Appendix 1.

Understanding and Using ACS Single-Year and Multiyear Estimates

What Are Single-Year and Multiyear Estimates?

Understanding Period Estimates

The ACS produces period estimates of socioeconomic and housing characteristics. It is designed to provide estimates that describe the average characteristics of an area over a specific time period. In the case of ACS single-year estimates, the period is the calendar year (e.g., the 2007 ACS covers January through December 2007). In the case of ACS multiyear estimates, the period is either 3 or 5 calendar years (e.g., the 2005–2007 ACS estimates cover January 2005 through December 2007, and the 2006–2010 ACS estimates cover January 2006 through December 2010). The ACS multiyear estimates are similar in many ways to the ACS single-year estimates, however they encompass a longer time period. As discussed later in this appendix, the differences in time periods between single-year and multiyear ACS estimates affect decisions about which set of estimates should be used for a particular analysis.

While one may think of these estimates as representing average characteristics over a single calendar year or multiple calendar years, it must be remembered that the 1-year estimates are not calculated as an average of 12 monthly values and the multiyear estimates are not calculated as the average of either 36 or 60 monthly values. Nor are the multiyear estimates calculated as the average of 3 or 5 single-year estimates. Rather, the ACS collects survey information continuously nearly every day of the year and then aggregates the results over a specific time period—1 year, 3 years, or 5 years. The data collection is spread evenly across the entire period represented so as not to over-represent any particular month or year within the period.

Because ACS estimates provide information about the characteristics of the population and housing for areas over an entire time frame, ACS single-year and multiyear estimates contrast with "point-in-time" estimates, such as those from the decennial census long-form samples or monthly employment estimates from the Current Population Survey (CPS), which are designed to measure characteristics as of a certain date or narrow time period. For example, Census 2000 was designed to measure the characteristics of the population and housing in the United States based upon data collected around April 1, 2000, and thus its data reflect a narrower time frame than ACS data. The monthly CPS collects data for an even narrower time frame, the week containing the 12th of each month.

Implications of Period Estimates

Most areas have consistent population characteristics throughout the calendar year, and their period estimates may not look much different from estimates that would be obtained from a "point-in-time" survey design. However, some areas may experience changes in the estimated characteristics of the population, depending on when in the calendar year measurement occurred. For these areas, the ACS period estimates (even for a single-year) may noticeably differ from "point-in-time" estimates. The impact will be more noticeable in smaller areas where changes such as a factory closing can have a large impact on population characteristics, and in areas with a large physical event such as Hurricane Katrina's impact on the New Orleans area. This logic can be extended to better interpret 3-year and 5-year estimates where the periods involved are much longer. If, over the full period of time (for example, 36 months) there have been major or consistent changes in certain population or housing characteristics for an area, a period estimate for that area could differ markedly from estimates based on a "point-in-time" survey.

An extreme illustration of how the single-year estimate could differ from a "point-in-time" estimate within the year is provided in Table 1. Imagine a town on the Gulf of Mexico whose population is dominated by retirees in the winter months and by locals in the summer months. While the percentage of the population in the labor force across the entire year is about 45 percent (similar in concept to a period estimate), a "point-in-time" estimate for any particular month would yield estimates ranging from 20 percent to 60 percent.

Table 1. **Percent in Labor Force—Winter Village**											
Month											
Jan.	Feb.	Mar.	Apr.	May	Jun.	Jul.	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.
20	20	40	60	60	60	60	60	60	50	30	20

Source: U.S. Census Bureau, Artificial Data.

The important thing to keep in mind is that ACS single-year estimates describe the population and characteristics of an area for the full year, not for any specific day or period within the year, while ACS multiyear estimates describe the population and characteristics of an area for the full 3- or 5-year period, not for any specific day, period, or year within the multiyear time period.

Release of Single-Year and Multiyear Estimates

The Census Bureau has released single-year estimates from the full ACS sample beginning with data from the 2005 ACS. ACS 1-year estimates are published annually for geographic areas with populations of 65,000 or more. Beginning in 2008 and encompassing 2005–2007, the Census Bureau will publish annual ACS 3-year estimates for geographic areas with populations of 20,000 or more. Beginning in 2010, the Census Bureau will release ACS 5-year estimates

(encompassing 2005–2009) for all geographic areas —down to the tract and block group levels. While eventually all three data series will be available each year, the ACS must collect 5 years of sample before that final set of estimates can be released. This means that in 2008 only 1-year and 3-year estimates are available for use, which means that data are only available for areas with populations of 20,000 and greater.

New issues will arise when multiple sets of multiyear estimates are released. The multiyear estimates released in consecutive years consist mostly of overlapping years and shared data. As shown in Table 2, consecutive 3-year estimates contain 2 years of overlapping coverage (for example, the 2005–2007 ACS estimates share 2006 and 2007 sample data with the 2006–2008 ACS estimates) and consecutive 5-year estimates contain 4 years of overlapping coverage.

Table 2. Sets of Sample Cases Used in Producing ACS Multiyear Estimates					
Type of estimate	Year of Data Release				
	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012
	Years of Data Collection				
3-year estimates	2005–2007	2006–2008	2007–2009	2008–2010	2009–2011
5-year estimates	Not Available	Not Available	2005–2009	2006–2010	2007–2011
Source: U.S. Census Bureau.					

Differences Between Single-Year and Multi-year ACS Estimates

Currency

Single-year estimates provide more current information about areas that have changing population and/or housing characteristics because they are based on the most current data—data from the past year. In contrast, multiyear estimates provide less current information because they are based on both data from the previous year and data that are 2 and 3 years old. As noted earlier, for many areas with minimal change taking place, using the "less current" sample used to produce the multiyear estimates may not have a substantial influence on the estimates. However, in areas experiencing major changes over a given time period, the multiyear estimates may be quite different from the single-year estimates for any of the individual years. Single-year and multiyear estimates are not expected to be the same because they are based on data from two different time periods. This will be true even if the ACS

single year is the midyear of the ACS multiyear period (e.g., 2007 single year, 2006–2008 multiyear).

For example, suppose an area has a growing Hispanic population and is interested in measuring the percent of the population who speak Spanish at home. Table 3 shows a hypothetical set of 1-year and 3-year estimates. Comparing data by release year shows that for an area such as this with steady growth, the 3-year estimates for a period are seen to lag behind the estimates for the individual years.

Reliability

Multiyear estimates are based on larger sample sizes and will therefore be more reliable. The 3-year estimates are based on three times as many sample cases as the 1-year estimates. For some characteristics this increased sample is needed for the estimates to be reliable enough for use in certain applications. For other characteristics the increased sample may not be necessary.

Table 3. Example of Differences in Single- and Multiyear Estimates—Percent of Population Who Speak Spanish at Home

Year of data release	1-year estimates		3-year estimates	
	Time period	Estimate	Time period	Estimate
2003	2002	13.7	2000–2002	13.4
2004	2003	15.1	2001–2003	14.4
2005	2004	15.9	2002–2004	14.9
2006	2005	16.8	2003–2005	15.9

Source: U.S. Census Bureau, Artificial Data.

Multiyear estimates are the only type of estimates available for geographic areas with populations of less than 65,000. Users may think that they only need to use multiyear estimates when they are working with small areas, but this isn't the case. Estimates for large geographic areas benefit from the increased sample resulting in more precise estimates of population and housing characteristics, especially for subpopulations within those areas.

In addition, users may determine that they want to use single-year estimates, despite their reduced reliability, as building blocks to produce estimates for meaningful higher levels of geography. These aggregations will similarly benefit from the increased sample sizes and gain reliability.

Deciding Which ACS Estimate to Use

Three primary uses of ACS estimates are to understand the characteristics of the population of an area for local planning needs, make comparisons across areas, and assess change over time in an area. Local planning could include making local decisions such as where to locate schools or hospitals, determining the need for services or new businesses, and carrying out transportation or other infrastructure analysis. In the past, decennial census sample data provided the most comprehensive information. However, the currency of those data suffered through the intercensal period, and the ability to assess change over time was limited. ACS estimates greatly improve the currency of data for understanding the characteristics of housing and population and enhance the ability to assess change over time.

Several key factors can guide users trying to decide whether to use single-year or multiyear ACS estimates for areas where both are available: intended use of the estimates, precision of the estimates, and currency of

the estimates. All of these factors, along with an understanding of the differences between single-year and multiyear ACS estimates, should be taken into consideration when deciding which set of estimates to use.

Understanding Characteristics

For users interested in obtaining estimates for small geographic areas, multiyear ACS estimates will be the only option. For the very smallest of these areas (less than 20,000 population), the only option will be to use the 5-year ACS estimates. Users have a choice of two sets of multiyear estimates when analyzing data for small geographic areas with populations of at least 20,000. Both 3-year and 5-year ACS estimates will be available. Only the largest areas with populations of 65,000 and more receive all three data series.

The key trade-off to be made in deciding whether to use single-year or multiyear estimates is between currency and precision. In general, the single-year estimates are preferred, as they will be more relevant to the current conditions. However, the user must take into account the level of uncertainty present in the single-year estimates, which may be large for small subpopulation groups and rare characteristics. While single-year estimates offer more current estimates, they also have higher sampling variability. One measure, the coefficient of variation (CV) can help you determine the fitness for use of a single-year estimate in order to assess if you should opt instead to use the multiyear estimate (or if you should use a 5-year estimate rather than a 3-year estimate). The CV is calculated as the ratio of the standard error of the estimate to the estimate, times 100. A single-year estimate with a small CV is usually preferable to a multiyear estimate as it is more up to date. However, multiyear estimates are an alternative option when a single-year estimate has an unacceptably high CV.

Table 4 illustrates how to assess the reliability of 1-year estimates in order to determine if they should be used. The table shows the percentage of households where Spanish is spoken at home for ACS test counties Broward, Florida, and Lake, Illinois. The standard errors and CVs associated with those estimates are also shown.

In this illustration, the CV for the single-year estimate in Broward County is 1.0 percent (0.2/19.9) and in Lake County is 1.3 percent (0.2/15.9). Both are sufficiently small to allow use of the more current single-year estimates.

Single-year estimates for small subpopulations (e.g., families with a female householder, no husband, and related children less than 18 years) will typically have larger CVs. In general, multiyear estimates are preferable to single-year estimates when looking at estimates for small subpopulations.

For example, consider Sevier County, Tennessee, which had an estimated population of 76,632 in 2004 according to the Population Estimates Program. This population is larger than the Census Bureau's 65,000-population requirement for publishing 1-year estimates. However, many subpopulations within this geographic area will be much smaller than 65,000. Table 5 shows an estimated 21,881 families in Sevier County based on the 2000–2004 multiyear estimate; but only 1,883 families with a female householder, no husband present, with related children under 18 years. Not surprisingly, the 2004 ACS estimate of the poverty rate (38.3 percent) for this subpopulation has a large standard error (SE) of 13.0 percentage points. Using this information we can determine that the CV is 33.9 percent (13.0/38.3).

