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Long-Term Unemployment in the United States

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LONG-TERM UNEMPLOYMENT IN THE UNITED STATES

There have been a number of promising signs in the labor market in recent months. The unemployment rate has been below 8% since September 2012, down from the recession high of 10% in October 2009.¹ Currently, the unemployment rate is 7.6%, the lowest rate in four years. Private-sector employers have added more than 1.2 million jobs in the past six months, and hiring has been widespread throughout the private sector, with nearly all industries adding jobs over the past year.²

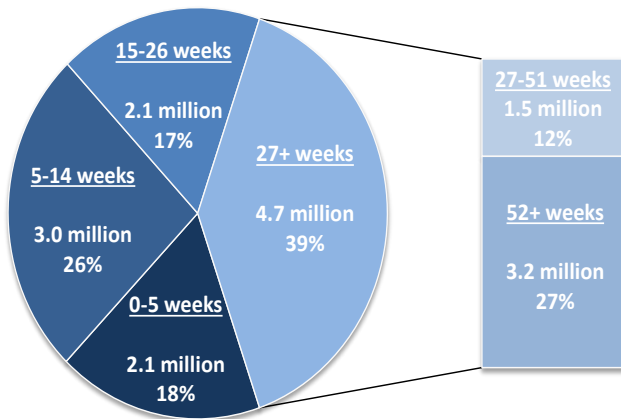
This report examines long-term unemployment in the United States. It investigates the demographics of the unemployed to determine which groups experience higher rates of long-term unemployment, including analysis of the roles of age, ethnicity, education, gender, and occupation. The report highlights the differences in long-term unemployment rates among the states, and examines how the duration of unemployment affects an individual's likelihood of finding a job.

While the labor market is healing from the Great Recession, U.S. workers still face a shortage of employment opportunities. Nearly 12 million people remain unemployed—4.1 million more than at the start of the recession.³ The most recent data show there are just over three unemployed workers for every job opening.⁴ That ratio has fallen significantly from its peak of nearly seven workers per opening in July 2009, but is still above the pre-recession ratio of fewer than two workers per opening.

More worrisome is the long duration of unemployment that has become a hallmark of the recent recession and recovery. Even after adjusting for the size of the labor force, the long-term unemployment rate remains well above the prevailing rate heading into the recession.⁵ As of March 2013, 3.0% of the civilian work force has been out of work for over six months, and 2.1% has been out for over one year. **(Figure 1)** That means that of the 11.8 million unemployed workers, 39.4% (4.7 million people) have been searching for work for over six months (the definition of long-term unemployed), and over one-quarter (3.2 million or 27.0% of the unemployed) have been out of work for a year or more (the definition of very-long-term unemployed). **(Figure 2)**



Figure 2. Share of the unemployed by duration
March 2013, Not seasonally adjusted



Source: Democratic staff of the Joint Economic Committee based on data from the Bureau of Labor Statistics.

A recession as severe as the one the U.S. economy has endured can cause a permanent rise in unemployment.⁶ At the same time, employers in certain industries have reported having a difficult time filling vacancies, despite the large number of Americans searching for work.⁷ As job searches drag on, skills atrophy and networks fade, making it harder for the long-term unemployed to find work. In addition, technological advancements and shifts in high-growth sectors of the economy likely mean that the location of and knowledge and skills required for jobs of the future will not be the same as those of the jobs that were lost in the recession.

Data show that over the past year, one-quarter of newly unemployed workers (those who had been unemployed for less than 15 weeks) found work versus fewer than one in ten of those who were unemployed for over a year.⁸ But for all jobless workers, the odds of finding a job are substantially lower now than prior to the recession—a fact that underscores the need for effective workforce development and training strategies in order to foster economic growth.

Long-term Unemployment across Demographic Groups, Industries and Occupations

Unemployment experiences differ across groups of workers, with racial minorities and less-educated workers generally having higher incidences and longer durations of unemployment. During the recent recession, the proportion of the workforce that was unemployed for longer than six months rose for all major groups of workers, but the magnitude of the increase differed across industries, occupations and demographic groups. The current levels of long-term and very-long-term unemployment remain at extremely high levels almost four years after the official end of the recession and have significant implications for the pace of the recovery and the financial well-being of families.

Prior to the recession individuals in certain segments of the labor force were more prone to lengthy spells of joblessness than others. **(Appendix Table 1)** Men, younger workers, black workers and individuals with less than a high school diploma were more likely to be long-term unemployed.⁹ Long-term unemployment rates were highest in the leisure and hospitality and manufacturing industries. Across occupations, rates were highest among those in production, transportation and material moving and service professions.¹⁰

During the recession, long-term unemployment rose for all groups, and it has come down for nearly all groups as labor markets have improved. However, the bulk of the jobs lost during the recession were in the manufacturing and construction sectors, while job growth during the recovery has been uneven and concentrated in other sectors. Thus, long-term unemployment is more problematic for some groups than others. **(Figure 3)**

Age: The unemployment rate among young workers is always high; at the start of the recession the unemployment rate among 16 to 24 year olds was 11.7%—more than double the overall unemployment rate. Their unemployment rate climbed to a peak of 19.6% in April 2010¹¹ and is currently 16.2%.¹² As a result, the sheer number of long-term unemployed young workers is also high. However, young workers typically have shorter unemployment spells; in 2012, only 28% of unemployed workers aged 16 to 24 had been unemployed for more than six months.¹³ Young workers who do not find employment often leave the labor force to pursue additional job training or education.

