The 2022 Florida Price Level Index

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The Florida Price Level Index (FPLI) was established by the Legislature as the basis for the District Cost Differential (DCD) in the Florida Education Finance Program (FEFP). The FPLI is a comparable wage index representing the relative cost of personnel among Florida's school districts. The FPLI is based on data for hundreds of occupations across Florida's 67 counties collected by the Florida Department of Economic Opportunity's Bureau of Workforce Statistics and Economic Research as part of the U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics' Occupational Employment and Wage Statistics survey (OEWS). Table 1 presents the 2022 FPLI, along with the 2021 and 2020 indices.[1]

Table 1: The 2022 Florida Price Level Index

County	2022	2021	2020	County	2022	2021	2020
Alachua	97.79	97.77	97.12	Lake	95.40	95.21	97.46
Baker	92.91	92.56	96.21	Lee	100.82	100.96	102.75
Bay	97.13	96.49	95.94	Leon	95.83	96.91	96.10
Bradford	91.84	90.31	95.58	Levy	90.57	90.41	93.97
Brevard	99.90	99.41	98.64	Liberty	90.85	88.37	91.52
Broward	103.38	103.25	102.06	Madison	88.97	89.12	90.09
Calhoun	88.58	87.86	91.54	Manatee	99.46	99.49	99.42
Charlotte	96.06	96.79	98.68	Marion	92.96	93.31	93.51
Citrus	91.69	92.38	93.25	Martin	100.64	101.86	102.11
Clay	96.27	95.90	98.13	Monroe	104.07	106.78	106.51
Collier	105.81	106.70	106.45	Nassau	98.11	97.82	98.69
Columbia	92.64	91.89	92.78	Okaloosa	99.75	98.78	98.59
Dade	102.56	102.34	101.96	Okeechobee	92.30	91.51	97.44
De Soto	91.76	91.89	97.55	Orange	101.25	101.50	100.78
Dixie	89.35	87.40	92.23	Osceola	97.83	97.84	98.46
Duval	101.23	101.05	100.43	Palm Beach	105.35	105.78	105.45
Escambia	97.64	96.94	96.79	Pasco	97.56	96.87	98.10
Flagler	93.32	94.11	94.80	Pinellas	100.59	100.52	100.03
Franklin	91.03	91.73	90.81	Polk	97.06	96.82	96.08
Gadsden	91.25	91.30	93.62	Putnam	92.01	90.56	94.38
Gilchrist	91.22	90.02	94.03	Saint Johns	99.25	99.66	100.26
Glades	91.65	92.46	98.77	Saint Lucie	97.09	97.09	100.20
Gulf	92.36	92.13	92.54	Santa Rosa	95.20	93.81	95.85
Hamilton	90.37	88.58	89.99	Sarasota	101.68	102.55	101.94
Hardee	91.28	91.45	96.31	Seminole	99.02	99.36	99.24
Hendry	93.25	92.83	100.25	Sumter	96.96	97.11	96.20
Hernando	93.99	92.46	96.07	Suwannee	90.29	90.07	90.77
Highlands	89.81	91.52	94.65	Taylor	90.69	89.80	90.24
Hillsborough	101.60	101.33	100.73	Union	89.95	89.08	94.37
Holmes	87.87	87.69	92.12	Volusia	94.26	94.81	95.67
Indian River	99.73	99.75	99.93	Wakulla	92.79	92.36	93.73
Jackson	91.11	90.35	90.08	Walton	98.08	98.74	98.03
Jefferson	89.39	90.39	93.33	Washington	90.40	89.48	92.25
Lafayette	88.83	88.32	90.45				

[1] This report is available at http://www.fldoe.org/fefp/. All FPLI reports for the 2002 FPLI forward and a file with the results for every year the FPLI has been published (1973 onward) may be found on the project log at https://www.researchgate.net/project/Florida-Price-Level-Index.

The Distribution of the FPLI

The FPLI is constructed so that the population-weighted state average is 100, though this does not impact the relative comparison between any two counties. The median Floridian, ranked by 2022 county FPLI, lives in Duval County, with an index value of 101.23. That is, less than half of Floridians live in counties with index values greater than 101.23, less than half live in counties with index values less than 101.23, and the rest live in Duval County.