For such small subpopulations, users obtain more precision using the 3-year or 5-year estimate. In this example, the 5-year estimate of 40.2 percent has an SE of 4.9 percentage points that yields a CV of 12.2 percent (4.9/40.2), and the 3-year estimate of 40.4 percent has an SE of 6.8 percentage points which yields a CV of 16.8 percent (6.8/40.4).

Users should think of the CV associated with an estimate as a way to assess "fitness for use." The CV threshold that an individual should use will vary based on the application. In practice there will be many estimates with CVs over desirable levels. A general guideline when working with ACS estimates is that, while data are available at low geographic levels, in situations where the CVs for these estimates are high, the reliability of the estimates will be improved by aggregating such estimates to a higher geographic level. Similarly, collapsing characteristic detail (for example, combining individual age categories into broader categories) can allow you to improve the reliability of the aggregate estimate, bringing the CVs to a more acceptable level.

Table 4. Example of How to Assess the Reliability of Estimates—Percent of Population Who Speak Spanish at Home

County	Estimate	Standard error	Coefficient of variation
Broward County, FL	19.9	0.2	1.0
Lake County, IL	15.9	0.2	1.3

Source: U.S. Census Bureau, Multiyear Estimates Study data.

Table 5. Percent in Poverty by Family Type for Sevier County, TN

	2000–2004	2000–2004		2002–2004		2004	
	Total family type	Pct. in poverty	SE	Pct. in poverty	SE	Pct. in poverty	SE
All families	21,881	9.5	0.8	9.7	1.3	10.0	2.3
With related children under 18 years	9,067	15.3	1.5	16.5	2.4	17.8	4.5
Married-couple families	17,320	5.8	0.7	5.4	0.9	7.9	2.0
With related children under 18 years	6,633	7.7	1.2	7.3	1.7	12.1	3.9
Families with female householder, no husband	3,433	27.2	3.0	26.7	4.8	19.0	7.2
With related children under 18 years	1,883	40.2	4.9	40.4	6.8	38.3	13.0

Source: U.S. Census Bureau, Multiyear Estimates Study data.

Making Comparisons

Often users want to compare the characteristics of one area to those of another area. These comparisons can be in the form of rankings or of specific pairs of comparisons. Whenever you want to make a comparison between two different geographic areas you need to take the type of estimate into account. It is important that comparisons be made within the same estimate type. That is, 1-year estimates should only be compared with other 1-year estimates, 3-year estimates should only be compared with other 3-year estimates, and 5-year estimates should only be compared with other 5-year estimates.

You certainly can compare characteristics for areas with populations of 30,000 to areas with populations of 100,000 but you should use the data set that they have in common. In this example you could use the 3-year or the 5-year estimates because they are available for areas of 30,000 and areas of 100,000.

Assessing Change

Users are encouraged to make comparisons between sequential single-year estimates. Specific guidance on making these comparisons and interpreting the results are provided in Appendix 4. Starting with the 2007 ACS, a new data product called the comparison profile will do much of the statistical work to identify statistically significant differences between the 2007 ACS and the 2006 ACS.

As noted earlier, caution is needed when using multiyear estimates for estimating year-to-year change in a particular characteristic. This is because roughly two-thirds of the data in a 3-year estimate overlap with the data in the next year's 3-year estimate (the overlap is roughly four-fifths for 5-year estimates). Thus, as shown in Figure 1, when comparing 2006–2008 3-year estimates with 2007–2009 3-year estimates, the differences in overlapping multiyear estimates are driven by differences in the nonoverlapping years. A data user interested in comparing 2009 with 2008 will not be able to isolate those differences using these two successive 3-year estimates. Figure 1 shows that the difference in these two estimates describes the difference between 2009 and 2006. While the interpretation of this difference is difficult, these comparisons can be made with caution. Users who are interested in comparing overlapping multiyear period estimates should refer to Appendix 4 for more information.

Figure 1. **Data Collection Periods for 3–Year Estimates**
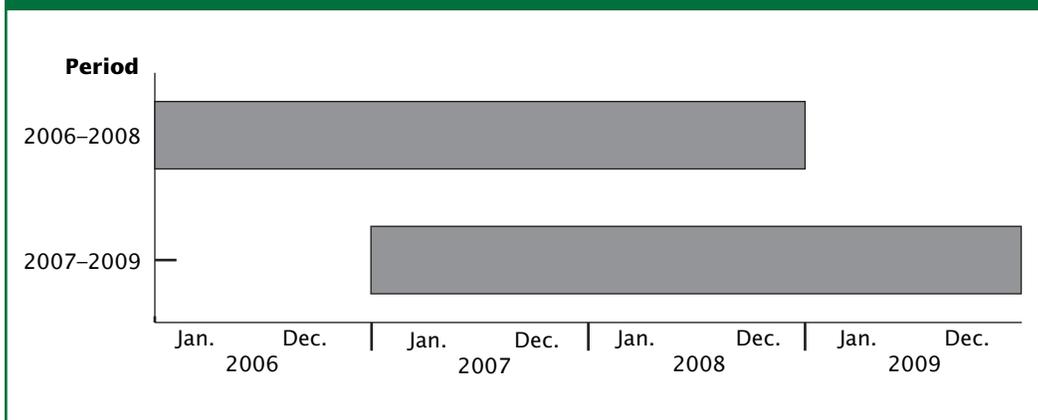
Source: U.S. Census Bureau.

Variability in single-year estimates for smaller areas (near the 65,000-publication threshold) and small subgroups within even large areas may limit the ability to examine trends. For example, single-year estimates for a characteristic with a high CV vary from year to year because of sampling variation obscuring an underlying trend. In this case, multiyear estimates may be useful for assessing an underlying, long-term trend. Here again, however, it must be recognized that because the multiyear estimates have an inherent smoothing, they will tend to mask rapidly developing changes. Plotting the multiyear estimates as representing the middle year is a useful tool to illustrate the smoothing effect of the multiyear weighting methodology. It also can be used to assess the "lagging effect" in the multiyear estimates. As a general rule, users should not consider a multiyear estimate as a proxy for the middle year of the period. However, this could be the case under some specific conditions, as is the case when an area is experiencing growth in a linear trend.

As Figure 2 shows, while the single-year estimates fluctuate from year to year without showing a smooth trend, the multiyear estimates, which incorporate data from multiple years, evidence a much smoother trend across time.

Figure 2. **Civilian Veterans, County X Single-Year, Multiyear Estimates**
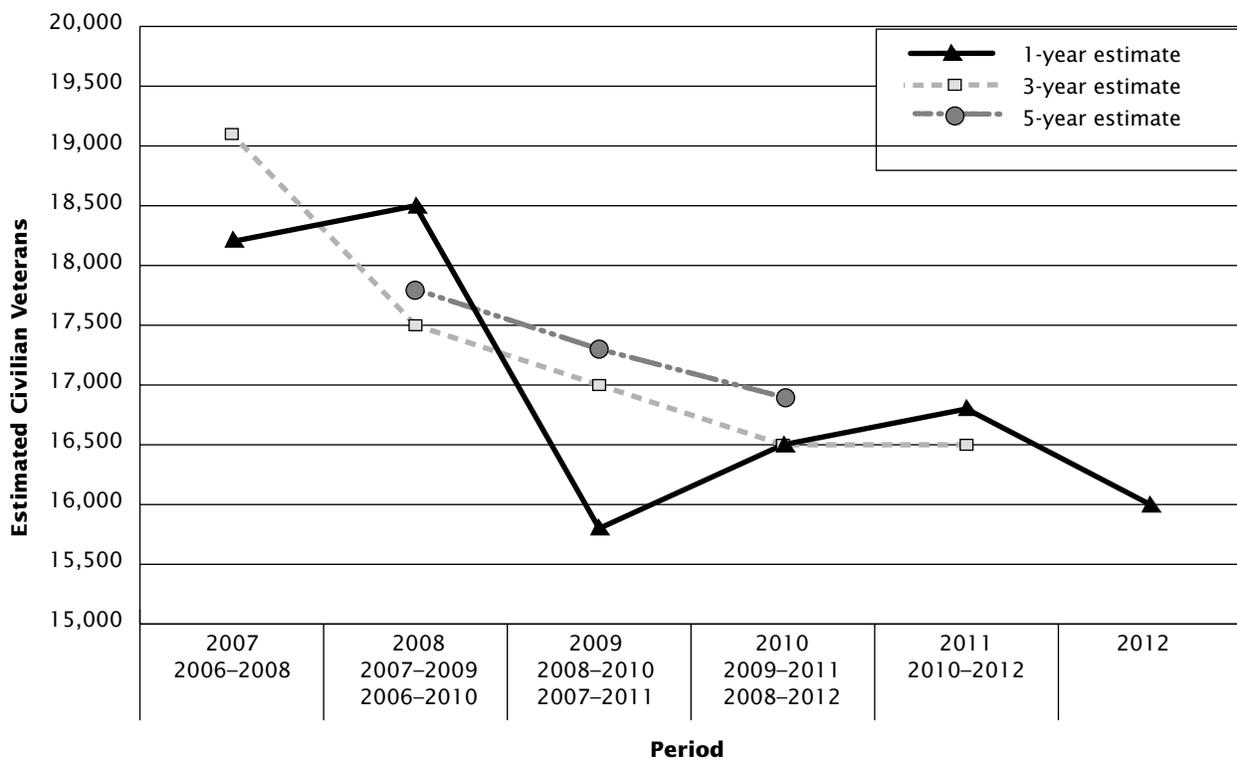
Source: U.S. Census Bureau. Based on data from the Multiyear Estimates Study.

Summary of Guidelines

Multiyear estimates should, in general, be used when single-year estimates have large CVs or when the precision of the estimates is more important than the currency of the data. Multiyear estimates should also be used when analyzing data for smaller geographies and smaller populations in larger geographies. Multiyear estimates are also of value when examining change over nonoverlapping time periods and for smoothing data trends over time.

Single-year estimates should, in general, be used for larger geographies and populations when currency is more important than the precision of the estimates. Single-year estimates should be used to examine year-to-year change for estimates with small CVs. Given the availability of a single-year estimate, calculating the CV provides useful information to determine if the single-year estimate should be used. For areas believed to be experiencing rapid changes in a characteristic, single-year estimates should generally be used rather than multiyear estimates as long as the CV for the single-year estimate is reasonable for the specific usage.

Local area variations may occur due to rapidly occurring changes. As discussed previously, multiyear estimates will tend to be insensitive to such changes when they first occur. Single-year estimates, if associ-ated with sufficiently small CVs, can be very valuable in identifying and studying such phenomena. Graphing trends for such areas using single-year, 3-year, and 5-year estimates can take advantage of the strengths of each set of estimates while using other estimates to compensate for the limitations of each set.

Figure 3 provides an illustration of how the various ACS estimates could be graphed together to better understand local area variations.

The multiyear estimates provide a smoothing of the upward trend and likely provide a better portrayal of the change in proportion over time. Correspondingly, as the data used for single-year estimates will be used in the multiyear estimates, an observed change in the upward direction for consecutive single-year estimates could provide an early indicator of changes in the underlying trend that will be seen when the multiyear estimates encompassing the single years become available.

