

Applied Demography

Population Association of America

Applied Demography Interest Group Newsletter

OFFICIAL MULTILINGUALISM IN THE UNITED STATES: WHERE IS IT GOING?

By Jacob S. (Jay) Siegel

EDITOR'S NOTE: This is an edited version of the Applied Demography Breakfast that Mr. Siegel gave at the Population Association of America meetings in Minneapolis on May 2, 2003. A copy of the complete talk may be obtained by contacting Mr. Siegel directly at JStuartSiegel@cs.com.

Good morning. By official multilingualism, I mean government sponsorship and support of the use of particular languages, as expressed in law and public policy or in government financial support.

The situation in the United States is ambivalent and fluid. The United States has no official language, as do about one-third of the other countries around the world. Neither the U.S. Constitution nor any act of Congress nor any Supreme Court decision names English as the *official* language. It is the official language, though, in almost half the states, including Florida and California. And it is our *national* language. Consider this: Census questionnaires, vital registration forms, and immigration forms are all printed in English; U.S. citizenship tests are given in English; voting forms are mostly printed in English; our educational system is designed to make students proficient in English; our public libraries are stocked with books almost wholly in English; and our official government records—legal, executive, and judicial—are kept in English.

But the federal government is heavily in the business of promoting many non-English languages as well—some with more vigor than others. This is what I mean by official multilingualism. I will discuss the topic by looking at several areas: (1) demographic collection systems; (2) citizenship and voting; (3) public education; (4) criminal justice; and (5) federal public services.

Demographic collection systems

As the Census Bureau considered disseminating the 2000 census questionnaires in languages other than English, it had to weigh the possible choices of non-English languages. For this, they looked to the 1990 census, which showed that the five most common languages spoken in the home were Spanish, French, Italian, German, and Chinese. Yet the five languages the Bureau selected for questionnaire distribution included only two of these, Spanish and Chinese. In 2000, you could also respond in Vietnamese, Korean, and Tagalog.

A combination of political, sociological, and demographic reasons could explain this ethnically biased situation. It could be argued sociologically that members of the language groups chosen were more likely to live in households that are linguistically isolated (that is, with no adult member who spoke English very well), or to live in language-segregated communities, or were more recent immigrants. We learned that by 2000, Tagalog had moved into the top five non-English languages, but not Vietnamese or Korean, the other census-questionnaire languages. In spite of the issues raised by this program, no legal suit has been filed against the Census Bureau on this matter, as far as I could ascertain.

Was it worth the cost? The return rate for the non-English questionnaires solicited by respondents was only about 40 percent, well below the general return rate. The program cost at least a few million dollars for postage and translation alone. The forms (other than the Spanish ones) had to be translated and transcribed before processing and the language guides had to be translated. No one has yet tallied up all the processing costs.

The Hispanic Statistics Act of 1976, which calls for the collection of data on Hispanics as assiduously as for blacks and the use of Spanish census questionnaires, preceded all this, but many Hispanics (at least one-fifth) do not speak Spanish, and many who do are illiterate in that language.

English predominates in other demographic collection systems. The vital registration forms, at least the model ones promulgated by NCHS, are still issued only in English, but NCHS now accompanies their birth registration form with instruction forms in Spanish. The immigration forms—even the applications for visas to be issued by State Department officers in foreign countries—are all in English, although interpreters are used abroad.

Citizenship and voting

Applications and tests for citizenship are printed in English, so it requires a certain minimal knowledge of English to become a U.S. citizen. Yet we now demand by law that voting materials be made available in non-English languages (under certain demographic conditions), even while knowing that language advocacy groups have provided translations of ballots for use of speakers of these languages.

