	16	13	10	38	(10) 36 (32)	5	6	52	60	11	6
109. Memphis	37	34	23	27	16	21	13	14	20	19	16	11	11	9	39	(6) 39 (49)	11	22	55	66	12	6
110. Norfolk-Ports.	28	16	23	26	17	18	18	14	21	23	13	12	9	6	33	(14) 39 (38)	23	20	61	68	22	10
111. Fort Worth	16	2	22	25	16	17	14	14	21	23	16	13	12	9	36	(8) 35 (41)	8	9	56	65	9	4
112. Oklahoma City	13	3	22	23	15	18	13	15	20	20	17	14	12	10	35	(11) 31 (36)	10	14	56	63	10	6
113. Jacksonville	41	9	21	26	16	18	13	14	19	23	18	12	13	6	32	(9) 32 (46)	12	24	50	69	18	7
114. Tulsa	10	8	22	22	15	18	13	12	22	20	16	15	12	13	37	(11) 28 (32)	11	8	58	59	9	5
115. Richmond	42	8	18	24	15	16	13	13	20	25	19	14	16	8	36	(7) 34 (45)	6	10	46	64	13	3
116. Nashville	38	6	20	23	16	16	16	13	17	23	16	16	14	9	37	(12) 37 (31)	8	10	48	61	15	3
117. Knoxville	19	3	18	22	18	19	14	12	18	22	18	16	14	10	39	(14) 37 (20)	6	6	48	62	11	4
118. Wilmington	26	8	18	25	15	16	11	12	19	24	20	14	18	9	33	(12) 31 (28)	7	15	46	64	15	5

B-1 Population Characteristics of Central Cities and Suburban Areas (Cont'd)[a]

	% of Unrelated Individs[f]		% of Persons 25 yrs. old & over				% of 16 & 17 yr. olds not in Sch[j]		Per Cent of Employed Persons By Occupation Group[l]													
			Less than 4 yrs. Hi. Sch.		4 yrs. or more College				Prof. & Tech.		Man.		Cler. & Sales		Crafts. & Fore.		Oper.		Laborers		House. & Ser.	
	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.
	(31)	(32)	(33)	(34)	(35)	(36)	(37)	(38)	(39)	(40)	(41)	(42)	(43)	(44)	(45)	(46)	(47)	(48)	(49)	(50)	(51)	(52)
91. Muncie	11	3	61	56	8	5	25	22	11	8	7	7	21	17	13	17	25	28	6	4	13	8
92. Terre Haute	11	6	60	59	7	6	17	11	10	10	9	8	24	15	13	15	18	21	5	6	15	10
93. Sioux City	9	4	54	59	8	4	17	10	11	7	11	5	26	9	12	9	17	9	6	5	12	10
94. Bay City	6	3	63	66	5	4	13	16	10	10	8	9	22	20	16	20	25	24	4	4	13	9
95. Fargo-Moorehead	13	5	42	62	13	4	6	2	14	6	13	7	29	10	12	10	10	10	3	3	16	10
96. Lima	8	4	58	54	5	6	16	10	10	10	7	9	25	17	15	17	20	22	5	4	14	9
97. Kenosha	7	4	76	36	5	4	4	16	9	7	6	6	20	18	16	18	30	30	5	4	10	8
N. Central Avg.	10	5	56	54	8	7	17	15	12	11	8	8	25	20	14	17	19	20	5	4	12	9
South																						
98. Washington	18	6	52	35	14	20	20	12	14	23	6	11	30	13	7	13	9	6	5	2	19	8
99. Baltimore	9	5	72	59	6	9	29	22	10	13	6	9	24	18	12	18	19	17	7	4	14	8
100. Houston	7	3	55	54	11	10	22	15	12	13	10	9	25	18	13	18	14	17	6	5	14	10
101. Dallas	8	6	51	52	10	11	25	21	11	12	11	10	28	14	12	14	14	17	4	4	13	9
102. Atlanta	10	4	60	52	9	10	22	18	10	12	8	11	26	15	9	15	16	16	5	3	19	9
103. Miami	16	8	60	50	7	9	20	14	9	12	9	13	22	14	11	14	14	10	5	4	20	14
104. New Orleans	10	3	67	57	8	8	22	21	11	11	9	13	24	17	10	17	14	16	8	7	16	10
105. Tampa-St.Peters.	10	7	60	59	7	7	17	26	10	9	11	11	24	16	13	16	14	14	6	5	14	10
106. Louisville	8	3	68	59	6	8	27	22	10	11	7	10	23	16	12	16	20	21	6	4	13	8
107. San Antonio	6	28	63	45	7	30	28	52	10	14	9	14	26	11	15	11	15	9	6	4	13	8
108. Birmingham	7	3	63	63	6	8	22	20	10	10	8	10	24	16	13	16	17	19	7	7	17	11
109. Memphis	8	8	60	62	7	6	18	25	10	8	10	9	25	14	12	14	17	16	6	7	17	14
110. Norf.-Ports.	17	7	65	49	6	6	29	22	10	9	9	9	25	19	16	19	14	14	7	6	15	11
111. Fort Worth	8	3	54	54	10	7	21	18	13	12	9	8	25	18	12	18	15	18	5	3	13	8
112. Oklahoma City	9	7	51	48	10	12	18	14	12	15	10	10	28	16	13	16	12	11	4	4	11	11
113. Jacksonville	12	6	67	51	5	8	24	20	8	10	7	13	22	16	11	16	15	11	8	4	19	9
114. Tulsa	8	5	44	64	12	6	12	21	15	10	10	9	29	18	14	18	11	21	3	5	12	10
115. Richmond	13	3	62	51	8	11	30	18	11	13	7	11	25	17	9	17	17	16	5	2	18	7
116. Nashville	14	4	71	53	6	10	21	16	10	13	5	12	21	15	11	15	19	15	7	3	23	8
117. Knoxville	11	3	65	60	7	9	22	20	12	14	7	8	22	16	11	16	19	20	5	5	17	8
118. Wilmington	12	52	66	51	6	12	26	16	10	17	6	8	22	17	12	17	13	17	6	3	15	9

See footnotes at end of table.

B-1 Population Characteristics of Central Cities and Suburban Areas (Cont'd)[a]

	% of Families By Income Group[11]								% Married Women in L.F.		% Mar. ried Wom. in L.F. w. Child under 6 [9]		% of L.F. Unemployed [9]		% Unsound Owner-Occ Housing[12]	
	Under $4,000		$4,000 - 7,999		$8,000 - 14,999		$15,000 & Over									
	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.
	(53)	(54)	(55)	(56)	(57)	(58)	(59)	(60)	(61)	(62)	(63)	(64)	(65)	(66)	(67)	(68)
91. Muncie	28	22	48	52	20	23	4	3	31	30	20	21	7	4	12	15
92. Terre Haute	33	32	48	46	18	18	2	4	32	27	21	21	5	5	22	37
93. Sioux City	25	50	51	38	20	10	4	2	31	18	19	18	4	3	12	33
94. Bay City	24	21	51	54	22	23	3	2	29	24	25	24	8	7	14	22
95. Fargo-Moorehead	19	40	51	45	26	13	4	2	35	24	26	31	5	6	8	33
96. Lima	28	26	50	48	20	21	2	4	31	29	21	18	5	5	16	20
97. Kenosha	14	18	49	50	32	28	5	4	28	27	19	22	3	4	7	15
N. Central Avg.	23	21	48	48	25	26	4	5	32	27	20	22	5	4	11	16
South																
98. Washington	28	11	38	36	26	43	8	10	46	35	22	21	4	2	6	5
99. Baltimore	29	16	44	48	22	30	4	6	34	31	19	21	6	4	6	8
100. Houston	29	24	42	45	24	27	6	5	33	28	24	18	4	4	9	11
101. Dallas	28	28	40	44	24	22	7	5	40	34	22	28	3	3	11	13
102. Atlanta	39	24	36	44	19	27	6	5	38	35	22	27	4	3	13	12
103. Miami	44	30	39	43	14	21	3	6	38	31	17	20	7	5	1	6
104. New Orleans	40	25	38	48	16	24	5	4	30	26	21	25	6	4	14	10
105. Tampa-St. Peters.	44	44	38	40	14	13	4	3	31	26	20	20	5	5	11	10
106. Louisville	32	20	46	50	19	25	4	5	29	28	19	24	5	6	12	13
107. San Antonio	41	34	41	36	16	21	2	9	27	22	23	20	5	1	20	21
108. Birmingham	39	34	41	41	17	18	3	6	32	24	22	22	6	6	17	25
109. Memphis	39	40	40	40	17	16	4	3	36	30	24	28	5	3	10	20
110. Norf.-Ports.	40	32	40	43	17	20	3	4	31	29	20	25	4	4	10	16
111. Fort Worth	32	26	42	49	21	23	4	3	34	30	22	24	4	3	12	12
112. Oklahoma City	30	28	45	47	21	21	4	4	35	33	22	23	3	3	11	12
113. Jacksonville	45	25	38	47	14	24	3	4	38	32	22	28	5	3	22	12
114. Tulsa	25	38	44	44	24	16	7	3	34	27	20	21	4	5	8	27
115. Richmond	36	15	39	49	19	31	5	5	40	36	19	22	4	2	11	8
116. Nashville	53	22	36	46	10	25	1	7	40	34	22	19	5	3	27	10
117. Knoxville	47	36	39	43	12	19	2	3	36	27	20	23	7	5	21	26
118. Wilmington	30	15	43	45	21	32	6	8	32	30	17	22	7	4	10	7

B-1 Population Characteristics of Central Cities and Suburban Areas (Cont'd)[a]

	% Owner-Occupied Housing Units By Value Class[13]										% of Unsound Rental Housing[12]		% of Renter-Occupied Housing Units By Gross Rent Class[13]								% of Workers Who Commute[14]	
	Under $5,000		$5,000-$9,999		$10,000-$14,999		$15,000-$19,999		$20,000 & Over				Under $40		$40-79		$80-119		$120 & Over			
	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.
	(69)	(70)	(71)	(72)	(73)	(74)	(75)	(76)	(77)	(78)	(79)	(80)	(81)	(82)	(83)	(84)	(85)	(86)	(87)	(88)	(89)	(90)
91. Muncie	13	12	47	39	24	29	9	14	7	6	34	41	12	9	62	61	23	27	2	3	8	48
92. Terre Haute	30	33	43	32	18	16	6	9	3	10	89	77	23	40	57	50	16	11	3	4	9	49
93. Sioux City	10	37	41	45	32	13	10	3	7	2	40	44	18	15	55	57	23	26	4	2	3	16
94. Bay City	12	11	44	27	29	29	9	20	6	11	37	43	6	7	64	47	25	38	6	8	7	45
95. Fargo-Moorehead	2	27	15	33	41	24	28	10	14	6	35	55	13	13	42	57	31	29	14	1	6	19
96. Lima	8	12	43	30	34	26	11	17	4	15	35	43	6	10	62	56	28	28	3	7	24	38
97. Kenosha	1	3	17	28	50	35	23	21	9	13	32	34	5	9	53	37	37	49	5	11	2	44
North Central Avg.	6	10	28	26	36	30	19	20	11	16	35	36	8	7	51	46	33	37	7	10	10	41
98. Washington	1	2	8	5	37	25	27	32	26	37	18	10	3	1	45	19	39	54	14	26	11	44
99. Baltimore	10	2	50	23	29	17	5	18	5	14	27	26	6	5	51	43	35	39	8	13	10	36
100. Houston	8	12	35	38	32	30	13	11	12	9	27	28	9	12	60	57	24	24	7	7	4	43
101. Dallas	7	15	34	34	28	29	14	14	16	10	28	38	11	15	51	50	28	25	10	10	4	34
102. Atlanta	5	7	29	23	32	36	15	19	19	15	45	36	13	16	59	46	22	31	6	8	7	46
103. Miami	2	2	19	13	45	39	21	24	13	22	5	23	5	3	49	29	39	41	7	26	19	38
104. New Orleans	4	5	16	12	25	30	24	29	32	24	37	36	19	18	61	52	16	22	4	8	4	42
105. Tampa-St. Peters.	9	11	34	28	36	34	12	16	8	11	36	32	14	12	60	47	22	31	5	11	8	31
106. Louisville	9	8	38	22	34	38	13	20	7	12	37	39	17	11	59	51	21	29	3	8	8	38
107. San Antonio	18	12	41	16	28	25	8	16	5	32	38	25	31	10	50	41	15	34	4	16	15	28
108. Birmingham	11	24	42	30	32	22	10	11	5	13	48	59	26	39	61	42	12	16	2	3	10	42
109. Memphis	8	12	39	28	35	36	9	15	8	10	36	63	20	30	63	40	15	22	2	8	4	58
110. Norf.-Ports.	8	12	37	22	34	35	13	16	8	15	30	40	9	10	55	45	31	33	5	12	4	42
111. Fort Worth	16	15	47	41	20	29	9	10	7	4	31	31	13	9	63	58	20	28	4	5	7	35
112. Oklahoma City	12	12	39	41	30	28	10	10	9	10	38	33	15	12	61	56	20	28	4	4	5	46
113. Jacksonville	11	8	46	45	28	39	8	15	7	10	51	30	17	9	62	44	20	40	2	9	12	52
114. Tulsa	8	36	34	36	35	15	12	5	23	8	34	48	10	22	57	63	26	14	7	1	9	34
115. Richmond	10	6	38	24	27	36	13	20	13	15	35	23	13	6	55	29	27	54	6	11	6	59
116. Nashville	17	7	58	27	19	36	4	16	2	15	46	33	29	11	56	46	14	35	1	8	15	51
117. Knoxville	25	25	53	33	14	24	4	11	5	7	45	44	28	30	58	50	13	18	1	2	11	34
118. Wilmington	4	4	42	18	36	39	10	21	7	18	29	29	6	4	57	44	32	43	4	8	14	28

See footnotes at end of table.

B-1 Structural Characteristics of Standard Metropolitan Statistical Areas

	Pop. (000's)[1]	% SMSA Pop. in C.C.[1]	% SMSA Pop. Change[2] 1950-60	% Non-White[3] in SMSA	Per Cent SMSA Employment in			Per Cent SMSA Non-White in C.C.[5]
					Manu.[4]	Trade[4]	Fin.,& Ser.[4]	
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)
119.Fort Lauderdale-Hollywood, Fla.	334	36	298	17	11[6]	29[6]	25[6]	40
120.Orlando, Fla.	318	28	125	17	21	29	22	39
121.Mobile, Ala.	314	65	36	32	19	21	16	65
122.El Paso, Texas	314	88	61	3	22[6]	36[6]	22[6]	71
123.Beaumont-Port Arthur, Texas	306	61	30	21	46[6]	26	16	88
124.Chattanooga, Tenn.-Ga.	283	46	15	18	45	19	16	87
125.Shreveport, La.	281	58	30	34	12	27	18	59
126.Charlotte, N.C.	272	74	38	25	25	28	20	84
127.Columbia, S.C.	261	37	40	29	18	23	20	39
128.Huntington-Ashland, W.Va.-Ky.-Ohio	255	45	4	3	35	22	15	74
129.Charleston, W.Va.	253	34	6	6	30	22	16	56
130.Greensboro-High Point, N.C.	246	74	29	21	50[7]	21[7]	15[7]	82
131.Little Rock-North Little Rock, Ark.	243	68	24	22	19	23	22	49
132.Baton Rouge, La.	230	66	45	32	24	21	17	62
133.West Palm Beach, Fla.	228	25	99	23	15[6]	28[6]	26[6]	30
134.Newport News-Hampton, Va.	224	90	45	28	38[7]	25[7]	15[7]	30
135.Corpus Christi, Texas	222	76	34	5	17[6]	28[6]	19[6]	90
136.Columbus, Ga.-Ala.	218	54	28	29	35[6]	21[6]	14[6]	49
137.Augusta, Ga.-S.C.	217	33	34	30	38	17	12	50
138.Charleston, S.C.	216	31	31	37	17	22	15	43
139.Austin, Texas	212	88	32	13	12[6]	30[6]	26[6]	91
140.Greenville, S.C.	210	32	25	18	45[6]	18[6]	15[6]	53
141.Pensacola, Fla.	203	28	55	19	27[6]	21[6]	14[6]	48
142.Wheeling, W. Va.-Ohio	190	28	3	2	32	23	17	40
143.Winston-Salem, N.C.	189	59	30	24	54[7]	16[7]	14[7]	90
144.Savannah, Ga.	188	79	24	34	28	23	17	83
145.Jackson, Miss.	187	77	32	40	17	23	23	69
146.Macon, Ga.	180	39	34	31	21	18	13	55
147.Montgomery, Ala.	169	79	22	38	20[6]	33[6]	27[6]	73
148.Raleigh, N.C.	169	56	24	26	16[6]	25[6]	18[6]	50
149.Roanoke, Va.	159	61	19	13	23	23	20	82
150.Lubbock, Texas	156	82	55	8	15[6]	38[6]	28[6]	84

B-1 Population Characteristics of Central Cities and Suburban Areas

	% Non-White[5]		Per cent of Persons by Age Group[5]										% of Persons 5 yrs. old & over[8]				% of all Fams. w. Children under 18[9]		% of all Fams. w. Children under 18 Which Are Broken	
			Under 10		10-19		20-29		30-44		45-59		60 & Over		Movers within SMSA		Migrants from Another State			
	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.
	(9)	(10)	(11)	(12)	(13)	(14)	(15)	(16)	(17)	(18)	(19)	(20)	(21)	(22)	(23)	(24)	(25)	(26)	(27)	(28)	(29)	(30)
119.F. Laud.-Holly.	20	12	17	22	14	14	9	11	20	21	20	16	21	15	21	(11) 21	(42) 32	46	42	52	14	8
120.Orlando	23	14	20	24	14	16	13	14	21	21	16	13	16	11	25	(17) 24	(29) 30	35	50	60	14	8
121.Mobile	32	32	25	26	18	20	12	13	21	19	15	13	9	8	36	(14) 37	(17) 11	8	62	67	12	7
122.El Paso	3	8	28	25	18	18	15	28	20	19	11	6	7	4	35	(6) 15	(56) 18	44	68	79	8	4
123.Beaumont-Port Arth.	30	6	23	26	17	18	12	13	21	22	17	14	10	7	36	(12) 39	(28) 7	8	56	67	10	5
124.Chattanooga	33	4	20	23	16	18	12	13	19	22	18	15	14	9	42	(9) 38	(30) 8	11	50	62	14	4
125.Shreveport	34	34	23	27	16	18	13	14	20	19	15	12	12	9	36	(10) 34	(39) 10	18	56	64	13	8
126.Charlotte	28	15	24	25	16	18	14	13	22	22	15	14	9	8	35	(15) 38	(37) 11	9	60	64	11	3
127.Columbia	30	28	19	24	18	22	16	16	20	20	16	11	11	7	30	(15) 28	(29) 9	18	54	66	15	6
128.Hunt.-Ashland	5	1	19	23	16	20	12	12	19	19	18	15	15	11	36	(13) 37	(21) 8	8	50	63	8	5
129.Charleston	10	4	20	24	16	19	12	12	21	21	18	14	14	9	38	(29) 36	(20) 6	5	52	64	9	6
130.Greens.-High Point	23	14	22	23	17	19	15	13	22	21	15	14	9	9	34	41	8	5	59	61	9	2
131.Lit. Rock-N. Lit.R.	24	20	20	27	16	17	12	16	20	20	18	12	14	8	34	34	9	18	54	66	10	5
132.Baton Rouge	30	36	23	29	18	19	15	15	20	20	15	10	9	6	29	39	8	10	59	72	13	5
133.W. Palm Beach	27	21	17	21	14	14	10	11	20	20	20	17	20	17	25	26	20	33	45	50	16	10
134.Newport N-Hamp.	9	3	24	26	17	17	16	16	23	22	13	12	8	7	26	15	20	11	63	63	6	2
135.Corpus Christi	6	2	27	28	18	22	12	15	21	17	14	12	7	6	36	31	7	11	66	67	9	4
136.Columbus	27	32	25	24	17	20	16	20	20	20	14	10	8	6	33	26	19	28	59	66	13	7
137.Augusta	45	22	22	25	17	20	12	16	19	21	17	12	13	7	36	30	8	18	51	66	16	6
138.Charleston	51	30	20	29	19	20	16	15	18	21	15	11	11	5	37	29	12	18	53	68	21	9
139.Austin	13	10	21	22	18	17	18	14	18	20	14	16	11	11	29	30	6	10	58	58	8	1
140.Greenville	30	12	22	23	18	18	14	14	20	21	15	14	11	8	33	38	12	9	56	62	13	5
141.Pensacola	33	14	23	26	17	19	12	17	21	20	16	11	11	6	30	28	16	27	56	67	14	9
142.Wheeling	4	8	18	20	15	16	10	11	19	20	19	17	19	16	30	28	7	5	49	53	10	4
143.Winston-Salem	37	6	22	23	17	17	15	15	20	23	16	14	10	8	36	34	8	5	56	64	14	4
144.Savannah	36	28	24	25	17	19	14	13	20	21	15	14	10	8	39	35	11	9	59	63	12	5
145.Jackson	37	54	24	26	16	23	15	11	21	15	15	13	9	11	31	33	10	5	60	60	10	8
146.Macon	44	23	20	26	18	19	12	14	19	22	17	12	13	6	33	34	5	11	50	67	16	6
147.Montgomery	35	50	24	24	16	22	14	13	21	18	14	13	10	10	32	27	14	10	59	60	12	9
148.Raleigh	24	29	19	24	17	19	18	14	22	20	15	13	11	9	31	39	9	5	57	62	10	4
149.Roanoke	17	6	20	22	15	17	12	12	21	23	18	15	15	11	31	25	7	9	50	61	9	3
150.Lubbock	8	7	26	27	18	19	18	15	19	18	13	13	7	8	37	27	9	9	63	65	6	3

See footnotes at end of table.