We hope that you will follow these guidelines to determine when to use single-year versus multiyear estimates, taking into account the intended use and CV associated with the estimate. The Census Bureau encourages you to include the MOE along with the estimate when producing reports, in order to provide the reader with information concerning the uncertainty associated with the estimate.

Figure 3. Proportion of Population With Bachelor's Degree or Higher, City X Single-Year, Multiyear Estimates
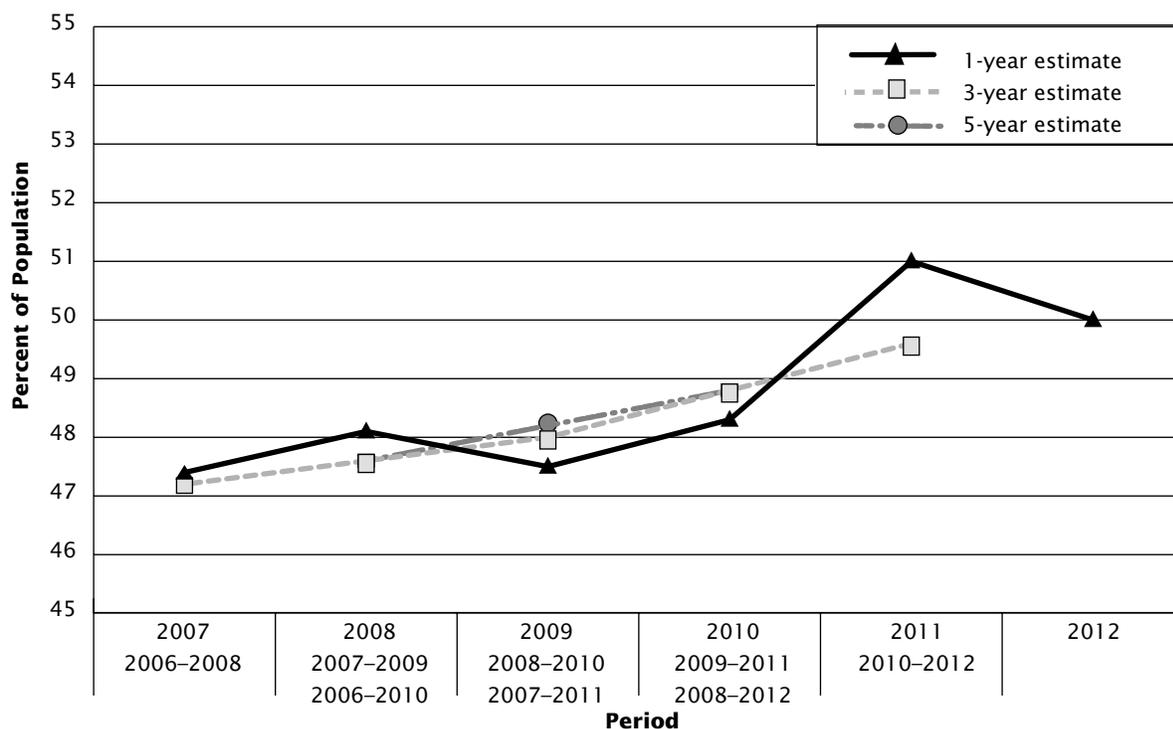
Source: U.S. Census Bureau. Based on data from the Multiyear Estimates Study.

Appendix 2.

Differences Between ACS and Decennial Census Sample Data

There are many similarities between the methods used in the decennial census sample and the ACS. Both the ACS and the decennial census sample data are based on information from a sample of the population. The data from the Census 2000 sample of about one-sixth of the population were collected using a "long-form" questionnaire, whose content was the model for the ACS. While some differences exist in the specific Census 2000 question wording and that of the ACS, most questions are identical or nearly identical. Differences in the design and implementation of the two surveys are noted below with references provided to a series of evaluation studies that assess the degree to which these differences are likely to impact the estimates. As noted in Appendix 1, the ACS produces period estimates and these estimates do not measure characteristics for the same time frame as the decennial census estimates, which are interpreted to be a snapshot of April 1 of the census year. Additional differences are described below.

Residence Rules, Reference Periods, and Definitions

The fundamentally different purposes of the ACS and the census, and their timing, led to important differences in the choice of data collection methods. For example, the residence rules for a census or survey determine the sample unit's occupancy status and household membership. Defining the rules in a dissimilar way can affect those two very important estimates. The Census 2000 residence rules, which determined where people should be counted, were based on the principle of "usual residence" on April 1, 2000, in keeping with the focus of the census on the requirements of congressional apportionment and state redistricting. To accomplish this the decennial census attempts to restrict and determine a principal place of residence on one specific date for everyone enumerated. The ACS residence rules are based on a "current residence" concept since data are collected continuously throughout the entire year with responses provided relative to the continuously changing survey interview dates. This method is consistent with the goal that the ACS produce estimates that reflect annual averages of the characteristics of all areas.

Estimates produced by the ACS are not measuring exactly what decennial samples have been measuring. The ACS yearly samples, spread over 12 months, collect information that is anchored to the day on which the sampled unit was interviewed, whether it is the day that a mail questionnaire is completed or the day that an interview is conducted by telephone or personal visit. Individual questions with time references such as

"last week" or "the last 12 months" all begin the reference period as of this interview date. Even the information on types and amounts of income refers to the 12 months prior to the day the question is answered. ACS interviews are conducted just about every day of the year, and all of the estimates that the survey releases are considered to be averages for a specific time period. The 1-year estimates reflect the full calendar year; 3-year and 5-year estimates reflect the full 36- or 60-month period.

Most decennial census sample estimates are anchored in this same way to the date of enumeration. The most obvious difference between the ACS and the census is the overall time frame in which they are conducted. The census enumeration time period is less than half the time period used to collect data for each single-year ACS estimate. But a more important difference is that the distribution of census enumeration dates are highly clustered in March and April (when most census mail returns were received) with additional, smaller clusters seen in May and June (when nonresponse follow-up activities took place).

This means that the data from the decennial census tend to describe the characteristics of the population and housing in the March through June time period (with an overrepresentation of March/April) while the ACS characteristics describe the characteristics nearly every day over the full calendar year.

Census Bureau analysts have compared sample estimates from Census 2000 with 1-year ACS estimates based on data collected in 2000 and 3-year ACS estimates based on data collected in 1999–2001 in selected counties. A series of reports summarize their findings and can be found at <http://www.census.gov/acs/www/AdvMeth/Reports.htm>. In general, ACS estimates were found to be quite similar to those produced from decennial census data.

More on Residence Rules

Residence rules determine which individuals are considered to be residents of a particular housing unit or group quarters. While many people have definite ties to a single housing unit or group quarters, some people may stay in different places for significant periods of time over the course of the year. For example, migrant workers move with crop seasons and do not live in any one location for the entire year. Differences in treatment of these populations in the census and ACS can lead to differences in estimates of the characteristics of some areas.

For the past several censuses, decennial census residence rules were designed to produce an accurate

count of the population as of Census Day, April 1, while the ACS residence rules were designed to collect representative information to produce annual average estimates of the characteristics of all kinds of areas. When interviewing the population living in housing units, the decennial census uses a "usual residence" rule to enumerate people at the place where they live or stay most of the time as of April 1. The ACS uses a "current residence" rule to interview people who are currently living or staying in the sample housing unit as long as their stay at that address will exceed 2 months. The residence rules governing the census enumerations of people in group quarters depend on the type of group quarter and where permitted, whether people claim a "usual residence" elsewhere. The ACS applies a straight de facto residence rule to every type of group quarter. Everyone living or staying in a group quarter on the day it is visited by an ACS interviewer is eligible to be sampled and interviewed for the survey. Further information on residence rules can be found at <http://www.census.gov/acs/www/AdvMeth/CollProc/CollProc1.htm>.

The differences in the ACS and census data as a consequence of the different residence rules are most likely minimal for most areas and most characteristics. However, for certain segments of the population the usual and current residence concepts could result in different residence decisions. Appreciable differences may occur in areas where large proportions of the total population spend several months of the year in what would not be considered their residence under decennial census rules. In particular, data for areas that include large beach, lake, or mountain vacation areas may differ appreciably between the census and the ACS if populations live there for more than 2 months.

More on Reference Periods

The decennial census centers its count and its age distributions on a reference date of April 1, the assumption being that the remaining basic demographic questions also reflect that date, regardless of whether the enumeration is conducted by mail in March or by a field follow-up in July. However, nearly all questions are anchored to the date the interview is provided. Questions with their own reference periods, such as "last week," are referring to the week prior to the interview date. The idea that all census data reflect the characteristics as of April 1 is a myth. Decennial census samples actually provide estimates based on aggregated data reflecting the entire period of decennial data collection, and are greatly influenced by delivery dates of mail questionnaires, success of mail response, and data collection schedules for nonresponse follow-up. The ACS reference periods are, in many ways, similar to those in the census in that they reflect the circumstances on the day the data are collected and the individual reference periods of questions relative to that date. However, the ACS estimates represent the average characteristics over a full year (or sets of years), a different time, and reference period than the census.

Some specific differences in reference periods between the ACS and the decennial census are described below. Users should consider the potential impact these different reference periods could have on distributions when comparing ACS estimates with Census 2000.

Those who are interested in more information about differences in reference periods should refer to the Census Bureau's guidance on comparisons that contrasts for each question the specific reference periods used in Census 2000 with those used in the ACS. See <http://www.census.gov/acs/www/UseData/compACS.htm>.

Income Data

To estimate annual income, the Census 2000 long-form sample used the calendar year prior to Census Day as the reference period, and the ACS uses the 12 months prior to the interview date as the reference period. Thus, while Census 2000 collected income information for calendar year 1999, the ACS collects income information for the 12 months preceding the interview date. The responses are a mixture of 12 reference periods ranging from, in the case of the 2006 ACS single-year estimates, the full calendar year 2005 through November 2006. The ACS income responses for each of these reference periods are individually inflation-adjusted to represent dollar values for the ACS collection year.

School Enrollment

The school enrollment question on the ACS asks if a person had "at any time in the last 3 months attended a school or college." A consistent 3-month reference period is used for all interviews. In contrast, Census 2000 asked if a person had "at any time since February 1 attended a school or college." Since Census 2000 data were collected from mid-March to late-August, the reference period could have been as short as about 6 weeks or as long as 7 months.

Utility Costs

The reference periods for two utility cost questions—gas and electricity—differ between Census 2000 and the ACS. The census asked for annual costs, while the ACS asks for the utility costs in the previous month.

Definitions

Some data items were collected by both the ACS and the Census 2000 long form with slightly different definitions that could affect the comparability of the estimates for these items. One example is annual costs for a mobile home. Census 2000 included installment loan costs in

the total annual costs but the ACS does not. In this example, the ACS could be expected to yield smaller estimates than Census 2000.

Implementation

While differences discussed above were a part of the census and survey design objectives, other differences observed between ACS and census results were not by design, but due to nonsampling error—differences related to how well the surveys were conducted. Appendix 6 explains nonsampling error in more detail.