In contrast, the unemployment rate among older workers is generally low (approximately 6%), but the share of these older workers who are unemployed long-term is quite high—approximately 50%. (**Appendix Table 1**) This is due to a number of factors: workers in this age group are less likely to pursue additional job

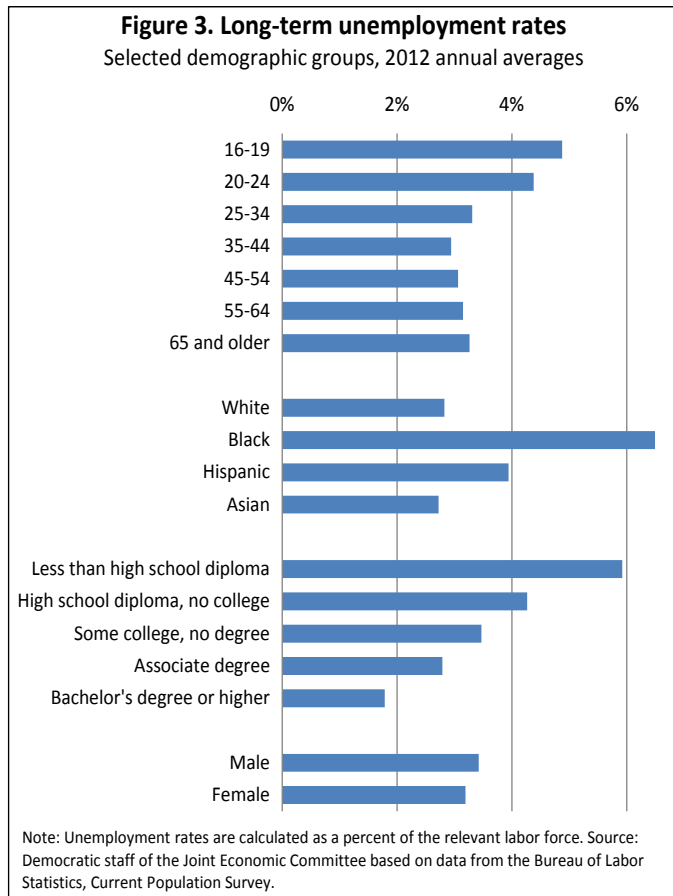
training and education, their salary requirements are higher, and their skillsets may be more difficult to match with the needs of today’s marketplace. A large proportion of workers 65 and older continue to spend prolonged periods of time searching for work.

Race/Ethnicity: Black workers entered the recession with unemployment and long-term unemployment rates more than double those of other racial and ethnic groups. (**Appendix Table 1**) In 2010, their long-term unemployment rate climbed to 7.7%, with a very-long-term unemployment rate of 5.4%. Hispanic workers also experienced a large increase in long-term unemployment, with their rate rising from 0.8% in 2007 to 4.9% in 2010.

Long-term unemployment rates have improved for all racial and ethnic groups between 2010 and 2012, but progress has been slower for black and Hispanic populations. Both of those groups have seen smaller declines in their long-term unemployment rates and, unlike white and Asian workers, both groups are over-represented among the long-term unemployed.¹⁴

The persistent increase in the relative long-term unemployment of black and Hispanic workers since the recession can be partially explained by the educational and occupational makeup of those groups. Both groups are less likely to be college-educated than white or Asian workers, and are more likely to be employed in industries and occupations that fared worst in the recent downturn. For example, Hispanic workers were twice as likely as white workers to be employed in construction occupations in 2007.¹⁵ The differences in the recent long-term unemployment experience of workers by education, industry and occupation are discussed below.

Education: Long-term unemployment increased for workers of all levels of education during the recession; however, an individual’s likelihood of being long-term unemployed decreases significantly with more education. (**Appendix Table 1**) Workers with at least a bachelor’s degree entered the



recession with a long-term unemployment rate of only 0.4%; that rate is now 1.8%. Individuals without a high school diploma saw their long-term rate rise from 1.6% in 2007 to 7.1% in 2010; it is now 5.9%. Likewise, their likelihood of being unemployed for more than one year is now 4.4%, up from 1.0% in 2007. This group's share of the unemployed and long-term unemployed populations is almost double its share of the labor force.

Gender: Roughly 55% of the long-term and very-long-term unemployed are male. Their share of the long-term unemployed is only slightly higher than their shares of the total labor force and the unemployed.¹⁶

Prior to the start of the recession, men and women experienced long-term unemployment at roughly the same rate. (**Appendix Table 1**) Men experienced a sharp increase in long-term unemployment between 2007 and 2010 when the share of those unemployed for more than six months increased from 0.9% to 4.7%. However, their long-term unemployment rate has fallen over the past two years to 3.4%. The long-term unemployment rate for women also rose sharply during the recession, increasing to 3.6% in 2010, but since then the rate has fallen, though more slowly than for men. This is likely due to the fact that sectors where men hold most of the jobs have recovered more quickly, while female-dominated sectors, such as state and local government, continue to contract.

Industries and Occupations: Long-term unemployment has also varied by industry and occupation. Workers in construction, one of the industries hardest hit by the recession, experienced the largest percentage point increase in long-term unemployment. The sector has been slow to recover, which is reflected in the still-high long-term unemployment rate—4.5% in 2012. (**Appendix Table 1**) The manufacturing, mining, information and professional and business services sectors also had large percentage point increases in their respective long-term unemployment rates, while increases were much smaller in the utilities and leisure and hospitality sectors. Over the past