Literacy tests and other devices once deprived blacks of their voting rights. Non-English language groups invoke this same claim, declaring that they, too, are similarly restricted by lack of knowledge of English. So language advocacy groups have demanded that voting materials should be made available in languages other than English. Various reauthorizations of the Voting Rights Act of 1965 have broadened the law to include, among other groups, linguistic minorities. Under the most recent extension in 1992, if at least 5 percent of an area's voting age population speak another language at home and are not proficient in English, voting materials have to be made available in that language. The related Voting Rights Language Assistance Act of 1992 added a minimum population threshold; now a population of limited-English-proficiency (LEP) citizens of voting age of 10,000 suffices. (The 1992 laws also cover any political subdivision containing all or part of an Indian reservation that meets the above criteria.) These current provisions remain in effect until 2007.

Legal issues revolve around the census definition of proficiency in English (that is, "very well" and "well," or "very well" only), identification of the language group (that is, the possible use of combinations, such as Mandarin and Cantonese into Chinese, or each language separately), and the size of the jurisdiction

(since a language group can be left out in populous areas, as were Asian Americans in Los Angeles County prior to 1992).

Opponents claim that the program is not necessary or desirable since (1) English is required for U.S. citizenship; (2) foreigners, especially younger persons, can learn to read English (whereas race cannot be changed); (3) the program dissuades foreigners from learning English; (4) many non-English speakers are illiterate in their own language; and (5) the program is too costly for the small returns it yields. Supporters dispute or dismiss these arguments, although clearly each of them has some merit.

Public education

The Bilingual Education Act of 1968 was the first in a series of acts that provided support to state and local school districts to educate limited-English-proficiency (LEP) students with the goal of mainstreaming them into classes taught in English. Originally the impetus for the program was the high dropout rate of Hispanic students; then, most of the non-English speakers in the schools were Hispanic, and the Hispanic dropout rate was higher than the corresponding rate for blacks, which was well above that for non-Hispanic whites. Soon the act was supported by court action. According to the U.S. Supreme Court ruling in *Lau v. Nichols* (1974) schools have to take appropriate action to overcome language barriers for children whose proficiency in English is limited.

Today the program is supported by the No Child Left Behind Act of 2002, which allocated some \$750 million for fiscal year 2002 "and such sums as may be necessary for each of the five succeeding fiscal years" to states submitting proposals for use of the money. The act does not call for any particular design of the bilingual education program—whether parallel training, total immersion, transitional training, ESOL, or some other design. The money supports bilingual education from elementary through high school in more than 125 languages spoken by children from more than 150 countries, and so it is an administrative challenge, to say the least. This expansion of language groups results from the changes in our immigration laws in the 1950s and 1960s, which abolished the national origins quotas of

the immigration laws of the 1920s and liberalized our immigration quotas.

Schools for the indigenous population of the United States operated by the Bureau of Indian Affairs are recognized under “No Child Left Behind” for purposes of program support. The Native American Languages Act of 1990 is designed to assure that these languages are taught in the reservation schools and are preserved.

In administering the program, the local school districts may simply require all foreign-born students to apply for (or enroll in) the program and, after testing them for English proficiency, assign them to one of a few proficiency levels. Progress reports are required but standards of failure and success are not provided, so students can go on indefinitely in the bilingual program.

Despite official support, the bilingual education program has attracted widespread opposition. Many Hispanics, as well as others, oppose it as a waste of public funds, and one that retards the training of LEP students in English or, worse, as a vehicle for advancing the political goal of a parallel Hispanic culture in the United States. Bilingual education may also violate linguistic principles about how and when children most naturally acquire foreign languages. Indeed, some states have abolished bilingual education programs entirely or reined them in with requirements to mainstream LEP students earlier (e.g., California). The fact is that the dropout rate for Hispanics has hardly improved since the bilingual education program began in the late 1960s.