The ACS and the census experience different levels and types of coverage error, different levels and treatment of unit and item nonresponse, and different instances of measurement and processing error. Both Census 2000 and the ACS had similar high levels of survey coverage and low levels of unit nonresponse. Higher levels of unit nonresponse were found in the nonresponse follow-up stage of Census 2000. Higher item nonresponse rates were also found in Census 2000. Please see <http://www.census.gov/acs/www/AdvMeth/Reports.htm> for detailed comparisons of these measures of survey quality.

Measures of Sampling Error

All survey and census estimates include some amount of error. Estimates generated from sample survey data have uncertainty associated with them due to their being based on a sample of the population rather than the full population. This uncertainty, referred to as sampling error, means that the estimates derived from a sample survey will likely differ from the values that would have been obtained if the entire population had been included in the survey, as well as from values that would have been obtained had a different set of sample units been selected. All other forms of error are called nonsampling error and are discussed in greater detail in Appendix 6.

Sampling error can be expressed quantitatively in various ways, four of which are presented in this appendix—standard error, margin of error, confidence interval, and coefficient of variation. As the ACS estimates are based on a sample survey of the U.S. population, information about the sampling error associated with the estimates must be taken into account when analyzing individual estimates or comparing pairs of estimates across areas, population subgroups, or time periods. The information in this appendix describes each of these sampling error measures, explaining how they differ and how each should be used. It is intended to assist the user with analysis and interpretation of ACS estimates. Also included are instructions on how to compute margins of error for user-derived estimates.

Sampling Error Measures and Their Derivations

Standard Errors

A standard error (SE) measures the variability of an estimate due to sampling. Estimates derived from a sample (such as estimates from the ACS or the decennial census long form) will generally not equal the population value, as not all members of the population were measured in the survey. The SE provides a quantitative measure of the extent to which an estimate derived from the sample survey can be expected to deviate from this population value. It is the foundational measure from which other sampling error measures are derived. The SE is also used when comparing estimates to determine whether the differences between the estimates can be said to be statistically significant.

A very basic example of the standard error is a population of three units, with values of 1, 2, and 3. The average value for this population is 2. If a simple random sample of size two were selected from this population, the estimates of the average value would be 1.5 (units with values of 1 and 2 selected), 2 (units with values

of 1 and 3 selected), or 2.5 (units with values of 2 and 3 selected). In this simple example, two of the three samples yield estimates that do not equal the population value (although the average of the estimates across all possible samples do equal the population value). The standard error would provide an indication of the extent of this variation.

The SE for an estimate depends upon the underlying variability in the population for the characteristic and the sample size used for the survey. In general, the larger the sample size, the smaller the standard error of the estimates produced from the sample. This relationship between sample size and SE is the reason ACS estimates for less populous areas are only published using multiple years of data: to take advantage of the larger sample size that results from aggregating data from more than one year.

Margins of Error

A margin of error (MOE) describes the precision of the estimate at a given level of confidence. The confidence level associated with the MOE indicates the likelihood that the sample estimate is within a certain distance (the MOE) from the population value. Confidence levels of 90 percent, 95 percent, and 99 percent are commonly used in practice to lessen the risk associated with an incorrect inference. The MOE provides a concise measure of the precision of the sample estimate in a table and is easily used to construct confidence intervals and test for statistical significance.

The Census Bureau statistical standard for published data is to use a 90-percent confidence level. Thus, the MOEs published with the ACS estimates correspond to a 90-percent confidence level. However, users may want to use other confidence levels, such as 95 percent or 99 percent. The choice of confidence level is usually a matter of preference, balancing risk for the specific application, as a 90-percent confidence level implies a 10 percent chance of an incorrect inference, in contrast with a 1 percent chance if using a 99-percent confidence level. Thus, if the impact of an incorrect conclusion is substantial, the user should consider increasing the confidence level.

One commonly experienced situation where use of a 95 percent or 99 percent MOE would be preferred is when conducting a number of tests to find differences between sample estimates. For example, if one were conducting comparisons between male and female incomes for each of 100 counties in a state, using a 90-percent confidence level would imply that 10 of the comparisons would be expected to be found significant even if no differences actually existed. Using a 99-percent confidence level would reduce the likelihood of this kind of false inference.

Appendix **A-11**

Calculating Margins of Error for Alternative Confidence Levels

If you want to use an MOE corresponding to a confidence level other than 90 percent, the published MOE can easily be converted by multiplying the published MOE by an adjustment factor. If the desired confidence level is 95 percent, then the factor is equal to 1.960/1.645.[1] If the desired confidence level is 99 percent, then the factor is equal to 2.576/1.645.

Conversion of the published ACS MOE to the MOE for a different confidence level can be expressed as

$$MOE_{95} = \frac{1.960}{1.645} MOE_{ACS}$$

$$MOE_{99} = \frac{2.576}{1.645} MOE_{ACS}$$

where MOE_{ACS} is the ACS published 90 percent MOE for the estimate.

Factors Associated With Margins of Error for Commonly Used Confidence Levels
90 Percent: 1.645 95 Percent: 1.960 99 Percent: 2.576
Census Bureau standard for published MOE is 90 percent.

For example, the ACS published MOE for the 2006 ACS estimated number of civilian veterans in the state of Virginia is ±12,357. The MOE corresponding to a 95-percent confidence level would be derived as follows:

$$MOE_{95} = \frac{1.960}{1.645}(\pm 12,357) = \pm 14,723$$

Deriving the Standard Error From the MOE

When conducting exact tests of significance (as discussed in Appendix 4) or calculating the CV for an estimate, the SEs of the estimates are needed. To derive the SE, simply divide the positive value of the published MOE by 1.645.[2]

Derivation of SEs can thus be expressed as

$$SE = \frac{MOE_{ACS}}{1.645}$$

where MOE_{ACS} is the positive value of the ACS published MOE for the estimate.

For example, the ACS published MOE for estimated number of civilian veterans in the state of Virginia from the 2006 ACS is ±12,357. The SE for the estimate would be derived as

$$SE = \frac{12,357}{1.645} = 7,512$$

Confidence Intervals

A confidence interval (CI) is a range that is expected to contain the average value of the characteristic that would result over all possible samples with a known probability. This probability is called the "level of confidence" or "confidence level." CIs are useful when graphing estimates to display their sampling variabilites. The sample estimate and its MOE are used to construct the CI.

Constructing a Confidence Interval From a Margin of Error

To construct a CI at the 90-percent confidence level, the published MOE is used. The CI boundaries are determined by adding to and subtracting from a sample estimate, the estimate's MOE.

For example, if an estimate of 20,000 had an MOE at the 90-percent confidence level of ±1,645, the CI would range from 18,355 (20,000 – 1,645) to 21,645 (20,000 + 1,645).

For CIs at the 95-percent or 99-percent confidence level, the appropriate MOE must first be derived as explained previously.

Construction of the lower and upper bounds for the CI can be expressed as

$$L_{CL} = \hat{X} - MOE_{CL}$$
$$U_{CL} = \hat{X} + MOE_{CL}$$

where $\hat{X}$ is the ACS estimate and

MOE_{CL} is the positive value of the MOE for the estimate at the desired confidence level.

The CI can thus be expressed as the range

$$CI_{CL} = \left(L_{CL}, U_{CL}\right).^{3}$$

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[1] The value 1.65 must be used for ACS single-year estimates for 2005 or earlier, as that was the value used to derive the published margin of error from the standard error in those years.

[2] If working with ACS 1-year estimates for 2005 or earlier, use the value 1.65 rather than 1.645 in the adjustment factor.

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[3] Users are cautioned to consider logical boundaries when creating confidence intervals from the margins of error. For example, a small population estimate may have a calculated lower bound less than zero. A negative number of persons doesn't make sense, so the lower bound should be set to zero instead.

For example, to construct a CI at the 95-percent confidence level for the number of civilian veterans in the state of Virginia in 2006, one would use the 2006 estimate (771,782) and the corresponding MOE at the 95-percent confidence level derived above (±14,723).

$$L_{95} = 771{,}782 - 14{,}723 = 757{,}059$$
$$U_{95} = 771{,}782 + 14{,}723 = 786{,}505$$

The 95-percent CI can thus be expressed as the range 757,059 to 786,505.

The CI is also useful when graphing estimates, to show the extent of sampling error present in the estimates, and for visually comparing estimates. For example, given the MOE at the 90-percent confidence level used in constructing the CI above, the user could be 90 percent certain that the value for the population was between 18,355 and 21,645. This CI can be represented visually as

$$\left(\overline{\hspace{5cm}}\right)$$

| 18,355 | 20,000 | 21,645 |
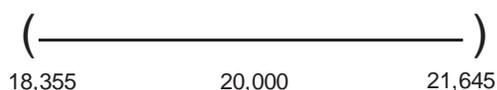
Coefficients of Variation

A coefficient of variation (CV) provides a measure of the relative amount of sampling error that is associated with a sample estimate. The CV is calculated as the ratio of the SE for an estimate to the estimate itself and is usually expressed as a percent. It is a useful barometer of the stability, and thus the usability of a sample estimate. It can also help a user decide whether a single-year or multiyear estimate should be used for analysis. The method for obtaining the SE for an estimate was described earlier.

The CV is a function of the overall sample size and the size of the population of interest. In general, as the estimation period increases, the sample size increases and therefore the size of the CV decreases. A small CV indicates that the sampling error is small relative to the estimate, and thus the user can be more confident that the estimate is close to the population value. In some applications a small CV for an estimate is desirable and use of a multiyear estimate will therefore be preferable to the use of a 1-year estimate that doesn't meet this desired level of precision.

For example, if an estimate of 20,000 had an SE of 1,000, then the CV for the estimate would be 5 percent ([1,000 /20,000] x 100). In terms of usability, the estimate is very reliable. If the CV was noticeably larger, the usability of the estimate could be greatly diminished.

While it is true that estimates with high CVs have important limitations, they can still be valuable as building blocks to develop estimates for higher levels of aggregation. Combining estimates across geographic areas or collapsing characteristic detail can improve the reliability of those estimates as evidenced by reductions in the CVs.

Calculating Coefficients of Variation From Standard Errors

The CV can be expressed as

$$CV = \frac{SE}{\hat{X}} \times 100$$

where $\hat{X}$ is the ACS estimate and SE is the derived SE for the ACS estimate.

For example, to determine the CV for the estimated number of civilian veterans in the state of Virginia in 2006, one would use the 2006 estimate (771,782), and the SE derived previously (7,512).

$$CV = \frac{7{,}512}{771{,}782} \times 100 = 0.1\%$$

This means that the amount of sampling error present in the estimate is only one-tenth of 1 percent the size of the estimate.

The text box below summarizes the formulas used when deriving alternative sampling error measures from the margin or error published with ACS estimates.

Deriving Sampling Error Measures From Published MOE

Margin Error (MOE) for Alternate Confidence Levels

$$MOE_{95} = \frac{1.960}{1.645} MOE_{ACS}$$

$$MOE_{99} = \frac{2.576}{1.645} MOE_{ACS}$$

Standard Error (SE)

$$SE = \frac{MOE_{ACS}}{1.645}$$

Confidence Interval (CI)

$$CI_{CL} = \left(\hat{X} - MOE_{CL}, \hat{X} + MOE_{CL} \right)$$

Coefficient of Variation (CV)

$$CV = \frac{SE}{\hat{X}} \times 100$$

Calculating Margins of Error for Derived Estimates

One of the benefits of being familiar with ACS data is the ability to develop unique estimates called derived estimates. These derived estimates are usually based on aggregating estimates across geographic areas or population subgroups for which combined estimates are not published in American FactFinder (AFF) tables (e.g., aggregate estimates for a three-county area or for four age groups not collapsed).