B-1 Population Characteristics of Central Cities and Suburban Areas (Cont'd)[a]

	% of Unrelated Individuals[9]		% of Persons 25 yrs. old & over: Less than 4 yrs. Hi. Sch.		% of Persons 25 yrs. old & over: 4 yrs. or more College		% of 16 & 17 yr. olds not in Sch.[3,9]		Per Cent of Employed Persons By Occupation Group[10]: Prof. & Tech.		Man.		Cler. & Sales		Crafts. & Fore.		Oper.		Laborers		House. & Ser.	
	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.
	(31)	(32)	(33)	(34)	(35)	(36)	(37)	(38)	(39)	(40)	(41)	(42)	(43)	(44)	(45)	(46)	(47)	(48)	(49)	(50)	(51)	(52)
119.Fort Laud.-Holly.	10	5	46	53	10	7	7	17	11	8	16	13	24	8	11	8	8	11	6	6	19	16
120.Orlando	12	6	48	54	11	8	19	19	13	11	12	11	25	16	10	15	9	13	7	5	17	10
121.Mobile	6	3	56	75	7	2	15	20	11	6	11	6	25	19	14	19	12	22	7	9	16	15
122.El Paso	6	25	55	52	9	8	22	32	13	10	11	7	25	8	14	8	14	16	5	8	13	14
123.Beaumont-Port Arth	7	4	59	56	7	6	17	16	11	12	9	8	20	17	14	22	14	24	9	5	15	9
124.Chattanooga	8	3	69	63	6	7	20	19	10	10	7	9	19	26	10	16	20	27	7	4	18	7
125.Shreveport	8	5	54	61	11	6	26	15	11	8	11	10	24	13	10	13	12	16	5	6	21	18
126.Charlotte	8	4	51	56	12	8	21	17	10	9	11	10	26	16	10	16	15	19	4	4	15	9
127.Columbia	12	12	54	63	14	7	24	43	16	9	10	9	26	13	9	13	10	20	4	6	17	14
128.Hunt.-Ashland	8	4	60	70	9	3	21	33	13	8	10	6	22	18	14	18	16	24	5	10	12	9
129.Charleston	10	3	52	65	12	6	19	24	16	12	11	6	27	18	11	18	12	23	4	6	12	9
130.Greens.-High Point	9	3	57	67	11	5	22	20	10	6	9	6	23	16	11	16	25	30	4	4	12	7
131.Lit. Rock-N.Lit. R.	8	1	50	61	10	5	16	22	12	8	11	9	25	16	11	16	14	19	4	6	16	13
132.Baton Rouge	9	6	50	51	13	12	15	5	16	14	11	9	20	15	13	15	12	15	5	7	17	16
133.W. Palm Beach	13	10	50	56	9	8	14	21	11	8	12	11	22	13	10	13	9	12	6	5	21	14
134.Newport N.-Hamp.	9	5	55	59	9	7	19	24	13	13	7	6	22	20	21	20	14	15	5	12	12	15
135.Corpus Christi	5	6	57	72	9	5	24	32	12	8	9	14	24	13	13	12	14	16	6	9	13	11
136.Columbus	5	16	41	68	16	5	23	40	9	6	10	8	21	17	10	13	22	26	4	6	22	17
137.Augusta	8	9	69	61	7	8	19	31	11	11	9	8	18	18	10	15	18	20	7	5	24	12
138.Charleston	18	5	65	61	10	7	17	20	13	9	7	9	18	21	10	18	12	16	7	7	23	12
139.Austin	12	6	50	62	15	8	22	31	17	11	10	9	27	19	11	13	9	10	4	5	16	10
140.Greenville	11	4	53	68	14	5	34	34	13	6	11	6	22	16	9	15	15	37	6	4	17	8
141.Pensacola	8	7	56	62	10	6	12	28	13	10	11	9	19	19	14	20	11	19	8	6	20	11
142.Wheeling	9	5	61	67	6	4	16	20	12	8	10	7	26	19	13	19	16	24	5	7	14	10
143.Winston-Salem	11	3	58	64	12	5	25	20	15	7	7	6	19	19	10	18	24	32	5	3	15	6
144.Savannah	8	4	60	66	7	5	18	21	10	7	10	10	21	16	12	20	17	21	8	8	18	13
145.Jackson	8	6	46	68	13	7	12	12	14	10	11	8	25	15	10	12	12	11	4	6	18	14
146.Macon	10	16	68	61	9	5	26	18	11	9	10	10	20	23	6	20	17	15	7	5	22	12
147.Montgomery	8	6	51	74	11	4	14	24	13	6	10	6	26	14	10	11	11	16	5	8	21	16
148.Raleigh	13	3	45	65	17	7	8	28	18	8	11	7	27	20	9	12	9	14	3	4	24	12
149.Roanoke	8	5	60	62	8	7	24	15	12	12	9	9	26	24	12	17	17	20	5	4	14	9
150.Lubbock	8	5	50	64	12	5	29	28	12	6	13	7	25	11	14	10	12	11	5	4	13	10

B-1 Population Characteristics of Central Cities and Suburban Areas (Cont'd)[a]

	% of Families By Income Group[11]: Under $4,000		$4,000 - 7,999		$8,000 - 14,999		$15,000 & Over		% Married Women in L.F.[9]		% Married Women in L.F. w. Child under 6[9]		% of L.F. Unemployed[9]		% Unsound Owner-Occ. Housing[12]	
	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.
	(53)	(54)	(55)	(56)	(57)	(58)	(59)	(60)	(61)	(62)	(63)	(64)	(65)	(66)	(67)	(68)
119.Fort Laud.-Holly.	36	39	38	43	18	15	8	3	31	30	19	23	5	6	4	5
120.Orlando	38	36	38	41	19	18	5	4	35	31	23	26	5	5	5	14
121.Mobile	33	42	41	45	21	12	4	1	34	29	28	31	6	7	21	32
122.El Paso	35	35	41	48	20	15	4	2	30	20	7	45	6	2	11	32
123.Beaumont-Port Arth.	32	24	44	52	20	21	4	3	30	23	22	23	6	5	15	13
124.Chattanooga	45	32	38	46	14	18	3	4	36	32	20	24	5	4	17	22
125.Shreveport	37	46	38	37	20	15	5	2	38	30	26	31	5	5	15	30
126.Charlotte	32	29	40	46	21	22	6	4	41	38	26	26	3	3	8	17
127.Columbia	44	44	35	40	17	14	4	2	40	39	24	32	4	2	8	24
128.Hunt.-Ashland	33	42	43	44	20	13	4	1	27	21	17	20	6	9	10	39
129.Charleston	28	30	39	47	25	20	7	2	28	20	18	21	5	7	12	23
130.Greens.-High Point	43	27	40	46	13	22	4	5	47	45	28	30	3	2	11	30
131.Lit.Rock-N.Lit. R.	38	39	39	45	19	14	4	2	40	32	22	27	4	4	12	19
132.Baton Rouge	33	30	37	42	24	25	6	3	36	30	26	34	6	6	12	20
133.W. Palm Beach	40	41	38	39	18	15	4	5	39	33	18	25	5	4	6	8
134.Newport N.-Hamp.	29	33	44	44	24	21	4	2	32	29	22	22	3	2	9	28
135.Corpus Christi	37	52	39	34	20	12	4	2	29	20	26	26	6	6	12	36
136.Columbus	46	45	38	42	12	12	3	1	37	36	24	31	6	4	14	26
137.Augusta	56	39	30	41	12	17	3	2	39	37	25	30	6	4	20	20
138.Charleston	54	40	30	40	12	17	4	3	38	31	26	29	4	5	20	25
139.Austin	36	42	41	39	18	15	5	4	41	30	26	22	3	4	13	29
140.Greenville	42	40	36	46	16	13	6	2	42	42	26	29	4	2	8	21
141.Pensacola	37	36	38	46	21	17	4	2	33	28	25	32	5	4	21	22
142.Wheeling	32	34	45	49	18	14	5	2	25	22	15	16	8	10	10	28
143.Winston-Salem	35	26	39	48	21	24	5	2	43	42	25	32	2	2	5	18
144.Savannah	41	36	39	45	17	17	3	2	33	28	26	25	5	5	14	27
145.Jackson	38	60	38	29	20	9	5	1	43	33	29	21	4	4	10	40
146.Macon	48	29	32	48	16	21	4	2	43	38	23	30	5	4	26	20
147.Montgomery	39	56	36	31	21	11	4	1	40	30	27	30	4	4	17	36
148.Raleigh	32	50	40	36	22	12	5	2	43	38	26	30	3	3	9	27
149.Roanoke	36	31	43	47	18	19	4	3	35	32	21	26	5	4	10	16
150.Lubbock	30	43	44	38	20	15	6	4	34	18	29	24	4	3	9	15

See footnotes at end of table.

B-1 Population Characteristics of Central Cities and Suburban Areas (Cont'd)[a]

	% Owner-Occupied Housing Units By Value Class[13]										% of Unsound Rental Housing[12]		% of Renter-Occupied Housing Units By Gross Rent Class[13]								% of Workers Who Commute[14]	
	Under $5,000		$5,000-$9,999		$10,000-$14,999		$15,000-$19,999		$20,000 & Over				Under $40		$40-79		$80-119		$120 & Over			
	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.
	(69)	(70)	(71)	(72)	(73)	(74)	(75)	(76)	(77)	(78)	(79)	(80)	(81)	(82)	(83)	(84)	(85)	(86)	(87)	(88)	(89)	(90)
119.Fort Laud.-Holly.	2	16	11	16	38	44	22	22	27	15	16	32	2	6	36	48	44	34	17	12	12	36
120.Orlando	3	11	17	23	40	34	23	18	17	14	34	41	11	14	48	43	30	30	10	12	18	32
121.Mobile	8	24	28	39	35	27	16	7	13	3	49	49	30	33	52	59	15	7	3	1	5	42
122.El Paso	5	42	26	36	45	11	15	7	9	4	44	25	30	15	37	24	26	55	7	6	5	15
123.Beaumont-Port Arth.	11	12	39	36	32	35	10	12	8	5	45	43	18	12	61	68	17	17	3	2	21	20
124.Chattanooga	17	21	46	34	22	27	8	9	6	8	45	47	22	25	62	55	14	18	1	2	7	51
125.Shreveport	10	24	30	22	32	28	16	18	13	9	47	55	18	30	63	42	16	22	3	5	8	36
126.Charlotte	7	15	26	25	35	24	16	20	17	16	36	52	8	24	57	52	30	21	5	4	5	59
127.Columbia	8	21	32	32	32	27	14	12	14	8	39	19	24	33	52	46	22	18	2	3	13	30
128.Hunt.-Ashland	8	26	30	38	31	22	16	9	15	5	31	64	13	31	60	54	22	13	5	1	7	36
129.Charleston	9	20	19	29	22	27	18	14	32	10	29	48	12	25	52	57	28	17	7	2	15	32
130.Greens.-High Point	10	21	39	41	26	20	10	10	14	8	40	64	12	28	58	59	27	11	3	2	4	60
131.Lit.Rock-N.Lit.R.	10	24	34	32	33	23	14	9	12	4	35	43	19	20	60	41	16	34	4	6	5	50
132.Baton Rouge	7	9	24	21	31	23	18	28	20	20	38	59	19	37	56	46	21	13	4	4	7	62
133.W. Palm Beach	3	5	19	21	40	33	22	20	16	21	32	47	7	25	56	41	28	24	9	10	20	20
134.Newport N.-Hamp.	6	21	26	32	38	25	17	11	13	11	29	25	5	4	52	55	36	35	7	6	2	37
135.Corpus Christi	12	48	41	30	30	13	9	5	8	4	32	45	20	27	58	53	18	16	4	4	11	20
136.Columbus	9	22	30	30	37	35	11	8	13	4	24	74	21	48	56	42	20	9	3	1	28	46
137.Augusta	26	23	38	38	20	22	7	10	9	6	44	54	38	29	50	46	10	22	1	4	16	22
138.Charleston	6	20	30	28	28	31	13	11	24	10	53	32	33	16	50	44	15	33	2	7	17	24
139.Austin	11	21	33	23	32	22	12	16	12	18	29	47	21	16	50	44	24	34	6	6	4	47
140.Greenville	7	26	28	37	32	23	15	8	18	6	48	50	23	29	56	56	18	13	2	2	20	26
141.Pensacola	16	22	28	38	28	29	16	8	12	4	57	43	23	17	62	50	13	26	3	7	30	28
142.Wheeling	11	21	33	39	25	22	16	11	15	7	35	51	19	23	63	64	15	12	3	1	11	17
143.Winston-Salem	7	11	37	35	29	30	12	16	14	8	42	50	14	17	58	57	26	23	2	3	4	70
144.Savannah	15	26	34	38	29	22	13	8	10	6	47	41	27	27	53	50	18	20	3	3	15	35
145.Jackson	7	26	30	32	36	27	15	10	12	4	39	79	14	48	68	36	15	13	3	3	4	38
146.Macon	19	17	27	38	20	31	17	10	17	4	55	46	39	24	49	50	10	22	2	4	19	30
147.Montgomery	11	27	27	40	32	22	17	8	13	4	41	76	34	53	41	30	18	13	7	4	6	50
148.Raleigh	7	22	23	29	28	29	19	13	23	7	26	63	13	32	55	50	29	16	3	2	6	39
149.Roanoke	12	12	35	28	32	31	12	16	8	12	30	46	13	16	59	55	25	24	4	5	9	24
150.Lubbock	10	33	30	33	35	20	14	9	11	5	33	35	12	15	54	51	29	32	5	3	6	18

B-1 Structural Characteristics of Standard Metropolitan Statistical Areas

	Pop. (000's)[1]	% SMSA Pop. in C.C.[1]	% SMSA Pop. Change 1950-60[2]	% Non-White in SMSA[3]	Per Cent SMSA Employment in Manu.[4]	Trade[4]	Fin.,[4] & Ser.	Per Cent SMSA Non-White in C.C.[6]
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)
151.Brownsville-Harlingen-San Benito, Texas	151	70	21	1	18[7]	33[7]	15[8]	--
152.Waco, Texas	150	65	15	16	29[8]	30[8]	23[8]	75
153.Amarillo, Texas	149	92	72	5	17[8]	31[8]	27[8]	100
154.Lake Charles, La.	145	44	62	21	24[8]	22[8]	14[8]	45
155.Galveston-Texas City, Texas	140	71	24	21	28[8]	21[7]	20[7]	82
156.Lexington, Ky.	132	48	31	15	24[8]	30[8]	22[8]	81
157.Asheville, N.C.	130	46	5	11	39[8]	21[8]	16[8]	81
158.Wichita Falls, Texas	130	79	23	7	14[8]	37[8]	22[8]	94
159.Abilene, Texas	120	75	41	5	16[8]	34[8]	28[8]	78
160.Huntsville, Ala.	117	62	61	19	18[8]	24[8]	26[8]	46
161.Durham, N.C.	112	70	10	32	34[8]	17[8]	24[7]	79
162.Lynchburg, Va.	111	50	14	21	48[7]	19[7]	14[8]	47
163.Tuscaloosa, Ala.	109	58	16	29	38[8]	22[14][8]	9[8]	60
164.Monroe, La.	102	51	36	32	21[8]	26[8]	17[8]	70
South Average		57	39	20	25	25	19	70
West								
165.Los Angeles-Long Beach, Calif.	6,743	42	54	9	33	22	20	73
166.San Francisco-Oakland, Calif	2,783	40	24	13	20	22	21	67
167.Seattle, Wash.	1,107	50	31	5	30	23	19	88
168.San Diego, Calif.	1,033	56	86	6	26	20	19	78
169.Denver, Col.	929	53	52	4	19	25	21	90
170.Portland, Ore.-Wash.	822	45	17	3	24	25	20	85
171.San Bernardino-Riverside-Ontario, Calif.	810	28	79	5	18	22	18	36
172.Phoenix, Ariz.	664	66	100	6	18	26	21	75
173.San Jose, Calif.	642	32	121	3	36	18	20	33
174.Sacramento, Calif.	503	38	81	8	17	20	14	64
175.Honolulu, Hawaii	500	59	42	64	11	23	22	66
176.Salt Lake City, Utah	383	50	39	1	18	27	20	74
177.Fresno, Calif.	366	37	32	8	16	29	19	48
178.Tacoma, Wash.	322	46	17	5	22	21	18	48

See footnotes at end of table.

B-1 Population Characteristics of Central Cities and Suburban Areas

	% Non-White[a]		Per cent of Persons by Age Group[b]												% of Persons 5 yrs. old & over[c]				% of all Fams. w. Children under 18		% of all Fams. w. Children under 18 Which Are Broken	
			Under 10		10-19		20-29		30-44		45-59		60 & Over		Movers within SMSA		Migrants from Another State					
	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.
	(9)	(10)	(11)	(12)	(13)	(14)	(15)	(16)	(17)	(18)	(19)	(20)	(21)	(22)	(23)	(24)	(25)	(26)	(27)	(28)	(29)	(30)
151.Browns-Harl.-San B.	1	0	29	29	20	21	14	12	18	17	12	12	7	9	34	27	8	4	69	67	10	7
152.Waco	18	12	20	23	16	16	14	14	19	18	16	16	14	13	34	30	7	9	55	56	10	4
153.Amarillo	6	0	24	21	18	20	16	18	21	17	14	14	8	10	24	21	21	11	63	61	6	3
154.Lake Charles	22	20	26	28	17	18	16	16	21	19	13	12	7	7	31	33	13	13	64	68	9	6
155.Galveston-Tex.City	25	13	23	25	16	19	12	10	22	24	17	15	11	8	37	33	6	5	58	51	12	6
156.Lexington	24	6	19	22	15	16	18	13	17	24	15	15	15	10	34	31	9	12	49	60	12	3
157.Asheville	19	4	19	20	16	19	11	12	21	20	18	16	15	14	36	31	8	7	50	57	10	4
158.Wichita Falls	8	2	22	22	18	17	16	13	20	18	14	16	10	14	29	28	21	12	61	55	7	2
159.Abilene	5	4	23	19	18	18	19	10	20	17	12	18	9	18	27	28	16	4	62	52	6	5
160.Huntsville	14	27	25	25	16	21	17	16	23	18	12	12	7	8	33	42	24	15	65	64	6	2
161.Durham	36	27	19	23	18	19	16	13	19	22	16	15	11	9	33	38	10	4	54	61	16	4
162.Lynchburg	20	40	19	22	16	19	13	14	20	20	17	15	14	11	29	23	9	5	53	59	7	1
163.Tuscaloosa	30	27	20	24	18	20	18	12	19	18	15	15	11	11	30	35	8	4	59	60	15	6
164.Monroe	44	20	25	25	17	19	13	12	19	19	15	15	12	10	34	36	7	8	57	62	17	7
South Avg.	25	15	22	24	16	18	14	14	20	21	16	14	12	9	34 (10)	32 (35)	11	14	55	62	12	5
West																						
165.Los Ang.-Long Bch.	15	4	19	23	14	16	13	12	22	23	18	15	15	11	39 (18)	57 (27)	14	15	52	60	12	8
166.San Fran.-Oakland	21	7	16	23	13	17	13	12	20	23	21	15	18	10	36 (12)	37 (25)	8	12	44	62	15	8
167.Seattle	8	1	18	26	15	17	13	12	20	22	18	14	17	10	33 (12)	37 (33)	11	14	51	66	10	5
168.San Diego	8	3	20	23	18	18	16	14	21	21	14	13	11	10	32 (14)	32 (37)	27	26	57	62	12	9
169.Denver	7	1	20	26	15	17	13	14	20	23	16	12	15	8	35 (11)	35 (43)	16	26	54	68	10	5
170.Portland	6	1	18	23	15	17	10	10	19	21	19	16	20	12	33 (16)	36 (30)	10	12	48	61	11	6
171.San Bern.-Riv.-Ont.	6	4	22	25	17	16	12	13	21	20	15	15	13	14	32 (23)	31 (26)	16	17	59	58	11	8
172.Phoenix	5	8	23	26	17	18	12	15	21	20	16	13	11	9	29 (36)	29 (22)	30	33	60	65	9	6
173.San Jose	3	3	24	25	15	17	17	12	20	23	13	13	11	9	30 (34)	25 (26)	16	16	61	66	8	7
174.Sacramento	13	4	18	27	15	17	12	14	20	24	18	12	16	7	44 (15)	28 (40)	9	18	52	70	12	6
175.Honolulu	73	52	23	27	18	19	15	19	23	22	14	8	8	4	35 (5)	30 (65)	13	34	67	78	8	4
176.Salt Lake City	2	1	21	32	17	19	14	13	17	21	16	10	15	6	30 (9)	38 (49)	11	11	57	75	10	4
177.Fresno	10	6	22	24	16	20	13	12	20	20	15	14	14	10	36 (27)	36 (27)	8	8	57	63	11	7
178.Tacoma	5	5	20	22	16	17	11	18	19	20	17	13	17	10	31 (13)	24 (36)	10	24	55	63	12	5

B-1 Population Characteristics of Central Cities and Suburban Areas (Cont'd)[a]

	% of Unrelated Individs[d]		% of Persons 25 yrs. old & over[e]				% of 16 & 17 yr. olds not in Sch[f]		Per Cent of Employed Persons By Occupation Group[10]															
			Less than 4 yrs. Hi. Sch.		4 yrs. or more College				Prof. & Tech.		Man.		Cler. & Sales		Crafts. & Fore.		Oper.		Laborers		House. & Ser.	
	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.
	(31)	(32)	(33)	(34)	(35)	(36)	(37)	(38)	(39)	(40)	(41)	(42)	(43)	(44)	(45)	(46)	(47)	(48)	(49)	(50)	(51)	(52)
151.Browns.-Harl.-San.B.	6	4	66	74	7	6	31	22	9	6	13	9	20	12	11	8	16	16	8	8	14	19
152.Waco	10	6	59	67	10	5	17	20	12	7	11	7	24	19	11	14	16	18	4	6	18	12
153.Amarillo	10	13	47	49	10	14	37	8	11	14	12	9	26	16	14	11	14	12	5	5	13	12
154.Lake Charles	6	5	53	67	10	4	14	29	12	8	12	8	23	14	13	18	13	22	6	8	14	16
155.Galveston-Tex.City	9	3	64	57	7	8	17	11	12	12	9	11	20	18	12	18	13	16	9	7	17	10
156.Lexington	16	4	63	67	9	14	28	27	13	16	6	12	21	25	10	12	13	10	6	2	22	9
157.Asheville	9	5	52	66	10	5	17	26	13	8	10	6	23	15	10	14	15	30	4	5	18	8
158.Wichita Falls	11	4	52	62	9	5	42	13	13	8	13	12	24	15	13	20	12	19	5	3	23	12
159.Abilene	10	5	47	61	11	4	26	2	12	7	13	9	24	12	12	13	15	17	4	5	15	11
160.Huntsville	4	8	51	68	13	8	20	29	22	10	9	5	24	14	14	12	14	14	3	6	13	12
161.Durham	14	3	62	65	12	7	23	13	14	8	7	8	19	18	10	16	20	24	6	4	17	10
162.Lynchburg	10	4	62	73	10	4	13	39	12	8	9	5	23	14	12	15	23	25	4	8	14	11
163.Tuscaloosa	12	3	58	77	12	3	24	25	16	6	9	6	20	12	9	15	15	25	6	8	22	18
164.Monroe	8	8	63	65	9	5	16	18	11	9	12	10	20	20	10	18	14	20	7	6	23	12
South Avg.	10	6	57	60	10	8	21	22	12	10	10	9	23	18	12	16	15	18	6	6	17	11
West																						
165.Los Ang.-Long Bch.	14	7	47	46	10	10	15	15	15	14	10	10	26	24	12	16	16	18	4	4	11	9
166.San Fran.-Oakland	19	8	51	42	10	13	15	12	12	16	9	10	30	26	11	15	12	13	5	4	14	10
167.Seattle	15	5	44	44	12	11	11	13	16	16	10	10	29	22	13	18	12	14	4	6	11	9
168.San Diego	18	10	45	46	11	9	37	20	16	13	9	10	27	23	15	18	13	13	4	4	11	10
169.Denver	12	6	47	38	12	14	20	14	14	16	10	12	29	24	12	15	13	12	4	4	12	10
170.Portland	14	6	52	48	10	9	7	6	12	12	10	10	29	22	12	15	14	17	5	6	13	10
171.San Bern.-Riv.-Ont.	8	9	45	54	10	7	10	16	15	11	12	10	25	18	15	17	12	15	4	6	11	12
172.Phoenix	7	9	51	54	9	10	22	22	12	11	11	9	25	18	15	12	13	11	5	4	11	9
173.San Jose	10	7	48	42	11	16	15	12	16	20	8	9	25	22	15	15	15	13	4	4	10	9
174.Sacramento	13	5	47	42	10	10	8	13	14	16	11	10	31	26	12	18	11	11	5	4	12	9
175.Honolulu	9	15	48	50	11	9	10	16	14	12	10	8	24	21	16	18	13	14	6	7	13	11
176.Salt Lake City	10	2	45	29	12	11	15	12	15	12	10	10	29	23	12	18	14	18	4	4	12	9
177.Fresno	10	5	52	64	9	6	16	21	12	8	11	8	28	17	11	12	12	14	4	4	14	9
178.Tacoma	10	12	56	50	7	8	11	16	11	12	9	9	25	22	15	17	16	15	6	6	14	12

See footnotes at end of table.