Figure 1 displays the distribution of the FPLI across Florida. As population density increases, workers face higher housing costs, longer commutes, or both. This reduces the supply of labor, thereby increasing wages. Thus, though many things affect FPLI values, counties that are more populous tend to have higher values. Five counties with FPLI values of 102 or more contain 30.5% of Florida's population. Fifteen counties with values from 98 to 101.99 contain 39.4% of the population. Twenty-four counties with values from 92 to 97.99 contain 26.6% of the population. Finally, 3.4% of Floridians live in the twenty-three counties with values below 92.

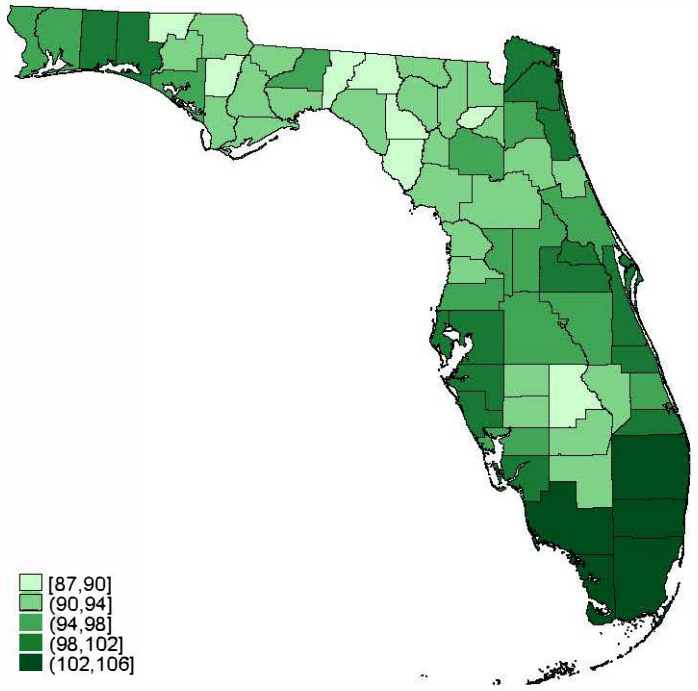
What the FPLI Measures

The DCD represents the relative cost of procuring a standard set of educational inputs among Florida's 67 school districts. Differences in the DCD reflect differences in input prices. Differences in the quantity of inputs required due to differences in student characteristics or geographic characteristics are captured by different elements of the FEFP.

Based on historical expenditure data, the DCD assumes 20% of operating expenditures are on items with approximately the same price everywhere, for example paper. The other 80% are for labor, including teachers, aides, janitors, cafeteria workers, principals, secretaries, and other personnel employed by school districts. The FPLI measures these labor costs.

To see more precisely what the FPLI represents, imagine there are only two districts, A and B, with equal size classes. Each employs one aide for every two teachers and no other workers. In A teachers cost $50,000 and aides cost $30,000. In B teachers cost $70,000 and aides cost $50,000. The average cost of a teacher is $60,000 and the average cost of an aide is $40,000. The teacher share of the state labor bill is 6/(6+4/2)=3/4 and the aide share is 1/4. The wage relative to the state average in A

Figure 1



is 5/6 for teachers and 3/4 for aides. The relative cost of labor in A is (3/4)(5/6)+(1/4)(3/4)=0.8125 and in B it is (3/4)(7/6)+(1/4)(5/4)=1.1875. If the world were this simple, the FPLI would be 81.25 in A and 118.75 in B.

This simple example illustrates the construct the FPLI represents—a fixed weight price level index for labor procured by Florida's school districts. However, in practice we cannot rely on school wage data to calculate the FPLI. Why? Districts may reach different decisions regarding qualifications or pay structure. Such differences impact wages but do not reflect cost conditions. As a result, a district that decided to pay higher wages than required to hire a standard teacher would receive higher FEFP funding, creating an incentive to inflate costs. Instead, a comparable wage index that does not depend on district decisions is used.

The Comparable Wage Approach[2]

The idea behind a comparable wage index is to select occupations that are comparable to school jobs and use wages in those occupations as the basis for measuring relative personnel costs. In what way must they be comparable? The example above makes this clear—in the pattern of relative wages.