ACS tabulations provided through AFF contain the associated confidence intervals (pre-2005) or margins of error (MOEs) (2005 and later) at the 90-percent confidence level. However, when derived estimates are generated (e.g., aggregated estimates, proportions, or ratios not available in AFF), the user must calculate the MOE for these derived estimates. The MOE helps protect against misinterpreting small or nonexistent differences as meaningful.

MOEs calculated based on information provided in AFF for the components of the derived estimates will be at the 90-percent confidence level. If an MOE with a confidence level other than 90 percent is desired, the user should first calculate the MOE as instructed below and then convert the results to an MOE for the desired confidence level as described earlier in this appendix.

Calculating MOEs for Aggregated Count Data

To calculate the MOE for aggregated count data:
1) Obtain the MOE of each component estimate.
2) Square the MOE of each component estimate.
3) Sum the squared MOEs.
4) Take the square root of the sum of the squared MOEs.

The result is the MOE for the aggregated count. Algebraically, the MOE for the aggregated count is calculated as:

$$MOE_{agg} = \pm \sqrt{\sum_c MOE_c^2}$$

where MOE_c is the MOE of the cth component estimate.

The example below shows how to calculate the MOE for the estimated total number of females living alone in the three Virginia counties/independent cities that border Washington, DC (Fairfax and Arlington counties, Alexandria city) from the 2006 ACS.

Table 1. **Data for Example 1**

Characteristic	Estimate	MOE
Females living alone in Fairfax County (Component 1)	52,354	±3,303
Females living alone in Arlington County (Component 2)	19,464	±2,011
Females living alone in Alexandria city (Component 3)	17,190	±1,854

The aggregate estimate is:

$$\hat{X} = \hat{X}_{Fairfax} + \hat{X}_{Arlington} + \hat{X}_{Alexandria} =$$
$$52,354 + 19,464 + 17,190 = 89,008$$

Obtain MOEs of the component estimates:

$$MOE_{Fairfax} = \pm 3,303 \text{ ,}$$
$$MOE_{Arlington} = \pm 2,011 \text{ ,}$$
$$MOE_{Alexandria} = \pm 1,854$$

Calculate the MOE for the aggregate estimated as the square root of the sum of the squared MOEs.

$$MOE_{agg} = \pm \sqrt{(3,303)^2 + (2,011)^2 + (1,854)^2} =$$
$$\pm \sqrt{18,391,246} = \pm 4,289$$

Thus, the derived estimate of the number of females living alone in the three Virginia counties/independent cities that border Washington, DC, is 89,008, and the MOE for the estimate is ±4,289.

Calculating MOEs for Derived Proportions

The numerator of a proportion is a subset of the denominator (e.g., the proportion of single person households that are female). To calculate the MOE for derived proportions, do the following:

1) Obtain the MOE for the numerator and the MOE for the denominator of the proportion.
2) Square the derived proportion.
3) Square the MOE of the numerator.
4) Square the MOE of the denominator.
5) Multiply the squared MOE of the denominator by the squared proportion.
6) Subtract the result of (5) from the squared MOE of the numerator.
7) Take the square root of the result of (6).
8) Divide the result of (7) by the denominator of the proportion.

The result is the MOE for the derived proportion. Algebraically, the MOE for the derived proportion is calculated as:

$$MOE_p = \frac{\pm \sqrt{MOE_{num}^2 - (\hat{p}^2 * MOE_{den}^2)}}{\hat{X}_{den}}$$

where MOE_{num} is the MOE of the numerator.

MOE_{den} is the MOE of the denominator.

$\hat{p} = \dfrac{\hat{X}_{num}}{\hat{X}_{den}}$ is the derived proportion.

$\hat{X}_{num}$ is the estimate used as the numerator of the derived proportion.

$\hat{X}_{den}$ is the estimate used as the denominator of the derived proportion.

There are rare instances where this formula will fail—the value under the square root will be negative. If that happens, use the formula for derived ratios in the next section which will provide a conservative estimate of the MOE.

The example below shows how to derive the MOE for the estimated proportion of Black females 25 years of age and older in Fairfax County, Virginia, with a graduate degree based on the 2006 ACS.

Table 2. **Data for Example 2**

Characteristic	Estimate	MOE
Black females 25 years and older with a graduate degree (numerator)	4,634	±989
Black females 25 years and older (denominator)	31,713	±601

The estimated proportion is:

$$\hat{p} = \frac{\hat{X}_{gradBF}}{\hat{X}_{BF}} = \frac{4,634}{31,713} = 0.1461$$

where $\hat{X}_{gradBF}$ is the ACS estimate of Black females 25 years of age and older in Fairfax County with a graduate degree and $\hat{X}_{BF}$ is the ACS estimate of Black females 25 years of age and older in Fairfax County.

Obtain MOEs of the numerator (number of Black females 25 years of age and older in Fairfax County with a graduate degree) and denominator (number of Black females 25 years of age and older in Fairfax County).

$$MOE_{num} = \pm 989, \ MOE_{den} = \pm 601$$

Multiply the squared MOE of the denominator by the squared proportion and subtract the result from the squared MOE of the numerator.

$$MOE_{num}^2 - (\hat{p}^2 * MOE_{den}^2) =$$
$$(989)^2 - [(0.1461)^2 * (601)^2] =$$
$$978,121 - 7,712.3 = 970,408.7$$

Calculate the MOE by dividing the square root of the prior result by the denominator.

$$MOE_p = \frac{\pm \sqrt{970,408.7}}{31,373} = \frac{\pm 985.1}{31,373} = \pm 0.0311$$

Thus, the derived estimate of the proportion of Black females 25 years of age and older with a graduate degree in Fairfax County, Virginia, is 0.1461, and the MOE for the estimate is ±0.0311.

Calculating MOEs for Derived Ratios

The numerator of a ratio is not a subset (e.g., the ratio of females living alone to males living alone). To calculate the MOE for derived ratios:

1) Obtain the MOE for the numerator and the MOE for the denominator of the ratio.
2) Square the derived ratio.
3) Square the MOE of the numerator.
4) Square the MOE of the denominator.
5) Multiply the squared MOE of the denominator by the squared ratio.
6) Add the result of (5) to the squared MOE of the numerator.
7) Take the square root of the result of (6).
8) Divide the result of (7) by the denominator of the ratio.

The result is the MOE for the derived ratio. Algebraically, the MOE for the derived ratio is calculated as:

$$MOE_R = \frac{\pm \sqrt{MOE_{num}^2 + (\hat{R}^2 * MOE_{den}^2)}}{\hat{X}_{den}}$$

where MOE_{num} is the MOE of the numerator.

MOE_{den} is the MOE of the denominator.

$\hat{R} = \dfrac{\hat{X}_{num}}{\hat{X}_{den}}$ is the derived ratio.

$\hat{X}_{num}$ is the estimate used as the numerator of the derived ratio.

$\hat{X}_{den}$ is the estimate used as the denominator of the derived ratio.

The example below shows how to derive the MOE for the estimated ratio of Black females 25 years of age and older in Fairfax County, Virginia, with a graduate degree to Black males 25 years and older in Fairfax County with a graduate degree, based on the 2006 ACS.

Table 3. **Data for Example 3**		
Characteristic	Estimate	MOE
Black females 25 years and older with a graduate degree (numerator)	4,634	±989
Black males 25 years and older with a graduate degree (denominator)	6,440	±1,328

The estimated ratio is:

$$\hat{R} = \frac{\hat{X}_{gradBF}}{\hat{X}_{gradBM}} = \frac{4,634}{6,440} = 0.7200$$

Obtain MOEs of the numerator (number of Black females 25 years of age and older with a graduate degree in Fairfax County) and denominator (number of Black males 25 years of age and older in Fairfax County with a graduate degree).

$$MOE_{num} = \pm989, \ MOE_{den} = \pm1,328$$

Multiply the squared MOE of the denominator by the squared proportion and add the result to the squared MOE of the numerator.

$$MOE_{num}^2 + (\hat{R}^2 * MOE_{den}^2) =$$
$$(989)^2 + [(0.7200)^2 * (1,328)^2] =$$
$$978,121 + 913,318.1 = 1,891,259.1$$

Calculate the MOE by dividing the square root of the prior result by the denominator.

$$MOE_R = \frac{\pm\sqrt{1,891,259.1}}{6,440} = \frac{\pm1,375.2}{6,440} = \pm0.2135$$

Thus, the derived estimate of the ratio of the number of Black females 25 years of age and older in Fairfax County, Virginia, with a graduate degree to the number of Black males 25 years of age and older in Fairfax County, Virginia, with a graduate degree is 0.7200, and the MOE for the estimate is ±0.2135.

Calculating MOEs for the Product of Two Estimates

To calculate the MOE for the product of two estimates, do the following:

1) Obtain the MOEs for the two estimates being multiplied together.

2) Square the estimates and their MOEs.

3) Multiply the first squared estimate by the second estimate's squared MOE.

4) Multiply the second squared estimate by the first estimate's squared MOE.

5) Add the results from (3) and (4).

6) Take the square root of (5).

The result is the MOE for the product. Algebraically, the MOE for the product is calculated as:

$$MOE_{A \times B} = \pm\sqrt{A^2 \times MOE_B^2 + B^2 \times MOE_A^2}$$

where A and B are the first and second estimates, respectively.

MOE_A is the MOE of the first estimate.

MOE_B is the MOE of the second estimate.

The example below shows how to derive the MOE for the estimated number of Black workers 16 years and over in Fairfax County, Virginia, who used public transportation to commute to work, based on the 2006 ACS.

Table 4. **Data for Example 4**		
Characteristic	Estimate	MOE
Black workers 16 years and over (first estimate)	50,624	±2,423
Percent of Black workers 16 years and over who commute by public transportation (second estimate)	13.4%	±2.7%

To apply the method, the proportion (0.134) needs to be used instead of the percent (13.4). The estimated product is 50,624 × 0.134 = 6,784. The MOE is calculated by:

$$MOE_{A \times B} = \pm\sqrt{50,624^2 \times 0.027^2 + 0.134^2 \times 2,423^2}$$
$$= \pm1,405$$

Thus, the derived estimate of Black workers 16 years and over who commute by public transportation is 6,784, and the MOE of the estimate is ±1,405.

Calculating MOEs for Estimates of "Percent Change" or "Percent Difference"

The "percent change" or "percent difference" between two estimates (for example, the same estimates in two different years) is commonly calculated as

$$Percent\ Change = 100\% * \frac{\hat{X}_2 - \hat{X}_1}{\hat{X}_1}$$

Because $\hat{X}_2$ is not a subset of $\hat{X}_1$, the procedure to calculate the MOE of a ratio discussed previously should be used here to obtain the MOE of the percent change.