B-1 Population Characteristics of Central Cities and Suburban Areas (Cont'd)[a]

	% of Families By Income Group[11]								% Married Women in L.F.		% Mar. ried Wom. in L.F. w. Child under 6 [9]		% of L.F. Unemployed [9]		% Unsound Owner-Occ Housing[12]	
	Under $4,000		$4,000 - 7,999		$8,000 - 14,999		$15,000 & Over									
	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.
	(53)	(54)	(55)	(56)	(57)	(58)	(59)	(60)	(61)	(62)	(63)	(64)	(65)	(66)	(67)	(68)
151.Browns.-Harl.-San B.	57	67	29	23	11	8	2	2	28	24	38	29	9	5	38	46
152.Waco	40	45	40	42	16	12	4	1	36	29	21	22	5	4	16	25
153.Amarillo	25	34	48	45	22	17	5	4	34	26	24	25	3	2	8	15
154.Lake Charles	33	38	41	46	21	14	4	2	31	24	29	32	7	7	10	26
155.Galveston-Tex.City	37	28	41	45	19	23	3	4	31	30	24	21	6	4	15	12
156.Lexington	50	22	35	45	12	27	3	6	39	33	24	19	6	3	21	8
157.Asheville	43	47	38	40	15	12	4	2	38	35	22	26	4	4	19	26
158.Wichita Falls	31	37	45	49	20	12	4	2	34	28	25	22	5	4	15	23
159.Abilene	32	50	44	38	20	11	4	2	35	28	25	15	5	3	10	29
160.Huntsville	28	53	37	30	31	15	4	2	32	23	27	26	4	5	13	39
161.Durham	42	32	38	47	16	19	4	3	50	47	26	28	5	3	10	22
162.Lynchburg	32	42	43	43	20	13	4	1	43	37	23	27	3	3	16	37
163.Tuscaloosa	43	52	37	38	16	9	4	1	43	28	27	29	4	6	17	45
164.Monroe	50	41	32	44	14	14	4	1	35	30	26	29	6	5	24	26
South Avg.	37	35	39	43	18	18	4	3	36	30	23	26	5	4	13	21
West																
165.Los Ang.-Long Bch.	22	17	39	42	31	34	8	7	34	32	18	20	6	5	4	42
166.San Fran.-Oakland	22	15	42	41	29	35	7	8	38	32	16	20	6	5	5	4
167.Seattle	18	16	43	48	32	31	7	6	36	30	16	23	6	5	8	10
168.San Diego	22	24	42	42	30	28	6	5	30	27	20	22	6	5	4	6
169.Denver	23	18	44	47	27	30	6	5	34	33	18	25	4	3	7	7
170.Portland	23	22	46	48	26	26	5	5	35	32	16	20	5	5	8	12
171.San Bern.-Riv.-Ont.	22	29	44	46	29	22	5	3	32	30	20	24	6	6	5	10
172.Phoenix	25	35	45	40	25	20	5	6	33	26	21	25	5	4	8	14
173.San Jose	18	15	45	39	33	37	5	9	32	32	22	23	7	4	5	3
174.Sacramento	19	15	42	44	32	36	7	5	40	34	19	26	6	5	5	7
175.Honolulu	20	21	39	44	32	30	10	5	45	33	30	38	3	3	12	15
176.Salt Lake City	23	16	47	55	24	25	6	4	34	28	20	32	4	3	10	7
177.Fresno	26	35	44	41	26	20	4	5	33	28	22	22	7	9	7	16
178.Tacoma	26	26	48	46	24	24	3	4	32	28	17	18	7	4	9	12

B-1 Population Characteristics of Central Cities and Suburban Areas (Cont'd)[a]

	% Owner-Occupied Housing Units By Value Class[13]								% of Unsound Rental Housing[12]		% of Renter-Occupied Housing Units By Gross Rent Class[13]								% of Workers Who Commute[14]	
	Under $5,000		$5,000-$9,999		$10,000-$14,999		$15,000-$19,999		$20,000 & Over				Under $40		$40-79		$80-119		$120 & Over			
	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.
	(69)	(70)	(71)	(72)	(73)	(74)	(75)	(76)	(77)	(78)	(79)	(80)	(81)	(82)	(83)	(84)	(85)	(86)	(87)	(88)	(89)	(90)
151.Browns.-Harl.-San B.	42	58	29	23	16	10	6	5	6	4	49	70	48	33	34	50	16	12	2	4	12	25
152.Waco	18	34	44	41	22	18	9	4	7	3	36	41	27	23	56	46	14	28	3	3	11	41
153.Amarillo	10	12	37	32	30	31	12	14	10	11	29	29	9	17	58	62	27	20	6	1	5	23
154.Lake Charles	5	22	23	32	37	27	18	11	17	7	33	44	13	18	55	60	27	20	5	3	26	34
155.Galveston-Tex. City	10	6	38	37	33	31	11	9	7	7	42	36	24	15	60	62	13	22	2	1	3	46
156.Lexington	14	4	29	14	32	34	14	26	11	22	43	30	16	5	57	34	24	45	3	16	17	55
157.Asheville	16	31	38	36	23	18	11	7	12	7	40	56	21	30	56	58	20	9	3	3	15	28
158.Wichita Falls	19	34	38	38	24	20	9	4	10	3	32	39	12	20	54	63	29	15	6	2	4	31
159.Abilene	12	45	42	36	29	13	10	3	7	3	27	51	10	28	55	62	30	9	5	1	8	18
160 Huntsville	8	19	25	34	31	18	25	14	10	16	25	52	23	36	36	31	31	25	11	8	38	40
161.Durham	11	16	34	34	28	27	13	12	13	10	34	56	10	18	64	54	24	25	2	3	3	68
162.Lynchburg	22	27	31	31	20	25	12	13	15	5	41	64	13	32	63	47	20	18	4	4	6	35
163.Tuscaloosa	14	37	28	29	28	24	13	6	16	3	47	78	41	59	47	31	11	8	1	1	16	38
164.Monroe	22	20	29	31	25	30	12	11	12	8	60	62	50	44	42	40	7	14	1	1	10	34
South Avg.	11	19	33	30	30	27	13	13	13	10	37	44	18	22	55	48	22	24	5	6	11	38
West																						
165.Los Ang.-Long Bch.	1	1	9	9	29	38	28	29	34	24	15	13	6	3	48	38	35	47	12	12	19	30
166.San Fran.-Oakland	1	1	9	8	33	32	30	30	28	29	22	17	12	4	48	36	30	42	10	18	9	26
167.Seattle	2	4	19	20	41	34	21	23	17	19	27	27	13	6	43	44	35	38	9	12	7	39
168.San Diego	1	1	7	8	29	35	36	30	26	26	17	18	5	2	37	35	47	47	11	15	7	43
169.Denver	2	3	20	15	42	37	21	28	15	18	27	21	12	5	47	34	31	41	11	20	9	40
170.Portland	5	7	38	31	37	34	12	16	8	13	30	29	16	7	46	51	32	36	6	7	8	39
171.San Bern.-Riv.-Ont.	3	5	22	28	43	40	20	16	13	12	20	23	8	8	50	51	34	34	8	6	25	26
172.Phoenix	6	11	28	22	42	35	13	17	10	15	26	38	12	16	44	45	31	28	13	10	12	26
173.San Jose	0	0	6	4	30	27	44	34	20	35	20	18	5	3	31	26	49	44	15	26	26	24
174.Sacramento	1	2	14	11	47	39	23	30	15	18	30	19	12	3	48	30	34	48	6	19	16	35
175.Honolulu	1	3	2	6	7	10	16	26	73	55	32	28	10	10	41	35	35	37	13	18	9	60
176.Salt Lake City	2	2	20	14	42	38	20	25	16	21	25	26	12	6	57	54	24	33	6	7	7	50
177.Fresno	4	14	29	31	42	24	20	12	6	13	26	45	11	18	55	61	30	18	4	2	16	30
178.Tacoma	8	8	48	30	30	32	9	17	5	12	26	21	15	6	58	40	24	46	3	8	16	44

See footnotes at end of table.

B-1 Structural Characteristics of Standard Metropolitan Statistical Areas

	Pop. (000's)[1]	% SMSA Pop. in C.C.[1]	% SMSA Pop. Change 1950-60[2]	% Non-White in SMSA[3]	Per Cent SMSA Employment in Manu.[4]	Trade[4]	Fin., & Ser.[4]	Per Cent SMSA Non-White in C.C.[5]
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)
179. Bakersfield, Calif.	292	20	27	7	10	23	17	44
180. Spokane, Wash.	278	65	26	2	17	27	22	80
181. Tucson, Ariz.	266	80	88	6	12	23	22	56
182. Albuquerque, N. Mex.	262	77	80	3	10	23	29	68
183. Stockton, Calif.	250	35	25	10	21	24	16	55
184. Santa Barbara, Calif.	169	35	72	4	10[7]	29[7]	27[7]	36
185. Eugene, Oreg.	163	31	30	1	42[7]	22[7]	15[7]	--
186. Colorado Springs, Col.	144	49	93	4	12[7]	24[7]	29[7]	58
187. Las Vegas, Nev.	127	51	163	10	7[7]	20[7]	44[7]	84
188. Pueblo, Col.	119	77	32	2	42[7]	23[7]	15[7]	90
189. Ogden, Utah	111	63	33	3	26[7]	31[7]	20[7]	84
190. Provo-Orem, Utah	107	51	31	1	38[7]	22[7]	17[7]	--
West Average		49	57	7	21	24	21	66
Average, 190 SMSA's		53	32	11	32	22	18	76

B-1 Population Characteristics of Central Cities and Suburban Areas

	% Non-White[5]		Per cent of Persons by Age Group[6]												% of Persons 5 yrs. old & over[8]				% of all Fams. w. Children under 18[9]		% of all Fams. w. Children under 18 Which Are Broken	
			Under 10		10-19		20-29		30-44		45-59		60 & Over		Movers within SMSA		Migrants from Another State					
	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.
	(9)	(10)	(11)	(12)	(13)	(14)	(15)	(16)	(17)	(18)	(19)	(20)	(21)	(22)	(23)		(24)		(25)	(26)	(27)	(28)	(29)	(30)
179. Bakersfield	16	5	22	25	18	19	11	12	21	20	16	15	12	9	40	(32)	37	(28)	7	12	58	64	13	8
180. Spokane	2	1	21	24	16	18	12	13	19	21	16	14	17	10	29	(9)	32	(47)	13	17	55	65	11	5
181. Tucson	4	19	23	24	17	19	13	14	20	20	15	15	12	9	27	(40)	28	(24)	30	30	59	60	9	5
182. Albuquerque	3	5	26	29	17	20	15	16	22	19	13	11	7	6	27	(6)	25	(49)	28	22	66	70	8	6
183. Stockton	16	7	20	21	16	18	11	12	20	20	18	16	17	12	34		31		6	7	55	61	13	8
184. Santa Barbara	4	4	17	24	14	17	11	16	19	22	18	13	21	8	28		22		14	23	48	64	13	5
185. Eugene	1	0	19	24	18	18	17	11	18	20	15	16	13	11	30		33		18	13	56	62	8	4
186. Colorado Springs	5	4	21	25	16	18	13	18	20	22	15	11	15	7	27		21		26	41	56	69	9	7
187. Las Vegas	16	3	21	25	14	16	12	16	25	22	19	15	8	7	33		28		33	39	56	63	11	8
188. Pueblo	3	1	22	30	16	21	11	11	20	18	16	12	14	8	32		33		8	7	59	70	7	5
189. Ogden	4	1	24	31	19	20	12	12	18	21	15	11	12	6	30		40		13	12	61	74	8	3
190. Provo-Orem	1	0	25	28	21	21	20	11	15	17	11	13	8	9	28		28		18	4	69	71	6	5
West Avg.	10	6	21	25	16	18	13	14	20	21	16	13	14	9	32	(19)	32	(35)	16	19	57	66	10	6
Average, 190 SMSA's	15	7	21	24	16	17	13	12	20	21	16	14	14	10	34	(12)	32	(34)	10	11	54	62	10	5

See footnotes at end of table.

B-1 Population Characteristics of Central Cities and Suburban Areas (Cont'd)[a]

	% of Unrelated Individs[8]		% of Persons 25 yrs. old & over: Less than 4 yrs. Hi. Sch.		% of Persons 25 yrs. old & over: 4 yrs. or more College		% of 16 & 17 yr. olds not in Sch[9]		Per Cent of Employed Persons By Occupation Group[10]: Prof. & Tech.		Man.		Cler. & Sales		Crafts. & Fore.		Oper.		Laborers		House. & Ser.	
	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.
	(31)	(32)	(33)	(34)	(35)	(36)	(37)	(38)	(39)	(40)	(41)	(42)	(43)	(44)	(45)	(46)	(47)	(48)	(49)	(50)	(51)	(52)
179.Bakersfield	9	6	49	60	10	7	11	18	15	10	13	9	23	16	11	14	11	15	4	4	15	11
180.Spokane	11	7	46	46	9	8	9	9	13	11	12	11	28	21	13	15	12	14	4	6	24	13
181.Tucson	8	9	47	53	11	11	18	17	14	12	11	10	29	14	15	17	12	18	5	7	14	13
182.Albuquerque	6	8	38	60	15	6	14	18	19	9	12	8	28	18	13	21	9	16	3	9	12	14
183.Stockton	12	9	60	65	7	5	10	16	13	8	10	7	23	17	11	13	14	15	6	5	13	9
184.Santa Barbara	15	11	46	43	13	12	13	18	14	15	10	10	24	19	11	15	9	12	6	4	14	10
185.Eugene	16	36	36	55	18	6	7	6	17	8	13	8	26	15	11	16	12	21	6	14	13	10
186.Colorado Springs	11	12	40	37	12	12	16	30	14	12	11	13	26	24	13	14	11	11	4	4	16	14
187.Las Vegas	11	10	46	48	10	4	16	19	11	10	13	9	19	19	9	18	7	11	3	4	31	20
188.Pueblo	6	2	59	72	6	3	15	18	12	5	9	5	21	12	16	16	16	22	7	14	11	11
189.Ogden	6	2	46	40	8	8	14	3	13	12	11	8	26	26	17	19	13	13	6	4	10	9
190.Provo-Orem	15	3	40	47	14	7	15	14	15	10	8	7	22	15	15	19	12	15	6	8	13	11
West Avg.	11	8	47	49	11	9	14	15	14	12	10	9	26	20	13	16	12	14	5	6	14	11
Average, 190 SMSA's	10	6	57	56	9	8	19	18	12	11	9	9	24	19	13	16	18	19	5	5	14	10

B-1 Population Characteristics of Central Cities and Suburban Areas (Cont'd)[a]

	% of Families By Income Group[11]: Under $4,000		$4,000 - 7,999		$8,000 - 14,999		$15,000 & Over		% Married Wom.[8] in L.F.		% Married Wom. in L.F. w. Child under 6[8]		% of L.F. Unemployed[8]		% Unsound Owner-Occ Housing[12]	
	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.
	(53)	(54)	(55)	(56)	(57)	(58)	(59)	(60)	(61)	(62)	(63)	(64)	(65)	(66)	(67)	(68)
179.Bakersfield	25	29	41	44	28	23	6	4	35	30	22	23	6	8	7	16
180.Spokane	25	23	46	48	24	26	4	3	34	29	19	22	7	6	8	14
181.Tucson	28	31	46	43	22	20	4	7	32	23	23	23	6	5	7	23
182.Albuquerque	22	36	42	45	30	16	6	2	32	22	26	31	4	5	7	30
183.Stockton	27	29	43	45	26	22	5	4	34	30	20	20	8	8	8	12
184.Santa Barbara	25	18	40	42	28	32	7	7	33	29	17	22	4	3	6	6
185.Eugene	22	22	46	54	26	20	6	3	36	26	21	20	5	7	10	16
186.Colorado Springs	29	30	45	48	22	19	4	3	33	29	20	27	5	3	8	8
187.Las Vegas	17	20	36	48	38	28	9	4	40	36	29	27	7	6	4	9
188.Pueblo	24	37	52	51	20	12	3	1	31	22	26	31	5	6	15	43
189.Ogden	21	12	50	57	26	29	4	2	35	34	25	31	5	4	8	9
190.Provo-Orem	28	27	50	54	19	17	3	2	29	23	30	27	5	5	7	13
West Avg.	23	24	44	46	27	25	6	5	34	29	21	25	6	5	7	14
Average, 190 SMSA's	29	26	44	46	22	23	4	4	34	30	21	23	5	4	10	16

See footnotes at end of table.

B-1 Population Characteristics of Central Cities and Suburban Areas (Cont'd)[a]

	% Owner-Occupied Housing Units By Value Class[13]										% of Unsound Rental Housing[12]		% of Renter-Occupied Housing Units By Gross Rent Class[13]								% of Workers Who Commute[14]	
	Under $5,000		$5,000-$9,999		$10,000-$14,999		$15,000-$19,999		$20,000 & Over				Under $40		$40-79		$80-119		$120 & Over			
	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.
	(69)	(70)	(71)	(72)	(73)	(74)	(75)	(76)	(77)	(78)	(79)	(80)	(81)	(82)	(83)	(84)	(85)	(86)	(87)	(88)	(89)	(90)
179.Bakersfield	4	15	21	31	44	36	19	10	12	9	27	34	10	16	58	58	26	24	6	3	25	37
180.Spokane	9	8	39	27	33	33	12	21	8	11	33	20	20	4	50	57	24	31	6	9	15	39
181.Tucson	5	24	32	20	38	19	15	9	10	28	24	29	12	24	46	57	32	16	9	4	18	38
182.Albuquerque	4	18	16	36	40	26	26	10	15	10	22	32	8	16	38	51	42	30	12	3	11	55
183.Stockton	6	12	37	32	36	35	14	12	8	8	37	33	25	15	56	62	17	20	3	2	22	30
184.Santa Barbara	1	2	7	9	21	22	31	36	40	32	20	43	4	5	34	29	39	34	22	32	13	30
185.Eugene	3	13	25	38	38	33	20	12	15	4	28	32	8	10	52	56	34	30	6	4	16	31
186.Colorado Springs	4	5	22	17	35	44	26	16	14	19	29	17	8	2	49	40	33	48	9	11	21	60
187.Las Vegas	2	6	3	24	25	44	42	18	28	8	17	15	2	4	20	58	50	18	29	21	26	36
188.Pueblo	8	44	39	34	37	13	11	6	6	2	46	66	19	25	57	65	21	10	3	0	31	42
189.Ogden	4	3	29	12	40	43	17	29	11	12	31	26	13	3	64	49	19	39	4	9	8	36
190.Provo-Orem	3	8	18	34	40	35	21	15	17	8	18	22	9	10	66	70	21	20	4	0	22	16
West Avg.	3	8	22	21	35	32	22	20	17	18	26	28	11	9	46	47	32	33	9	11	16	37
Average, 190 SMSA's	7	12	29	26	34	30	17	18	13	14	33	36	12	13	54	48	27	31	6	8	12	37

See footnotes at end of table.

TABLE B-1

Footnotes

a. Zeros indicate .5 percent or less.

b. Less than 1 percent.

c. Figures in parentheses show percent of movers from opposite metropolitan location. 1960 Census of Population, Vol. II, Part 2C.

1. U. S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, 1960 Census of Population, Vol. 1, Part A, Table 35.

2. Ibid.

3. U. S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, 1962 County and City Data Book, Table 3.

4. U. S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics, Employment and Earnings, 1960, except where otherwise noted.

5. 1960 Census of Population, Vol. 1, Part B, Table 20.

6. Data obtained from State Employment Security Agency.

7. U. S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census and Department of Health, Education and Welfare, Bureau of Old Age and Survivors Insurance, County Business Patterns, First Quarter, 1959.

8. 1960 Census of Population, Vol. I, Part C, Table 72.

9. Ibid., Table 73.

10. Ibid., Table 74.

11. Ibid., Table 76.

TABLE B-1

Footnotes (Cont.)

12. 1960 Census of Housing, Vol. I, Tables 12, 18, 22.

13. Ibid., Tables 17, 21, 24.

14. 1960 Census of Population, Vol. I, Part D, Table 131.

Table B-2 NONWHITE POPULATION

Structural Characteristics of Standard Metropolitan Statistical Areas

	Pop. (000's)[1]	% SMSA Pop. in C.C.[1]	% SMSA Pop. Change 1950-60[2]	% Non-White in SMSA[3]	Per Cent SMSA Employment in: Manufacture[4]	Trade[4]	Finance & Service[4]	Per Cent SMSA Non-White in C.C.[5]
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)
1. New York, N.Y.	10,695	73	12	12	27	21	27	89
2. Philadelphia, Pa.-N.J.	4,343	46	18	16	37	20	19	78
3. Boston, Mass.	2,589	27	7	3	28	22	26	79
4. Pittsburgh, Pa.	2,405	25	9	7	38	20	19	62
5. Newark, N.J.	1,689	24	15	13	37	20	21	61
6. Buffalo, N.Y.	1,307	41	20	7	40	19	16	82
7. Paterson-Clifton-Passaic, N.J.	1,187	24	36	4	44	21	14	59
8. Providence-Pawtucket, R.I.-Mass.	816	35	7	2	45	18	17	75
9. Albany-Schenectady-Troy, N.Y.	658	42	12	3	29	20	19	88
10. Jersey City, N.J.	611	45	- 6	7	46	14	12	88
11. Rochester, N.Y.	586	54	20	4	48	18	15	83
12. Syracuse, N.Y.	564	38	21	3	37	20	18	83
13. Hartford, Conn.	525	31	29	6	37	19	25	86
14. Allentown-Bethlehem-Easton, Pa.-N.J.	492	44	12	1	53	16	14	79
15. Springfield-Chicopee-Holyoke, Mass.	479	60	16	3	42	19	20	96
16. Wilkes-Barre-Hazleton, Pa.	347	28	-12	--[b]	40	18	14	--
17. Harrisburg, Pa.	345	23	18	7	24	18	16	65
18. Bridgeport, Conn.	335	47	22	5	54	17	13	87
19. Utica-Rome, N.Y.	331	46	16	2	39	16	14	89
20. Worcester, Mass.	323	58	7	1	45	18	18	83
21. New Haven, Conn.	312	49	16	8	35	19	21	92
22. Johnstown, Pa.	281	19	- 4	1	36	17	16	72
23. Lancaster, Pa.	278	22	19	1	50	18	14	70
24. Reading, Pa.	275	36	8	2	51	15	16	88
25. Trenton, N.J.	266	43	16	13	36	16	19	75
26. Erie, Pa.	251	55	14	3	47	18	16	95
27. York, Pa.	238	23	18	2	51	17	12	88
28. Scranton, Pa.	234	48	- 9	--[b]	39	19	17	--
29. Binghampton, N.Y.	213	45	15	1	51	16	12	86
30. Lawrence-Haverhill, Mass.-N.H.	188	63	3	1	49	16	10	--