Criminal justice

Once the notion caught on that an individual who cannot read the ballot is thereby disenfranchised, it was an easy stretch to argue that someone who cannot understand the proceedings won’t get a fair trial. And so defendants gained the right to an interpreter, thanks to *U.S. ex rel. Negrón v. New York* in 1970. In this case a federal Circuit Court of Appeals overturned a murder conviction on the ground that the defendant’s constitutional rights to a fair trial were violated since “in effect he was not present” if he did not understand English well. This led to the federal Court Interpreter’s Act of 1978, which mandated provision of an interpreter for any federal criminal or civil action for litigants whose

proficiency in English is deemed by the presiding judge to limit their ability to have a fair trial. Should this apply to indigenous populations or “Ebonics” speakers in the United States, where a variety of English is known by the defendants but has subtleties that are different from standard English?

Federal public services and federally funded services

This last area is, in effect, the most sweeping. Many programs are now subject to special treatment under language-oriented rules (all based on the national origins category in the Civil Rights Act of 1965) as a result of Executive Order No. 13166 issued by President Clinton in 2000 (and not rescinded by President Bush). This edict required all government agencies to develop programs to assure that their services would be made accessible to any person of limited English proficiency. This applies to any federally conducted programs and activities, including telephone contacts, office walk-ins, interviews, cafeteria, websites, and library services, as well as programs that provide federal services or benefits. The order would then apply to the Immigration and Naturalization Service, the FBI, the Social Security Administration, the IRS, Medicare, Medicaid, the various welfare reform programs, and even federal censuses and surveys, federal model vital registration certificates, and immigration forms. (The federal government already issues many publications in Spanish and a few in Chinese, but apparently these are only a minor proportion of all government publications.)

Not surprisingly, a countervailing “English-only” movement has gained momentum in opposition to official multilingualism. It seeks a constitutional amendment or an act of Congress making English the official language of the United States. The first proposal for a constitutional amendment was made in 1981 and the last in the late 1990s. In January 2001, Congressman Peter King proposed the National Language Act of 2001, which would establish English as the official language of our federal government. That is, the federal government would conduct its official business only in English, cease non-English publications and informational materials, repeal the bilingual voting requirements of the Voting Rights Act of 1965 as amended, and terminate bilingual education programs. Not surprisingly,

opponents of the “English-only” movement have proposed a legislative alternative called “English Plus.”

Conclusion

As I suggested at the start, the United States has no clear language policy. It is ambivalent about the whole matter and is drifting linguistically, just as it is drifting with its immigration policy. Our open-door immigration policy, with Mexican immigration being especially favored by the present administration, is adding to the possibility that in a few decades the nation will be a *de facto* bilingual country—Spanish and English—and may under political pressure become a *de jure* bilingual country as well. There is always the specter of linguistic strife rather than cohesion, as in many other countries of the world. Canada is not an inviting example to follow as a bilingual country. There French and English are both official languages nationally, but in the province of Quebec, French monolingualism has been dictatorially decreed for several decades in defiance of the national government. Other bad examples for us are India (where Hindi and English are both the national official languages) and Spain (where Spanish is the official tongue); in both countries, states and regions have their own official languages in addition to the national ones. Note as well that in Puerto Rico, Spanish is the target language of public education and so persons arriving from Puerto Rico to the U.S. mainland have to be retrained with English as the target language.

Well, what does all this mean? Here is my two cents for whatever it's worth. As a nation we should actively consider this directional drift before we reach a point of no return. I would exclude from these discussions the extremists on either side, including doctrinaire linguistics scholars, supporters of illegal immigration, and leaders of the “English-only” movement. Official multilingualism is costly in dollars, time, and resources, and should not be accepted as a natural phenomenon, like the weather. It is important to recognize that beyond pragmatism and opportunism, beyond costs, beyond politics, and beyond demographic trends, we need to have a vision of what we want our society to be like, and that includes its linguistic character. We all recognize this “vision thing” when we talk of our democratic values, so why not do the same regarding our shared ethnic/linguistic values? We ought to be able to

preserve and expand our linguistic resources without becoming a nation of language/political identity groups.

SOUTHERN DEMOGRAPHIC ASSOCIATION TO HOLD 2003 ANNUAL MEETINGS

The Southern Demographic Association (SDA) will be holding its 2003 annual meetings October 23-25 in Arlington, Virginia. The SDA is a national scientific and educational organization of professionals and students with interests in demography and population studies. Topics of interest cover the world, as well as any region, country, or subnational area.