The example below shows how to calculate the margin of error of the percent change using the 2006 and 2005 estimates of the number of persons in Maryland who lived in a different house in the U.S. 1 year ago.

Table 5. **Data for Example 5**

Characteristic	Estimate	MOE
Persons who lived in a different house in the U.S. 1 year ago, 2006	802,210	±22,866
Persons who lived in a different house in the U.S. 1 year ago, 2005	762,475	±22,666

The percent change is:

$$Percent\ Change = 100\% * \frac{\hat{X}_2 - \hat{X}_1}{\hat{X}_1} =$$

$$100\% * \left(\frac{802,210 - 762,475}{762,475}\right) = 5.21\%$$

For use in the ratio formula, the ratio of the two estimates is:

$$\hat{R} = \frac{\hat{X}_2}{\hat{X}_1} = \frac{802,210}{762,475} = 1.0521$$

The MOEs for the numerator ($\hat{X}_2$) and denominator ($\hat{X}_1$) are:

$$MOE_2 = +/\text{-}22{,}866,\ MOE_1 = +/\text{-}22{,}666$$

Add the squared MOE of the numerator (MOE_2) to the product of the squared ratio and the squared MOE of the denominator (MOE_1):

$$MOE_2^2 + (\hat{R}^2 * MOE_1^2) =$$

$$(22{,}866)^2 + [(1.0521)^2 * (22{,}666)^2] =$$

$$1{,}091{,}528{,}529$$

Calculate the MOE by dividing the square root of the prior result by the denominator ($\hat{X}_1$).

$$MOE_R = \frac{\pm\sqrt{1{,}091{,}528{,}529}}{762{,}475} = \frac{\pm 33{,}038.3}{762{,}475} = \pm 0.0433$$

Finally, the MOE of the percent change is the MOE of the ratio, multiplied by 100 percent, or 4.33 percent.

The text box below summarizes the formulas used to calculate the margin of error for several derived estimates.

Calculating Margins of Error for Derived Estimates

Aggregated Count Data

$$MOE_{agg} = \pm\sqrt{\sum_c MOE_c^2}$$

Derived Proportions

$$MOE_p = \frac{\pm\sqrt{MOE_{num}^2 - (\hat{p}^2 * MOE_{den}^2)}}{\hat{X}_{den}}$$

Derived Ratios

$$MOE_R = \frac{\pm\sqrt{MOE_{num}^2 + (\hat{R}^2 * MOE_{den}^2)}}{\hat{X}_{den}}$$

U.S. Census Bureau, A Compass for Understanding and Using American Community Survey Data

Appendix 4.

Making Comparisons

One of the most important uses of the ACS estimates is to make comparisons between estimates. Several key types of comparisons are of general interest to users: 1) comparisons of estimates from different geographic areas within the same time period (e.g., comparing the proportion of people below the poverty level in two counties); 2) comparisons of estimates for the same geographic area across time periods (e.g., comparing the proportion of people below the poverty level in a county for 2006 and 2007); and 3) comparisons of ACS estimates with the corresponding estimates from past decennial census samples (e.g., comparing the proportion of people below the poverty level in a county for 2006 and 2000).

A number of conditions must be met when comparing survey estimates. Of primary importance is that the comparison takes into account the sampling error associated with each estimate, thus determining whether the observed differences between estimates are statistically significant. Statistical significance means that there is statistical evidence that a true difference exists within the full population, and that the observed difference is unlikely to have occurred by chance due to sampling. A method for determining statistical significance when making comparisons is presented in the next section. Considerations associated with the various types of comparisons that could be made are also discussed.

Determining Statistical Significance

When comparing two estimates, one should use the test for significance described below. This approach will allow the user to ascertain whether the observed difference is likely due to chance (and thus is not statistically significant) or likely represents a true difference that exists in the population as a whole (and thus is statistically significant).

The test for significance can be carried out by making several computations using the estimates and their corresponding standard errors (SEs). When working with ACS data, these computations are simple given the data provided in tables in the American FactFinder.

1) Determine the SE for each estimate (for ACS data, SE is defined by the positive value of the margin of error (MOE) divided by 1.645).[4]

2) Square the resulting SE for each estimate.

3) Sum the squared SEs.

4) Calculate the square root of the sum of the squared SEs.

5) Calculate the difference between the two estimates.

6) Divide (5) by (4).

7) Compare the absolute value of the result of (6) with the critical value for the desired level of confidence (1.645 for 90 percent, 1.960 for 95 percent, 2.576 for 99 percent).

8) If the absolute value of the result of (6) is greater than the critical value, then the difference between the two estimates can be considered statistically significant at the level of confidence corresponding to the critical value used in (7).

Algebraically, the significance test can be expressed as follows:

If $\left| \dfrac{\hat{X}_1 - \hat{X}_2}{\sqrt{SE_1^2 + SE_2^2}} \right| > Z_{CL}$, then the difference

between estimates $\hat{X}_1$ and $\hat{X}_2$ is statistically significant at the specified confidence level, CL

where $\hat{X}_i$ is estimate i (=1,2)

SE_i is the SE for the estimate i (=1,2)

Z_{CL} is the critical value for the desired confidence level (=1.645 for 90 percent, 1.960 for 95 percent, 2.576 for 99 percent).

The example below shows how to determine if the difference in the estimated percentage of households in 2006 with one or more people of age 65 and older between State A (estimated percentage =22.0, SE=0.12) and State B (estimated percentage =21.5, SE=0.12) is statistically significant. Using the formula above:

$$\left| \frac{\hat{X}_1 - \hat{X}_2}{\sqrt{SE_1^2 + SE_2^2}} \right| = \left| \frac{22.0 - 21.5}{\sqrt{(0.12)^2 + (0.12)^2}} \right| =$$

$$\left| \frac{0.5}{\sqrt{0.015 + 0.015}} \right| = \left| \frac{0.5}{\sqrt{0.03}} \right| = \left| \frac{0.5}{0.173} \right| = 2.90$$

Since the test value (2.90) is greater than the critical value for a confidence level of 99 percent (2.576), the difference in the percentages is statistically significant at a 99-percent confidence level. This is also referred to as statistically significant at the alpha = 0.01 level. A rough interpretation of the result is that the user can be 99 percent certain that a difference exists between the percentages of households with one or more people aged 65 and older between State A and State B.

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[4] NOTE: If working with ACS single-year estimates for 2005 or earlier, use the value 1.65 rather than 1.645.

By contrast, if the corresponding estimates for State C and State D were 22.1 and 22.5, respectively, with standard errors of 0.20 and 0.25, respectively, the formula would yield

$$\left|\frac{\hat{X}_1 - \hat{X}_2}{\sqrt{SE_1^2 + SE_2^2}}\right| = \left|\frac{22.5 - 22.1}{\sqrt{(0.20)^2 + (0.25)^2}}\right| =$$

$$\left|\frac{0.4}{\sqrt{0.04 + 0.0625}}\right| = \left|\frac{0.4}{\sqrt{0.1025}}\right| = \left|\frac{0.4}{0.320}\right| = 1.25$$

Since the test value (1.25) is less than the critical value for a confidence level of 90 percent (1.645), the difference in percentages is not statistically significant. A rough interpretation of the result is that the user cannot be certain to any sufficient degree that the observed difference in the estimates was not due to chance.

Comparisons Within the Same Time Period

Comparisons involving two estimates from the same time period (e.g., from the same year or the same 3-year period) are straightforward and can be carried out as described in the previous section. There is, however, one statistical aspect related to the test for statistical significance that users should be aware of. When comparing estimates within the same time period, the areas or groups will generally be nonoverlapping (e.g., comparing estimates for two different counties). In this case, the two estimates are independent, and the formula for testing differences is statistically correct.

In some cases, the comparison may involve a large area or group and a subset of the area or group (e.g., comparing an estimate for a state with the corresponding estimate for a county within the state or comparing an estimate for all females with the corresponding estimate for Black females). In these cases, the two estimates are not independent. The estimate for the large area is partially dependent on the estimate for the subset and, strictly speaking, the formula for testing differences should account for this partial dependence. However, unless the user has reason to believe that the two estimates are strongly correlated, it is acceptable to ignore the partial dependence and use the formula for testing differences as provided in the previous section. However, if the two estimates are positively correlated, a finding of statistical significance will still be correct, but a finding of a lack of statistical significance based on the formula may be incorrect. If it is important to obtain a more exact test of significance, the user should consult with a statistician about approaches for accounting for the correlation in performing the statistical test of significance.

Comparisons Across Time Periods

Comparisons of estimates from different time periods may involve different single-year periods or different multiyear periods of the same length within the same area. Comparisons across time periods should be made only with comparable time period estimates. Users are advised against comparing single-year estimates with multiyear estimates (e.g., comparing 2006 with 2007–2009) and against comparing multiyear estimates of differing lengths (e.g., comparing 2006–2008 with 2009–2014), as they are measuring the characteristics of the population in two different ways, so differences between such estimates are difficult to interpret. When carrying out any of these types of comparisons, users should take several other issues into consideration.

When comparing estimates from two different single-year periods, one prior to 2006 and the other 2006 or later (e.g., comparing estimates from 2005 and 2007), the user should recognize that from 2006 on the ACS sample includes the population living in group quarters (GQ) as well as the population living in housing units. Many types of GQ populations have demographic, social, or economic characteristics that are very different from the household population. As a result, comparisons between 2005 and 2006 and later ACS estimates could be affected. This is particularly true for areas with a substantial GQ population. For most population characteristics, the Census Bureau suggests users make comparisons across these time periods only if the geographic area of interest does not include a substantial GQ population. For housing characteristics or characteristics published only for the household population, this is obviously not an issue.

Comparisons Based on Overlapping Periods

When comparing estimates from two multiyear periods, ideally comparisons should be based on nonoverlapping periods (e.g., comparing estimates from 2006–2008 with estimates from 2009–2011). The comparison of two estimates for different, but overlapping periods is challenging since the difference is driven by the nonoverlapping years. For example, when comparing the 2005–2007 ACS with the 2006–2008 ACS, data for 2006 and 2007 are included in both estimates. Their contribution is subtracted out when the estimate of differences is calculated. While the interpretation of this difference is difficult, these comparisons can be made with caution. Under most circumstances, the estimate of difference should not be interpreted as a reflection of change between the last 2 years.

The use of MOEs for assessing the reliability of change over time is complicated when change is being evaluated using multiyear estimates. From a technical standpoint, change over time is best evaluated with multiyear estimates that do not overlap. At the same time,

many areas whose only source of data will be 5-year estimates will not want to wait until 2015 to evaluate change (i.e., comparing 2005–2009 with 2010–2014).

When comparing two 3-year estimates or two 5-year estimates of the same geography that overlap in sample years one must account for this sample overlap. Thus to calculate the standard error of this difference use the following approximation to the standard error:

$$SE(\hat{X}_1 - \hat{X}_2) \cong \sqrt{(1-C)}\sqrt{SE_1^{\ 2} + SE_2^{\ 2}}$$

where C is the fraction of overlapping years. For example, the periods 2005–2009 and 2007–2011 overlap for 3 out of 5 years, so C=3/5=0.6. If the periods do not overlap, such as 2005–2007 and 2008–2010, then C=0.