B-2 Population Characteristics of Central Cities and Suburban Areas

	Per Cent of Persons by Age Group[5]												Per Cent of Persons 5 Yrs. Old & Over[6]				% of All Families With Children Under 18[6]		% of All Families with Children Under 18 Which Are Broken[6]	
	Under 10		10-19		20-29		30-44		45-59		60 & Over		Movers within SMSA		Migrants from Another State					
	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.
	(9)	(10)	(11)	(12)	(13)	(14)	(15)	(16)	(17)	(18)	(19)	(20)	(21)	(22)	(23)	(24)	(25)	(26)	(27)	(28)
Northeast																				
1. New York	22	21	14	14	15	17	25	24	16	16	8	8	37	(1) 35	(30) 6	13	53	55	26	15
2. Philadelphia	25	25	16	18	13	14	22	20	15	14	9	9	46	(2) 37	(14) 5	9	54	41	25	16
3. Boston	26	22	15	15	15	16	22	22	13	13	9	12	45	(5) 29	(70) 11	10	58	55	30	12
4. Pittsburg	23	24	16	19	12	11	21	19	16	16	11	11	45	(5) 38	(8) 3	4	59	55	26	19
5. Newark	27	22	15	14	17	14	23	23	13	17	6	9	45	(7) 34	(17) 10	9	60	53	23	13
6. Buffalo	28	30	15	17	15	15	22	20	13	11	6	6	53	(4) 41	(11) 10	10	60	66	26	20
7. Pat.-Clif.-Pass.	29	19	16	14	18	16	22	23	10	13	5	10	43	(8) 23	(10) 13	20	65	46	21	5
8. Prov.-Paw.	30	23	17	17	14	18	20	20	10	11	9	11	48	(4) 21	(43) 7	12	64	65	28	19
9. Alb.-Sch.-Troy	29	23	16	17	15	9	20	21	13	15	7	14	44	(4) 37	(43) 8	8	63	58	28	19
10. Jersey City	28	27	16	17	16	15	21	20	12	14	6	7	41	(3) 31	(14) 9	13	60	63	26	14
11. Rochester	32	22	15	24	17	15	21	22	10	10	5	6	50	(2) 26	(100) 18	14	66	61	21	6
12. Syracuse	31	27	15	20	19	14	20	20	10	12	5	7	42	(2) 27	(50) 16	6	65	61	23	9
13. Hartford	30	17	15	14	17	20	22	28	11	13	6	8	46	(4) 30	(64) 12	10	61	62	31	11
14. All.-Beth.-Easton	27	20	16	17	14	12	21	21	14	18	8	13	45	(11) 12	(50) 9	10	52	60	35	18
15. Sprg.-Chic.-Holy.	30	17	15	14	18	21	21	21	10	15	6	11	39	(2) 18	(0) 18	35	65	72	20	0
17. Harrisburg	28	23	18	23	13	12	20	18	14	13	8	11	52	(2) 28	(30) 8	7	59	52	29	21
18. Bridgeport	31	22	15	16	16	14	23	23	11	17	5	8	37	(4) 33	(67) 14	12	65	46	24	12
19. Utica-Rome	31	25	17	16	16	12	20	20	11	14	5	12	45	(12) 20	(0) 16	9	75	53	26	0
20. Worcester	26	13	15	18	14	10	20	25	13	16	12	17	47	(0) 19	(0) 9	5	58	68	25	11
21. New Haven	30	22	15	18	17	12	21	24	11	14	7	9	44	(2) 38	(67) 18	8	64	60	28	9
22. Johnstown	28	23	20	16	11	11	18	18	15	17	8	14	44	(10) 10	(0) 6	6	67	42	28	34
23. Lancaster	29	27	17	20	14	12	19	22	13	15	8	5	43	(10) 25	(0) 6	5	59	35	30	1
24. Reading	27	20	18	16	12	14	20	19	14	17	8	14	43	(6) 20	(0) 5	17	60	63	29	48
25. Trenton	27	24	16	15	16	13	24	23	12	15	6	9	40	(8) 26	(10) 9	8	61	55	22	10
26. Erie	33	31	18	20	12	10	20	20	12	11	5	7	49	(4) 21	(0) 6	8	67	68	25	30
27. York	30	29	18	18	13	10	18	22	12	11	8	10	46	37	6	14	62	58	30	18
29. Binghampton	23	26	14	10	13	16	18	23	18	20	14	5	38	24	13	14	61	47	2	0
31. Waterbury	30	20	17	23	16	13	21	18	11	16	5	10	49	3	9	3	67	40	22	0
32. Stamford	24	12	14	12	18	18	23	23	15	25	7	10	34	28	15	24	49	42	16	10
33. Atlantic City	21	24	15	17	12	11	20	17	17	15	15	16	39	26	8	11	50	46	30	13

See footnotes at end of table.

B-2 Population Characteristics of Central Cities and Suburban Areas (Cont'd)[a]

	% of Unrelated Individs.[8]		% of Persons 25 yrs. old & over[9]: Less than 4 yrs. Hi.Sch.		4 yrs. or more College		Per Cent of Employed Persons By Occupation Group[7]: Prof. & Tech.		Man.		Cler. & Sales		Crafts. & Fore.		Operative		Laborers		House. & Ser.	
	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.
	(29)	(30)	(31)	(32)	(33)	(34)	(35)	(36)	(37)	(38)	(39)	(40)	(41)	(42)	(43)	(44)	(45)	(46)	(47)	(48)
Northeast																				
1. New York	14	19	69	70	4	4	6	5	3	2	17	7	6	5	24	15	6	7	26	42
2. Philadelphia	11	11	76	77	3	4	5	6	2	2	13	8	8	8	26	24	10	13	26	30
3. Boston	14	14	64	52	5	13	7	16	2	3	12	14	7	8	28	21	5	18	24	22
4. Pittsburg	11	8	75	77	2	2	5	4	2	1	9	6	6	9	17	23	15	23	36	28
5. Newark	10	10	78	67	2	5	3	7	1	2	9	10	7	7	34	27	10	8	18	28
6. Buffalo	11	8	78	79	2	3	5	4	1	1	7	4	8	11	28	21	17	22	24	19
7. Pat.-Clif.-Pass.	7	14	83	65	1	7	2	8	1	3	6	11	7	6	39	23	11	8	19	31
8. Prov.-Paw.	10	11	76	71	4	5	7	6	3	3	10	12	8	10	23	27	9	8	25	21
9. Alb.-Sch.-Troy	12	12	75	65	4	8	5	11	0	3	12	12	7	4	18	29	12	6	30	34
10. Jersey City	8	9	79	73	2	5	5	5	1	2	10	8	6	12	40	38	13	11	17	14
11. Rochester	11	3	78	54	3	20	5	18	0	1	7	4	10	6	21	20	14	9	32	25
12. Syracuse	13	10	77	75	5	4	4	4	1	2	6	8	8	8	24	17	12	11	26	26
13. Hartford	11	53	77	69	2	5	4	7	1	1	12	9	11	6	24	11	12	4	25	24
14. All.-Beth.-Easton	11	28	76	74	7	6	7	8	2	3	4	5	7	6	32	18	16	12	20	26
15. Sprg.-Chic.-Holy.	8	94	67	52	4	16	4	13	1	0	8	3	9	4	31	30	11	10	22	19
17. Harrisburg	10	9	75	78	2	2	4	2	2	2	18	16	8	11	15	17	16	18	28	28
18. Bridgeport	10	9	73	73	2	4	4	8	1	2	7	8	9	9	28	16	9	8	23	32
19. Utica-Rome	11	9	76	65	3	9	8	15	2	0	8	11	10	21	29	18	10	0	24	18
20. Worcester	16	4	71	64	9	12	11	32	4	0	5	5	10	16	25	5	8	0	33	24
21. New Haven	11	1	70	66	4	8	5	15	2	2	8	8	7	9	31	24	8	10	28	27
22. Johnstown	7	10	85	83	0	2	1	0	0	5	5	3	6	4	24	24	30	28	27	35
23. Lancaster	9	14	86	80	3	1	3	0	2	6	4	3	5	14	26	22	16	12	38	21
24. Reading	14	16	84	68	0	12	2	25	0	2	4	8	4	12	30	20	15	9	33	12
25. Trenton	9	20	77	70	2	6	4	6	2	1	8	9	6	5	28	18	12	10	31	38
26. Erie	37	1	81	59	1	9	2	4	2	6	4	8	14	7	18	15	17	7	22	17
27. York	10	11	82	68	1	6	3	5	1	2	6	8	5	2	22	15	13	10	42	32
29. Binghampton	7	10	76	65	6	28	15	19	1	6	11	10	10	9	21	12	14	0	22	18
31. Waterbury	7	7	72	67	1	6	3	2	1	0	4	1	12	10	41	13	10	0	17	12
32. Stamford	18	35	73	71	3	4	3	4	2	2	12	8	7	4	24	11	6	5	31	59
33. Atlantic City	18	8	78	78	2	2	3	5	3	2	7	6	5	11	18	20	7	12	47	30

B-2 Population Characteristics of Central Cities and Suburban Areas (Cont'd)[a]

	% of Families By Income Group: Under $4,000		$4,000-7,999		$8,000-14,999		% of L.F. Unemployed[8]		% Unsound Owner-Occ. Housing[12]		% Owner-Occupied Housing Units By Value Class[10]: Under $5,000		$5,000-9,999		$10,000-14,999		$15,000-19,999		$20,000 & Over		% of Unsound Rental Housing[10]	
	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.
	(49)	(50)	(51)	(52)	(53)	(54)	(55)	(56)	(57)	(58)	(59)	(60)	(61)	(62)	(63)	(64)	(65)	(66)	(67)	(68)	(69)	(70)
Northeast																						
1. New York	44	36	43	45	14	19	7	5	15	17	1	3	8	17	34	34	41	29	15	16	44	54
2. Philadelphia	46	43	42	43	12	14	11	8	15	32	15	24	73	50	11	19	1	4	0	2	43	52
3. Boston	47	35	40	40	13	25	7	4	38	18	20	4	43	31	27	34	8	21	1	10	55	35
4. Pittsburg	53	51	39	42	8	7	15	15	39	44	11	28	56	48	27	16	5	5	1	2	62	68
5. Newark	42	31	44	47	13	22	12	6	40	20	3	2	28	19	48	44	13	29	7	6	60	42
6. Buffalo	48	39	42	48	10	14	16	12	27	47	5	23	51	28	34	31	9	12	1	6	47	54
7. Pat.-Clif.-Pass.	44	26	46	47	10	27	12	5	42	20	6	1	29	12	46	28	16	36	3	23	60	51
8. Prov.-Paw.	59	48	35	37	6	15	10	6	31	38	9	18	61	43	21	31	8	8	1	0	56	58
9. Alb.-Sch.-Troy	52	44	40	34	8	22	9	8	48	46	47	27	39	38	10	26	4	5	0	3	71	57
10. Jersey City	42	43	46	41	12	16	9	6	24	40	3	0	52	28	32	31	8	35	4	6	55	66
11. Rochester	46	31	43	47	12	22	14	8	26	24	5	0	57	23	30	24	5	38	2	14	58	69
12. Syracuse	44	30	44	53	12	17	10	9	50	63	2	45	30	34	33	15	27	2	8	4	57	74
13. Hartford	46	23	44	43	11	34	10	3	24	22	0	3	12	18	41	33	29	40	18	6	42	44
14. All.-Beth.-Easton	60	48	32	43	8	9	11	10	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--
15. Sprg.-Chic.-Holy.	46	42	43	52	11	6	9	6	39	39	7	8	20	30	38	46	1	8	2	8	70	39
17. Harrisburg	54	45	35	42	11	12	9	7	35	46	13	35	60	40	24	19	2	3	1	3	52	74
18. Bridgeport	43	29	44	50	13	21	11	4	23	14	4	2	18	14	36	50	32	21	10	14	42	45
19. Utica-Rome	55	45	31	37	14	18	12	7	--	--	20	7	60	37	20	53	0	0	0	4	--	--
20. Worcester	51	30	41	48	8	22	8	6	--	--	36	0	21	44	42	33	0	22	0	0	--	--
21. New Haven	47	23	42	52	11	24	10	6	40	20	3	3	34	17	39	38	12	29	12	14	53	43
22. Johnstown	62	52	36	43	2	4	9	8	--	--	30	51	59	38	9	5	0	5	2	0	--	--
23. Lancaster	53	65	39	25	8	10	4	10	--	--	34	62	61	32	5	0	0	6	0	0	--	--
24. Reading	56	65	38	23	6	12	11	5	--	--	56	31	42	20	2	40	0	0	0	10	--	--
25. Trenton	41	38	46	43	14	19	8	4	33	32	8	10	69	35	22	41	1	10	0	4	46	64
26. Erie	55	45	38	55	7	0	24	18	--	--	16	30	72	30	10	30	1	10	2	0	--	--
27. York	60	61	35	31	6	8	16	12	--	--	31	53	65	27	4	10	0	11	0	0	--	--
29. Binghampton	46	58	42	10	12	32	9	6	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--
31. Waterbury	33	13	49	38	17	49	15	0	--	--	0	0	15	18	41	53	26	20	18	9	--	--
32. Stamford	41	37	45	43	14	20	4	2	24	14	0	0	6	0	20	32	29	36	46	32	64	34
33. Atlantic City	62	53	32	40	6	7	13	10	21	38	13	34	61	47	20	11	5	4	2	3	35	67

See footnotes at end of table.

B-2 Population Characteristics of Central Cities and Suburban Areas (Cont'd)[a]

	% of Renter-Occupied Housing Units By Gross Rent Class[10]								% of Workers Who Commute[12]	
	$40		$40-79		$80-119		$120 & Over			
	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.
	(71)	(72)	(73)	(74)	(75)	(76)	(77)	(78)	(79)	(80)
Northeast										
1. New York	7	4	64	49	24	32	6	14	2	9
2. Philadelphia	10	10	75	62	14	26	1	2	7	9
3. Boston	7	5	57	60	32	29	3	6	17	25
4. Pittsburg	12	17	67	70	20	12	2	1	10	11
5. Newark	5	3	50	42	40	47	5	8	23	11
6. Buffalo	5	6	56	52	37	36	2	7	22	9
7. Pat.-Clif.-Pass.	3	3	48	39	42	44	6	14	24	4
8. Prov.-Paw.	20	13	70	72	10	14	0	1	9	27
9. Alb.-Sch.-Troy	13	18	74	51	12	22	0	9	16	35
10. Jersey City	7	7	69	76	23	16	1	2	17	10
11. Rochester	2	0	51	43	43	43	4	13	4	56
12. Syracuse	3	0	51	60	40	33	7	7	18	37
13. Hartford	3	9	40	39	47	43	9	8	20	20
14. All.-Beth.-Easton	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	17	25
15. Sprg.-Chic.-Holy.	3	6	55	65	36	26	5	3	5	9
17. Harrisburg	14	23	64	65	21	9	2	3	24	26
18. Bridgeport	7	5	60	57	30	31	4	6	11	31
19. Utica-Rome	14	7	73	54	12	25	0	15	5	34
20. Worcester	5	0	66	20	25	20	4	60	4	26
21. New Haven	6	9	51	32	40	51	3	8	15	42
22. Johnstown	23	30	71	70	6	0	0	0	10	26
23. Lancaster	11	52	61	41	23	7	6	0	12	10
24. Reading	21	10	73	61	4	19	2	9	22	7
25. Trenton	7	6	43	49	44	34	6	12	14	1
26. Erie	6	0	73	100	15	0	6	0	3	3
27. York	16	20	70	60	12	20	2	0	22	29
29. Binghampton	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	5	32
31. Waterbury	2	0	77	57	17	0	4	43	23	32
32. Stamford	3	5	45	34	38	40	14	22	10	6
33. Atlantic City	8	21	70	59	21	18	1	2	6	16

B-2 Structural Characteristics of Standard Metropolitan Statistical Areas

	Pop. (000's)[1]	% SMSA Pop. in C.C.[1]	% SMSA Pop. Change 1950-60[2]	% Non-White in SMSA[3]	Per Cent SMSA Employment in			Per Cent SMSA Non-White in C.C.[5]
					Manufacture[4]	Trade[4]	Finance & Service[4]	
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)
31. Waterbury, Conn.	182	59	17	4	57	15	13	96
32. Stamford, Conn.	178	52	32	5	39	20	21	82
33. Atlantic City, N.J.	161	37	22	18	17[7]	27[7]	29	76
34. Lowell, Mass.	158	58	16	1	44[6]	18[6]	9[6]	--
35. New London-Groton-Norwich, Conn.	157	46	44	3	58[7]	20[7]	13[7]	70
36. Brockton, Mass.	149	49	25	1	44[6]	24[6]	10[6]	62
37. New Bedford, Mass.	143	72	1	3	54	17	13	80
38. Fall River, Mass.-R.I.	138	72	1	1	57	18	14	--
39. Altoona, Pa.	137	51	- 2	1	28	18	15	--
40. New Britain, Conn.	129	64	24	2	60	14	11	86
41. Portland, Maine	121	60	1	--[b]	23	28	24	--
Northeast Average		45	14	4	42	19	17	80
North Central								
42. Chicago, Ill.	6,221	57	20	15	35	22	21	91
43. Detroit, Mich.	3,762	44	25	15	43	20	16	86
44. St. Louis, Mo.-Ill.	2,060	36	17	15	36	21	18	72
45. Cleveland, Ohio	1,797	49	23	15	40	21	17	97
46. Minneapolis-St. Paul, Minn.	1,482	54	29	2	27	25	21	91
47. Milwaukee, Wis.	1,194	52	25	6	43	20	17	98
48. Cincinnati, Ohio-Ky.	1,072	47	19	12	38	21	18	85
49. Kansas City, Mo.-Kans.	1,039	46	28	11	27	25	20	71
50. Indianapolis, Ind.	698	68	26	14	34	23	17	98
51. Dayton, Ohio	695	38	34	10	42	18	14	82
52. Columbus, Ohio	683	69	37	12	28	21	20	96
53. Gary-Hammond-East Chicago, Ind.	574	61	41	15	58[7]	15[7]	10[7]	98
54. Akron, Ohio	514	57	25	8	48	19	14	91
55. Youngstown-Warren, Ohio	509	45	22	9	48	18	14	82
56. Omaha, Nebr.-Iowa	458	66	25	6	23	23	23	95
57. Toledo, Ohio	457	70	16	10	38	22	17	93
58. Flint, Mich.	374	53	38	10	59	15	10	94

See footnotes at end of table.

B-2 Population Characteristics of Central Cities and Suburban Areas

	Per Cent of Persons by Age Group[5]												Per Cent of Persons 5 Yrs. Old & Over[5]				% of All Families With Children Under 18[5]		% of All Families with Children Under 18 Which Are Broken[5]	
	Under 10		10-19		20-29		30-44		45-59		60 & Over		Movers within SMSA		Migrants from another State					
	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.
	(9)	(10)	(11)	(12)	(13)	(14)	(15)	(16)	(17)	(18)	(19)	(20)	(21)		(23)	(24)	(25)	(26)	(27)	(28)
35. N.Lon.-Grot.-Nor.	27	28	17	15	16	16	22	25	11	10	8	6	28	30	19	24	65	54	19	14
36. Brockton	29	17	15	20	17	9	20	25	10	16	9	12	34	7	9	4	56	57	23	0
37. New Bedford	27	23	20	22	12	9	19	23	10	11	12	12	37	29	3	6	67	66	37	0
40. New Britain	30	26	17	14	16	13	24	22	10	15	4	9	51	26	12	7	67	52	14	0
Northeast Avg.	28	23	16	17	15	14	21	22	13	15	8	10	43	(5) 26	(26) 10	11	61	55	25	13
North Central																				
42. Chicago	28	26	15	16	14	15	22	22	14	14	8	7	52	(2) 40	(32) 8	11	57	60	22	13
43. Detroit	27	28	16	18	12	12	23	21	15	13	7	7	52	(5) 42	(27) 4	6	56	62	23	16
44. St. Louis	27	28	16	18	12	11	19	17	16	15	10	10	56	(2) 38	(10) 5	7	53	55	29	28
45. Cleveland	27	23	15	14	14	14	23	25	14	16	8	9	54	(1) 44	(59) 8	12	56	54	21	12
46. Minn.-St. Paul	28	34	15	14	14	14	21	27	12	10	10	0	46	(2) 38	(75) 13	17	59	72	24	6
47. Milwaukee	34	18	15	19	16	17	21	26	10	12	4	6	53	(1) 38	(40) 16	16	67	74	24	0
48. Cincinnati	26	26	15	17	13	11	21	18	16	16	10	11	52	(4) 36	(26) 4	5	52	52	28	17
49. Kansas City	27	26	14	16	12	11	21	17	15	16	11	14	54	(8) 37	(7) 10	10	53	50	24	17
50. Indianapolis	27	21	15	18	13	11	20	20	15	18	10	12	43	(1) 43	(88) 6	13	51	49	18	7
51. Dayton	28	24	16	18	13	18	23	20	13	12	8	9	48	(4) 30	(38) 8	16	59	58	21	10
52. Columbus	26	22	15	17	15	18	21	18	14	15	10	10	48	(2) 31	(56) 9	15	56	54	19	16
53. Gary-Ham.-E.Chi.	31	30	17	18	12	12	21	18	13	15	7	7	35	(2) 50	(75) 8	11	60	49	16	12
54. Akron	28	26	18	21	13	11	21	19	13	14	7	9	46	(3) 33	(27) 8	9	61	57	18	10
55. Youngs.-War.	27	29	16	18	13	13	21	18	14	14	9	9	48	(6) 33	(35) 7	8	57	62	14	14
56. Omaha	30	18	15	22	14	24	19	15	12	9	10	12	40	(2) 15	(50) 14	36	59	58	24	10
57. Toledo	28	28	16	20	12	8	21	19	14	15	8	9	47	(2) 38	(70) 7	9	56	55	23	14
58. Flint	32	39	15	13	16	20	22	18	11	6	4	3	45	(2) 65	(82) 9	15	63	74	12	6
59. Grand Rapids	31	27	17	18	14	7	20	20	12	12	6	14	46	(2) 29	(100) 8	12	62	56	24	6
60. Wichita	32	22	16	18	15	20	19	19	10	13	6	7	44	(4) 21	(50) 14	9	64	54	22	5
61. Canton	29	27	17	19	13	11	20	20	14	14	7	9	46	(5) 31	(10) 7	6	58	57	16	14
62. Lansing	30	22	18	17	15	31	20	20	12	7	6	4	41	(4) 18	(100) 11	25	64	66	22	4

B-2 Population Characteristics of Central Cities and Suburban Areas (Cont'd)[a]

	% of Unrelated Individs.[8]		% of Persons 25 yrs. old & over[9]				Per Cent of Employed Persons By Occupation Group[9]													
			Less than 4 yrs. Hi.Sch.		4 yrs. or more College		Prof. & Tech.		Man.		Cler. & Sales		Crafts. & Fore.		Operative		Laborers		House. & Ser.	
	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.
	(29)	(30)	(31)	(32)	(33)	(34)	(35)	(36)	(37)	(38)	(39)	(40)	(41)	(42)	(43)	(44)	(45)	(46)	(47)	(48)
35. N. Lon.-Grot-Nor.	14	14	67	74	3	3	4	8	1	2	6	6	9	13	20	24	10	8	36	31
36. Brockton	9	4	74	64	1	6	4	15	1	0	8	18	6	7	42	28	5	9	18	11
37. New Bedford	9	4	84	81	2	0	3	7	2	3	5	0	5	15	50	32	6	10	19	25
40. New Britain	11	10	74	66	2	4	2	4	0	3	9	11	10	11	41	32	11	5	17	17
Northeast Avg.	12	15	76	70	3	7	5	9	1	2	8	8	8	9	28	21	12	10	27	26
North Central																				
42. Chicago	11	11	71	73	4	4	5	6	2	2	15	9	7	7	25	22	9	11	19	32
43. Detroit	9	7	74	74	3	3	6	5	2	2	15	8	10	9	37	29	12	10	30	30
44. St. Louis	9	8	76	82	3	3	6	6	2	2	10	8	5	5	18	21	12	16	32	31
45. Cleveland	11	4	72	66	3	8	5	11	2	2	12	8	8	8	26	18	12	8	26	37
46. Minn.-St. Paul	13	11	60	53	10	16	10	24	3	6	13	12	5	7	17	12	7	6	34	30
47. Milwaukee	9	18	74	59	3	14	4	22	1	1	6	14	8	13	34	9	12	1	23	28
48. Cincinnati	10	11	82	78	3	4	5	6	2	2	10	7	6	8	15	15	16	14	35	37
49. Kansas City	11	8	69	70	4	4	5	7	2	2	11	10	5	6	17	21	10	13	33	32
50. Indianapolis	9	12	74	59	3	11	4	13	1	4	13	10	7	12	19	18	12	7	31	25
51. Dayton	8	19	70	56	4	10	5	10	2	3	14	17	8	8	19	14	11	9	32	28
52. Columbus	10	22	70	69	4	5	5	6	1	3	12	8	7	6	17	16	11	11	35	42
53. Gary-Ham.-E.Chi.	6	2	76	88	3	2	4	2	2	1	8	4	13	22	26	26	21	18	15	23
54. Akron	8	8	77	84	2	1	4	2	1	1	7	3	6	6	32	27	12	18	33	36
55. Youngs.-War.	8	6	77	82	2	1	3	2	1	1	6	3	9	10	23	26	27	29	25	23
56. Omaha	9	29	70	68	3	2	4	5	2	2	7	4	4	3	23	16	12	27	36	37
57. Toledo	9	5	78	75	2	7	5	11	2	2	8	8	8	13	22	24	10	7	35	28
58. Flint	7	3	75	75	2	3	3	2	1	1	5	4	5	10	49	48	7	9	21	18
59. Grand Rapids	7	12	77	63	2	9	4	12	1	5	6	13	8	10	25	15	11	5	37	32
60. Wichita	7	24	68	68	4	1	6	2	2	2	7	2	8	7	18	17	9	7	41	22
61. Canton	7	6	81	80	2	1	4	3	2	2	6	6	8	8	22	23	22	20	28	28
62. Lansing	7	34	69	44	4	37	4	39	1	0	7	9	7	2	26	18	7	3	33	23

See footnotes at end of table.