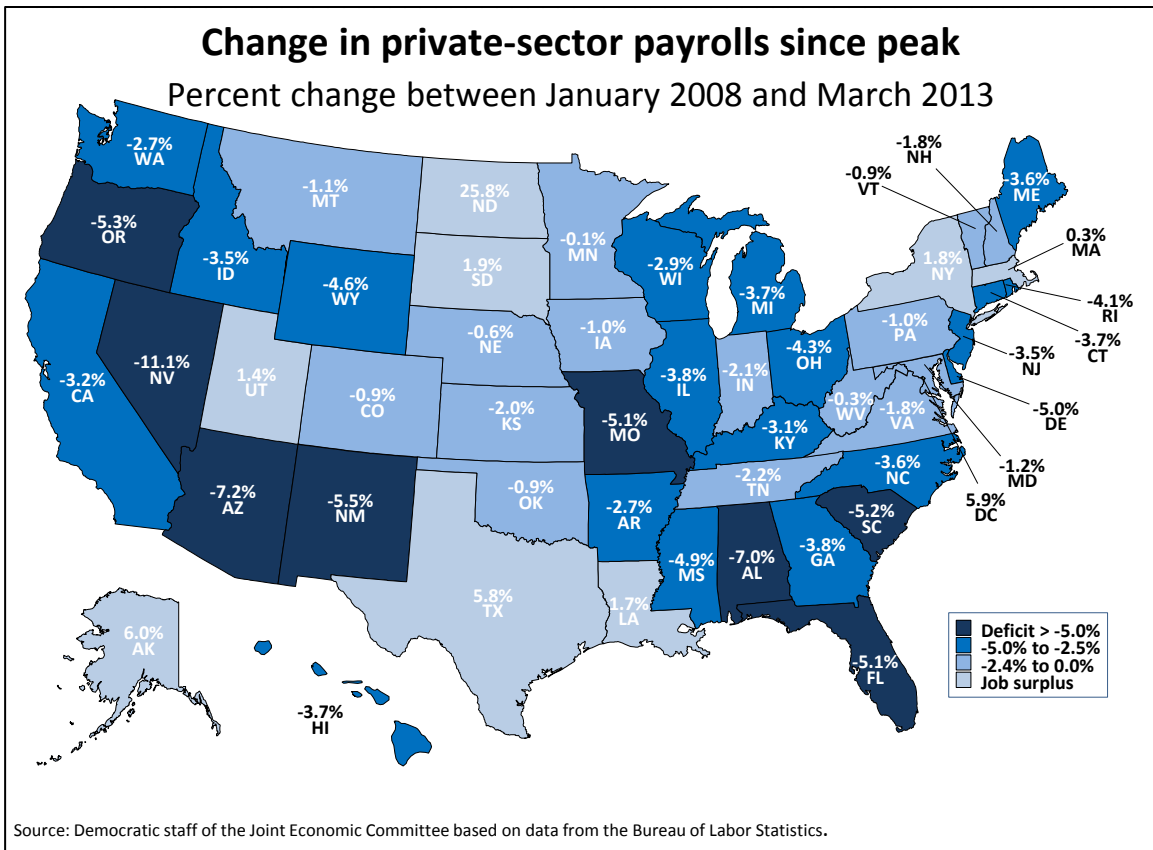
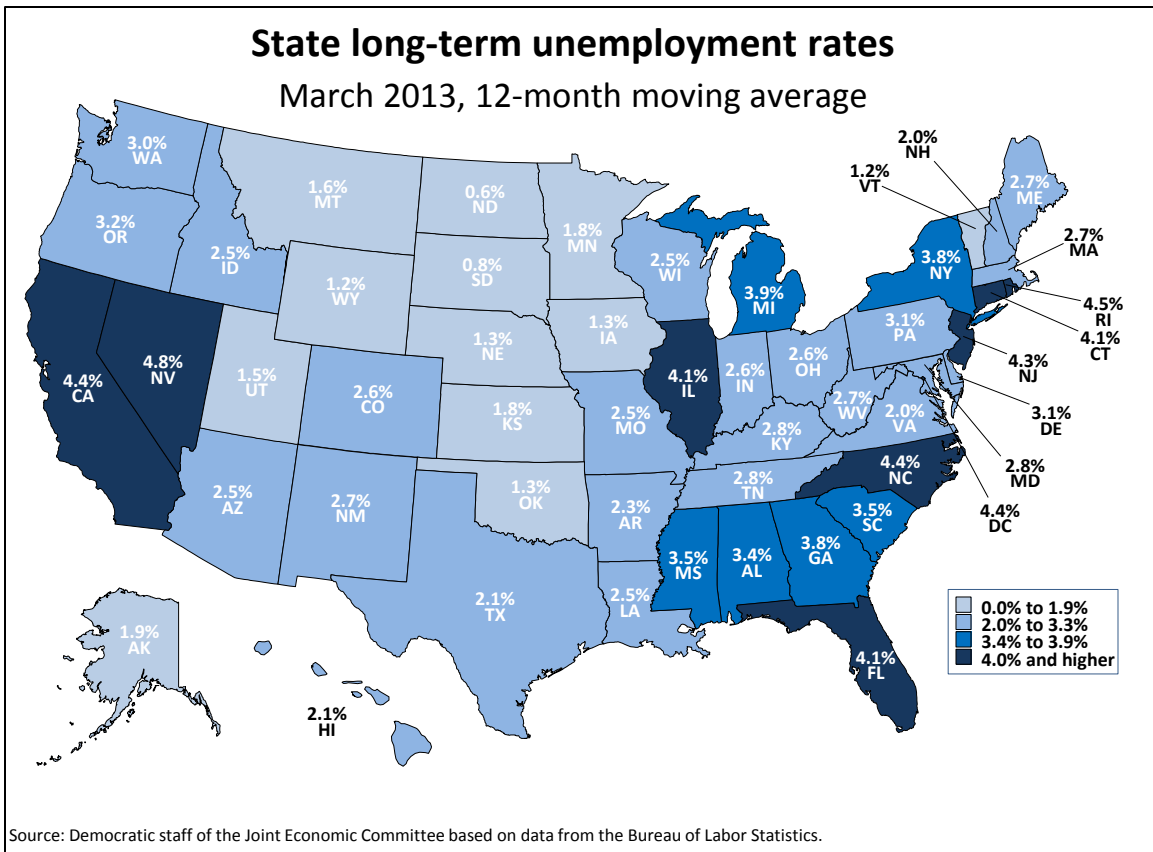
two years, long-term unemployment rates have declined in every sector, with the exception of education and health services which saw a slight increase in both the long-term and very-long-term unemployment rates between 2010 and 2012.

Long-term unemployment increased among all major occupation groups during the recession, and has subsequently improved for all groups. Many low-skill occupational categories such as natural resources, construction and maintenance and production, transportation and material moving experienced the largest increases in long-term unemployment between 2007 and 2010, and have been slower to recover than other occupations.