With this SE one can test for the statistical significance of the difference between the two estimates using the method outlined in the previous section with one modification; substitute $\sqrt{(1-C)}\sqrt{SE_1^{\ 2} + SE_2^{\ 2}}$ for $\sqrt{SE_1^{\ 2} + SE_2^{\ 2}}$ in the denominator of the formula for the significance test.

Comparisons With Census 2000 Data

In Appendix 2, major differences between ACS data and decennial census sample data are discussed. Factors such as differences in residence rules, universes, and reference periods, while not discussed in detail in this appendix, should be considered when comparing ACS estimates with decennial census estimates. For example, given the reference period differences, seasonality may affect comparisons between decennial census and ACS estimates when looking at data for areas such as college towns and resort areas.

The Census Bureau subject matter specialists have reviewed the factors that could affect differences between ACS and decennial census estimates and they have determined that ACS estimates are similar to those obtained from past decennial census sample data for most areas and characteristics. The user should consider whether a particular analysis involves an area or characteristic that might be affected by these differences.[5]

When comparing ACS and decennial census sample estimates, the user must remember that the decennial census sample estimates have sampling error associated with them and that the standard errors for both ACS and census estimates must be incorporated when performing tests of statistical significance. Appendix 3 provides the calculations necessary for determining

statistical significance of a difference between two estimates. To derive the SEs of census sample estimates, use the method described in Chapter 8 of either the Census 2000 Summary File 3 Technical Documentation <http://www.census.gov/prod/cen2000/doc/sf3.pdf> or the Census 2000 Summary File 4 Technical Documentation <http://www.census.gov/prod/cen2000/doc/sf4.pdf>.

A conservative approach to testing for statistical significance when comparing ACS and Census 2000 estimates that avoids deriving the SE for the Census 2000 estimate would be to assume the SE for the Census 2000 estimate is the same as that determined for the ACS estimate. The result of this approach would be that a finding of statistical significance can be assumed to be accurate (as the SE for the Census 2000 estimate would be expected to be less than that for the ACS estimate), but a finding of no statistical significance could be incorrect. In this case the user should calculate the census long-form standard error and follow the steps to conduct the statistical test.

Comparisons With 2010 Census Data

Looking ahead to the 2010 decennial census, data users need to remember that the socioeconomic data previously collected on the long form during the census will not be available for comparison with ACS estimates. The only common variables for the ACS and 2010 Census are sex, age, race, ethnicity, household relationship, housing tenure, and vacancy status.

The critical factor that must be considered when comparing ACS estimates encompassing 2010 with the 2010 Census is the potential impact of housing and population controls used for the ACS. As the housing and population controls used for 2010 ACS data will be based on the Population Estimates Program where the estimates are benchmarked on the Census 2000 counts, they will not agree with the 2010 Census population counts for that year. The 2010 population estimates may differ from the 2010 Census counts for two major reasons—the true change from 2000 to 2010 is not accurately captured by the estimates and the completeness of coverage in the 2010 Census is different than coverage of Census 2000. The impact of this difference will likely affect most areas and states, and be most notable for smaller geographic areas where the potential for large differences between the population controls and the 2010 Census population counts is greater.

Comparisons With Other Surveys

Comparisons of ACS estimates with estimates from other national surveys, such as the Current Population Survey, may be of interest to some users. A major consideration in making such comparisons will be that ACS

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[5] Further information concerning areas and characteristics that do not fit the general pattern of comparability can be found on the ACS Web site at <http://www.census.gov/acs/www/UseData/compACS.htm>.

estimates include data for populations in both institutional and noninstitutional group quarters, and estimates from most national surveys do not include institutional populations. Another potential for large effects when comparing data from the ACS with data from other national surveys is the use of different questions for measuring the same or similar information.

Sampling error and its impact on the estimates from the other survey should be considered if comparisons and statements of statistical difference are to be made, as described in Appendix 3. The standard errors on estimates from other surveys should be derived according to technical documentation provided for those individual surveys.

Finally, the user wishing to compare ACS estimates with estimates from other national surveys should consider the potential impact of other factors, such as target population, sample design and size, survey period, reference period, residence rules, and interview modes on estimates from the two sources.

Appendix 5.

Using Dollar-Denominated Data

Dollar-denominated data refer to any characteristics for which inflation adjustments are used when producing annual estimates. For example, income, rent, home value, and energy costs are all dollar-denominated data.

Inflation will affect the comparability of dollar-denominated data across time periods. When ACS multiyear estimates for dollar-denominated data are generated, amounts are adjusted using inflation factors based on the Consumer Price Index (CPI).

Given the potential impact of inflation on observed differences of dollar-denominated data across time periods, users should adjust for the effects of inflation. Such an adjustment will provide comparable estimates accounting for inflation. In making adjustments, the Census Bureau recommends using factors based on the All Items CPI-U-RS (CPI research series). The Bureau of Labor Statistics CPI indexes through 2006 are found at <http://www.bls.gov/cpi/cpiurs1978_2006.pdf>. Explanations follow.

Creating Single-Year Income Values

ACS income values are reported based on the amount of income received during the 12 months preceding the interview month. This is the income reference period. Since there are 12 different income reference periods throughout an interview year, 12 different income inflation adjustments are made. Monthly CPI-U-RSs are used to inflation-adjust the 12 reference period incomes to a single reference period of January through December of the interview year. Note that there are no inflation adjustments for single-year estimates of rent, home value, or energy cost values.

Adjusting Single-Year Estimates Over Time

When comparing single-year income, rent, home value, and energy cost value estimates from two different years, adjustment should be made as follows:

1) Obtain the All Items CPI-U-RS Annual Averages for the 2 years being compared.

2) Calculate the inflation adjustment factor as the ratio of the CPI-U-RS from the more recent year to the CPI-U-RS from the earlier year.

3) Multiply the dollar-denominated data estimated for the earlier year by the inflation adjustment factor.

The inflation-adjusted estimate for the earlier year can be expressed as:

$$\hat{X}_{Y1,Adj} = \frac{CPI_{Y2}}{CPI_{Y1}} \hat{X}_{Y1}$$

where CPI_{Y1} is the All Items CPI-U-RS Annual Average for the earlier year (Y1).

CPI_{Y2} is the All Items CPI-U-RS Annual Average for the more recent year (Y2).

$\hat{X}_{Y1}$ is the published ACS estimate for the earlier year (Y1).

The example below compares the national median value for owner-occupied mobile homes in 2005 ($37,700) and 2006 ($41,000). First adjust the 2005 median value using the 2005 All Items CPI-U-RS Annual Average (286.7) and the 2006 All Items CPI-U-RS Annual Average (296.1) as follows:

$$\hat{X}_{2005,Adj} = \frac{296.1}{286.7} \times \$37,700 = \$38,936$$

Thus, the comparison of the national median value for owner-occupied mobile homes in 2005 and 2006, in 2006 dollars, would be $38,936 (2005 inflation-adjusted to 2006 dollars) versus $41,000 (2006 dollars).

Creating Values Used in Multiyear Estimates

Multiyear income, rent, home value, and energy cost values are created with inflation adjustments. The Census Bureau uses the All Items CPI-U-RS Annual Averages for each year in the multiyear time period to calculate a set of inflation adjustment factors. Adjustment factors for a time period are calculated as ratios of the CPI-U-RS Annual Average from its most recent year to the CPI-U-RS Annual Averages from each of its earlier years. The ACS values for each of the earlier years in the multiyear period are multiplied by the appropriate inflation adjustment factors to produce the inflation-adjusted values. These values are then used to create the multiyear estimates.

As an illustration, consider the time period 2004–2006, which consisted of individual reference-year income values of $30,000 for 2006, $20,000 for 2005, and $10,000 for 2004. The multiyear income components are created from inflation-adjusted reference period income values using factors based on the All Items CPI-U-RS Annual Averages of 277.4 (for 2004), 286.7 (for 2005), and 296.1 (for 2006). The adjusted 2005 value is the ratio of 296.1 to 286.7 applied to $20,000, which equals $20,656. Similarly, the 2004 value is the ratio of 296.1 to 277.4 applied to $10,000, which equals $10,674.

Adjusting Multiyear Estimates Over Time

When comparing multiyear estimates from two different time periods, adjustments should be made as follows:

1) Obtain the All Items CPI-U-RS Annual Average for the most current year in each of the time periods being compared.

2) Calculate the inflation adjustment factor as the ratio of the CPI-U-RS Annual Average in (1) from the most recent year to the CPI-U-RS in (1) from the earlier years.

3) Multiply the dollar-denominated estimate for the earlier time period by the inflation adjustment factor.

The inflation-adjusted estimate for the earlier years can be expressed as:

$$\hat{X}_{P1,Adj} = \frac{CPI_{P2}}{CPI_{P1}} \hat{X}_{P1}$$

where CPI_{P1} is the All Items CPI-U-RS Annual Average for the last year in the earlier time period (P1).

CPI_{P2} is the All Items CPI-U-RS Annual Average for the last year in the most recent time period (P2).

$\hat{X}_{P1}$ is the published ACS estimate for the earlier time period (P1).

As an illustration, consider ACS multiyear estimates for the two time periods of 2001–2003 and 2004–2006. To compare the national median value for owner-occupied mobile homes in 2001–2003 ($32,000) and 2004–2006 ($39,000), first adjust the 2001–2003 median value using the 2003 All Items CPI-U-RS Annual Averages (270.1) and the 2006 All Items CPI-U-RS Annual Averages (296.1) as follows:

$$\hat{X}_{2001-2003,Adj} = \frac{296.1}{270.1} \times \$32,000 = \$35,080$$

Thus, the comparison of the national median value for owner-occupied mobile homes in 2001–2003 and 2004–2006, in 2006 dollars, would be $35,080 (2001–2003 inflation-adjusted to 2006 dollars) versus $39,000 (2004–2006, already in 2006 dollars).

Issues Associated With Inflation Adjustment

The recommended inflation adjustment uses a national level CPI and thus will not reflect inflation differences that may exist across geographies. In addition, since the inflation adjustment uses the All Items CPI, it will not reflect differences that may exist across characteristics such as energy and housing costs.

Appendix 6.

Measures of Nonsampling Error

All survey estimates are subject to both sampling and nonsampling error. In Appendix 3, the topic of sampling error and the various measures available for understanding the uncertainty in the estimates due to their being derived from a sample, rather than from an entire population, are discussed. The margins of error published with ACS estimates measure only the effect of sampling error. Other errors that affect the overall accuracy of the survey estimates may occur in the course of collecting and processing the ACS, and are referred to collectively as nonsampling errors.

Broadly speaking, nonsampling error refers to any error affecting a survey estimate outside of sampling error. Nonsampling error can occur in complete censuses as well as in sample surveys, and is commonly recognized as including coverage error, unit nonresponse, item nonresponse, response error, and processing error.

Types of Nonsampling Errors

Coverage error occurs when a housing unit or person does not have a chance of selection in the sample (undercoverage), or when a housing unit or person has more than one chance of selection in the sample, or is included in the sample when they should not have been (overcoverage). For example, if the frame used for the ACS did not allow the selection of newly constructed housing units, the estimates would suffer from errors due to housing undercoverage.