B-2 Population Characteristics of Central Cities and Suburban Areas (Cont'd)[a]

	% of Families By Income Group[9]						% of L.F. Unemployed[8]		% Unsound Owner-Occ Housing[12]		% Owner-Occupied Housing Units By Value Class[10]										% of Unsound Rental Housing[10]	
	Under $4,000		$4,000-7,999		$8,000-14,999						Under $5,000		$5,000-9,999		$10,000-14,999		$15,000-19,999		$20,000 & Over			
	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.
	(49)	(50)	(51)	(52)	(53)	(54)	(55)	(56)	(57)	(58)	(59)	(60)	(61)	(62)	(63)	(64)	(65)	(66)	(67)	(68)	(69)	(70)
35. N.Lon.-Grot.-Nor.	47	29	46	51	8	20	5	4	--	--	0	14	39	40	39	36	18	4	3	6	--	--
36. Brockton	48	10	38	77	14	12	11	12	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--
37. New Bedford	52	32	38	56	10	13	12	26	--	--	15	24	65	53	17	11	4	13	0	0	--	--
40. New Britain	33	16	47	42	21	43	7	6	--	--	0	16	0	22	89	40	11	9	0	14	--	--
Northeast Avg.	49	39	41	43	11	18	11	8	32	32	13	18	42	30	28	29	10	15	5	7	54	55
North Central																						
42. Chicago	40	32	42	48	18	21	12	7	20	30	1	8	9	21	29	59	33	27	28	14	43	61
43. Detroit	45	42	42	44	13	13	17	16	17	24	4	8	44	42	41	39	9	8	2	2	35	51
44. St. Louis	54	59	36	34	10	8	9	13	26	58	7	48	38	38	42	10	10	2	2	2	54	77
45. Cleveland	39	27	45	49	16	23	12	7	14	32	1	10	20	20	49	34	25	25	5	12	38	34
46. Minn.-St. Paul	42	12	44	44	15	44	9	3	22	14	1	2	24	18	56	34	14	31	6	16	55	49
47. Milwaukee	38	6	47	45	15	49	11	2	29	10	3	0	40	10	44	30	11	40	3	20	50	24
48. Cincinnati	51	50	39	40	10	11	11	10	20	34	3	29	24	37	45	25	22	8	5	2	56	58
49. Kansas City	50	47	40	43	10	10	10	9	25	36	12	27	60	53	24	16	3	3	1	1	54	68
50. Indianapolis	45	37	42	40	13	23	8	5	30	30	17	15	52	17	27	29	4	16	1	24	49	49
51. Dayton	41	34	43	45	17	21	8	9	16	34	6	18	42	39	46	29	4	9	2	5	43	52
52. Columbus	44	39	43	47	13	14	10	5	36	64	8	26	40	42	40	16	8	9	3	7	56	63
53. Gary-Ham.-E.Chi.	36	53	51	38	13	9	7	4	21	54	5	40	25	30	50	18	16	8	4	4	54	72
54. Akron	38	46	50	48	12	6	13	12	33	69	6	30	55	50	31	12	7	6	2	0	54	86
55. Youngs.-War.	47	49	46	41	8	10	13	9	40	49	16	33	60	50	18	15	5	2	0	0	56	85
56. Omaha	47	51	43	42	10	7	7	4	28	61	32	56	57	25	10	16	2	0	0	3	43	65
57. Toledo	47	42	42	42	10	16	17	14	25	44	12	24	65	31	20	29	2	11	1	5	44	72
58. Flint	32	30	52	58	15	12	14	13	27	13	7	2	57	58	29	35	7	4	1	1	58	45
59. Grand Rapids	49	20	42	48	8	32	14	8	32	23	10	5	65	40	22	20	2	20	1	15	48	22
60. Wichita	53	55	39	40	8	5	9	7	24	63	15	62	68	20	15	14	1	4	0	0	36	90
61. Canton	47	44	42	45	10	12	16	13	44	63	23	29	71	53	5	12	1	3	0	2	78	90
62. Lansing	33	44	50	37	16	19	8	16	--	--	6	5	44	58	40	25	6	7	3	5	--	--

B-2 Population Characteristics of Central Cities and Suburban Areas (Cont'd)[a]

	% of Renter-Occupied Housing Units By Gross Rent Class[10]								% of Workers Who Commute[12]	
	$40		$40-79		$80-119		$120 & Over			
	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.
	(71)	(72)	(73)	(74)	(75)	(76)	(77)	(78)	(79)	(80)
35. N.Lon.-Grot.-Nor.	10	3	67	66	16	22	8	9	21	9
36. Brockton	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	13	17
37. New Bedford	22	0	69	57	7	43	1	0	1	38
40. New Britain	3	23	58	41	32	23	8	9	7	10
Northeast Avg.	9	10	62	55	25	25	4	10	13	20
North Central										
42. Chicago	2	3	37	42	45	38	15	17	4	14
43. Detroit	4	4	53	60	38	32	4	3	14	20
44. St. Louis	13	29	69	65	18	6	1	0	9	19
45. Cleveland	4	2	42	36	46	53	7	9	6	30
46. Minn.-St. Paul	9	12	54	42	34	41	3	5	5	46
47. Milwaukee	3	0	41	28	52	59	4	14	8	26
48. Cincinnati	19	21	64	64	16	14	1	1	8	27
49. Kansas City	16	12	70	71	12	15	1	2	10	30
50. Indianapolis	7	0	65	50	27	50	1	0	5	52
51. Dayton	9	6	45	49	41	42	6	4	14	19
52. Columbus	7	9	52	56	40	31	2	5	6	42
53. Gary-Ham.-E.Chi.	6	5	64	69	28	24	1	2	6	62
54. Akron	8	10	60	72	29	17	3	2	10	20
55. Youngs.-War.	14	9	59	81	26	6	2	4	17	40
56. Omaha	15	6	62	56	21	31	2	6	5	10
57. Toledo	9	12	63	70	26	14	2	4	4	56
58. Flint	5	5	40	47	47	45	9	4	12	57
59. Grand Rapids	3	0	70	100	27	0	0	0	11	43
60. Wichita	4	43	65	44	30	13	0	0	12	26
61. Canton	7	14	80	73	13	13	1	1	12	16
62. Lansing	1	4	40	48	36	25	23	23	12	43

See footnotes at end of table.

B-2 Structural Characteristics of Standard Metropolitan Statistical Areas

	Pop. (000's)[1]	% SMSA Pop. in C.C.[1]	% SMSA Pop. Change 1950-60[2]	% Non-White in SMSA[3]	Per Cent SMSA Employment in: Manufacture[4]	Trade[4]	Finance & Service[4]	Per Cent SMSA Non-White in C.C.[5]
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)
59. Grand Rapids, Mich.	363	49	26	4	43	21	16	96
60. Wichita, Kans.	343	74	54	6	37	22	17	96
61. Canton, Ohio	340	33	20	5	50	18	14	60
62. Lansing, Mich.	299	36	22	3	33	17	13	83
63. Peoria, Ill.	289	36	15	4	46[7]	21[7]	15[7]	94
64. Duluth-Superior, Minn.-Wis.	277	51	9	1	18	24	22	54
65. Davenport-Rock Island-Moline, Iowa-Ill.	270	68	15	2	47[6,7]	22[6,7]	15[6,7]	79
66. Des Moines, Iowa	266	79	18	4	22	26	25	97
67. South Bend, Ind.	239	56	16	6	47	19	18	92
68. Fort Wayne, Ind.	232	70	26	5	41	23	15	99
69. Madison, Wis.	222	57	31	1	17	21	18	87
70. Lorain-Elyria, Ohio	218	52	47	6	58[6]	16[6]	7[6]	68
71. Rockford, Ill.	210	60	38	4	55[7]	18[7]	13[7]	62
72. Evansville, Ind.-Ky.	199	71	4	7	38	23	16	72
73. Hamilton-Middletown, Ohio	199	58	35	5	56[6]	17[6]	9[6]	87
74. Saginaw, Mich.	191	52	24	10	45	20	14	88
75. Ann Arbor, Mich.	172	39	28	8	35[6]	13[6]	9[6]	33
76. Kalamazoo, Mich.	170	48	34	4	46[6]	18[6]	13[6]	90
77. Steubenville-Weirton, Ohio-W.Va.	168	36	6	4	62[6,7]	13[6,7]	6[6,7]	71
78. Lincoln, Nebr.	155	83	30	2	22[7]	29[7]	27[7]	73
79. Muskegon-Muskegon Heights, Mich.	150	44	23	9	55	16	12	87
80. Springfield, Ill.	146	57	12	4	36[7]	30[7]	33[7]	95
81. Racine, Wis.	142	63	29	4	47	18	16	88
82. Topeka, Kans.	141	85	34	7	14	21	20	95
83. Cedar Rapids, Iowa	137	67	31	1	43[6]	22[6]	16[6]	96
84. Champaign-Urbana, Ill.	132	58	25	6	13[7]	34[7]	24[7]	84
85. Jackson, Mich.	132	38	22	6	41[6]	18[6]	13[6]	63
86. Springfield, Ohio	131	63	18	9	47[6]	20[6]	12[6]	96
87. Springfield, Mo.	126	76	21	2	27[7]	29[7]	20[7]	98
88. Green Bay, Wis.	125	50	27	1	35	25	16	--
89. Waterloo, Iowa	122	59	22	4	46[6]	18[6]	14[6]	98
90. Decatur, Ill.	118	66	20	5	40[7]	22[7]	19[7]	99

B-2 Population Characteristics of Central Cities and Suburban Areas

	Per Cent of Persons by Age Group[8]: Under 10		10-19		20-29		30-44		45-59		60 & Over		Per Cent of Persons 5 Yrs. Old & Over[8]: Movers within SMSA		Migrants from Another State		% of All Families With Children Under 18[8]		% of All Families with Children Under 18 Which Are Broken[8]	
	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.
	(9)	(10)	(11)	(12)	(13)	(14)	(15)	(16)	(17)	(18)	(19)	(20)	(21)		(22)		(23)	(24)	(25)	(26)	(27)	(28)
63. Peoria	32	19	18	17	13	12	19	20	11	17	7	14	44	(3)	14	(100)	9	6	59	61	25	48
64. Duluth-Superior	32	33	15	20	19	15	14	17	11	10	7	7	30	(0)	30	(33)	27	11	89	51	28	4
65. Dav.-R.I.-Mol.	29	24	16	17	15	11	20	22	12	15	8	10	49	(5)	27	(25)	17	7	66	59	20	15
66. Des Moines	26	24	17	19	12	10	18	14	14	19	12	13	45	(0)	26	(0)	10	6	42	84	29	20
67. South Bend	31	32	17	20	12	12	20	16	13	13	8	6	39		38		11	12	59	72	21	14
68. Fort Wayne	33	29	17	13	15	14	20	15	10	17	6	12	45		20		12	14	60	77	24	17
69. Madison	24	30	11	16	31	15	23	28	7	7	4	5	16		22		29	38	57	77	19	0
70. Lorain-Elyria	31	29	16	18	14	13	21	19	12	11	6	10	43		28		11	12	63	61	11	19
71. Rockford	31	37	16	19	14	11	21	20	12	9	6	4	47		37		11	15	63	74	17	17
72. Evansville	24	23	17	17	10	10	19	15	17	17	14	14	46		32		5	6	50	49	24	19
73. Ham.-Mid.	29	21	18	18	12	16	19	20	13	14	8	11	43		32		8	8	58	61	21	10
74. Saginaw	34	35	16	19	12	11	22	20	12	10	4	5	55		48		8	9	64	70	19	4
75. Ann Arbor	20	25	14	18	26	14	22	23	12	14	7	7	31		37		13	6	53	59	13	18
76. Kalamazoo	31	29	18	18	15	12	19	20	11	14	7	8	38		34		13	5	64	52	24	0
77. Steub.-Weir.	26	24	18	21	12	9	19	16	16	16	10	14	49		26		6	2	56	58	18	14
78. Lincoln	28	15	14	10	22	41	18	24	10	8	8	3	30		6		26	30	62	87	13	0
79. Musk.-Musk. Hgts.	33	33	18	21	11	8	21	18	13	12	5	7	45		37		6	4	62	53	19	21
80. Springfield, Ill.	26	18	16	13	11	6	18	21	16	26	14	15	36		22		8	0	52	36	16	16
81. Racine	35	35	16	20	17	14	20	16	8	11	4	4	46		25		22	10	69	65	15	0
82. Topeka	26	22	15	20	14	31	18	14	15	6	13	7	31		18		11	50	53	48	24	0
83. Cedar Rapids	29	27	14	12	15	14	20	18	12	20	10	9	30		25		17	0	71	29	19	100
84. Champ.-Urbana	26	25	16	16	21	38	20	17	11	3	7	1	35		9		11	61	56	79	18	0
85. Jackson	29	2	17	3	13	31	18	46	14	15	8	4	33		3		9	10	60	32	25	0
86. Springfield, Ohio	26	23	16	15	11	9	20	15	15	20	12	19	36		32		4	3	51	38	12	0
87. Springfield, Mo.	20	22	15	8	13	3	21	27	15	17	16	23	25		43		14	8	45	73	30	0
89. Waterloo	33	21	18	20	13	30	19	20	11	7	6	3	39		43		13	47	65	39	19	0
90. Decatur	32	21	18	11	12	14	18	20	12	22	8	11	40		0		10	24	61	42	27	0
91. Muncie	26	16	19	10	11	10	18	16	16	35	10	10	36		26		8	5	54	40	30	0
92. Terre Haute	26	10	15	15	11	30	16	23	17	10	17	8	29		2		5	34	51	64	19	8
93. Sioux City	28	37	16	6	14	24	18	21	14	6	10	5	32		15		14	29	51	50	16	0
96. Lima	31	28	18	15	12	13	20	25	12	13	6	6	42		21		8	4	58	70	16	26

See footnotes at end of table.

B-2 Population Characteristics of Central Cities and Suburban Areas (Cont'd)[a]

	% of Unrelated Individs.[8]		% of Persons 25 yrs. old & over[8]: Less than 4 yrs. Hi.Sch.		4 yrs. or more College		Per Cent of Employed Persons By Occupation Group[9]: Prof. & Tech.		Man.		Cler. & Sales		Crafts. & Fore.		Operative		Laborers		House. & Ser.	
	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.
	(29)	(30)	(31)	(32)	(33)	(34)	(35)	(36)	(37)	(38)	(39)	(40)	(41)	(42)	(43)	(44)	(45)	(46)	(47)	(48)
63. Peoria	9	10	81	74	2	2	6	6	1	2	5	7	8	10	17	31	12	8	39	33
64. Duluth-Superior	15	3	72	79	3	4	9	6	4	2	6	13	7	8	13	15	5	13	38	25
65. Dav.-R.I.-Mol.	3	30	73	77	2	1	3	2	1	1	10	8	6	9	17	23	15	19	38	33
66. Des Moines	10	9	67	66	3	0	6	0	1	0	15	0	7	12	13	39	11	0	39	30
67. South Bend	7	9	79	87	3	6	5	10	1	5	5	2	6	12	29	28	10	14	34	18
68. Fort Wayne	7	18	73	65	1	18	2	0	2	14	7	7	7	12	28	41	11	5	32	33
69. Madison	30	3	32	50	40	34	35	67	1	0	8	0	5	18	7	0	5	0	30	15
70. Lorain-Elyria	6	12	80	72	1	6	2	6	1	2	3	7	13	7	29	21	18	16	26	36
71. Rockford	9	6	77	83	2	1	4	2	1	1	8	5	10	16	22	20	11	15	31	34
72. Evansville	10	9	77	88	2	2	4	4	1	2	4	3	5	5	18	16	13	12	44	42
73. Ham.-Mid.	7	16	80	68	3	9	4	7	2	3	7	7	8	5	20	17	13	12	41	52
74. Saginaw	7	3	85	85	1	0	3	2	1	2	4	4	13	14	40	31	15	14	20	21
75. Ann Arbor	26	7	44	80	30	2	23	6	2	1	9	5	6	9	8	22	4	8	38	44
76. Kalamazoo	8	9	77	72	4	6	5	13	3	0	7	8	9	16	18	24	12	8	37	20
77. Steub.-Weir.	9	6	77	79	2	1	3	0	1	0	5	4	8	8	19	28	28	25	31	26
78. Lincoln	12	22	52	60	12	3	12	0	2	0	9	0	9	24	12	11	6	13	42	52
79. Musk.-Musk. Hgts.	8	9	88	87	1	1	3	1	1	0	4	1	15	13	31	34	15	21	26	23
80. Springfield, Ill.	12	12	71	74	4	8	6	18	1	3	13	14	6	3	12	20	7	2	49	16
81. Racine	6	6	80	79	1	2	1	4	0	4	6	9	9	15	40	28	14	9	25	20
82. Topeka	8	33	65	49	6	10	7	22	1	10	7	6	4	11	13	18	9	10	46	5
83. Cedar Rapids	9	7	66	84	3	0	6	0	1	0	4	23	7	0	32	0	10	0	29	7
84. Champ.-Urbana	17	33	69	35	15	4	14	18	2	0	8	27	4	0	11	14	12	11	41	20
85. Jackson	10	1	82	92	2	0	4	0	2	0	5	8	5	6	27	27	17	6	30	52
86. Springfield, Ohio	8	3	74	71	2	6	4	10	2	3	16	15	9	3	15	22	11	8	34	31
87. Springfield, Mo.	12	0	77	52	4	10	4	0	0	0	4	27	6	0	13	0	6	0	58	73
89. Waterloo	5	17	80	52	2	24	1	56	1	0	6	12	7	9	35	9	14	7	29	7
90. Decatur	7	0	82	43	1	0	5	0	2	0	7	2	16	0	22	0	18	0	46	6
91. Muncie	9	18	79	81	2	6	2	17	2	8	6	11	6	0	23	17	15	0	39	30
92. Terre Haute	11	15	82	69	5	4	6	20	2	0	4	7	10	8	11	10	10	8	49	39
93. Sioux City	7	0	72	73	4	27	5	0	2	0	4	0	4	0	29	0	17	0	21	0
96. Lima	5	4	82	92	1	0	3	1	2	1	6	1	7	22	18	20	17	20	38	30

B-2 Population Characteristics of Central Cities and Suburban Areas (Cont'd)[a]

	% of Families By Income Group[9]: Under $4,000		$4,000-7,999		$8,000-14,999		% of L.F. Unemployed[8]		% Unsound Owner-Occ Housing[12]		% Owner-Occupied Housing Units By Value Class[10]: Under $5,000		$5,000-9,999		$10,000-14,999		$15,000-19,999		$20,000 & Over		% of Unsound Rental Housing[10]	
	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.
	(49)	(50)	(51)	(52)	(53)	(54)	(55)	(56)	(57)	(58)	(59)	(60)	(61)	(62)	(63)	(64)	(65)	(66)	(67)	(68)	(69)	(70)
63. Peoria	53	50	40	33	7	16	8	7	47	66	11	17	67	44	20	30	2	9	0	0	49	58
64. Duluth-Superior	62	64	33	33	5	2	17	30	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--
65. Dav.-R.I.-Mol.	42	27	47	52	11	21	12	11	--	--	13	17	48	55	32	22	4	2	2	.4	--	--
66. Des Moines	49	59	41	41	11	0	8	0	46	100	19	37	57	63	21	0	1	0	1	0	79	100
67. South Bend	44	45	44	48	12	7	10	12	36	78	26	49	59	35	13	12	1	2	1	2	61	64
68. Fort Wayne	44	27	44	60	12	3	11	0	41	50	23	29	67	14	7	43	2	0	1	14	69	100
69. Madison	39	28	43	57	18	15	3	0	--	--	7	0	23	0	49	45	15	50	6	25	--	--
70. Lorain-Elyria	39	39	52	49	9	12	12	12	--	--	10	16	45	48	36	23	7	10	2	2	--	--
71. Rockford	41	52	42	43	17	5	13	16	--	--	17	32	35	31	36	16	9	0	2	1	--	--
72. Evansville	71	84	25	16	3	1	11	7	54	70	60	65	33	33	7	2	0	0	0	0	61	81
73. Ham.-Mid.	40	48	45	45	15	6	9	10	--	--	8	29	49	43	34	12	8	5	1	10	--	--
74. Saginaw	33	29	58	65	9	6	11	2	37	48	9	22	66	51	22	24	3	2	1	0	61	83
75. Ann Arbor	29	39	52	45	19	6	8	17	--	--	0	7	15	27	54	54	23	9	8	2	--	--
76. Kalamazoo	48	6	43	79	9	15	11	18	--	--	12	5	64	51	21	34	2	0	1	10	--	--
77. Steub.-Weir.	37	56	52	41	11	3	11	9	--	--	8	28	62	54	24	15	3	3	2	0	--	--
78. Lincoln	50	35	43	60	7	5	6	1	--	--	37	75	42	25	19	0	2	0	0	0	--	--
79. Musk.-Musk. Hgts.	39	52	52	43	9	5	13	18	--	--	15	48	65	45	16	8	3	0	1	0	--	--
80. Springfield, Ill.	54	46	38	30	7	23	12	12	--	--	30	28	55	31	13	30	2	10	0	0	--	--
81. Racine	24	48	63	43	14	10	9	11	--	--	7	31	51	15	36	38	2	15	4	0	--	--
82. Topeka	49	53	40	25	10	22	7	3	51	57	34	41	48	23	14	18	4	18	0	0	73	32
83. Cedar Rapids	34	29	51	71	15	0	7	7	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--
84. Champ.-Urbana	57	62	36	36	8	2	12	2	--	--	20	0	56	50	18	0	7	0	1	50	--	--
85. Jackson	44	43	43	57	13	0	16	20	--	--	20	19	66	81	11	0	3	0	1	0	--	--
86. Springfield, Ohio	40	54	46	34	13	11	14	8	44	48	27	31	50	41	22	10	1	18	1	0	70	100
87. Springfield, Mo.	70	80	26	0	4	20	3	27	--	--	54	33	34	67	7	0	4	0	2	0	--	--
89. Waterloo	31	39	56	44	13	17	15	19	--	--	10	0	64	0	24	0	1	0	0	0	--	--
90. Decatur	50	37	43	63	7	0	11	0	--	--	13	31	57	31	25	38	3	0	2	0	--	--
91. Muncie	48	80	43	0	9	20	11	8	--	--	40	20	56	60	4	0	0	0	0	20	--	--
92. Terre Haute	70	52	26	31	4	18	9	24	--	--	77	33	20	33	3	0	0	33	0	0	--	--
93. Sioux City	46	50	37	50	18	0	9	21	--	--	43	0	42	0	7	0	8	0	0	0	--	--
96. Lima	57	60	37	36	6	4	11	30	--	--	25	81	63	13	8	4	4	2	1	0	--	--

See footnotes at end of table.