What determines whether relative wage patterns are similar? One crucial factor is the state average in-

[2] For additional technical details on the methodology, see Jim Dewey (2022) *Florida Price Level Index Methodology—Revised January 2022*, which may be found under the project log at https://www.researchgate.net/project/Florida-Price-Level-Index.

come for an occupation. Though a worker's actual income depends on where they take a job, their potential income, represented by the state average for their occupation, influences the way the supply of labor in that occupation to a location varies with housing costs and perceived amenities.

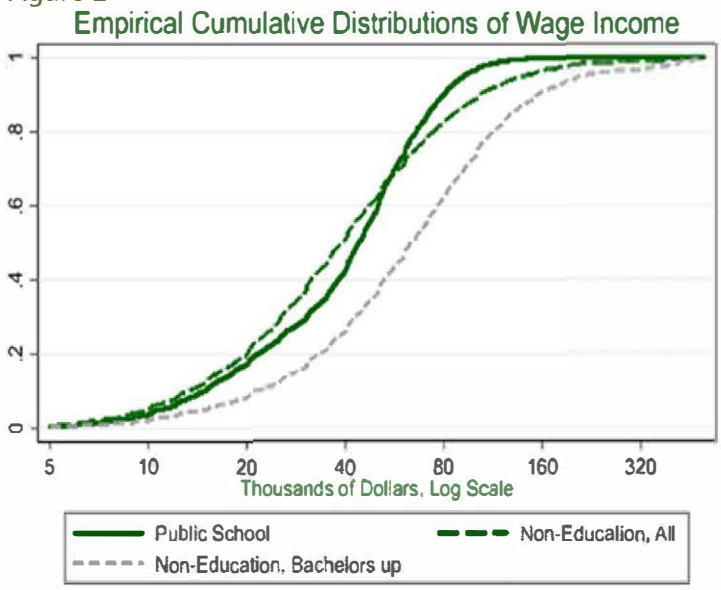
The FPLI relies on data from the OEWS survey, which is based on a massive employer sample. The calculation uses all occupations. This is because the distribution of wages for all occupations is similar to the distribution for school workers, as shown in Figure 2. Insofar as the relative wage pattern of school workers depends on income, it should resemble the pattern for all workers.

One might argue that the subset of workers with bachelor's degrees is more suitable, since teachers must hold one. Using data from the American Community Survey (ACS) instead of the OEWS would allow selecting that subset. This, however, misses two crucial points. First, 17% of the public-school labor bill is paid to workers without bachelor's degrees. Second, public-school workers with a degree earn less than the average worker with a degree. As Figure 2 shows, the wage distribution for workers with bachelor's degrees is shifted well to the right of the distribution for public school workers.

Using the ACS data would also allow controlling for individual worker characteristics other than occupation, potentially improving precision. However, there is another reason to use the OEWS data—the ACS data represents far fewer workers. Further analysis suggests the gain in precision from using the larger OEWS sample outweighs the gain from controlling for other worker characteristics using ACS data. Moreover, in many districts there is too little ACS data to calculate an index.[3] Columns 1 and 2 of Table 2 at the end of this report list the number of occupations and employees represented in a complete OEWS survey for each county.

The FPLI accounts for another factor that systematically shapes occupational relative wage patterns—employment density at each occupation's typical employment location. Workers in jobs in relatively high-density locations within an area, such as Budget Analysts, face more variation in housing costs between areas than workers in relatively low-density locations, such as Machinists. This moderates the impact of between area differences in housing prices on the supply of workers.

Figure 2



Based on national ACS data, within local labor markets the density at the location of the typical school job is 12% below average. Selecting the subsample of occupations with relative employment densities comparable to school jobs would result in insufficient data to accurately estimate the FPLI. Therefore, the FPLI calculation controls statistically for the interaction of occupational relative employment density and county population.

Prior to 2003. From 1973 through 2002, the FPLI was an index of the relative cost of the basket of goods and services purchased by the typical Floridian, similar to the Consumer Price Index, albeit in a spatial context. This approach was adopted since data suitable for a comparable wage index was unavailable. The rationale was that all else equal, wages adjust for differences in prices, particularly housing prices.