Long-Term Unemployment across States

The residual effects of the recession are also being felt differently across states. Some states faced staggering job losses as a result of the collapse of the housing and financial markets, while other states weathered the recession better due to the industrial composition of their labor markets. The national long-term unemployment rate averaged 3.2% over the past twelve months, with state-level rates ranging from a high of 4.8% in Nevada to a low of 0.6% in North Dakota.¹⁷ (**Maps and Appendix Table 2**)

Payrolls have expanded in all states since total job losses ended in February 2010, but few states have regained all the jobs lost during the recession. Overall, the U.S. still has a private-sector jobs shortfall of 2.0%, meaning as of March 2013 there were 2.0% (roughly 2.3 million) fewer jobs on private-sector payrolls than in January 2008, when job losses began. Most of this gap is due to shortfalls in construction and manufacturing employment, though information services and real estate also have sizeable employment gaps relative to their January 2008 employment levels. Those shortfalls are partially offset by expanded employment in mining, private educational services, and health care and social assistance, relative January 2008.¹⁸



Eight states and the District of Columbia have long-term unemployment rates at or above 4%. With the exception of Florida, these states all have higher-than-average overall unemployment rates, exceeding the national rate of 7.6% in March. The eight states with long-term unemployment rates at or above 4% all currently have employment shortfalls larger than the overall U.S. gap of 2.1%. Those states have an average of 173,000 fewer private-sector jobs than they had in January 2008 and account for 58% of the 2.9 million total jobs lost in the recession that have not yet been recovered. They also account for 32% and 44% of the current gap in manufacturing and construction jobs, respectively.

Nevada, Florida and California were hit disproportionately hard by the housing market collapse. Construction payrolls shrank by over 40% in California, by over 50% in Florida and by nearly 66% in Nevada.¹⁹ Nevada currently has the largest shortfall in construction jobs relative to January 2008 in percentage terms and California and Florida have the largest shortfalls when measured by jobs lost (-222,200 and -219,800, respectively).

California, Illinois and North Carolina suffered from large manufacturing job losses that have not yet been regained—combined, these states account for 22% of the current nationwide gap in manufacturing employment. Although Nevada's shortfall is smaller than the average loss (-9,900 vs. -34,400), manufacturing employment in the state is still 20% below the January 2008 level, the largest gap of all states.

Twelve states have long-term unemployment rates below 2%. These states have relatively more resilient labor markets and all have total unemployment rates more than one percentage point lower than the national average. Together, they account for only 2.9% of the current overall jobs shortfall. Five of these states have had net expansion in payrolls as of March 2013, having added jobs since January 2008. The states that fared best in construction and manufacturing are in this group—North Dakota and Alaska are two of the three states to have added construction jobs since

the peak in January 2008; no states have added manufacturing jobs over that period.

The Impact of the Recession on Labor Force Transitions

Even during periods of economic growth, the likelihood of finding a job declines dramatically the longer unemployment lasts. In the period of expansion between 2001 and 2007, about 30% of the unemployed who had been searching for work for less than 15 weeks became employed, compared with about 20% of those unemployed for 15-26 weeks, and only 12% of those unemployed for over one year.²⁰ (Figure 4)



The recession significantly reduced the probability of moving out of unemployment and into employment, pushing the odds of finding employment to record lows for all unemployed workers. Despite 37 consecutive months of private-sector job growth, there has been little improvement in an individual's chances of finding work, no matter how long a time they have been unemployed.

For those unemployed for the shortest amount of time, less than 15 weeks, the probability of finding a job has improved to roughly one-in-four, but that is still well below the nearly one-in-three odds just prior to the recession. For individuals out of work longer, the odds are dramatically lower. During 2012, 15.6% of those unemployed for 15-26 weeks found work, 11.5% of those unemployed for 26-52 weeks (six months to one year), and 8.6% of those unemployed for 53 weeks and longer (more than one year). Over the course of prolonged unemployment, workers' skills may deteriorate and employers may be less likely to deem them employable.

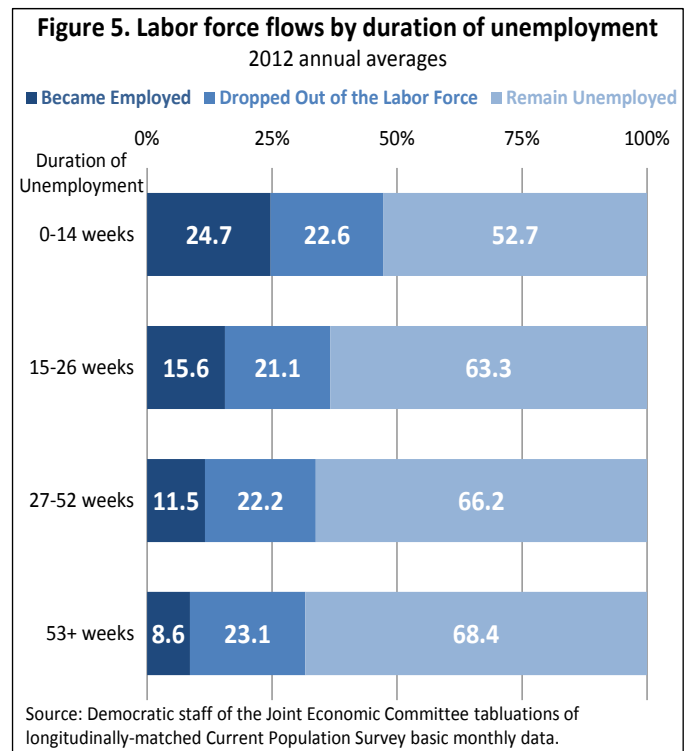
As the duration of unemployment increases, jobless workers are less likely to find work, more likely to stay unemployed, and only somewhat less likely to drop out of the labor force entirely. During 2012, 22.6% of workers unemployed for less than 15 weeks dropped out of the labor force and 52.7% stayed unemployed. **(Figure 5)** For individuals unemployed for 27-52 weeks, 22.2% dropped out of the labor force, and the remaining 66.2% stayed unemployed. Among those unemployed for more than one year, only 8.6% found work, 23.1% dropped out and 68.4% remained unemployed and continued searching for work.²¹

Overall between 2007 and 2012, unemployed workers substantially increased the length of time they reported searching for work before either finding a job or dropping out of the labor force. On average, those individuals who were unemployed and found work in 2012 had spent 22 weeks searching, up from 11 weeks in 2007, while those unemployed individuals who left the labor force in 2012 spent about 38 weeks searching for work, compared to 19 weeks in 2007.²²

There are many possible explanations for why people have continued to look for work despite being unemployed for extended periods of time, including the extension of unemployment insurance benefits, reductions in household wealth associated with declining home values and equity markets and a reluctance to accept a lower-paying job—especially among highly skilled workers.