B-2 Population Characteristics of Central Cities and Suburban Areas (Cont'd)[a]

	% of Renter-Occupied Housing Units By Gross Rent Class[10]								% of Workers Who Commute[12]	
	$40		$40-79		$80-119		$120 & Over			
	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.
	(71)	(72)	(73)	(74)	(75)	(76)	(77)	(78)	(79)	(80)
63. Peoria	24	0	60	74	15	26	1	0	17	71
64. Duluth-Superior	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	21	48
65. Dav.-R.I.-Mol.	4	5	53	76	25	12	8	7	20	26
66. Des Moines	13	0	64	100	21	0	2	0	9	20
67. South Bend	4	8	59	76	36	16	1	0	10	49
68. Fort Wayne	5	0	68	0	27	0	1	0	9	50
69. Madison	18	0	26	32	30	36	26	32	14	74
70. Lorain-Elyria	2	4	56	64	25	23	16	8	6	34
71. Rockford	2	5	52	70	31	20	15	5	4	59
72. Evansville	38	49	54	50	7	1	0	0	2	11
73. Ham.-Mid.	15	10	63	63	18	27	4	0	8	30
74. Saginaw	2	0	46	56	46	45	6	0	3	75
75. Ann Arbor	10	0	26	50	32	25	32	25	6	38
76. Kalamazoo	3	29	52	71	34	0	11	0	9	72
77. Steub.-Weir.	8	22	71	79	17	4	4	1	6	32
78. Lincoln	9	0	55	67	30	24	5	8	22	10
79. Musk.-Musk Hgts.	5	14	75	82	16	4	4	0	7	68
80. Springfield, Ill.	21	21	69	50	8	0	3	29	6	51
81. Racine	3	0	30	0	40	45	27	55	8	61
82. Topeka	12	21	68	32	18	47	1	0	11	22
83. Cedar Rapids	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	0	23
84. Champ.-Urbana	8	0	59	47	20	35	14	17	9	2
85. Jackson	2	0	61	100	28	0	9	0	12	46
86. Springfield, Ohio	12	38	70	62	18	0	0	0	3	40
87. Springfield, Mo.	40	100	57	0	0	0	3	0	1	73
89. Waterloo	6	24	62	64	17	12	15	0	4	23
90. Decatur	28	0	58	100	16	0	6	0	4	25
91. Muncie	24	0	68	0	6	0	1	0	4	28
92. Terre Haute	57	0	37	100	5	0	1	0	6	71
93. Sioux City	18	50	75	0	4	50	4	0	2	0
96. Lima	4	25	81	66	11	9	4	0	19	41

B-2 Structural Characteristics of Standard Metropolitan Statistical Areas

	Pop. (000's)[1]	% SMSA Pop. in C.C.[1]	% SMSA Pop. Change 1950-60[2]	% Non-White in SMSA[3]	Per Cent SMSA Employment in			Per Cent SMSA Non-White in C.C.[5]
					Manufacture[4]	Trade[4]	Finance & Service[4]	
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)
91. Muncie, Ind.	111	62	23	5	51[7]	21[7]	13[7]	99
92. Terre Haute, Ind.	108	67	3	5	32[7]	28[7]	18[7]	96
93. Sioux City, Iowa	108	83	4	2	24[8]	29[8]	20[8]	97
94. Bay City, Mich.	107	50	21	1[b]	42[8]	22[8]	15[8]	--
95. Fargo-Moorhead, N. Dak.-Minn.	106	66	19	--[b]	7	33	25	--
96. Lima, Ohio	104	49	18	7	51[8]	21[8]	10[8]	73
97. Kenosha, Wis.	101	68	34	1	59	13	11	94
North Central Average		57	24	6	39	21	16	86
South								
98. Washington, D.C.-Md.-Va.	2,002	38	37	25	5	20	24	84
99. Baltimore, Md.	1,727	54	23	22	32	20	19	86
100. Houston, Texas	1,243	76	54	20	25[8]	31[8]	20[8]	87
101. Dallas, Texas	1,084	63	46	15	27[8]	31[8]	21[8]	83
102. Atlanta, Ga.	1,017	48	40	23	23	27	21	80
103. Miami, Fla.	935	31	89	15	14	28	27	47
104. New Orleans, La.	868	72	27	31	16	26	22	87
105. Tampa-St. Petersburg, Fla.	772	59	89	12	18	30	21	79
106. Louisville, Ky.-Ind.	725	54	26	12	35	22	18	84
107. San Antonio, Texas	687	86	37	7	17[8]	33[8]	26[8]	91
108. Birmingham, Ala.	635	54	14	35	30	23	18	62
109. Memphis, Tenn.	627	79	30	36	23	27	19	81
110. Norfolk-Portsmouth, Va.	578	73	30	26	11	25	15	82
111. Fort Worth, Texas	573	62	46	11	36[8]	28[8]	19[8]	93
112. Oklahoma City, Oklahoma	512	63	30	9	12	25	19	88
113. Jacksonville, Fla.	455	44	50	23	14	28	23	78
114. Tulsa, Okla.	419	63	28	9	21	24	19	68
115. Richmond, Va.	408	54	25	26	25	24	17	86
116. Nashville, Tenn.	400	43	24	19	29	22	23	84
117. Knoxville, Tenn.	368	30	9	8	37	20	14	75
118. Wilmington, Del.	366	26	36	12	43	18	16	55

See footnotes at end of table.

B-2 Population Characteristics of Central Cities and Suburban Areas

	Per Cent of Persons by Age Group[c]												Per Cent of Persons 5 Yrs. Old & Over[c]				% of All Families With Children Under 18[c]		% of All Families with Children Under 18 Which Are Broken[c]	
	Under 10		10-19		20-29		30-44		45-59		60 & Over		Movers within SMSA				Migrants from Another State			
	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.		Sub.		C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.
	(9)	(10)	(11)	(12)	(13)	(14)	(15)	(16)	(17)	(18)	(19)	(20)	(21)		(22)		(23)	(24)	(25)	(26)	(27)	(28)
97. Kenosha	32	33	15	23	18	17	22	17	9	4	4	5	26		49		31	51	60	0	10	0
N. Central Avg.	28	25	16	17	14	16	20	20	13	14	8	9	42	(3)	30	(49)	11	15	59	57	20	12
South																						
98. Washington	25	27	15	18	15	15	23	21	15	12	8	6	48	(3)	31	(22)	10	14	55	63	18	7
99. Baltimore	27	24	17	19	13	14	21	19	14	14	7	9	48	(2)	24	(18)	5	8	56	56	21	8
100. Houston	29	22	16	20	15	12	21	21	13	16	7	9	45	(3)	31	(55)	4	3	57	55	18	13
101. Dallas	28	28	16	19	15	12	20	15	13	14	8	11	45	(4)	38	(13)	4	2	55	54	20	16
102. Atlanta	26	29	16	20	15	14	20	17	15	12	8	8	41	(4)	37	(15)	2	2	52	57	21	13
103. Miami	27	31	14	17	19	15	22	21	13	12	5	4	46	(6)	36	(46)	13	10	56	61	26	18
104. New Orleans	28	32	17	19	12	12	18	17	15	12	9	7	43	(1)	40	(20)	3	4	54	62	22	15
105. Tampa-St. Peters.	27	29	16	18	14	15	19	18	15	13	8	8	36	(2)	32	(16)	8	11	53	61	25	20
106. Louisville	26	29	15	17	11	10	19	20	17	14	13	10	46	(3)	40	(53)	3	5	48	52	26	8
107. San Antonio	26	12	15	31	13	34	21	13	15	6	10	3	36	(2)	8	(67)	5	62	54	52	22	0
108. Birmingham	26	28	18	21	11	10	18	16	16	15	11	10	40	(6)	31	(24)	2	1	51	54	20	17
109. Memphis	28	31	17	22	12	11	18	15	15	12	11	10	45	(3)	44	(25)	5	6	51	57	22	16
110. Norfolk-Ports.	27	30	17	20	13	12	22	19	14	12	8	7	44	(5)	35	(77)	7	5	55	39	24	13
111. Fort Worth	28	28	16	18	13	11	19	20	14	14	9	9	44	(3)	29	(27)	4	5	52	53	23	18
112. Oklahoma City	30	28	16	22	13	13	18	15	14	13	8	9	37	(7)	26	(38)	5	10	62	60	27	20
113. Jacksonville	26	30	16	18	12	13	19	20	16	12	8	8	38	(2)	40	(65)	5	7	51	62	28	14
114. Tulsa	27	26	16	21	13	9	18	15	15	15	10	14	40	(7)	31	(30)	5	3	57	51	31	17
115. Richmond	24	22	16	22	13	14	21	18	16	14	10	9	43	(2)	19	(35)	3	4	50	50	20	1
116. Nashville	24	24	16	17	15	12	18	20	16	17	11	12	38	(4)	38	(58)	6	4	47	48	21	54
117. Knoxville	24	24	18	18	11	10	19	19	17	18	11	11	39	(3)	25	(20)	5	4	47	46	30	31
118. Wilmington	27	26	15	18	13	12	20	20	16	14	9	9	48	(9)	29	(18)	8	8	55	56	28	14
119. F.Laud.-Holly.	31	34	16	18	17	15	21	19	11	11	4	4	58	(11)	26	(26)	13	12	62	67	23	20
120. Orlando	27	28	15	18	16	14	21	18	14	14	7	8	40	(4)	34	(16)	15	8	54	57	25	24
121. Mobile	29	30	19	20	12	12	19	18	13	13	7	8	38	(8)	28	(12)	2	2	59	61	28	14
122. El Paso	30	24	15	13	20	37	21	23	9	3	6	1	28	(6)	11	(67)	30	61	61	86	15	0
123. Beaumont-Port A.	27	29	18	19	12	13	20	19	14	12	8	7	40	(6)	35	(4)	5	8	55	58	19	16

B-2 Population Characteristics of Central Cities and Suburban Areas (Cont'd)[a]

	% of Unrelated Individs.[c]		% of Persons 25 yrs. old & over[c] Less than 4 yrs. Hi.Sch.		4 yrs. or more College		Per Cent of Employed Persons By Occupation Group[c] Prof. & Tech.		Man.		Cler. & Sales		Crafts. & Fore.		Operative		Laborers		House. & Ser.	
	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.
	(29)	(30)	(31)	(32)	(33)	(34)	(35)	(36)	(37)	(38)	(39)	(40)	(41)	(42)	(43)	(44)	(45)	(46)	(47)	(48)
97. Kenosha	9	16	81	39	0	0	1	0	0	0	4	50	7	0	58	25	7	0	17	25
N. Central Avg.	10	11	74	70	4	6	4	9	1	2	8	9	8	9	23	20	12	10	33	29
South																				
98. Washington	11	10	66	75	7	6	7	7	2	2	21	11	6	7	12	12	9	14	31	37
99. Baltimore	10	9	80	81	3	3	5	5	2	1	11	6	7	6	22	17	14	16	29	37
100. Houston	8	5	74	81	5	3	5	4	2	2	6	4	6	4	18	14	15	22	39	36
101. Dallas	8	8	74	85	3	2	4	3	1	1	5	2	5	5	17	14	12	15	46	42
102. Atlanta	9	4	79	90	4	1	5	2	1	1	7	2	5	6	20	17	11	16	44	49
103. Miami	14	8	81	83	2	3	3	4	1	1	3	3	5	5	17	14	15	16	42	37
104. New Orleans	9	5	85	90	3	1	5	3	2	2	6	4	6	6	20	20	17	26	34	35
105. Tampa-St. Peters.	12	14	85	86	3	2	4	3	1	1	2	1	6	4	16	14	19	16	37	30
106. Louisville	10	10	79	78	3	3	4	5	2	1	6	5	5	6	16	17	13	16	41	40
107. San Antonio	9	65	70	55	4	6	4	4	3	4	8	4	8	4	13	12	7	7	50	60
108. Birmingham	8	5	81	86	4	2	6	4	2	1	5	4	6	6	23	27	16	22	38	33
109. Memphis	8	4	85	91	2	1	4	3	1	1	5	3	6	6	24	18	14	16	38	30
110. Norfolk-Ports.	11	10	80	84	4	2	5	4	2	1	8	5	8	8	21	21	18	19	31	29
111. Fort Worth	9	6	77	83	4	2	4	3	2	0	3	1	5	4	17	13	14	18	46	46
112. Oklahoma City	8	8	67	71	5	6	6	7	2	2	7	8	7	11	13	12	11	17	35	34
113. Jacksonville	13	8	82	80	3	3	4	4	2	2	6	6	5	8	19	16	18	19	37	36
114. Tulsa	10	6	68	79	5	2	5	4	2	3	7	6	6	8	11	18	10	11	46	36
115. Richmond	10	13	79	78	4	6	6	8	1	2	8	6	4	6	21	17	11	14	37	38
116. Nashville	14	7	77	81	6	6	7	8	2	2	6	6	6	7	18	13	11	12	45	46
117. Knoxville	12	7	74	82	5	3	6	5	1	1	4	2	5	6	10	10	9	12	54	54
118. Wilmington	14	11	79	81	3	3	4	4	2	1	4	5	6	7	16	45	14	13	30	30
119. F.Laud.-Holly.	10	7	86	89	2	2	3	3	2	2	4	1	6	7	14	11	21	19	44	34
120. Orlando	13	13	84	90	3	2	4	2	1	1	3	2	4	4	14	12	22	13	41	27
121. Mobile	7	4	81	88	3	2	5	4	1	1	6	4	8	8	19	22	19	20	39	36
122. El Paso	10	40	54	46	6	6	7	21	4	8	5	5	8	0	10	23	5	6	48	24
123. Beaumont-Port A.	8	7	82	82	2	10	5	3	2	1	4	3	5	4	16	12	23	20	38	39

See footnotes at end of table.

B-2 Population Characteristics of Central Cities and Suburban Areas (Cont'd)[a]

	% of Families By Income Group[9]						% of L.F. Unemployed[a]		% Unsound Owner-Occ Housing[12]		% Owner-Occupied Housing Units By Value Class[10]										% of Unsound Rental Housing[10]	
	Under $4,000		$4,000-7,999		$8,000-14,999						Under $5,000		$5,000-9,999		$10,000-14,999		$15,000-19,999		$20,000 & Over			
	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.
	(49)	(50)	(51)	(52)	(53)	(54)	(55)	(56)	(57)	(58)	(59)	(60)	(61)	(62)	(63)	(64)	(65)	(66)	(67)	(68)	(69)	(70)
97. Kenosha	27	0	59	0	13	0	8	0	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--
N. Central Avg.	45	43	44	42	11	12	11	10	32	47	17	26	48	37	26	20	6	9	2	6	55	66
South																						
98. Washington	38	42	40	41	22	18	6	4	10	41	1	14	11	30	52	34	29	14	7	7	26	54
99. Baltimore	48	47	40	41	12	11	10	6	14	48	11	20	64	46	22	22	2	8	1	4	41	59
100. Houston	61	66	33	29	6	5	7	8	26	49	21	45	53	43	20	9	4	2	2	1	44	79
101. Dallas	67	80	29	18	4	2	6	5	44	72	27	80	55	17	14	2	2	1	2	1	47	78
102. Atlanta	66	73	28	24	6	3	4	7	31	66	11	49	45	42	30	8	10	2	4	0	52	78
103. Miami	66	62	31	33	4	5	9	6	30	22	7	10	36	52	38	30	13	6	6	2	38	42
104. New Orleans	67	71	28	25	5	4	9	11	34	54	11	27	34	39	33	26	16	6	6	2	59	82
105. Tampa-St. Peters.	70	72	26	24	4	3	6	5	44	58	22	45	55	43	18	9	3	1	2	1	65	76
106. Louisville	61	54	34	40	6	6	10	9	31	47	23	32	56	39	18	26	2	3	1	0	56	81
107. San Antonio	63	65	32	27	5	8	6	2	35	74	30	23	56	35	11	18	2	0	1	4	44	36
108. Birmingham	67	69	29	28	5	3	10	12	43	64	28	55	43	37	14	6	3	1	1	1	74	88
109. Memphis	73	81	23	17	3	2	7	6	29	63	26	40	58	49	13	8	2	2	1	1	54	96
110. Norfolk-Ports.	64	66	31	29	5	5	7	8	26	65	23	52	56	33	18	11	3	3	1	1	53	84
111. Fort Worth	67	75	29	21	4	4	7	6	31	76	37	83	54	16	8	1	1	0	0	0	56	74
112. Oklahoma City	58	60	34	34	7	6	6	6	28	57	32	59	55	33	11	6	2	1	1	1	56	66
113. Jacksonville	68	64	28	32	4	4	6	5	49	44	22	27	53	51	19	18	3	2	2	1	73	74
114. Tulsa	64	71	29	23	6	6	8	11	31	64	36	70	49	22	12	4	2	1	1	2	63	76
115. Richmond	61	52	32	35	7	13	7	6	28	61	24	45	57	34	15	14	2	4	0	3	57	78
116. Nashville	72	67	24	27	4	6	4	16	46	58	26	41	56	36	13	15	4	5	2	2	61	79
117. Knoxville	71	62	25	32	4	6	7	7	40	58	38	63	52	27	8	8	1	1	0	1	55	65
118. Wilmington	54	48	37	42	9	10	10	11	22	41	11	26	68	48	18	21	3	4	1	1	49	85
119. F.Laud.-Holly.	62	73	33	23	5	4	5	7	25	53	15	29	56	49	18	18	7	2	3	1	35	59
120. Orlando	73	80	24	17	3	3	7	7	27	67	14	56	54	34	24	7	5	1	2	1	59	84
121. Mobile	68	74	28	23	4	3	10	10	49	70	24	43	52	44	18	10	5	2	2	2	68	88
122. El Paso	55	28	36	67	9	5	5	2	--	--	4	20	41	80	47	0	7	0	2	0	--	--
123. Beaumont-Port A.	64	73	32	23	4	4	10	4	40	56	32	49	51	39	14	10	2	2	1	0	73	72

B-2 Population Characteristics of Central Cities and Suburban Areas (Cont'd)[a]

	% of Renter-Occupied Housing Units By Gross Rent Class[10]								% of Workers Who Commute[12]	
	$40		$40-79		$80-119		$120 & Over			
	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.
	(71)	(72)	(73)	(74)	(75)	(76)	(77)	(78)	(79)	(80)
97. Kenosha	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	82	25
N. Central Avg.	11	13	58	57	25	21	6	6	10	38
South										
98. Washington	4	9	55	46	34	38	6	7	13	20
99. Baltimore	8	15	54	50	33	33	6	2	11	12
100. Houston	11	49	77	48	12	3	1	0	4	34
101. Dallas	20	56	66	41	13	2	1	0	2	17
102. Atlanta	22	47	69	51	8	2	0	0	5	18
103. Miami	5	11	54	58	37	30	4	0	25	35
104. New Orleans	29	46	66	52	5	1	0	0	4	23
105. Tampa-St. Peters.	22	33	65	60	13	6	0	0	5	10
106. Louisville	31	32	60	62	8	3	0	3	6	39
107. San Antonio	38	7	58	69	4	25	0	0	16	31
108. Birmingham	41	68	58	32	2	1	0	0	10	32
109. Memphis	30	71	68	26	2	2	0	2	2	42
110. Norfolk-Ports.	21	33	67	60	12	7	0	0	4	31
111. Fort Worth	21	36	75	58	4	5	0	2	5	19
112. Oklahoma City	19	38	75	54	6	7	0	1	4	40
113. Jacksonville	25	36	68	59	7	5	0	0	10	44
114. Tulsa	19	43	70	51	11	7	1	0	6	37
115. Richmond	24	37	66	49	10	14	0	1	4	26
116. Nashville	45	45	49	53	6	2	0	0	16	35
117. Knoxville	44	56	52	39	4	5	0	0	13	17
118. Wilmington	10	16	51	67	35	15	3	1	17	13
119. F.Laud.-Holly.	4	13	54	72	41	14	0	1	14	30
120. Orlando	23	44	62	51	14	6	0	0	14	14
121. Mobile	52	66	47	32	1	2	0	0	6	42
122. El Paso	24	3	48	38	18	49	10	9	11	4
123. Beaumont-Port A.	32	41	66	54	2	4	0	1	15	4

See footnotes at end of table.