That construct was subject to numerous challenges to accurate measurement. Moreover, even if measured perfectly, the construct systematically misrepresents labor costs. Other things being equal, places that are more productive, and thus more attractive to business, will have higher wages and housing prices, while places that are more pleasant in which to live, and thus more attractive to workers, will have lower wages but higher housing prices. Estimates of relative wage and price patterns imply the consumer market basket approach yields an index which less accurately reflects labor costs than would making no adjustment at all.[4]

[3] For more information, see Jim Dewey, (2019) *Comparing the Florida Price Level Index and the Comparable Wage Index for Teachers*, available at https://www.researchgate.net/publication/337716504.

[4] Jim Dewey, (2005) *Improvements to the 2003 Florida Price Level Index*, available at https://www.researchgate.net/publication/33839073O.

The FPLI Calculation[5]

Initial Estimate The first step in the FPLI calculation is to make an initial estimate of relative wage differences between counties, holding occupation constant. This means a county's index is not impacted by its share of workers in high wage occupations, but rather by having higher or lower wages within occupations.

With perfect data, the calculation would proceed like the hypothetical above. The first step would be to calculate the ratio of the average wage for each occupation in each county to the occupation's state average wage. The second step would be to average these ratios for each county using weights representing each occupation's share in the state labor bill.

However, not every occupation is observed in every county, so this method is infeasible. Therefore, the relative wage ratio is estimated using a linear regression model relating the natural log of the average wage in a specific county and occupation to county and occupation indicator variables. The natural log is used since wages are strictly positive and best thought of in relative terms.

To account for the impact of relative occupational density, we obtain data on worker location within labor markets from the ACS.[6] We use this data to estimate the relative average employment density for each occupation. That is, imagine asking each worker in a city how many workers there are per square mile near their workplace, averaging those answers for each occupation in the city, taking the ratio of that average to the city average, and then averaging these ratios across cities for each occupation. This represents the construct behind the measure used. The interaction of relative occupational density with population is included in the regression to control for the effects of differences in relative occupational density on effective housing cost differentials and thereby on relative wage patterns.

Columns 3 and 4 of Table 2 provide the initial log index estimate and its standard error. An increase of 0.01 in a county's log index represents approximately a 1% increase in the relative wage.[7]

Smoothing.[8] Prior to adoption of the current methodology, otherwise similar counties sometimes had very different FPLI values though the estimates' margins of error were large, meaning there was little evidence that the difference was real. Similarly, the law of one price implies wages in nearby counties cannot sustainably differ more than the cost of commuting between them. If the wage difference is larger, workers have an incentive to commute from the low wage county to the high wage county, increasing the supply of workers in the latter and reducing it in the former, reducing the wage difference. However, in some cases the difference between FPLI values in neighboring counties was large enough to cast doubt on their plausibility. To improve accuracy, the initial index calculation is smoothed to address both statistical similarity and geographic proximity between counties.

The smoothing process minimizes the population weighted sum of squared differences between the final smoothed index and both the initial index and the index value expected in statistically similar counties. The differences are expressed relative to the indices' standard errors, accounting for the precision of the estimates. Minimization is subject to the constraint that the difference between the wage in every pair of counties is no greater than the cost of commuting between them. The resulting index is thus a geographically constrained minimum mean square error estimate.

Predicted Index. Estimating the relationship between the initial index estimate and other county characteristics using linear regression is a preliminary step in smoothing. This relationship is used to determine index values expected in statistically similar counties, referred to as the predicted index. For the 2022 FPLI the county characteristics used were labor earnings per employee, the share of dividends, interest, and rents in personal income, and the share of transfer payments in personal income. These characteristics account for over 80% of the variation in the initial index. Columns 5 and 6 of Table 2 provide the predicted index and its standard error.

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[5] The data and Stata code for FPLI calculations from the 2006 FPLI on are at https://drive.google.com/drive/folders/146wFMB5jdaHIFuS40Wcz3peFHGUICIqn?usp=sharing.

[6] Steven Ruggles, Sarah Flood, Sophia Foster, Ronald Goeken, Jose Pacas, Megan Schouweiler and Matthew Sobek. IPUMS USA: Version 12.0. American Community Survey 2020 5-Year Sample. Minneapolis, MN: IPUMS, 2022. https://doi.org/10.18128/D010.V12.0. Accessed 1-17-2022. The ACS survey is conducted by the U.S. Census Bureau.