The extension of unemployment insurance benefits during the past four years likely played a role in keeping some unemployed workers, including the very-long-term unemployed, searching for work.²³ Many workers simply cannot afford to give up searching for employment. Even for households where a spouse or other family member is employed, wages have remained largely stagnant while typical household expenses—food, clothing, health care and education—continue to rise.²⁴ Household net worth as a share of disposable personal income started falling in mid-2007 due to dramatic declines in the stock market and housing values, and it still remains well below pre-recession levels.²⁵ For older workers, retirement account balances also declined with the stock market, which has only recently recovered to its pre-recession peak.

The long-term unemployed population is now comprised of many highly skilled and educated individuals who are less likely to leave the labor force in order to obtain more training. Some workers may be holding out for higher-paying jobs that take advantage of their skills and education.²⁶



Addressing the Challenge of Long-Term Unemployment

Whether high rates of unemployment and long-term unemployment are cyclical or structural is not yet clear. Taking action today to tackle long-term unemployment will prevent a more serious labor market crisis in the coming years. There are a number of actions policymakers can take to improve the employment prospects of the long-term unemployed and stave off a larger unemployment crisis. These include:

- Enacting policies that improve the economy and foster job creation. Strengthening the economy and boosting overall demand will mean employers will continue to hire workers, expanding job opportunities for the long-term unemployed. Additional investment in infrastructure and research will help spur growth and productivity in the economy.
- Supporting effective workforce development and training programs for unemployed workers. Cutting funding for programs that help unemployed workers prepare for the jobs of today's economy reduces our nation's global competitive edge.
- Modernizing the existing network of community colleges with a focus on increasing completion rates so that participants finish equipped with the skills and knowledge necessary to meet the needs of local and regional employers.
- Enhancing job search programs for long-term unemployed individuals who may not need additional training. These programs could help workers effectively match their skillsets to existing job opportunities and cut down the length of time it takes to find a job.

Improving the economy: Policies that promote economic growth and job creation increase the odds that the unemployed and long-term unemployed will return to work. Achieving these goals can reduce the likelihood of a future U.S.

unemployment crisis. Targeted spending on transportation infrastructure, such as highways, ports and bridges, would increase the competitiveness of U.S. exports and spur additional hiring. Federal spending on basic research sparks innovation, which drives economic growth and job creation.

Supporting effective workforce training: Smart investments in workforce training programs can help unemployed workers improve their job prospects. Over 1.7 million currently unemployed workers came from jobs in the construction and financial services industries, which have only recently begun to recover from the recession. Another 778,000 of those presently unemployed worked in the public sector, which continues to shrink, and 977,000 came from the manufacturing sector—an industry that has made modest gains over the past two years.²⁷ As job creation continues in these sectors, new employment opportunities will likely be different than the jobs lost in the downturn. For these workers, participation in targeted workforce development and job training programs could provide a path to employment in growing segments of the economy. This would also alleviate some of the trouble expressed by certain employers who report having difficulty filling vacancies because there is a shortage of workers with the skills they desire.

Proposals to slash funding for education and training are penny wise and pound foolish—failing to invest in programs that prepare American workers for the jobs of the future will ultimately reduce the nation's global competitive edge. Without strategic investments in worker training, high rates of unemployment and long-term unemployment may persist.

Improving community and technical colleges: Community colleges play an integral role in preparing unemployed workers for job openings. In many areas throughout the country, community colleges are uniquely in tune with the needs of local and regional employers and can tailor their offerings to match them. Over the past ten years, enrollment at 2-year postsecondary institutions has

increased by 20%.²⁸ However, the high dropout rate at 2-year institutions means that many students are not reaping the full benefits of their investments. Only 34% of community college students earn a degree or certificate within six years of enrolling at a school.²⁹

Completion rates are even lower among black and Hispanic students³⁰—populations that have very high long-term unemployment rates and whose members stand to gain the most from additional education. Efforts to modernize the existing community college system could put emphasis on ensuring that enrollees are counseled on courses of study that are most likely to prepare them for employment in growing occupations or industries in their local areas.³¹

Enhancing job search: Many workers have skills that are valued by employers, but may have trouble translating relevant work experience and skills into the new, growing sectors of the economy. One in six (17.6%) long-term unemployed workers already has at least a bachelor's degree. Programs that help unemployed workers search for job opportunities suited to their skillsets could help match job seekers to appropriate vacancies and reduce the length of time it takes employers to fill those openings with qualified candidates.

The United States spends considerably less than other developed countries on labor market policies, including workforce training and job search programs, both as a share of GDP and per labor market participant.³² Policymakers should focus efforts on modernizing and reforming federal job training programs to ensure that the programs are as efficient and effective as possible and are delivering the greatest return on investment.

Congress should both address the country's long-term fiscal challenges and support the economic recovery by fostering job creation and funding workforce development programs, including those at the community college level, that help repair the labor market. Proven training programs deliver benefits to both workers—who gain new skills which lead to employment—and employers who are

able to find the skilled workers they need to operate and expand their businesses. Arming workers with new skills is not only needed to tackle high rates of long-term unemployment, it is crucial to rebuilding the middle class, strengthening the economy and ultimately boosting the United States' competitive position in the world.

Sources

¹ Bureau of Labor Statistics, Current Population Survey.

² Bureau of Labor Statistics, Current Employment Statistics.

³ Bureau of Labor Statistics, Current Population Survey. As of March 2013, there are 11.7 million unemployed individuals, seasonally adjusted, and 11.8 million unemployed individuals, not seasonally adjusted.