B-2 Structural Characteristics of Standard Metropolitan Statistical Areas

	Pop. (000's)[1]	% SMSA Pop. in C.C.[1]	% SMSA Pop. Change 1950-60[2]	% Non-White in SMSA[3]	Per Cent SMSA Employment in			Per Cent SMSA Non-White in C.C.[5]
					Manufacture[4]	Trade[4]	Finance & Service[4]	
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)
119.Fort Lauderdale-Hollywood, Fla.	334	36	298	17	11[6]	29[6]	25[6]	40
120.Orlando, Fla.	318	28	125	17	21[6]	29[6]	22[6]	39
121.Mobile, Ala.	314	65	36	32	19	21	16	65
122.El Paso, Texas	314	88	61	3	22[6]	36[6]	22[6]	71
123.Beaumont-Port Arthur, Texas	306	61	30	21	46[6]	26[6]	16[6]	88
124.Chattanooga, Tenn.-Ga.	283	46	15	18	45	19	16	87
125.Shreveport, La.	281	58	30	34	12	27	18	59
126.Charlotte, N.C.	272	74	38	25	25	28	20	84
127.Columbia, S.C.	261	37	40	29	18	23	20	99
128.Huntington-Ashland, W.Va.-Ky.-Ohio	255	45	4	3	35	22	15	78
129.Charleston, W.Va.	253	34	6	6	30	22	16	56
130.Greensboro-High Point, N.C.	246	74	29	21	50[7]	21[7]	15[7]	82
131.Little Rock-North Little Rock, Ark.	243	68	24	22	19	23	22	49
132.Baton Rouge, La.	230	66	45	32	24	21	17	62
133.West Palm Beach, Fla.	228	25	99	23	15[6]	28[6]	26[6]	30
134.Newport News-Hampton, Va.	224	90	45	28	38[7]	25[7]	15[7]	90
135.Corpus Christi, Texas	222	76	34	5	17[6]	28[6]	19[6]	90
136.Columbus, Ga.-Ala.	218	54	28	29	35[6]	21[6]	14[6]	49
137.Augusta, Ga.-S.C.	217	33	34	30	38[6]	17[6]	12[6]	50
138.Charleston, S.C.	216	31	31	37	17	22	15	43
139.Austin, Texas	212	88	32	13	12[6]	30[6]	26[6]	91
140.Greenville, S.C.	210	32	25	18	45	18	15	53
141.Pensacola, Fla.	203	28	55	19	27[6]	21[6]	14[6]	48
142.Wheeling, W.Va.-Ohio	190	28	- 3	2	32	23	17	40
143.Winston-Salem, N.C.	189	59	30	24	54[7]	16[7]	14[7]	90
144.Savannah, Ga.	188	79	24	34	28	23	17	83
145.Jackson, Miss.	187	77	32	40	17	23	23	69
146.Macon, Ga.	180	39	34	31	21	18	13	55
147.Montgomery, Ala.	169	79	22	38	20[6]	33[6]	27[6]	73
148.Raleigh, N.C.	169	56	24	26	16[6]	25[6]	18[6]	50
149.Roanoke, Va.	159	61	19	13	23	23	20	82
150.Lubbock, Texas	156	82	55	8	15[6]	38[6]	28[6]	84

B-2 Population Characteristics of Central Cities and Suburban Areas

	Per Cent of Persons by Age Group[5]												Per Cent of Persons 5 Yrs. Old & Over[8]				% of All Families With Children Under 18[8]		% of All Families with Children Under 18 Which Are Broken[8]	
	Under 10		10-19		20-29		30-44		45-59		60 & Over		Movers within SMSA		Migrants from another State					
	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.
	(9)	(10)	(11)	(12)	(13)	(14)	(15)	(16)	(17)	(18)	(19)	(20)	(21)		(23)	(24)	(25)	(26)	(27)	(28)
124.Chattanooga	26	25	17	20	11	11	18	17	18	16	10	12	49 (3)	40 (35)	4	4	49	54	25	18
125.Shreveport	28	30	18	22	12	11	17	13	14	13	11	12	44 (9)	41 (32)	2	2	53	55	30	21
126.Charlotte	28	30	18	23	14	11	20	16	13	12	7	8	44 (8)	45 (23)	6	3	57	56	23	12
127.Columbia	27	28	19	23	15	14	19	17	12	11	8	8	43 (6)	30 (24)	3	6	55	62	30	14
128.Hunt.-Ashland	21	22	14	22	10	11	17	18	19	15	18	13	45 (8)	20 (20)	4	9	44	40	22	13
129.Charleston	23	24	15	22	10	12	17	16	19	15	16	11	31 (21)	26 (31)	6	3	48	61	23	17
130.Greens.-High Point	25	28	19	22	16	12	19	18	14	12	7	8	36	38	6	2	57	63	19	3
131.Lit.Rock-N.Lit.R.	23	36	18	19	12	9	18	12	16	11	14	11	38	30	3	3	51	56	26	15
132.Baton Rouge	27	27	19	24	13	16	19	14	14	10	9	9	30	30	2	4	53	61	20	13
133.W. Palm Beach	24	27	14	16	15	16	21	21	17	14	9	4	38	37	9	11	51	61	25	22
134.Newport N.-Hamp.	25	30	18	17	14	14	21	20	13	12	8	7	30	15	9	5	56	56	14	7
135.Corpus Christi	26	26	17	18	11	17	23	20	16	12	7	8	48	16	1	18	57	56	25	18
136.Columbus	27	28	18	22	13	16	20	16	15	10	8	7	38	32	8	12	49	58	25	14
137.Augusta	26	28	18	22	12	12	18	17	14	12	11	8	41	34	2	5	51	56	24	16
138.Charleston	28	33	20	25	11	11	19	15	14	10	7	6	44	26	2	2	60	66	29	16
139.Austin	24	24	18	20	14	12	18	14	15	14	11	15	33	23	2	5	50	49	22	0
140.Greenville	27	28	19	22	13	13	19	17	14	12	8	8	45	43	2	3	57	56	24	14
141.Pensacola	27	32	17	20	13	15	19	17	15	10	8	6	33	36	7	9	53	65	27	23
142.Wheeling	22	21	19	19	10	12	16	16	17	16	16	16	32	16	8	9	46	46	30	11
143.Winston-Salem	25	23	19	22	13	11	18	19	16	16	9	10	45	36	3	2	50	54	31	8
144.Savannah	25	26	18	22	12	12	18	17	16	14	10	8	44	30	3	4	52	55	22	14
145.Jackson	29	31	19	25	15	9	17	12	13	12	8	11	37	36	2	1	57	58	22	15
146.Macon	26	30	18	22	12	12	18	16	15	11	10	8	35	35	1	2	51	58	23	14
147.Montgomery	27	28	18	26	14	11	17	13	14	12	10	10	37	28	3	2	52	60	25	14
148.Raleigh	22	28	18	24	15	12	20	16	15	11	10	8	37	46	3	1	48	60	26	9
149.Roanoke	24	22	17	17	10	10	20	22	16	16	12	13	38	19	3	3	49	50	22	9
150.Lubbock	33	34	17	18	14	14	19	17	12	11	5	5	50	35	2	5	63	74	18	12
152.Waco	26	26	17	20	12	11	17	14	14	15	13	14	44	29	2	4	53	46	27	14
153.Amarillo	27	33	20	7	16	20	19	23	12	10	6	7	30	0	21	0	55	80	18	0
154.Lake Charles	29	32	18	20	14	15	19	17	12	10	8	6	38	35	3	4	58	67	23	12
155.Galveston-Tex.C.	26	30	16	19	12	9	21	21	16	14	9	7	42	35	4	2	53	58	25	20

See footnotes at end of table.

B-2 Population Characteristics of Central Cities and Suburban Areas (Cont'd)[a]

	% of Unrelated Individs.[e]		% of Persons 25 yrs. old & over[g]: Less than 4 yrs. Hi.Sch.		4 yrs. or more College		Per Cent of Employed Persons By Occupation Group[g]: Prof. & Tech.		Man.		Cler. & Sales		Crafts. & Fore.		Operative		Laborers		House. & Ser.	
	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.
	(29)	(30)	(31)	(32)	(33)	(34)	(35)	(36)	(37)	(38)	(39)	(40)	(41)	(42)	(43)	(44)	(45)	(46)	(47)	(48)
124.Chattanooga	9	5	87	86	2	2	4	4	1	2	3	0	4	7	18	20	15	14	44	43
125.Shreveport	9	5	86	94	3	1	5	2	1	1	3	1	6	4	15	19	13	15	51	38
126.Charlotte	9	3	79	91	5	0	5	2	2	0	4	1	6	5	19	20	13	17	42	40
127.Columbia	12	7	79	88	7	4	9	5	1	1	4	3	6	7	13	19	11	15	43	38
128.Hunt.-Ashland	10	14	70	70	6	3	5	4	2	1	6	4	6	9	6	8	11	19	53	49
129.Charleston	18	13	70	64	5	10	5	12	1	2	7	7	6	5	8	16	6	7	51	42
130.Greens.-High Point	14	4	72	84	8	2	7	3	1	1	5	2	6	8	21	22	13	13	37	33
131.Lit.Rock-N.Lit.R.	14	3	77	88	4	12	6	2	1	2	4	3	5	6	17	20	13	18	44	32
132.Baton Rouge	8	13	84	81	5	9	7	11	2	3	4	5	8	5	15	14	14	19	45	36
133.W. Palm Beach	14	16	81	91	3	2	4	2	2	1	3	2	5	4	15	16	17	10	44	19
134.Newport N.-Hamp.	33	0	76	81	5	3	7	3	2	1	8	2	15	8	17	20	14	23	29	37
135.Corpus Christi	10	13	82	78	2	4	3	3	0	2	3	4	4	4	16	14	13	13	50	52
136.Columbus	7	10	85	90	3	2	6	3	2	1	4	2	7	6	20	25	10	14	48	35
137.Augusta	9	6	88	88	2	3	5	4	2	2	5	2	6	7	18	5	14	15	45	35
138.Charleston	9	4	83	92	4	2	7	3	1	1	3	2	9	9	16	20	13	18	39	29
139.Austin	10	8	75	87	7	2	6	4	2	2	4	0	4	6	11	10	9	10	53	25
140.Greenville	8	13	86	90	3	2	4	3	1	1	2	1	6	6	18	23	14	14	44	38
141.Pensacola	9	7	82	85	4	2	6	3	1	1	3	2	8	6	14	14	18	25	46	40
142.Wheeling	12	6	77	77	3	1	6	4	2	0	2	5	4	8	11	21	8	12	57	43
143.Winston-Salem	11	4	80	85	5	2	6	3	2	0	5	3	6	7	30	23	13	12	34	36
144.Savannah	9	9	82	85	4	4	5	5	2	2	5	5	6	7	22	19	18	21	38	34
145.Jackson	9	3	83	94	4	2	7	3	2	1	3	2	9	5	19	11	11	11	43	25
146.Macon	8	4	89	90	2	2	4	4	1	1	4	4	7	6	22	17	14	15	44	37
147.Montgomery	10	4	80	91	6	2	7	4	1	1	4	1	8	6	17	11	13	13	46	28
148.Raleigh	12	4	74	90	9	2	10	2	2	0	4	2	7	6	13	15	10	12	42	30
149.Roanoke	11	8	76	81	5	3	7	2	1	2	4	2	4	8	11	13	13	13	54	51
150.Lubbock	8	7	80	88	4	1	5	4	1	2	3	1	5	3	13	9	16	13	50	34
152.Waco	9	8	76	87	7	3	8	5	2	1	4	2	5	5	14	15	11	15	51	39
153.Amarillo	17	0	71	27	6	0	6	0	2	0	3	0	5	0	9	0	50	0	58	0
154.Lake Charles	7	5	88	92	2	1	5	2	2	1	4	2	4	7	18	16	18	24	43	43
155.Galveston-Tex.C.	12	5	77	81	18	2	6	3	2	2	3	1	3	4	11	13	22	26	42	41

B-2 Population Characteristics of Central Cities and Suburban Areas (Cont'd)[a]

	% of Families By Income Group[g]: Under $4,000		$4,000-7,999		$8,000-14,999		% of L.F. Unemployed[e]		% Unsound Owner-Occ. Housing[12]		% Owner-Occupied Housing Units By Value Class[10]: Under $5,000		$5,000-9,999		$10,000-14,999		$15,000-19,999		$20,000 & Over		% of Unsound Rental Housing[10]	
	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.
	(49)	(50)	(51)	(52)	(53)	(54)	(55)	(56)	(57)	(58)	(59)	(60)	(61)	(62)	(63)	(64)	(65)	(66)	(67)	(68)	(69)	(70)
124.Chattanooga	70	69	26	28	4	4	7	5	39	66	29	60	59	33	9	4	2	3	1	1	64	84
125.Shreveport	77	87	20	11	3	2	8	4	49	89	33	68	49	26	14	3	3	2	1	1	77	94
126.Charlotte	72	81	24	17	3	2	6	5	29	82	23	69	45	26	26	4	4	0	2	1	60	97
127.Columbia	81	81	16	17	3	2	5	4	30	62	28	60	46	30	19	9	5	0	2	0	69	82
128.Hunt.-Ashland	69	52	27	42	4	6	6	12	--	--	10	34	51	50	33	14	5	1	1	1	--	--
129.Charleston	60	53	35	39	5	8	6	8	46	44	25	34	48	40	19	14	5	9	4	4	66	70
130.Greens.-High Point	67	72	27	25	6	3	4	3	26	75	19	58	57	31	18	10	3	1	3	0	58	93
131.Lit.Rock-N.Lit.R.	77	89	20	16	4	1	6	10	48	80	36	76	44	19	15	4	3	0	2	1	63	94
132.Baton Rouge	70	66	25	26	5	7	11	10	43	62	26	29	50	48	19	14	4	5	2	4	78	79
133.W. Palm Beach	67	78	29	19	4	3	6	4	27	45	11	24	38	37	41	19	4	3	6	3	84	85
134.Newport N.-Hamp.	55	52	38	41	8	7	6	4	30	70	24	40	47	43	24	12	4	3	1	1	59	80
135.Corpus Christi	65	78	32	15	3	7	6	16	29	78	24	80	68	16	7	4	1	0	0	0	50	57
136.Columbus	77	82	20	15	3	2	8	6	38	73	22	58	43	26	30	12	3	4	2	1	64	86
137.Augusta	82	82	15	16	3	3	6	6	43	61	48	60	43	32	7	7	2	3	1	1	65	90
138.Charleston	76	81	21	17	3	2	8	8	43	84	16	72	60	22	21	5	3	0	0	1	76	94
139.Austin	74	82	22	16	4	2	5	6	47	86	40	80	46	16	10	4	2	0	1	1	64	94
140.Greenville	81	81	18	18	1	2	4	4	41	56	37	53	50	39	10	7	2	2	0	0	77	88
141.Pensacola	67	74	28	23	5	3	9	10	56	73	40	61	45	33	12	4	2	1	1	1	89	95
142.Wheeling	72	61	26	38	3	2	12	11	--	--	41	57	48	37	8	4	0	1	3	0	--	--
143.Winston-Salem	65	61	29	33	6	6	9	4	17	55	13	43	59	27	22	17	4	9	2	4	60	94
144.Savannah	73	70	23	25	4	5	8	11	39	70	51	63	42	30	5	4	1	2	1	1	78	89
145.Jackson	79	92	19	7	2	1	6	5	31	81	31	67	56	26	11	5	2	1	1	1	57	98
146.Macon	79	75	19	21	2	4	6	8	61	72	51	62	39	28	6	8	3	1	1	1	79	90
147.Montgomery	80	86	17	12	3	2	8	5	54	81	39	63	46	27	11	8	3	1	1	2	69	99
148.Raleigh	72	87	24	12	4	1	5	6	34	81	31	68	44	22	19	8	4	1	2	1	49	97
149.Roanoke	66	74	29	24	5	2	6	7	22	58	26	51	58	37	12	10	3	2	0	0	51	92
150.Lubbock	60	82	36	17	4	1	5	7	41	87	24	94	48	6	18	0	2	0	7	0	77	84
152.Waco	77	85	20	12	4	3	7	7	55	86	53	89	34	9	9	2	2	0	2	0	66	92
153.Amarillo	52	100	38	0	10	0	4	0	22	0	34	0	53	0	8	0	1	0	4	0	47	100
154.Lake Charles	70	70	27	27	3	2	14	12	41	58	19	42	50	43	22	13	7	1	3	0	69	82
155.Galveston-Tex.C.	69	70	26	27	5	4	8	9	43	36	26	42	52	45	18	10	2	1	2	1	65	72

See footnotes at end of table.

B-2 Population Characteristics of Central Cities and Suburban Areas (Cont'd)[a]

	% of Renter-Occupied Housing Units By Gross Rent Class[10]								% of Workers Who Commute[12]	
	$40		$40-79		$80-119[11]		$120 & Over			
	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.
	(71)	(72)	(73)	(74)	(75)	(76)	(77)	(78)	(79)	(80)
124.Chattanooga	34	65	58	31	8	4	0	0	5	43
125.Shreveport	28	74	69	22	3	3	0	0	7	34
126.Charlotte	13	57	75	38	12	4	0	1	4	40
127.Columbia	41	65	56	33	2	2	0	0	8	29
128.Hunt.-Ashland	20	26	67	61	10	12	3	2	4	23
129.Charleston	21	30	66	64	12	6	1	0	75	39
130.Greens.-High Point	17	59	66	40	16	1	1	0	4	54
131.Lit.Rock-N.Lit.R.	48	65	50	25	1	6	0	2	3	54
132.Baton Rouge	46	58	52	38	1	4	0	0	4	48
133.W. Palm Beach	13	55	66	40	20	6	1	0	16	6
134.Newport N.-Hamp.	10	24	67	62	22	14	1	0	1	22
135.Corpus Christi	36	55	63	42	2	4	0	0	4	11
136.Columbus	40	84	56	14	3	1	0	0	16	39
137.Augusta	60	71	38	26	1	3	0	0	13	18
138.Charleston	53	65	44	32	3	3	0	0	18	17
139.Austin	48	65	50	24	2	6	0	5	3	34
140.Greenville	41	60	56	38	2	2	0	0	13	28
141.Pensacola	39	52	58	47	2	1	0	0	23	35
142.Wheeling	22	48	70	49	8	3	0	0	10	27
143.Winston-Salem	21	47	69	43	10	8	0	1	4	54
144.Savannah	48	69	49	25	2	4	0	1	11	32
145.Jackson	23	80	75	12	2	2	0	4	4	27
146.Macon	59	58	40	40	1	2	0	0	18	32
147.Montgomery	69	86	30	12	1	1	0	0	3	34
148.Raleigh	26	70	69	28	4	2	0	0	6	27
149.Roanoke	25	55	62	38	13	7	0	0	9	15
150.Lubbock	34	43	58	32	8	25	0	0	3	26
152.Waco	56	83	43	14	1	3	0	1	9	46
153.Amarillo	20	0	68	0	12	0	0	0	2	100
154.Lake Charles	26	47	69	46	4	8	0	0	18	48
155.Galveston-Tex.C.	42	39	56	61	2	0	0	0	4	42

B-2 Structural Characteristics of Standard Metropolitan Statistical Areas

	Pop. (000's)[1]	% SMSA Pop. in C.C.[1]	% SMSA Pop. Change 1950-60[2]	% Non-White in SMSA[3]	Per Cent SMSA Employment in Manufacture[4]	Trade[4]	Finance & Service[4]	Per Cent SMSA Non-White in C.C.[5]
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)
151.Brownsville-Harlingen-San Benito, Texas	151	70	21	1	18[7]	33[7]	15[7]	--
152.Waco, Texas	150	65	15	16	29[8]	30[8]	23[8]	75
153.Amarillo, Texas	149	92	72	5	17[8]	31[8]	27[8]	100
154.Lake Charles, La.	145	44	62	21	24[8]	22[8]	14[8]	45
155.Galveston-Texas City, Texas	140	71	24	21	28[8]	21[8]	20[8]	82
156.Lexington, Ky.	132	48	31	15	24[7]	30[7]	22[7]	81
157.Asheville, N.C.	130	46	5	11	39[8]	21[8]	16[8]	81
158.Wichita Falls, Texas	130	79	23	7	14[8]	37[8]	22[8]	94
159.Abilene, Texas	120	75	41	5	16	34	28	78
160.Huntsville, Ala.	117	62	61	19	18[8]	24[8]	26[8]	46
161.Durham, N.C.	112	70	10	32	34[8]	17[8]	24[8]	79
162.Lynchburg, Va.	111	50	14	21	48[7]	19[7]	14[7]	47
163.Tuscaloosa, Ala.	109	58	16	29	38[8]	22[14]	9[8]	60
164.Monroe, La.	102	51	36	32	21[8]	26[8]	17[8]	70
South Average		57	39	20	25	25	19	70
West								
165.Los Angeles-Long Beach, Calif.	6,743	42	54	9	33	22	20	73
166.San Francisco-Oakland, Calif.	2,783	40	24	13	20	22	21	67
167.Seattle, Wash.	1,107	50	31	5	30	23	19	88
168.San Diego, Calif.	1,033	56	86	6	26	20	19	78
169.Denver, Col.	929	53	52	4	19	25	21	90
170.Portland, Ore.-Wash.	822	45	17	3	24	25	20	85
171.San Bernardino-Riverside-Ontario, Calif.	810	28	79	5	18	22	18	36
172.Phoenix, Ariz.	664	66	100	6	18	26	21	75
173.San Jose, Calif.	642	32	121	3	36	18	20	33
174.Sacramento, Calif.	503	38	81	8	17	20	14	64
175.Honolulu, Hawaii	500	59	42	64	11	23	22	66
176.Salt Lake City, Utah	383	50	39	1	18	27	20	74
177.Fresno, Calif.	366	37	32	8	16	29	19	48
178.Tacoma, Wash.	322	46	17	5	22	21	18	48

See footnotes at end of table.

B-2 Population Characteristics of Central Cities and Suburban Areas

	Per Cent of Persons by Age Group[5]												Per Cent of Persons 5 Yrs. Old & Over[a]				% of All Families With Children Under 18[a]		% of All Families with Children Under 18 Which Are Broken[a]	
	Under 10		10-19		20-29		30-44		45-59		60 & Over		Movers within SMSA		Migrants from Another State					
	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.
	(9)	(10)	(11)	(12)	(13)	(14)	(15)	(16)	(17)	(18)	(19)	(20)	(21)	(22)	(23)	(24)	(25)	(26)	(27)	(28)
156.Lexington	24	20	14	15	12	15	19	22	16	15	15	14	39	19	3	2	46	42	24	8
157.Asheville	22	21	17	17	10	10	19	21	19	16	14	14	37	21	2	7	45	51	25	16
158.Wichita Falls	25	27	18	17	16	11	19	17	14	16	9	13	34	29	44	3	56	36	22	2
159.Abilene	26	28	17	21	20	12	18	13	12	14	7	13	34	27	13	3	64	36	15	22
160.Huntsville	25	28	18	26	14	16	18	13	14	10	12	7	43	45	4	5	51	60	24	3
161.Durham	23	26	20	24	14	11	20	15	16	14	8	9	35	34	3	1	52	56	30	7
162.Lynchburg	22	28	18	23	12	12	19	16	17	12	13	12	28	22	2	2	45	55	20	2
163.Tuscaloosa	29	29	20	22	14	11	17	14	13	13	8	10	40	33	4	1	56	93	32	53
164.Monroe	29	31	18	21	11	10	16	14	14	13	12	10	38	34	2	2	53	58	34	23
South Avg.	26	28	17	20	13	13	19	17	15	13	10	9	40 (5)	30 (32)	6	7	53	57	24	14
West																				
165.Los Ang.-Long B.	24	29	14	16	16	14	24	23	14	11	8	6	41 (6)	41 (62)	16	8	56	66	22	13
166.San Fran.-Oakland	26	27	16	17	13	15	24	23	15	13	7	5	45 (9)	41 (28)	9	12	60	65	21	17
167.Seattle	25	30	16	19	13	14	24	20	14	12	8	6	37 (6)	32 (41)	12	12	63	67	18	5
168.San Diego	28	28	17	16	19	28	22	17	10	6	5	4	36 (7)	23 (36)	23	30	67	69	21	17
169.Denver	28	25	15	19	15	17	22	24	12	8	9	6	40 (2)	32 (54)	18	24	62	68	22	4
170.Portland	27	25	16	20	12	12	22	22	16	13	8	8	43 (5)	38 (50)	10	14	60	73	19	8
171.San B.-Riv.-Ont.	32	26	16	15	17	18	19	19	10	14	5	8	38 (18)	28 (17)	21	18	65	62	24	14
172.Phoenix	30	32	18	18	13	16	17	16	14	11	8	6	35 (29)	26 (23)	12	15	62	71	22	12
173.San Jose	25	26	14	16	21	13	22	25	12	13	7	7	29 (29)	29 (77)	15	9	62	68	8	2
174.Sacramento	27	27	15	16	15	14	24	24	12	12	7	6	37 (9)	28 (44)	11	13	63	70	14	14
175.Honolulu	24	29	19	20	14	13	23	22	14	11	7	6	39 (5)	44 (64)	2	5	68	75	4	2
176.Salt Lake City	23	31	16	20	14	11	23	23	12	8	11	8	32 (0)	39 (50)	15	11	62	71	15	0
177.Fresno	28	25	18	19	12	10	19	20	14	14	10	12	43 (16)	34 (24)	7	5	57	62	19	13
178.Tacoma	34	28	16	12	16	27	21	24	9	6	5	2	33 (10)	9 (33)	25	46	72	81	28	8
179.Bakersfield	28	28	19	18	11	11	17	18	16	17	10	8	45 (14)	35 (29)	7	12	56	60	37	24
180.Spokane	28	25	15	14	15	27	20	21	12	8	9	4	26 (0)	14 (0)	20	28	59	85	20	11
181.Tucson	27	29	17	20	14	16	19	16	14	12	9	8	34 (22)	24 (7)	19	7	55	51	19	0
182.Albuquerque	30	32	16	19	21	20	20	17	9	8	4	4	30 (7)	26 (50)	28	27	63	52	21	13