[7] Note $e^{0.01} \approx 1.01$, where $e \approx 2.718$ is the base of the natural logarithm.

[8] The methodology for smoothing was updated for the 2021 FPLI. Reasons for the change were discussed in the 2020 FPLI report and are further discussed in Jim Dewey (2022) *Rationale for the Change to Geographic Smoothing Proposed for the 2020 FPLI and Implemented with the 2021 FPLI*. Both are available under the project log at https://www.researchgate.net/project/Florida-Price-Level-Index.

Commuting Cost. Estimating the cost of commuting between county pairs is accomplished by identifying the two elementary, middle, and high schools in each county nearest two schools of the same level in each other county, provided the straight-line distance does not exceed fifty miles, and estimating the commute time and driving distance between them.[9] These are averaged to estimate incremental commute time and distance. The value of time commuting is assumed to be half the wage rate, based on guidance from the US Department of Transportation. Monetary costs are estimated using cost per mile from the American Automobile Association.

When the Geographic Constraint does not Bind. Many counties are not directly impacted by the geographic constraint. In such cases the smoothed index is a weighted average of the initial and predicted indices. The weights depend on the standard errors of the indices. Consider the entries for Alachua County in columns 3-6 of Table 2. Rounding to three digits, the log index is:

$$\frac{0.005^2}{0.005^2+0.004^2}(-0.033)+\frac{0.004^2}{0.005^2+0.004^2}(-0.005)=-0.021.$$

Generally, the smoothed index is nearer the initial estimate when the initial estimate it is more accurate. Differences between statistically similar counties persist only if justified by the precision of the estimates.

When the Geographic Constraint Binds. In practice, cases where the geographic constraint binds involve a more populous county with higher wages and a less populous county with lower wages. At the same time, in practice the initial and predicted indices are estimated less precisely in less populous counties where there is less data and more precisely in more populous counties where there is more data. As a result, in cases where the constraint is binding, smoothing reduces the index slightly in the more populous county and increases it a larger amount in the less populous county.

Consider the entries for Baker County and Duval County in columns 3-7 of Table 2. If the geographic constraint were not binding, the log index would be -0.0806 in less populous Baker and 0.0139 in more populous Duval. However, Baker borders Duval, and that difference in relative wages exceeds the commute cost estimate. Thus, the estimate for Baker is raised to -0.0725 and the estimate for Duval is lowered, but only to 0.0132. Generally, when the geographic constraint binds, the smoothed index is increased in the lower wage county and decreased in the higher wage county, moving more in the county with less precisely estimated indices.

Impact on School Funding

Florida adjusts state funding to provide all students access to substantially equal educational services appropriate to their needs. Allocations are made at the district level and represent district average conditions. Allocations within districts are up to the districts. Adjustments are made for differences in the value of the local property tax base and in operating costs.[10] Indeed, the economic factors that create differences in the property tax base also create differences in costs, so the same reasoning that leads to adjustment of funding for tax base differences leads to adjustment for cost differences.

Cost differences depend on differences in the quantity of inputs needed and on input prices. Differences in the quantity of inputs needed are represented by FEFP elements like Program Cost Factors, the ESE Guaranteed Allocation, and the Sparsity Supplement. The DCD adjusts for input price differences.

Figure 3 illustrates the relative importance of the DCD in 2018-2019 school funding. The grey circular markers represent the counterfactual in which the state does not equalize resources. The flat line represents the counterfactual in which all funds are allocated on an equal per student basis with no regard for cost differences. The vertical distance between unequalized funding and flat funding illustrates the largest effect of the FEFP—allocating more state funding to students in districts with less taxable value per student.

The grey triangles indicate funding if the DCD were eliminated, all else equal. The difference between funding with no DCD and flat funding represents the combined impact of all adjustments other than the DCD. The squares indicate actual funding. The difference between actual funding and funding with no DCD indicates the impact of the DCD. For most districts it is small compared to equalization for differences in the tax base.

[9] We use the Florida Department of Education's Master School ID file at https://eds.fldoe.org/EDS/MasterSchoolID/ and the HERE geocoding application at https://developer.here.com/develop/javascript-api.