⁴ Bureau of Labor Statistics, Job Openings and Labor Turnover Survey Highlights, February 2013. www.bls.gov/web/jolts/jlt_labstatgraphs.pdf.

⁵ JEC Democratic staff calculations based on data from the Bureau of Labor Statistics on employment status and duration of unemployment. Data as of March 2013, not seasonally adjusted. The remainder of the report cites data that have not been adjusted for seasonal factors (NSA) because data on unemployment duration for periods longer than 27 weeks are only available on a non-seasonally adjusted basis.

⁶ Christina Romer, Former Chair of the Council of Economic Advisers, testified at a Joint Economic Committee hearing in October 2009, "...the shocks that hit the U.S. economy [in the fall of 2008] were, by almost any measure, larger than those that precipitated the Great Depression." www.jec.senate.gov/public/?a=Files.Serve&File_id=2643990-6-bf0d-466d-a605-6ec96daec7b5. The current labor market recovery has been slower than expected, given the severity of the recession and the experiences following prior steep rises in unemployment in the United States. However, as economists have documented, in several European countries steep increases in unemployment during recessions have led to permanent increases in unemployment. See Ball, Laurence, "The unemployment crisis." *Columbia Management: 2011 Perspectives*. cdn.ameriprisecontent.com/cds/alwp/advisor/scott.a.miller/cdocuments-and-settingsorendesktop2011-perspectives634456405798780298.pdf.

⁷ Erickson, Robin, Jeff Schwartz and Josh Ensell, "The Talent Paradox: Critical Skills, Recession, and the Illusion of Plenitude." *Deloitte Review*. 2012.

⁸ JEC Democratic staff tabulations of longitudinally-matched Current Population Survey basic monthly data files.

⁹ JEC Democratic staff calculations based on data from the Bureau of Labor Statistics on duration of unemployment. 2007 annual averages.

¹⁰ Ibid.

¹¹ Bureau of Labor Statistics, Current Population Survey. The overall unemployment rate was 5.0% in December 2007; it peaked at 10.0% in October 2009.

¹² Ibid.

¹³ JEC Democratic staff calculations based on data from the Bureau of Labor Statistics on employment status and duration of unemployment. 2012 annual averages.

¹⁴ JEC Democratic staff calculations based on data from the Bureau of Labor Statistics on employment status and duration of unemployment. 2012 and 2010 annual averages.

¹⁵ Bureau of Labor Statistics, Household Data 2007 Annual Averages, Table 10, Employed persons by occupation, race, Hispanic or Latino ethnicity, and sex. <ftp.bls.gov/pub/special.requests/lf/aa2007/pdf/cpsaat10.pdf>.

¹⁶ JEC Democratic staff calculations based on data from the Bureau of Labor Statistics on employment status and duration of unemployment. 2012 annual averages.

¹⁷ Bureau of Labor Statistics, Regional and State Employment and Unemployment, March 2013 (for current monthly unemployment rates); JEC Democratic staff calculations of Current Population Survey data (for long-term unemployment rates); JEC Democratic staff calculations based on Bureau of Labor Statistics data (for total nonfarm, private-sector, government, construction and manufacturing payroll deficits/surpluses).

¹⁸ JEC Democratic staff calculations based on data from the Bureau of Labor Statistics, Current Employment Statistics. Changes are calculated from January 2008-March 2013.

¹⁹ JEC Democratic staff calculations based on data from the Bureau of Labor Statistics, Current Employment Statistics data. Changes are calculated over each state's peak and trough in construction employment: February 2006-September 2010 in California, June 2006-June 2011 in Florida and June 2006-October 2011 in Nevada.

²⁰ JEC Democratic staff tabulations of longitudinally-matched Current Population Survey basic monthly data files.

²¹ Ibid.

²² Ibid.

²³ Joint Economic Committee (Chairman Bob Casey's staff), *The Case for Maintaining Unemployment Insurance: Supporting Workers and Strengthening the Economy*. December 2011.

²⁴ Bureau of Labor Statistics, CPI-U (Consumer Price Index, All Urban Consumers). Data from December 2007 to December 2012.

²⁵ Federal Reserve, Flow of Funds Accounts of the United States, Fourth Quarter 2012. F.100 Households and Nonprofit Organizations. www.federalreserve.gov/releases/z1/Current/z1.pdf.

²⁶ Krueger, Alan, "Why Unemployment Rose So Much, Is Falling So Fast." Bloomberg Opinion. March 30, 2011.

²⁷ Bureau of Labor Statistics, Current Population Survey. Data from March 2013.

²⁸ National Center for Education Statistics, Digest of Education Statistics 2012. Table 199.5. www.nces.ed.gov/programs/digest/d12/tables/dt12_00m.asp.

²⁹ National Center for Education Statistics, Community College Student Outcomes: 1994-2009. Table 5-A. Six-Year Degree Attainment: Percentage of first-time beginning community college students who attained a bachelor's degree, associate's degree, or certificate as their highest attainment within six years, by selected student characteristics: 1996-2001 and 2004-09. www.nces.ed.gov/pubs2012/2012253.pdf.

³⁰ Ibid.

³¹ For additional discussion, including several proposals, see Holzer, Harry J., *Raising Job Quality and Skills for American Workers: Creating More-Effective Education and Workforce Development Systems in the States*. The Hamilton Project. November 2011. See also Goldrick-Rab, Sara, Douglas N. Harris, Gregory Kienzl and Christopher Mazzeo, *Transforming America's Community Colleges: A Federal Policy Proposal to Expand Opportunity and Promote Economic Prosperity*. Metropolitan Policy Program at Brookings. May 2009.

³² JEC Democratic staff calculations based on data from the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD). See also Joint Economic Committee (Chairman Bob Casey's staff), *Manufacturing in America: Challenges and Policy Solutions*. January 2013.