B-2 Population Characteristics of Central Cities and Suburban Areas (Cont'd)[a]

	% of Unrelated Individs.[a]		% of Persons 25 yrs. old & over[a] Less than 4 yrs. Hi.Sch.		4 yrs. or more College		Per Cent of Employed Persons By Occupation Group[a] Prof. & Tech.		Man.		Cler. & Sales		Crafts. & Fore.		Operative		Laborers		House. & Ser.	
	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.
	(29)	(30)	(31)	(32)	(33)	(34)	(35)	(36)	(37)	(38)	(39)	(40)	(41)	(42)	(43)	(44)	(45)	(46)	(47)	(48)
156.Lexington	11	5	76	73	4	7	5	5	1	2	4	2	7	6	13	7	12	9	48	41
157.Asheville	10	15	79	87	4	2	6	6	1	0	3	1	4	2	10	14	8	13	60	52
158.Wichita Falls	14	6	73	89	4	2	4	7	3	3	4	2	5	0	8	10	11	22	60	46
159.Abilene	14	11	72	91	4	0	3	1	2	2	0	0	4	4	5	14	11	18	64	38
160.Huntsville	5	11	83	86	5	6	9	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	14	8	13	11	49	27
161.Durham	13	4	81	85	6	3	8	4	2	1	5	5	6	8	18	18	16	13	38	32
162.Lynchburg	10	2	81	89	5	1	7	2	2	1	5	1	5	5	20	20	13	22	44	30
163.Tuscaloosa	8	4	85	93	3	1	6	1	2	0	3	2	6	5	18	20	15	16	48	36
164.Monroe	8	6	89	90	3	3	6	4	2	2	4	1	5	4	19	19	14	18	46	39
South Avg.	11	9	79	83	4	3	6	4	2	2	5	3	6	6	16	16	13	15	44	37
West																				
165.Los Ang.-Long B.	13	7	56	55	6	6	8	9	3	3	16	14	8	9	14	38	7	3	24	22
166.San Fran.-Oakland	12	10	64	59	5	7	7	9	4	3	17	14	7	9	15	15	10	12	28	26
167.Seattle	14	9	56	56	9	7	11	11	6	3	14	10	7	9	15	10	8	17	23	28
168.San Diego	16	19	61	58	4	4	7	7	2	4	10	8	12	7	16	11	12	6	31	19
169.Denver	11	15	56	41	7	17	8	16	3	5	14	13	6	9	12	12	9	8	35	24
170.Portland	12	11	64	60	6	7	7	9	5	5	11	9	5	6	12	12	10	8	36	28
171.San B.-Riv.-Ont.	6	9	62	71	3	3	10	4	2	3	10	5	11	8	16	13	10	14	34	29
172.Phoenix	9	12	76	81	4	2	6	3	3	2	8	6	7	4	12	11	14	10	34	15
173.San Jose	15	8	52	47	8	11	13	14	4	4	18	11	9	7	17	11	7	5	20	15
174.Sacramento	9	10	53	63	7	5	10	7	7	5	23	16	7	9	14	16	9	10	21	18
175.Honolulu	7	7	54	63	8	4	11	8	8	6	24	20	17	19	14	16	7	8	14	11
176.Salt Lake City	17	8	49	56	11	7	14	8	6	3	14	12	7	14	13	21	6	4	31	10
177.Fresno	11	10	72	69	3	3	7	5	6	5	10	9	7	4	12	7	10	5	33	12
178.Tacoma	7	24	62	50	6	6	10	8	2	6	9	10	8	7	17	6	12	5	32	20
179.Bakersfield	10	14	80	78	2	2	5	4	4	3	7	5	6	4	8	10	14	10	36	22
180.Spokane	12	21	57	49	4	9	7	10	7	5	10	9	8	7	13	10	11	4	37	24
181.Tucson	10	7	74	92	3	1	5	4	5	9	7	3	7	5	7	25	13	11	47	20
182.Albuquerque	12	14	57	58	6	4	10	8	2	2	13	11	10	14	10	10	9	14	40	28

See footnotes at end of table.

B-2 Population Characteristics of Central Cities and Suburban Areas (Cont'd)[a]

	% of Families By Income Group[9]						% of L.F. Unemployed[8]		% Unsound Owner-Occ. Housing[12]		% Owner-Occupied Housing Units By Value Class[10]										% of Unsound Rental Housing[10]	
	Under $4,000		$4,000-7,999		$8,000-14,999						Under $5,000		$5,000-9,999		$10,000-14,999		$15,000-19,999		$20,000 & Over			
	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.
	(49)	(50)	(51)	(52)	(53)	(54)	(55)	(56)	(57)	(58)	(59)	(60)	(61)	(62)	(63)	(64)	(65)	(66)	(67)	(68)	(69)	(70)
156.Lexington	74	74	23	22	3	4	8	6	48	54	38	5	38	35	22	7	2	1	1	2	65	75
157.Asheville	77	82	20	12	2	6	6	3	45	61	36	58	53	36	8	7	1	0	2	0	66	69
158.Wichita Falls	72	75	24	25	3	0	5	14	43	100	70	94	25	6	3	0	1	0	1	0	53	72
159.Abilene	68	91	27	9	5	0	6	12	--	--	37	96	55	4	6	0	1	0	0	0	--	--
160.Huntsville	77	78	19	17	3	4	8	7	63	74	28	35	44	37	17	21	7	6	4	2	51	94
161.Durham	72	68	23	27	4	5	8	6	22	57	24	47	46	38	20	12	7	2	3	1	51	96
162.Lynchburg	68	75	25	22	7	4	6	5	54	86	67	70	29	23	3	5	0	1	1	1	84	98
163.Tuscaloosa	80	81	19	18	1	1	8	9	53	86	50	73	39	20	6	6	3	1	2	0	80	98
164.Monroe	82	83	16	15	3	2	9	6	67	80	64	72	29	21	6	6	1	1	0	1	86	98
South Avg.	68	72	27	24	5	4	7	7	38	64	29	53	49	33	17	10	4	2	2	1	61	82
West																						
165.Los Ang.-Long B.	36	29	44	47	20	24	9	5	8	8	1	1	19	20	49	52	21	19	11	9	22	29
166.San Fran-Oakland	35	32	45	47	31	20	11	10	12	8	1	1	12	17	51	54	25	19	12	8	38	31
167.Seattle	30	36	46	41	24	23	11	10	19	32	2	13	34	30	43	30	15	14	6	14	47	60
168.San Diego	40	59	46	27	15	14	8	3	10	33	2	17	18	9	45	33	26	25	8	16	35	42
169.Denver	40	34	44	41	16	25	6	3	20	14	3	4	37	30	46	35	10	22	4	9	42	40
170.Portland	41	30	46	50	13	20	10	6	23	21	9	11	59	27	27	35	4	19	2	8	52	32
171.San B.-Riv.-Ont.	45	48	46	44	9	8	10	10	8	31	5	15	46	42	44	29	4	8	2	5	21	53
172.Phoenix	56	78	36	16	9	5	9	9	38	79	33	59	44	32	17	5	3	1	3	3	60	81
173.San Jose	26	20	48	43	26	37	8	4	--	--	0	1	8	4	39	35	39	33	14	27	--	--
174.Sacramento	27	36	46	45	27	20	8	7	11	28	2	9	18	35	53	38	18	10	9	8	47	51
175.Honolulu	17	19	41	45	43	36	3	4	14	20	1	4	3	8	8	12	18	27	70	48	43	50
176.Salt Lake City	44	28	40	46	16	25	4	2	--	--	1	0	43	24	41	36	8	23	6	16	--	--
177.Fresno	55	53	34	31	11	16	13	10	27	40	10	40	56	31	25	15	7	6	2	8	49	70
178.Tacoma	56	59	36	32	9	9	14	4	30	18	17	8	57	38	23	33	2	16	1	5	34	26
179.Bakersfield	59	65	33	29	7	6	11	17	18	38	21	29	51	44	20	21	4	4	4	3	37	63
180.Spokane	47	42	42	46	12	12	14	3	--	--	15	12	57	48	17	27	7	12	4	0	--	--
181.Tucson	56	74	37	22	6	4	8	10	25	93	17	92	41	5	26	1	9	2	6	1	58	59
182.Albuquerque	50	63	37	30	14	7	4	5	--	--	8	25	51	51	30	17	7	5	3	2	--	--

B-2 Population Characteristics of Central Cities and Suburban Areas (Cont'd)[a]

	% of Renter-Occupied Housing Units By Gross Rent Class[10]								% of Workers Who Commute[12]	
	$40		$40-79		$80-119		$120 & Over			
	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.
	(71)	(72)	(73)	(74)	(75)	(76)	(77)	(78)	(79)	(80)
156.Lexington	30	37	58	47	11	16	0	0	19	32
157.Asheville	45	62	53	33	3	6	0	0	11	25
158.Wichita Falls	33	42	63	58	4	0	0	0	4	16
159.Abilene	36	63	60	31	3	6	1	0	5	5
160.Huntsville	68	74	30	19	2	6	0	1	19	28
161.Durham	16	49	77	41	7	5	0	4	4	54
162.Lynchburg	25	72	72	27	4	1	0	0	4	29
163.Tuscaloosa	70	84	28	13	0	2	0	0	14	29
164.Monroe	79	92	20	7	1	0	0	0	9	24
South Avg.	32	50	59	41	9	7	1	1	10	30
West										
165.Los Ang.-Long B.	6	3	63	54	29	40	2	3	15	51
166.San Fran.-Oakland	17	5	61	59	20	33	2	3	12	22
167.Seattle	26	16	50	50	22	28	2	6	7	30
168.San Diego	5	4	52	79	41	16	3	0	7	48
169.Denver	14	6	56	59	27	24	3	11	5	32
170.Portland	18	16	58	65	24	21	1	0	6	34
171.San B.-Riv.-Ont.	13	15	65	66	20	19	2	0	31	24
172.Phoenix	38	50	57	44	5	4	0	2	10	16
173.San Jose	8	8	49	44	35	49	7	0	25	19
174.Sacramento	16	10	59	56	23	30	2	3	21	32
175.Honolulu	16	26	46	52	33	18	5	4	7	57
176.Salt Lake City	26	22	62	63	6	7	6	7	6	34
177.Fresno	19	35	71	56	10	8	0	1	16	22
178.Tacoma	11	2	66	46	21	49	2	3	38	59
179.Bakersfield	18	30	75	63	6	6	0	1	25	33
180.Spokane	19	9	63	83	12	7	6	0	20	41
181.Tucson	32	64	58	33	9	4	1	0	13	23
182.Albuquerque	10	20	61	51	22	22	7	7	6	47

See footnotes at end of table.

B-2 Structural Characteristics of Standard Metropolitan Statistical Areas

	Pop. (000's)[1]	% SMSA Pop. in C.C.[1]	% SMSA Pop. Change 1950-60[2]	% Non-White in SMSA[3]	Per Cent SMSA Employment in: Manufacture[4]	Trade[4]	Finance & Service[4]	Per Cent SMSA Non-White in C.C.[5]
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)
179.Bakersfield, Calif.	292	20	27	7	10	23	17	44
180.Spokane, Wash.	278	65	26	2	17	27	22	80
181.Tucson, Ariz.	266	80	88	6	12	23	22	56
182.Albuquerque, N. Mex.	262	77	80	3	10	23	29	68
183.Stockton, Calif.	250	35	25	10	21	24	16	55
184.Santa Barbara, Calif.	169	35	72	4	10[7]	29[7]	27[7]	36
185.Eugene, Oreg.	163	31	30	1	42[7]	22[7]	15[7]	--
186.Colorado Springs, Col.	144	49	93	4	12[7]	24[7]	29[7]	58
187.Las Vegas, Nev.	127	51	163	10	7[7]	20[7]	44[7]	84
188.Pueblo, Col.	119	77	32	2	42[7]	23[7]	15[7]	90
189.Ogden, Utah	111	63	33	3	26[7]	31[7]	20[7]	84
190.Provo-Orem, Utah	107	51	31	1	38[7]	22[7]	17[7]	--
West Average		49	57	7	21	24	21	66
Average, 190 SMSA's		53	32	11	32	22	18	76

B-2 Population Characteristics of Central Cities and Suburban Areas

	Per Cent of Persons by Age Group[6]												Per Cent of Persons 5 Yrs. Old & Over[8]				% of All Families With Children Under 18[8]		% of All Families with Children Under 18 Which Are Broken[8]	
	Under 10		10-19		20-29		30-44		45-59		60 & Over		Movers within SMSA		Migrants from another State					
	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.
	(9)	(10)	(11)	(12)	(13)	(14)	(15)	(16)	(17)	(18)	(19)	(20)	(21)	(22)	(23)	(24)	(25)	(26)	(27)	(28)
183.Stockton	25	23	17	18	10	8	19	18	17	23	11	10	36	29	5	4	63	65	18	12
184.Santa Barbara	23	22	15	15	15	22	19	18	18	16	11	7	25	25	11	20	48	67	26	10
186.Colorado Springs	29	28	13	14	20	31	20	21	10	4	8	1	22	4	38	57	48	70	29	8
187.Las Vegas	32	30	15	14	17	25	20	18	12	9	4	3	39	29	25	44	61	67	14	17
188.Pueblo	22	37	17	16	12	15	19	17	14	9	16	17	27	34	6	25	51	60	20	46
189.Ogden	25	30	19	22	11	8	25	25	12	8	8	7	28	30	17	10	57	70	19	0
West Avg.	27	28	16	17	15	17	19	20	13	11	8	7	35 (11)	29 (38)	16	19	60	67	20	11
Average, 190 SMSA's	27	26	16	18	14	14	20	19	14	13	9	9	40 (5)	29 (36)	10	12	57	58	22	13

See footnotes at end of table.

B-2 Population Characteristics of Central Cities and Suburban Areas (Cont'd)[a]

	% of Unrelated Individs.[8]		% of Persons 25 yrs. old & over[9]: Less than 4 yrs. Hi.Sch.		4 yrs. or more College		Per Cent of Employed Persons By Occupation Group[9]: Prof. & Tech.		Man.		Cler. & Sales		Crafts. & Fore.		Operative		Laborers		House. & Ser.	
	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.
	(29)	(30)	(31)	(32)	(33)	(34)	(35)	(36)	(37)	(38)	(39)	(40)	(41)	(42)	(43)	(44)	(45)	(46)	(47)	(48)
183.Stockton	14	18	75	79	3	2	8	3	7	2	12	6	5	4	15	10	9	6	24	11
184.Santa Barbara	13	25	71	62	6	4	3	4	6	4	7	2	3	5	10	8	8	4	43	16
186.Colorado Springs	12	27	55	35	7	7	7	10	4	6	10	12	5	6	9	10	6	4	52	49
187.Las Vegas	10	22	81	56	2	8	3	13	2	3	3	5	4	7	11	6	10	8	57	38
188.Pueblo	7	4	71	57	8	5	12	8	2	10	8	0	4	0	18	18	10	45	37	8
189.Ogden	16	9	61	28	3	7	4	17	5	0	10	17	12	2	12	14	13	0	37	24
West Avg.	12	13	63	59	6	6	8	8	4	4	12	10	8	7	13	13	10	9	34	22
Average, 190 SMSA's	11	11	75	73	4	5	5	7	2	2	7	6	7	7	20	18	12	12	36	30

B-2 Population Characteristics of Central Cities and Suburban Areas (Cont'd)[a]

	% of Families By Income Group[9]: Under $4,000		$4,000-7,999		$8,000-14,999		% of L.F. Unemployed[8]		% Unsound Owner-Occ Housing[12]		% Owner-Occupied Housing Units By Value Class[10]: Under $5,000		$5,000-9,999		$10,000-14,999		$15,000-19,999		$20,000 & Over		% of Unsound Rental Housing[10]	
	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.
	(49)	(50)	(51)	(52)	(53)	(54)	(55)	(56)	(57)	(58)	(59)	(60)	(61)	(62)	(63)	(64)	(65)	(66)	(67)	(68)	(69)	(70)
183.Stockton	46	48	39	38	15	14	14	7	20	35	11	38	58	40	24	13	5	6	2	4	58	66
184.Santa Barbara	40	40	44	33	16	27	4	2	--	--	2	9	14	13	48	36	22	28	14	14	--	--
186.Colorado Springs	49	50	45	46	7	4	16	4	--	--	7	0	49	37	31	57	8	7	4	0	--	--
187.Las Vegas	35	31	43	46	21	23	10	8	14	28	12	8	10	40	59	29	12	13	6	9	92	24
188.Pueblo	43	62	49	27	8	11	6	17	--	--	26	44	55	41	14	0	3	0	2	15	--	--
189.Ogden	34	8	56	36	10	56	10	4	--	--	7	0	71	20	16	50	3	20	3	10	--	--
West Avg.	42	44	43	38	16	18	9	7	19	33	9	18	38	29	33	29	12	14	8	10	42	49
Average, 190 SMSA's	54	53	37	35	9	11	9	8	33	51	20	34	46	33	24	19	7	8	3	5	56	70

See footnotes at end of table.

B-2 Population Characteristics of Central Cities and Suburban Areas (Cont'd)[a]

	% of Renter-Occupied Housing Units By Gross Rent Class[10]								% of Workers Who Commute[12]	
	$40		$40-79		$80-119		$120 & Over			
	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.
	(71)	(72)	(73)	(74)	(75)	(76)	(77)	(78)	(79)	(80)
183.Stockton	47	38	48	60	4	3	1	0	29	20
184.Santa Barbara	7	14	47	58	26	5	20	23	16	25
186.Colorado Springs	3	1	57	66	26	26	14	5	30	60
187.Las Vegas	4	0	50	51	36	32	9	18	20	23
188.Pueblo	16	16	74	84	5	0	5	0	25	34
189.Ogden	22	0	68	73	8	27	2	0	6	35
West Avg.	17	17	59	59	20	20	4	4	16	34
Average, 190 SMSA's	20	27	59	51	18	16	3	4	11	31

See footnotes at end of table.

TABLE B-2

Footnotes

a. Zeros indicate .5 percent of less.

b. Less than 1 percent.

c. Figures in parentheses show percent of movers from opposite metropolitan location. 1960 Census of Population, Vol. II, Part 2C.

1. U. S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, 1960 Census of Population, Vol. 1, Part A, Table 35.

2. Ibid.

3. U. S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, 1962 County and City Data Book, Table 3.

4. U. S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics, Employment and Earnings, 1960, except where otherwise noted.

5. 1960 Census of Population, Vol. I, Part B, Table 20.

6. Data obtained from State Employment Security Agency.

7. U. S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census and Department of Health, Education and Welfare, Bureau of Old Age and Survivors Insurance, County Business Patterns, First Quarter, 1959.

8. 1960 Census of Population, Vol. I, Part C, Table 77.

9. Ibid., Table 78.

10. 1960 Census of Housing, Vol. I, Table 38.

11. Ibid., Tables 37, 39.

12. 1960 Census of Population, Vol. I, Part D, Table 131.

TABLE B-3
Percent of Nonwhites by Race, Western Region

	Negro		American Indian		Oriental	
	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.
Los Angeles-Long Beach, California	80	74	1	3	19	23
San Francisco-Oakland, California	67	71	1	1	31	28
Seattle, Washington	58	21	4	33	38	46
San Diego, California	77	41	2	2	21	58
Denver, Colorado	86	33	3	1	11	66
Portland, Oregon	75	29	4	2	21	69
San Bernardino-Riverside-Ontario, California	92	70	3	13	5	17
Phoenix, Arizona	77	46	9	62	14	--
San Jose, California	29	16	5	3	66	81
Sacramento, California	50	56	1	4	49	40
Honolulu, Hawaii	1	3	--	--	99	97
Salt Lake City, Utah	39	10	8	21	53	68
Fresno, California	80	48	1	6	19	46
Tacoma, Washington	76	54	11	10	14	20
Bakersfield, California	92	74	0	6	8	20
Spokane, Washington	54	51	14	19	33	30
Tucson, Arizona	76	14	13	83	11	3
Albuquerque, New Mexico	60	39	31	54	9	7
Stockton, California	54	40	1	2	46	58
Santa Barbara, California	68	30	2	6	30	64
Eugene, Oregon	27	32	10	37	63	32
Colorado Springs, Colorado	91	74	2	5	7	21
Las Vegas, Nevada	95	70	1	15	4	16
Pueblo, Colorado	86	87	3	4	11	10
Ogden, Utah	67	16	7	14	26	70
Provo-Orem, Utah	6	2	21	51	73	47

[1]Includes Chinese, Japanese, Filipino and all other.

Source: 1960 Census of Population, Vol. I, Part C, Table 21.

TABLE B-4
Percent of Persons by Age Group, 1950 and 1960

	Under 19				20-29				30-44				45 & Over			
	1950		1960		1950		1960		1950		1960		1950		1960	
	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.	C.C.	Sub.
New York, New York	27	29	30	38	16	15	12	10	25	25	21	24	32	31	36	28
Philadelphia, Pa.-N.J.	29	32	33	38	16	16	12	11	24	23	20	23	31	29	34	28
Pittsburg, Pa.	29	32	33	37	17	16	12	11	23	23	20	22	31	28	35	30
Buffalo, N.Y.	29	34	34	40	16	15	12	11	23	23	20	23	32	28	35	26
Providence-Pawtucket, R.I.-Mass.	29	31	33	37	17	16	12	11	22	23	19	22	32	31	36	31
Chicago, Illinois	27	32	33	40	16	15	13	11	25	24	21	23	32	29	33	26
Detroit, Michigan	30	36	35	43	17	16	11	12	24	25	21	23	29	24	33	22
St. Louis, Mo.-Ill.	27	33	33	40	17	16	12	11	23	23	18	22	33	28	36	27
Cleveland, Ohio	28	30	35	38	17	14	13	10	24	25	21	23	30	31	31	29
Minneapolis-St. Paul, Minn.	29	38	34	46	17	15	14	12	21	23	17	23	33	24	35	20
Milwaukee, Wisconsin	29	33	36	40	17	14	14	11	23	24	20	22	32	29	31	28
Cincinnati, Ohio-Kentucky	28	33	35	40	16	15	13	11	22	23	18	21	33	29	34	28
Kansas City, Mo.-Kansas	26	33	34	42	17	16	13	12	23	23	19	23	33	28	34	23
Washington, D.C.-Maryland-Virginia	26	35	32	41	19	18	15	13	26	27	21	24	29	20	32	21
Baltimore, Maryland	30	35	36	40	17	18	12	13	24	24	21	24	29	22	31	23
Houston, Texas	32	39	40	43	20	17	14	12	25	25	22	22	23	19	24	22
New Orleans, Louisana	31	39	38	45	17	18	12	12	23	23	20	23	28	20	30	19
Atlanta, Georgia	30	36	36	42	19	18	14	14	24	24	20	23	27	22	29	21
Dallas, Texas	29	37	38	41	19	17	13	15	26	23	22	20	28	23	27	24
Louisville, Kentucky-Indiana	30	36	36	43	18	15	13	12	23	23	19	23	29	26	32	23
Los Angeles-Long Beach, California	26	31	32	39	16	15	13	12	25	24	22	23	34	30	33	26
San Francisco-Oakland, California	24	33	28	39	16	18	13	12	25	25	20	23	35	24	39	25
Seattle, Washington	26	36	32	43	17	15	13	12	23	24	20	22	34	25	35	23
Portland, Oregon-Washington	26	35	32	40	15	14	10	10	23	23	19	21	36	29	39	28
Average, 24 SMSA's	28	34	34	41	17	16	13	12	24	24	20	23	31	26	33	25

Source: 1960 Census of Population, Vol. I, Part B, Table 20, and Donald J. Bogue, The Population of the United States, p. 118.

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