Registration for the meetings is US\$200; full-time students may register for US\$100. Included in the registration are: (1) attendance and participation at all sessions; (2) one luncheon event; (3) a reception; and (4) SDA membership for 2004, including Volume 23 of the SDA's professional journal *Population Research and Policy Review*.

For hotel planning purposes, **SDA asks that persons interested in attending the meetings please register by October 10.** For further information, persons can visit the SDA website (www.fsu.edu/~sda), or contact either of the following individuals:

Dr. Karen Woodrow-Lafield, SDA
President-Elect and Program Organizer
(klafield@nd.edu)

Dr. June Nogle, SDA Treasurer
(junen@ufl.edu)

HOTEL INFORMATION: The meeting will be held at the Doubletree Hotel Crystal City, 300 Army Navy Drive, Arlington, Virginia 22202. Reservations can be made by calling the hotel at 703-416-4100; the room rates are US\$129 for a single room and US\$159 for a double room. (In making their reservations, persons should let the hotel know they are with SDA.)



USES, METHODS, INPUT DATA, AND EVALUATION OF POPULATION ESTIMATES: RESULTS FROM A STATE SURVEY

By Mohammed Shahidullah, Illinois Center for Health Statistics, Illinois Department of Public Health

At the request of the Federal-State Cooperative for Population Estimates (FSCPE) steering committee, Illinois Department of Public Health demographers designed a questionnaire to learn about uses, methods, input data, and testing and evaluation of population estimates for each state and Puerto Rico. The Department was approached to conduct the survey because of prior experience with this type of survey and because the agency was a member of the steering committee that year. Questionnaires were sent via e-mail attachments to all FSCPE members in the second week of February 1999, with a March 1, 1999 deadline through the FSCPE ListServ from the University of Louisville. Forty-eight states and Puerto Rico returned completed questionnaires—35 by the deadline and 13 with one or two e-mail or telephone follow-ups. This article uses only the data collected from the states.

Uses of population estimates

Of the 48 states, 17 have no mandates or laws that required the use of either locally prepared or U.S. Census Bureau population estimates. Seven have no legal mandates but are required to use such estimates, while 24 reported that they are legally required to use locally prepared or Census Bureau population estimates.

Twenty-three of the 48 states reported that they are only required to produce estimates at the state level. County-level data are required in 24 states, and 27 need sub-county estimates. As the numbers indicate, the levels of geography for which estimates are needed were not mutually exclusive. For instance, the states reporting the need for county level data were automatically producing state level data as well.

When asked the data source they used for in producing estimates for each geographic level, the survey asked the respondents to specify what portion of the data they produced on their own and whether that particular portion was controlled by or derived from the Census Bureau. Only 21 states said they used Census Bureau population estimates only as controls.

Others responded that they used a combination of their own data and data from the Census Bureau. Most of the 36 states that produce estimates independently of the Census Bureau do so for the state, county, and/or sub-county level; 11 states do so for all three (see Table 1).

Table 1. States Producing Population Estimates Independently of the U.S. Census Bureau

Level of Geography (for which the data are produced)	Number of States
State, county, and sub-county	11
Two of the above levels	3
One of the above levels	10
None of the above levels	12
TOTAL	36

Source: Illinois Department of Public Health (2003).

The Census Bureau currently revises its estimates on a yearly basis. When asked if a different revision schedule would be preferable, more than half the states (26 out of 48) stated it should stay the same (i.e., annual). However, some believed that the estimates did not need to be revised every year: four states supported a two- or three-year revision schedule; another four felt a five-year schedule was sufficient; and five states said population estimates should be revised every 10 years—right after the census. Six of the 48 states recommended that the Census Bureau estimates needed no revision at all. The remaining three states either were uncertain or did not have an opinion.