[10] For more detail on school funding in Florida, see the Florida Department of Education report *2021-22 Funding for Florida School Districts* at http://www.fldoe.org/core/fileparse.php/7507/urlt/Fefpdist.pdf.

Figure 3

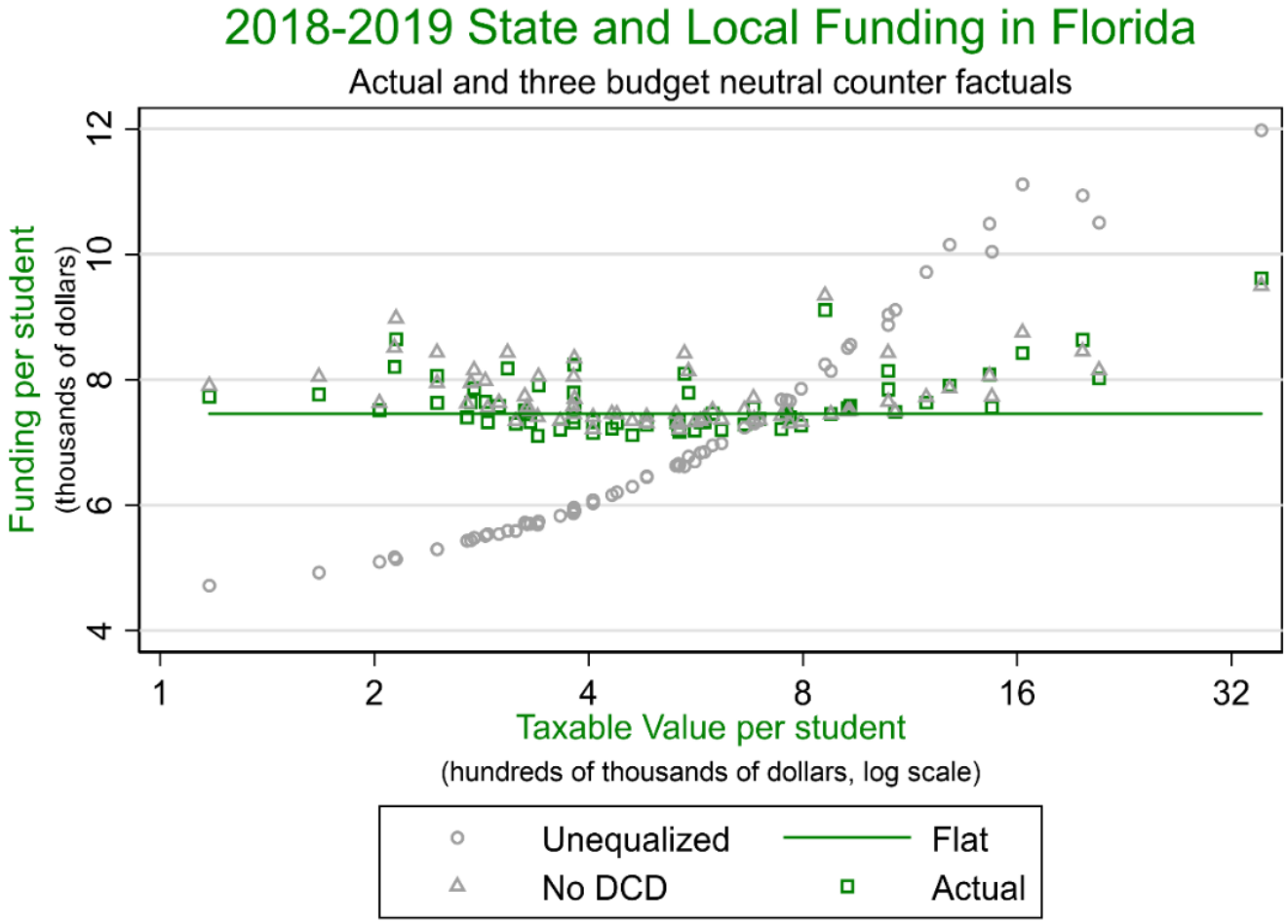
2018-2019 State and Local Funding in Florida
Actual and three budget neutral counter factuals
Funding per student
(thousands of dollars)
4
6
8
10
12
1
2
4
8
16
32
Taxable Value per student
(hundreds of thousands of dollars, log scale)
Unequalized
Flat
No DCD
Actual