Appendix Table 1. Long-term unemployment rates - 2007, 2010, and 2012 annual averages

	Long-term unemployment rates (27 weeks or more)			Very-long-term unemployment rates (52 weeks or more)		
	2007	2010	2012	2007	2010	2012
Age						
16-19	1.5%	5.9%	4.9%	0.8%	3.5%	2.9%
20-24	1.1%	5.3%	4.4%	0.6%	3.3%	3.0%
25-34	0.8%	4.3%	3.3%	0.4%	2.8%	2.3%
35-44	0.7%	3.8%	2.9%	0.4%	2.5%	2.1%
45-54	0.8%	4.0%	3.1%	0.4%	2.8%	2.3%
55-64	0.7%	3.9%	3.1%	0.5%	2.7%	2.4%
65 and older	0.6%	3.5%	3.3%	0.4%	2.6%	2.6%
Race						
White	0.7%	3.7%	2.8%	0.4%	2.4%	2.0%
Black	1.9%	7.7%	6.5%	1.2%	5.4%	4.8%
Hispanic	0.8%	4.9%	3.9%	0.5%	3.3%	2.8%
Asian	0.7%	3.6%	2.7%	0.4%	2.6%	2.0%
Education						
Less than high school diploma	1.6%	7.1%	5.9%	1.0%	4.8%	4.4%
High school diploma, no college	1.0%	5.4%	4.3%	0.5%	3.6%	3.0%
Some college, no degree	0.7%	4.3%	3.5%	0.4%	2.9%	2.5%
Associate degree	0.6%	3.4%	2.8%	0.4%	2.3%	2.0%
Bachelor's degree or higher	0.4%	2.2%	1.8%	0.2%	1.5%	1.3%
Gender						
Male	0.9%	4.7%	3.4%	0.5%	3.1%	2.4%
Female	0.8%	3.6%	3.2%	0.4%	2.4%	2.3%
Industry						
Mining	0.4%	4.6%	1.7%	0.1%	3.1%	1.0%
Construction	0.8%	7.0%	4.5%	0.4%	4.6%	3.2%
Manufacturing	0.9%	5.6%	3.4%	0.5%	4.0%	2.5%
Wholesale trade	0.6%	3.7%	2.9%	0.3%	2.6%	2.2%
Retail trade	0.8%	4.3%	3.5%	0.4%	2.9%	2.5%
Transportation and warehousing	0.8%	3.8%	2.8%	0.4%	2.8%	1.9%
Utilities	0.3%	1.4%	1.5%	0.1%	1.0%	0.9%
Information	0.8%	4.6%	3.3%	0.6%	3.2%	2.3%
Financial activities	0.5%	3.3%	2.4%	0.3%	2.1%	1.8%
Professional and business services	0.8%	4.3%	3.2%	0.4%	2.7%	2.3%
Education and health services	0.4%	1.9%	2.0%	0.2%	1.2%	1.4%
Leisure and hospitality	1.1%	4.4%	3.5%	0.6%	2.9%	2.4%
Occupation						
Management, business, and financial operations	0.4%	2.6%	1.9%	0.2%	1.7%	1.4%
Professional and related occupations	0.4%	1.9%	1.7%	0.2%	1.3%	1.2%
Service occupations	1.0%	4.0%	3.5%	0.5%	2.6%	2.4%
Sales and office occupations	0.8%	4.1%	3.4%	0.4%	2.8%	2.5%
Natural resources, construction, and maintenance	0.9%	6.7%	4.7%	0.5%	4.5%	3.3%
Production, transportation, and material moving	1.1%	6.2%	4.1%	0.6%	4.3%	2.9%

Note: Unemployment rates are calculated as a percent of the relevant labor force.

Source: Democratic staff of the Joint Economic Committee based on data from the Bureau of Labor Statistics, Current Population Survey.

Appendix Table 2. Unemployment rates and payroll changes by state

	Unemployment rates		Change from January 2008 to March 2013									
	Total	Long-term (12-month moving average)	Total nonfarm payrolls		Private-sector payrolls		Government payrolls		Manufacturing payrolls		Construction payrolls	
	March 2013	March 2013	(000s)	(%)	(000s)	(%)	(000s)	(%)	(000s)	(%)	(000s)	(%)
United States	7.6%	3.2%	-2,861	-2.1%	-2,338	-2.0%	-523	-2.3%	-1,744	-12.7%	-1,674	-22.4%
Alaska	6.2%	1.9%	15	4.6%	14	6.0%	1	0.6%	-2	-11.5%	1	5.7%
Alabama	7.2%	3.4%	-122	-6.1%	-114	-7.0%	-7	-1.9%	N/A	N/A	-35	-31.3%
Arkansas	7.2%	2.3%	-23	-1.9%	-27	-2.7%	3	1.6%	-31	-16.6%	-10	-17.6%
Arizona	7.9%	2.5%	-182	-6.8%	-162	-7.2%	-19	-4.5%	-24	-13.1%	-85	-40.9%
California	9.4%	4.4%	-544	-3.6%	-401	-3.2%	-143	-5.7%	-208	-14.3%	-222	-26.4%
Colorado	7.1%	2.6%	0	0.0%	-17	-0.9%	17	4.5%	-15	-10.2%	-45	-27.2%
Connecticut	8.0%	4.1%	-69	-4.0%	-54	-3.7%	-15	-5.9%	-26	-13.7%	-16	-22.8%
District of Columbia	8.5%	4.4%	35	4.9%	28	5.9%	7	3.0%	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
Delaware	7.3%	3.1%	-18	-4.0%	-19	-5.0%	1	1.9%	-6	-19.8%	N/A	N/A
Florida	7.5%	4.1%	-401	-5.1%	-345	-5.1%	-56	-4.9%	-72	-18.6%	-220	-38.8%
Georgia	8.4%	3.8%	-164	-3.9%	-133	-3.8%	-31	-4.4%	-67	-15.9%	-70	-32.6%
Hawaii	5.1%	2.1%	-17	-2.7%	-19	-3.7%	2	1.5%	-2	-13.2%	N/A	N/A
Iowa	4.9%	1.3%	-11	-0.7%	-13	-1.0%	2	0.9%	-14	-6.2%	-8	-11.4%
Idaho	6.2%	2.5%	-20	-3.0%	-19	-3.5%	-1	-0.8%	-7	-10.0%	-16	-33.3%
Illinois	9.5%	4.1%	-218	-3.6%	-194	-3.8%	-24	-2.8%	-88	-13.1%	-80	-30.1%
Indiana	8.7%	2.6%	-61	-2.0%	-53	-2.1%	-8	-1.8%	-50	-9.3%	-26	-17.1%
Kansas	5.6%	1.8%	-24	-1.7%	-22	-2.0%	-1	-0.5%	-23	-12.3%	-10	-15.0%
Kentucky	8.0%	2.8%	-35	-1.9%	-48	-3.1%	13	4.0%	-23	-9.0%	-18	-20.6%
Louisiana	6.2%	2.5%	12	0.6%	27	1.7%	-15	-4.1%	-13	-8.0%	3	2.0%
Massachusetts	6.4%	2.7%	13	0.4%	8	0.3%	5	1.1%	-41	-14.0%	-18	-13.1%
Maryland	6.6%	2.8%	-4	-0.1%	-25	-1.2%	21	4.3%	-25	-18.8%	N/A	N/A
Maine	7.1%	2.7%	-23	-3.7%	-19	-3.6%	-5	-4.3%	-9	-15.1%	-4	-12.1%
Michigan	8.5%	3.9%	-179	-4.2%	-134	-3.7%	-44	-6.8%	-54	-8.9%	-37	-22.6%
Minnesota	5.4%	1.8%	-6	-0.2%	-2	-0.1%	-4	-1.0%	-33	-9.7%	-19	-16.3%
Missouri	6.7%	2.5%	-128	-4.6%	-119	-5.1%	-8	-1.9%	-48	-16.1%	-41	-28.0%