Methods in producing estimates

Most states named the cohort-component method as the one most frequently used to produce state-level estimates. The housing unit method was most often used at the county and sub-county levels (Table 2, page 6).

Twenty-five of the 36 states that used population estimates produced independently of the Census Bureau did so by age, sex or race/ethnicity. The level of geography at which they produced such estimates varied, however. While virtually all of the 25 states produced state- and county-level estimates by age and/or sex (and most by race/ethnicity), only a handful (no more than six) produced such age-, sex-, or

Table 2. Methods Used by States to Estimate Population, by Level of Geography

Level of Geography (for which the data are produced)	Method	Number of States
State	Cohort-component method	10
	Housing unit method	4
	Ratio correlation method	2
	Driver's licenses	2
	Composite method	2
County	Housing unit method	11
	Ratio correlation method	9
	Cohort-component method	7
	Income tax returns	5
	Other regression methods	3
	Administrative records method	3
	Component method II	2
Sub-county	Housing unit method	13
	Component method	4
	County total control	2

NOTE: If only one state used a particular method, or if a state produced no population estimates, such states were not included in the table. It is possible that the sum of states for methods at a substate level could be higher than the sum for methods at the state level.

Source: Illinois Department of Public Health (2003).

race/ethnicity-specific estimates at other geographic levels.

State estimates were produced annually by 25 states, monthly by one state (California), every two years by one state (New Mexico) and every four to five years by one state (West Virginia). County estimates were produced annually by 28 states, biennially by two states (California and New Mexico) and every four years by one state (Hawaii). Sub-county estimates were produced annually by 22 states, quarterly by two states (Oregon and Texas), every two years by one state (New Mexico) and on an as-needed basis by two states (Ohio and Utah). Only New Jersey produced sub-county level seasonal population estimates (which included temporary residents whose usual residence is elsewhere).

Input data for generating estimates

Each state was asked what type of data it used to generate the estimates, and whether such data

came from the state, the Census Bureau, or some other source. The type of data obtained included vital statistics data (births and deaths) and a variety of "proxy variables" (for instance, school enrollments, voter registration, housing unit data) used to measure net migration. Most states got information on variables such as births, deaths, school enrollments, motor vehicle registration and voter registration exclusively from the state. Other variables such as in-migration, out-migration, net migration, group quarters (GQ) population, driver's licenses, housing units, Medicare enrollees, labor force data, and tax returns were drawn mostly from either the state or the Census Bureau. A small number of states, however, obtained some of their information from other sources. For example, Illinois, Nevada, Pennsylvania, and Virginia surveyed facilities to estimate the GQ population. California, Nevada, and Virginia obtained housing unit data from county assessor's offices. Maine and Virginia used surveys to estimate private school enrollments. Illinois and Missouri tapped Centers for Medicare and Medicaid surveys to get estimates of Medicare enrollees. Florida used information from utility companies for the number of residential electric customers. Finally, for employment data, Colorado relied on figures from the Bureau of Economic Analysis, U.S. Department of Commerce.

Evaluation of the estimates

Finally, the respondents were asked about future plans for their estimation programs. Of the 36 states producing independent estimates, 21 reported that they planned independent evaluations of their estimation methods by using sub-county level data from the 2000 decennial census. Twenty-five states would do the same for the county level and 22 states for the state level of geography. Very few states (no more than three) said they would not use data from the 2000 census in evaluating their estimates for any level of geography. Several other states did not state an opinion or said they didn't know the answer to the question at that time. An additional question regarding plans to submit the evaluation results for review by the Census Bureau's Population Division yielded identical findings.

Discussion

Findings from this survey will be useful to applied demographers who want to know more about specific methods, data sources and

resources needed to produce population estimates. For example, only Florida collects data on residential electric customers for its housing unit method, and only California collects data on motor vehicle driver's licenses to use as a proxy for migration. If applied demographers want to know more about collection of these data and how to use them for producing population estimates, the information contained in this survey will be a good starting point. Findings from this survey also can be used in knowing which states have mandates for producing population estimates. The FSCPE steering committee shared the results (and the completed questionnaires) with the Population Estimates Branch of the Census Bureau's Population Division. It would be informative to repeat the survey once a decade, preferably before a decennial census.