Table 2: Additional Detail

	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)
	Average OEWS Responses		Log Initial Estimate		Log Predicted Index		Log Smoothed Index		
County	Occupations	Workers	Value	Std Err	Value	Std Err	Without Geo	With Geo	FPLI
Alachua	333	52156	-0.0332	0.0041	-0.0050	0.0048	-0.0213	-0.0213	97.79
Baker	39	1960	-0.0537	0.0122	-0.0860	0.0055	-0.0806	-0.0725	92.91
Bay	275	30277	-0.0273	0.0046	-0.0286	0.0034	-0.0282	-0.0282	97.13
Bradford	38	1513	-0.0625	0.0124	-0.0874	0.0048	-0.0842	-0.0841	91.84
Brevard	358	99140	0.0030	0.0039	-0.0053	0.0050	-0.0001	0.0000	99.90
Broward	424	355725	0.0408	0.0034	0.0230	0.0044	0.0341	0.0342	103.38
Calhoun	24	587	-0.1460	0.0155	-0.1166	0.0058	-0.1203	-0.1202	88.58
Charlotte	194	20745	-0.0432	0.0054	-0.0548	0.0055	-0.0489	-0.0393	96.06
Citrus	175	12888	-0.0939	0.0057	-0.0746	0.0067	-0.0858	-0.0858	91.69
Clay	173	20801	-0.0362	0.0057	-0.0414	0.0038	-0.0398	-0.0370	96.27
Collier	307	67576	0.0629	0.0042	0.0512	0.0071	0.0599	0.0575	105.81
Columbia	146	8457	-0.0784	0.0063	-0.0743	0.0041	-0.0755	-0.0755	92.64
Dade	445	470486	0.0287	0.0032	0.0195	0.0053	0.0262	0.0262	102.56
Desoto	55	1944	-0.0514	0.0103	-0.0937	0.0052	-0.0851	-0.0850	91.76
Dixie	19	438	-0.1014	0.0175	-0.1125	0.0054	-0.1116	-0.1116	89.35
Duval	417	228310	0.0127	0.0035	0.0186	0.0069	0.0139	0.0132	101.23
Escambia	318	62295	-0.0274	0.0042	-0.0159	0.0052	-0.0229	-0.0229	97.64
Flagler	127	9022	-0.0753	0.0067	-0.0627	0.0059	-0.0682	-0.0682	93.32
Franklin	26	824	-0.0764	0.0150	-0.0952	0.0054	-0.0930	-0.0930	91.03
Gadsden	89	4357	-0.1124	0.0081	-0.0849	0.0041	-0.0905	-0.0906	91.25
Gilchrist	26	620	-0.0927	0.0150	-0.0907	0.0057	-0.0909	-0.0909	91.22
Glades	13	134	-0.0145	0.0211	-0.0927	0.0063	-0.0863	-0.0862	91.65
Gulf	25	659	-0.0562	0.0153	-0.0811	0.0051	-0.0786	-0.0785	92.36
Hamilton	11	314	-0.1033	0.0223	-0.0998	0.0089	-0.1003	-0.1003	90.37
Hardee	55	1410	-0.0751	0.0103	-0.0942	0.0052	-0.0903	-0.0903	91.28
Hendry	66	2013	-0.0537	0.0095	-0.0734	0.0051	-0.0690	-0.0689	93.25
Hernando	137	13500	-0.0454	0.0064	-0.0720	0.0054	-0.0609	-0.0610	93.99
Highlands	148	8712	-0.1262	0.0062	-0.0876	0.0061	-0.1066	-0.1065	89.81
Hillsborough	402	272262	0.0224	0.0035	0.0231	0.0056	0.0226	0.0168	101.60
Holmes	25	423	-0.1540	0.0153	-0.1232	0.0068	-0.1283	-0.1283	87.87
Indian River	230	24032	-0.0144	0.0050	0.0081	0.0044	-0.0017	-0.0017	99.73
Jackson	101	4085	-0.1023	0.0076	-0.0886	0.0045	-0.0922	-0.0922	91.11