Appendix Table 2. Unemployment rates and payroll changes by state (continued)

	Unemployment rates		Change from January 2008 to March 2013									
	Total	Long-term (12-month moving average)	Total nonfarm payrolls		Private-sector payrolls		Government payrolls		Manufacturing payrolls		Construction payrolls	
			March 2013	March 2013	(000s)	(%)	(000s)	(%)	(000s)	(%)	(000s)	(%)
Mississippi	9.4%	3.5%	-45	-3.8%	-45	-4.9%	0	0.1%	-30	-18.0%	-13	-21.3%
Montana	5.6%	1.6%	-2	-0.5%	-4	-1.1%	2	2.3%	-3	-13.7%	-10	-32.0%
North Carolina	9.2%	4.4%	-121	-2.9%	-125	-3.6%	4	0.6%	-87	-16.4%	-80	-32.1%
North Dakota	3.3%	0.6%	77	21.2%	74	25.8%	3	3.9%	-2	-6.0%	10	49.8%
Nebraska	3.8%	1.3%	-2	-0.2%	-5	-0.6%	4	2.3%	-6	-5.8%	N/A	N/A
New Hampshire	5.7%	2.0%	-13	-2.1%	-10	-1.8%	-4	-3.8%	-12	-15.2%	-4	-13.9%
New Jersey	9.0%	4.3%	-145	-3.5%	-121	-3.5%	-24	-3.7%	-55	-18.0%	-37	-21.9%
New Mexico	6.9%	2.7%	-39	-4.6%	-36	-5.5%	-4	-1.8%	-7	-18.9%	-17	-29.2%
Nevada	9.7%	4.8%	-133	-10.3%	-126	-11.1%	-8	-4.7%	-10	-20.0%	-73	-57.8%
New York	8.2%	3.8%	74	0.8%	129	1.8%	-54	-3.6%	-95	-17.4%	-35	-9.7%
Ohio	7.1%	2.6%	-250	-4.6%	-199	-4.3%	-51	-6.4%	-97	-12.7%	-45	-20.4%
Oklahoma	5.0%	1.3%	7	0.4%	-11	-0.9%	18	5.4%	N/A	N/A	-1	-1.6%
Oregon	8.2%	3.2%	-79	-4.6%	-76	-5.3%	-3	-1.1%	-28	-13.7%	-29	-28.4%
Pennsylvania	7.9%	3.1%	-80	-1.4%	-50	-1.0%	-30	-4.1%	-85	-13.1%	-34	-13.1%
Rhode Island	9.1%	4.5%	-22	-4.5%	-17	-4.1%	-5	-7.2%	-10	-19.1%	-6	-28.9%
South Carolina	8.4%	3.5%	-78	-4.0%	-83	-5.2%	6	1.6%	-26	-10.5%	-39	-33.0%
South Dakota	4.3%	0.8%	9	2.1%	6	1.9%	2	3.0%	-1	-1.9%	N/A	N/A
Tennessee	7.9%	2.8%	-55	-2.0%	-54	-2.2%	-2	-0.4%	-53	-14.2%	N/A	N/A
Texas	6.4%	2.1%	553	5.2%	510	5.8%	43	2.4%	-66	-7.1%	-54	-8.0%
Utah	4.9%	1.5%	27	2.1%	15	1.4%	12	5.7%	-10	-7.6%	-23	-23.8%
Virginia	5.3%	2.0%	-27	-0.7%	-57	-1.8%	30	4.3%	-38	-13.8%	-54	-23.3%
Vermont	4.1%	1.2%	-3	-0.8%	-2	-0.9%	0	-0.5%	-3	-8.7%	-2	-12.9%
Washington	7.3%	3.0%	-64	-2.2%	-65	-2.7%	1	0.2%	-9	-3.0%	-67	-32.3%
Wisconsin	7.1%	2.5%	-81	-2.8%	-71	-2.9%	-10	-2.5%	-37	-7.3%	-27	-22.0%
West Virginia	7.0%	2.7%	6	0.8%	-2	-0.3%	8	5.2%	-10	-16.4%	-4	-9.3%
Wyoming	4.9%	1.2%	-5	-1.6%	-10	-4.6%	6	8.4%	0	-3.0%	-5	-17.9%

Source: Democratic staff of the Joint Economic Committee based on data from the Bureau of Labor Statistics.