KIDS COUNT RELEASES 2003 DATA BOOK, OTHER PUBLICATIONS

By Kelvin Pollard, Population Reference Bureau

KIDS COUNT, a project of the Annie E. Casey Foundation, has released several publications in the past few months.

June 11 saw the release of the 2003 *KIDS COUNT Data Book*, the 14th annual profile of child well-being in the 50 states and the District of Columbia. In addition to the 10 indicators the book uses to assess state-level trends over the 1990s, this edition features measures related to what the Casey Foundation terms "the cost of being poor." In that spirit, the book includes an essay by Foundation President Douglas W. Nelson, "The High Cost of Being Poor: Another Perspective on Helping Low-Income Families Get By and Get Ahead." KIDS COUNT also has produced several materials to accompany the *Data Book*, including a wall chart, a pocket guide, and a data wheel. (The

pocket guide is available in English and Spanish.)

Also this spring, KIDS COUNT released two additional pocket guides, *African-American Children: State-Level Measures of Child Well-Being from the 2000 Census*, and *Latino Children: State-Level Measures of Child Well-Being from the 2000 Census*. As their respective titles indicate, these booklets use 2000 census data to provide social, educational, and economic statistics on Latino and African-American children and families. The publications also highlight state-level differences that persist between minority children and non-Hispanic white children. (The Latino pocket guide also is available in Spanish as well as in English.) Similar pocket guides on American Indian/Alaska Native children and Asian American children are planned for later this year.

Finally, KIDS COUNT and the Population Reference Bureau jointly released *The Growing Number of Kids in Severely Distressed Neighborhoods: Evidence from the 2000 Census*, the latest report in their KIDS COUNT/PRB series of reports on Census 2000. This report focuses on the 4.4 million children growing up in severely distressed neighborhoods—neighborhoods that have high percentages of persons in poverty, female-headed families, high school dropouts, and working-age males unattached to the labor force.

Interested persons may view each of the above reports online at the KIDS COUNT website (www.kidscount.org). The KIDS COUNT/PRB report on kids in distressed neighborhoods are also available at PRB's Ameristat website (www.ameristat.org). In addition, free print copies may be ordered, either by visiting the KIDS COUNT website or by calling the Casey Foundation publications line at 410-223-2890.

**WILLIAM P. BUTZ NAMED NEW PRESIDENT OF
POPULATION REFERENCE BUREAU**

Edited From PRB Press Release

The Population Reference Bureau (PRB) has appointed William P. Butz, senior economist at RAND, and formerly an administrator at the U.S. Census Bureau and the National Science Foundation, as president of the Washington, D.C.-based research organization. He begins his duties October 15.

Butz succeeds Peter J. Donaldson as PRB's president. Donaldson resigned in May 2003 after nine years to join the Population Council as a vice president. Since then, James E. Scott, PRB's director of finance and administration, has been acting president.

William Butz received a B.A. in economics from Indiana University and completed coursework for a Ph.D. in economics from the University of Chicago. He has published more than 80 research and policy papers in journals, in edited volumes, and in other outlets on a variety of topics related to economic demography, nutrition and health, and statistical and social science policy. He has conducted research or provided technical assistance in 28 countries as well as the United States.

Butz is an experienced survey director, applied econometrician, statistical system administrator, science policy executive, and policy adviser. Most recently, his research has focused on the adequacy of the scientific and technical work force in the United States; the technology transfer process that links basic science to industrial production; implications of the worldwide adoption patterns of genetically modified crops; and migration policy options for the European Union.

Prior to joining RAND, Butz served as division director for social and economic sciences at the National Science Foundation in Washington, D.C., between 1995 and 2001. As associate director for demographic programs at the U.S. Census Bureau between 1983 and 1995, he was responsible for the development and implementation of numerous surveys, as well as the Census Bureau's extensive international research, training, and technical assistance programs.