Jefferson	18	328	-0.1251	0.0181	-0.1074	0.0095	-0.1112	-0.1112	89.39
Lafayette	8	143	-0.1231	0.0272	-0.1171	0.0067	-0.1174	-0.1174	88.83
Lake	242	42562	-0.0452	0.0048	-0.0469	0.0048	-0.0461	-0.0461	95.40
Lee	361	115370	0.0094	0.0038	0.0070	0.0044	0.0084	0.0091	100.82
Leon	316	62845	-0.0677	0.0042	-0.0038	0.0050	-0.0413	-0.0416	95.83
Levy	66	2490	-0.1040	0.0094	-0.0964	0.0049	-0.0980	-0.0980	90.57
Liberty	9	133	-0.0602	0.0253	-0.0985	0.0081	-0.0950	-0.0949	90.85
Madison	32	593	-0.1478	0.0134	-0.1110	0.0053	-0.1160	-0.1159	88.97
Manatee	301	55351	0.0065	0.0043	-0.0115	0.0034	-0.0046	-0.0044	99.46
Marion	285	46392	-0.0804	0.0044	-0.0550	0.0062	-0.0719	-0.0720	92.96
Martin	239	27825	0.0023	0.0049	0.0150	0.0060	0.0074	0.0074	100.64
Monroe	193	15623	0.0500	0.0056	0.0212	0.0082	0.0408	0.0409	104.07
Nassau	99	6477	-0.0078	0.0076	-0.0223	0.0048	-0.0181	-0.0181	98.11
Okaloosa	287	37065	-0.0037	0.0045	0.0038	0.0070	-0.0015	-0.0015	99.75
Okeechobee	73	3405	-0.0696	0.0089	-0.0818	0.0048	-0.0791	-0.0791	92.30
Orange	423	340716	0.0181	0.0034	0.0153	0.0045	0.0171	0.0134	101.25
Osceola	210	38877	-0.0383	0.0051	-0.0633	0.0061	-0.0486	-0.0210	97.83
Palm Beach	411	258372	0.0508	0.0035	0.0606	0.0062	0.0531	0.0531	105.35
Pasco	238	50518	-0.0430	0.0047	-0.0406	0.0045	-0.0418	-0.0237	97.56
Pinellas	395	204691	0.0065	0.0036	0.0074	0.0044	0.0069	0.0069	100.59
Polk	344	97050	-0.0296	0.0039	-0.0279	0.0045	-0.0288	-0.0288	97.06
Putnam	97	4886	-0.0825	0.0077	-0.0822	0.0055	-0.0823	-0.0823	92.01
Saint Johns	219	29108	-0.0129	0.0050	0.0062	0.0072	-0.0066	-0.0065	99.25
Saint Lucie	255	32215	-0.0089	0.0047	-0.0475	0.0046	-0.0286	-0.0286	97.09
Santa Rosa	179	14461	-0.0726	0.0056	-0.0351	0.0041	-0.0482	-0.0482	95.20
Sarasota	331	78196	0.0276	0.0041	0.0120	0.0042	0.0200	0.0177	101.68
Seminole	304	86363	-0.0163	0.0042	-0.0014	0.0042	-0.0089	-0.0088	99.02
Sumter	164	13100	-0.0276	0.0059	-0.0336	0.0074	-0.0299	-0.0299	96.96
Suwannee	71	3204	-0.1256	0.0090	-0.0949	0.0046	-0.1012	-0.1012	90.29
Taylor	56	1395	-0.1079	0.0102	-0.0927	0.0062	-0.0968	-0.0967	90.69
Union	12	334	-0.1328	0.0218	-0.1024	0.0065	-0.1049	-0.1049	89.95
Volusia	341	71791	-0.0752	0.0040	-0.0320	0.0049	-0.0579	-0.0581	94.26
Wakulla	30	819	-0.0828	0.0138	-0.0718	0.0067	-0.0739	-0.0739	92.79
Walton	140	11559	-0.0243	0.0065	-0.0100	0.0077	-0.0184	-0.0184	98.08
Washington	44	1172	-0.0928	0.0115	-0.1012	0.0049	-0.0999	-0.0999	90.40