The final ACS estimates are adjusted for under- and overcoverage by controlling county-level estimates to independent total housing unit controls and to independent population controls by sex, age, race, and Hispanic origin (more information is provided on the coverage error definition page of the "ACS Quality Measures" Web site at <http://www.census.gov/acs/www/UseData/sse/cov/cov_def.htm>). However, it is important to measure the extent of coverage adjustment by comparing the precontrolled ACS estimates to the final controlled estimates. If the extent of coverage adjustments is large, there is a greater chance that differences in characteristics of undercovered or overcovered housing units or individuals differ from those eligible to be selected. When this occurs, the ACS may not provide an accurate picture of the population prior to the coverage adjustment, and the population controls may not eliminate or minimize that coverage error.

Unit nonresponse is the failure to obtain the minimum required information from a housing unit or a resident of a group quarter in order for it to be considered a completed interview. Unit nonresponse means that no survey data are available for a particular sampled unit

or person. For example, if no one in a sampled housing unit is available to be interviewed during the time frame for data collection, unit nonresponse will result.

It is important to measure unit nonresponse because it has a direct effect on the quality of the data. If the unit nonresponse rate is high, it increases the chance that the final survey estimates may contain bias, even though the ACS estimation methodology includes a nonresponse adjustment intended to control potential unit nonresponse bias. This will happen if the characteristics of nonresponding units differ from the characteristics of responding units.

Item nonresponse occurs when a respondent fails to provide an answer to a required question or when the answer given is inconsistent with other information. With item nonresponse, while some responses to the survey questionnaire for the unit are provided, responses to other questions are not obtained. For example, a respondent may be unwilling to respond to a question about income, resulting in item nonresponse for that question. Another reason for item nonresponse may be a lack of understanding of a particular question by a respondent.

Information on item nonresponse allows users to judge the completeness of the data on which the survey estimates are based. Final estimates can be adversely impacted when item nonresponse is high, because bias can be introduced if the actual characteristics of the people who do not respond to a question differ from those of people who do respond to it. The ACS estimation methodology includes imputations for item nonresponse, intended to reduce the potential for item nonresponse bias.

Response error occurs when data are reported or recorded incorrectly. Response errors may be due to the respondent, the interviewer, the questionnaire, or the survey process itself. For example, if an interviewer conducting a telephone interview incorrectly records a respondent's answer, response error results. In the same way, if the respondent fails to provide a correct response to a question, response error results. Another potential source of response error is a survey process that allows proxy responses to be obtained, wherein a knowledgeable person within the household provides responses for another person within the household who is unavailable for the interview. Even more error prone is allowing neighbors to respond.

Processing error can occur during the preparation of the final data files. For example, errors may occur if data entry of questionnaire information is incomplete

or inaccurate. Coding of responses incorrectly also results in processing error. Critical reviews of edits and tabulations by subject matter experts are conducted to keep errors of this kind to a minimum.

Nonsampling error can result in random errors and systematic errors. Of greatest concern are systematic errors. Random errors are less critical since they tend to cancel out at higher geographic levels in large samples such as the ACS.

On the other hand, systematic errors tend to accumulate over the entire sample. For example, if there is an error in the questionnaire design that negatively affects the accurate capture of respondents' answers, processing errors are created. Systematic errors often lead to a bias in the final results. Unlike sampling error and random error resulting from nonsampling error, bias caused by systematic errors cannot be reduced by increasing the sample size.

ACS Quality Measures

Nonsampling error is extremely difficult, if not impossible, to measure directly. However, the Census Bureau has developed a number of indirect measures of nonsampling error to help inform users of the quality of the ACS estimates: sample size, coverage rates, unit response rates and nonresponse rates by reason, and item allocation rates. Starting with the 2007 ACS, these measures are available in the B98 series of detailed tables on AFF. Quality measures for previous years are available on the "ACS Quality Measures" Web site at <http://www.census.gov/acs/www/UseData/sse/>.

Sample size measures for the ACS summarize information for the housing unit and GQ samples. The measures available at the state level are:[6]

    Housing units
        Number of initial addresses selected
        Number of final survey interviews

    Group quarters people (beginning with the 2006 ACS)
        Number of initial persons selected
        Number of final survey interviews

Sample size measures may be useful in special circumstances when determining whether to use single-year or multiyear estimates in conjunction with estimates of the population of interest. While the coefficient of variation (CV) should typically be used to determine usability, as explained in Appendix 3, there may be some situations where the CV is small but the user has reason to believe the sample size for a subgroup is very small and the robustness of the estimate is in question.

For example, the Asian-alone population makes up roughly 1 percent (8,418/656,700) of the population in Jefferson County, Alabama. Given that the number of successful housing unit interviews in Jefferson County for the 2006 ACS were 4,072 and assuming roughly 2.5 persons per household (or roughly 12,500 completed person interviews), one could estimate that the 2006 ACS data for Asians in Jefferson County are based on roughly 150 completed person interviews.

Coverage rates are available for housing units, and total population by sex at both the state and national level. Coverage rates for total population by six race/ethnicity categories and the GQ population are also available at the national level. These coverage rates are a measure of the extent of adjustment to the survey weights required during the component of the estimation methodology that adjusts to population controls. Low coverage rates are an indication of greater potential for coverage error in the estimates.

Unit response and nonresponse rates for housing units are available at the county, state, and national level by reason for nonresponse: refusal, unable to locate, no one home, temporarily absent, language problem, other, and data insufficient to be considered an interview. Rates are also provided separately for persons in group quarters at the national and state levels.

A low unit response rate is an indication that there is potential for bias in the survey estimates. For example, the 2006 housing unit response rates are at least 94 percent for all states. The response rate for the District of Columbia in 2006 was 91 percent.

Item allocation rates are determined by the content edits performed on the individual raw responses and closely correspond to item nonresponse rates. Overall housing unit and person characteristic allocation rates are available at the state and national levels, which combine many different characteristics. Allocation rates for individual items may be calculated from the B99 series of imputation detailed tables available in AFF.

Item allocation rates do vary by state, so users are advised to examine the allocation rates for characteristics of interest before drawing conclusions from the published estimates.

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[6] The sample size measures for housing units (number of initial addresses selected and number of final survey interviews) and for group quarters people cannot be used to calculate response rates. For the housing unit sample, the number of initial addresses selected includes addresses that were determined not to identify housing units, as well as initial addresses that are subsequently subsampled out in preparation for personal visit nonresponse follow-up. Similarly, the initial sample of people in group quarters represents the expected sample size within selected group quarters prior to visiting and sampling of residents.

Appendix 7.

Implications of Population Controls on ACS Estimates

As with most household surveys, the American Community Survey data are controlled so that the numbers of housing units and people in categories defined by age, sex, race, and Hispanic origin agree with the Census Bureau's official estimates. The American Community Survey (ACS) measures the characteristics of the population, but the official count of the population comes from the previous census, updated by the Population Estimates Program.

In the case of the ACS, the total housing unit estimates and the total population estimates by age, sex, race and Hispanic origin are controlled at the county (or groups of counties) level. The group quarters total population is controlled at the state level by major type of group quarters. Such adjustments are important to correct the survey data for nonsampling and sampling errors. An important source of nonsampling error is the potential under-representation of hard-to-enumerate demographic groups. The use of the population controls results in ACS estimates that more closely reflect the level of coverage achieved for those groups in the preceding census. The use of the population estimates as controls partially corrects demographically implausible results from the ACS due to the ACS data being based on a sample of the population rather than a full count. For example, the use of the population controls "smooths out" demographic irregularities in the age structure of the population that result from random sampling variability in the ACS.

When the controls are applied to a group of counties rather than a single county, the ACS estimates and the official population estimates for the individual counties may not agree. There also may not be agreement between the ACS estimates and the population estimates for levels of geography such as subcounty areas where the population controls are not applied.

The use of population and housing unit controls also reduces random variability in the estimates from year to year. Without the controls, the sampling variability in the ACS could cause the population estimates to increase in one year and decrease in the next (especially for smaller areas or demographic groups), when the underlying trend is more stable. This reduction in variability on a time series basis is important since results from the ACS may be used to monitor trends over time. As more current data become available, the time series of estimates from the Population Estimates Program are revised back to the preceding census while the ACS estimates in previous years are not. Therefore, some differences in the ACS estimates across time may be due to changes in the population estimates.

For single-year ACS estimates, the population and total housing unit estimates for July 1 of the survey year are used as controls. For multiyear ACS estimates, the controls are the average of the individual year population estimates.

Appendix 8.

Other ACS Resources

Background and Overview Information

American Community Survey Web Page Site Map: <http://www.census.gov/acs/www/Site_Map.html> This link is the site map for the ACS Web page. It provides an overview of the links and materials that are available online, including numerous reference documents.

What Is the ACS? <http://www.census.gov/acs/www/SBasics/What/What1.htm> This Web page includes basic information about the ACS and has links to additional information including background materials.

ACS Design, Methodology, Operations

American Community Survey Design and Methodology Technical Paper: <http://www.census.gov/acs/www/Downloads/tp67.pdf> This document describes the basic design of the 2005 ACS and details the full set of methods and procedures that were used in 2005. Please watch our Web site as a revised version will be released in the fall of 2008, detailing methods and procedures used in 2006 and 2007.

About the Data (Methodology: <http://www.census.gov/acs/www/AdvMeth/> This Web page contains links to information on ACS data collection and processing, evaluation reports, multiyear estimates study, and related topics.

ACS Quality

Accuracy of the Data (2007): <http://www.census.gov/acs/www/Downloads/ACS/accuracy2007.pdf> This document provides data users with a basic understanding of the sample design, estimation methodology, and accuracy of the 2007 ACS data.

ACS Sample Size: <http://www.census.gov/acs/www/SBasics/SSizes/SSizes06.htm> This link provides sample size information for the counties that were published in the 2006 ACS. The initial sample size and the final completed interviews are provided. The sample sizes for all published counties and county equivalents starting with the 2007 ACS will only be available in the B98 series of detailed tables on American FactFinder.

ACS Quality Measures: <http://www.census.gov/acs/www/UseData/sse/> This Web page includes information about the steps taken by the Census Bureau to improve the accuracy of ACS data. Four indicators of survey quality are described and measures are provided at the national and state level.

Guidance on Data Products and Using the Data

How to Use the Data: <http://www.census.gov/acs/www/UseData/> This Web page includes links to many documents and materials that explain the ACS data products.

Comparing ACS Data to other sources: <http://www.census.gov/acs/www/UseData/compACS.htm> Tables are provided with guidance on comparing the 2007 ACS data products to 2006 ACS data and Census 2000 data.

Fact Sheet on Using Different Sources of Data for Income and Poverty: <http://www.census.gov/hhes/www/income/factsheet.html> This fact sheet highlights the sources that should be used for data on income and poverty, focusing on comparing the ACS and the Current Population Survey (CPS).

Public Use Microdata Sample (PUMS): <http://www.census.gov/acs/www/Products/PUMS/> This Web page provides guidance in accessing ACS microdata.