Butz has served on the boards of directors and advisory boards of a number of government agencies, professional associations, and other organizations, including the Population Association of America, and is currently a member of the board of reviewing editors of *Science* magazine.

According to its mission statement, PRB is the leader in providing timely and objective information on U.S. and international population trends and their implications. PRB will be celebrating the 75th anniversary of its founding during 2004.

EDITOR'S NOTE: The full text of the press release is available at the Population Reference Bureau's website (www.prb.org).

**EMPLOYMENT OPPORTUNITIES
United Nations, Population Division**

The United Nations Population Division has two posts currently open for recruitment of mid-career professionals specializing in population studies. One of the vacancies is located in the Population and Development Section, and the other is in the Population Policy Section.

Candidates for these posts (which are at the P-3 level of the International Civil Service classification) should have at least five (5) years of relevant professional experience, in addition to time spent in graduate training.

The vacancy announcements and instructions for submitting an application are posted on the Internet at <https://jobs.un.org/>.

**DEADLINE FOR APPLICATIONS:
October 6, 2003**

CENSUS BUREAU RELEASES COUNTY-LEVEL RACE AND HISPANIC ORIGIN POPULATION ESTIMATES FOR 2002

By Kelvin Pollard, Population Reference Bureau

In September, the U.S. Census Bureau released new county-level population estimates by age, sex, and race/Hispanic origin. The estimates, the first since the 2000 census, are as of July 1, 2002, for all 3,141 counties and county equivalents in the United States.

Among the Bureau's findings:

- Los Angeles County, Calif., had the largest number of Hispanics (4.5 million in 2002), Asian Americans (1.3 million), and American Indians (156,000). Cook County, Ill., which contains Chicago, had the most African Americans (1.4 million), while Native Hawaiians and Other Pacific Islanders were most numerous in Honolulu County, Hawaii (179,000).
- Among counties with populations of at least 100,000, blacks were 68 percent of the population in Orleans Parish, La. (where New Orleans is located); Hispanics were 95 percent of residents of Webb County, Tex. (on the Mexican border); and 50 percent of Navajo County, Ariz., residents were American Indian. Not surprisingly, Hawaiian counties had the largest shares of Asians (Honolulu County, 60 percent) and Pacific Islanders (Hawaii County, 30 percent).

- While counties with the largest post-2000 numerical increases in the population of a given minority group tended to be counties with already numerous populations (for example, Los Angeles County gained the most number of Hispanics and Asians), counties with historically small presence of minorities had the largest percentage increases. For example, Forsyth County, Ga., in suburban Atlanta, more than doubled its Asian population between 2000 and 2002, and nearly doubled its African American population in that time. Another metropolitan Atlanta county (Henry County, Ga.) saw its Hispanic population increase 46 percent since Census 2000.
- With 36 percent of the total population in 2002, children under 18 were most common in Webb County, Tex. Older persons (age 65 and older) were most prevalent in Charlotte County, Fla. (on the Gulf Coast), which had 34 percent of the population—nearly three times the national average.

The new estimates, from the Census Bureau's Population Division, are available online at the Bureau's website (<http://eire.census.gov/popest/data/counties/coasro.php>).

Applied Demography — Call for Submissions

APPLIED DEMOGRAPHERS...

Do you have some earth-shattering research?
Have you got a groundbreaking publication that's just been released?
Are you looking to hire a cracker-jack research assistant?

HOW ABOUT SHARING THIS INFORMATION WITH YOUR COLLEAGUES?

Short articles, book reviews, blurbs of upcoming (or recently released) publications, job announcements...they're all welcome. We also request contact information (in case we need to reach you to clarify something).

Please send all submissions to:

Kelvin Pollard, Editor, Applied Demography, Population Reference Bureau, 1875 Connecticut Avenue NW, Suite 520, Washington, DC 20009-5728 (phone: 202-939-5424; fax: 202-328-3937; e-mail: kelvinp@prb.org)



Remember, Applied Demography is YOUR newsletter! Help make it great!

REMEMBERING MINNEAPOLIS...HIGHLIGHTS FROM PAA 2003



This sign needs no explanation.

EARLY PREPARATIONS

At important gatherings like PAA, it takes preparation for everything to run smoothly, from organizing the sessions and events to setting up the display booths just before registration.



Setting up the Census Bureau display.



Getting everything in place.



Ellen Carnevale works to get the Population Reference Bureau booth from looking like this...



...to looking like this!

AT THE PAA MIXER

One of PAA's major social events...a time to renew old friendships (and perhaps to start new ones!)



(L-R) Bill O'Hare (Annie E. Casey Foundation), Ed Hodges (Claritas, Inc.), and Tom Godfrey (Decision Demographics).



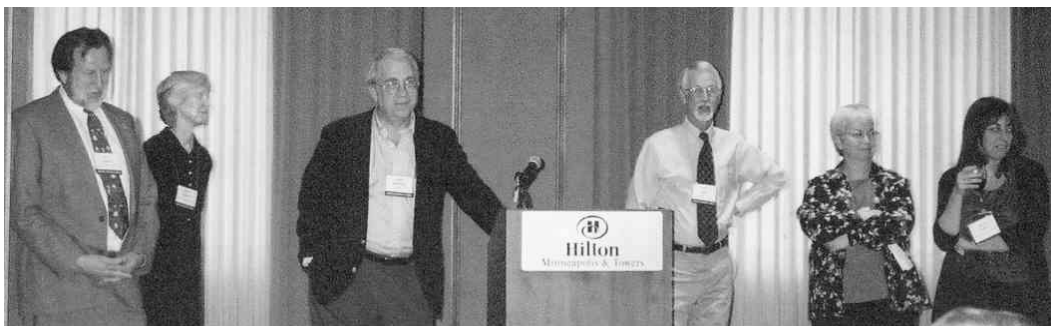
Kelvin Pollard (Population Reference Bureau) and Omer Galle (University of Texas at Austin).



(L-R) Jerry Wicks (Senecio Software, Inc.), Judith Bannister (Javelin Investments), and Mary Kent (Population Reference Bureau).

APPLIED DEMOGRAPHY RECEPTION

PAA's Committee on Applied Demography held a reception on Thursday evening, May 1. During the gathering, a panel of professionals discussed their work in an effort to illustrate the careers available in applied demography. The committee would like to thank not only the panelists for their participation, but also the Annie E. Casey Foundation and the Population Reference Bureau for sponsoring the event.



Our distinguished panelists take questions. (L-R): Bill O'Hare (Annie E. Casey Foundation), Martha McMurray (Minnesota State Planning Agency), Peter Morrison (RAND), Stan Smith (University of Florida and Chair, Committee on Applied Demography), Signe Wetrogan (U.S. Census Bureau), and Shelley Lapkoff (Lapkoff and Gobalet Demographic Research).



John Haaga (Population Reference Bureau), Andrew Beveridge (Queens College and Graduate Center, City University of New York), Peter Morrison (RAND), and Dowell Myers (University of Southern California).



Sandy and Jerry Wicks (Senecio Software, Inc.) share a moment after the presentation.



Greg Robinson (U.S. Census Bureau) with John McHenry (Demographic Data for Decision-Making, Inc.).

ON THE TOWN

Although the PAA calendar is packed with interesting sessions and events, there's always time to explore the host city..and Minneapolis proved to be no exception.



Minneapolis's historic mill district.



Bill O'Hare (Annie E. Casey Foundation), John McHenry (Demographic Data for Decision-Making, Inc.), and Kelvin Pollard (Population Reference Bureau) enjoy dinner downtown.



Who can turn the world on with their smiles? Kelvin Pollard (Population Reference Bureau) next to the Mary Tyler Moore statue downtown.



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