

#### Charting the U.S. labor market in 2006

- This report includes graphs and text describing the U.S. labor market in 2006.
   Highlights include information about educational attainment, race and Hispanic ethnicity, women, and families.
- These data were compiled from several statistical programs of the Bureau of Labor Statistics and are presented together to give an overview of the employment and unemployment situation for the nation that presents both recent data and historical trends over time.

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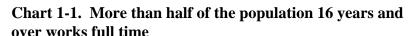
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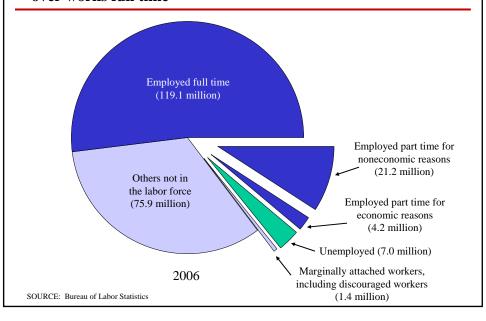
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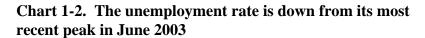
Section 1 Major Indicators		

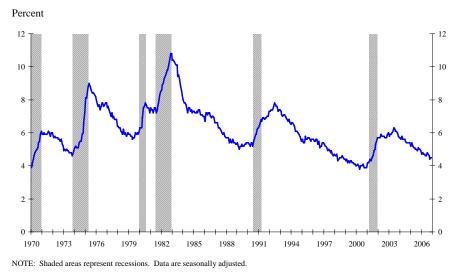




#### Chart 1-1. More than half of the population 16 years and over works full time

- More than half of the 229 million persons in the civilian noninstitutional working-age population in 2006 were employed full time. An additional 11 percent were working part time, with a large majority of these workers preferring a part-time schedule.
- Of the third of the population not in the labor force (neither working nor looking for work), a relatively small number (1.4 million) were classified as "marginally attached" workers—persons who want to work, are available for work, and had looked for a job in the past year but are not currently looking either because they are discouraged about job prospects or because certain conditions, like family responsibilities, impede their entry into the job market.
- The vast majority of persons not in the labor force do not want to work.

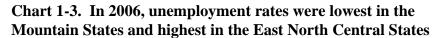


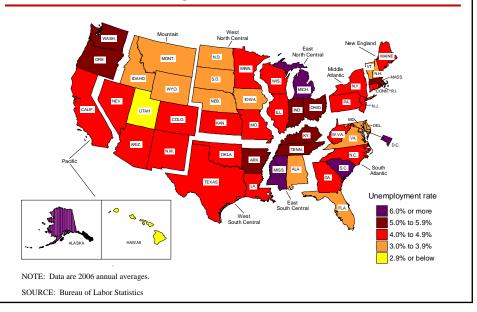


SOURCE: Bureau of Labor Statistics

## Chart 1-2. The unemployment rate is down from its most recent peak in June 2003

- The unemployment rate rose from 4.3 percent at the onset of the most recent recession in March 2001 (as designated by the National Bureau of Economic Research) to 6.3 percent in June 2003. It had declined to 4.5 percent by December 2006.
- At the onset of the recession in March 2001, some 11 percent of unemployed persons had been looking for work for 27 weeks or longer. This share of the unemployed accounted for by long-term unemployed rose to nearly 24 percent by March 2004 before declining to 16 percent at the end of 2006.

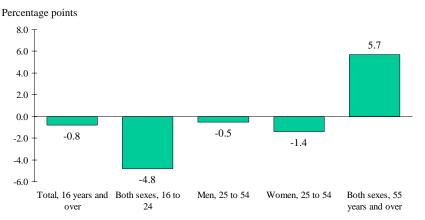




## Chart 1-3. In 2006, unemployment rates were lowest in the Mountain States and highest in the East North Central States

- In 2006, Hawaii recorded the lowest unemployment rate among the states, at 2.4 percent. Utah had the next lowest rate (2.9 percent), followed closely by Nebraska and Virginia (3.0 percent each).
- The highest unemployment rates were reported in Michigan (6.9 percent), Mississippi (6.8 percent), Alaska (6.7 percent), and South Carolina (6.5 percent).
- In 2006, eight states registered the lowest annual jobless rates in their series (which began in 1976): Alabama (3.6 percent), Florida (3.3 percent), Idaho (3.4 percent), Louisiana (4.0 percent), Montana (3.2 percent), New Mexico (4.2 percent), Utah (2.9 percent), and West Virginia (4.9 percent).

Chart 1-4. From the onset of the recession to the end of 2006, labor force participation rates were down, except among older workers



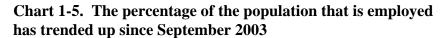
Change in labor force participation rates (seasonally adjusted), March 2001 to December 2006

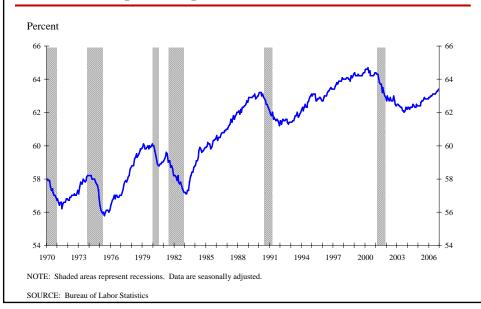
NOTE: As defined by the National Bureau of Economic Research (NBER), the recession lasted from March to November 2001.

SOURCE: Bureau of Labor Statistics

# Chart 1-4. From the onset of the recession to the end of 2006, labor force participation rates were down, except among older workers

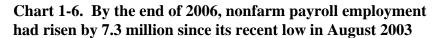
- The participation rate of youth 16 to 24 years old fell by about 5 percentage points between March 2001 and December 2006. The rates for men and women ages 25 to 54 years were down slightly over that period.
- The labor force participation rate for persons 55 years and over has increased since the early 1990s. From the onset of the recession in March 2001 to December 2006, the rate rose by nearly 6 percentage points.
- While men ages 55 and older are more likely than their female counterparts to participate in the labor force, the increase in the participation rate for women was slightly larger than that for men.

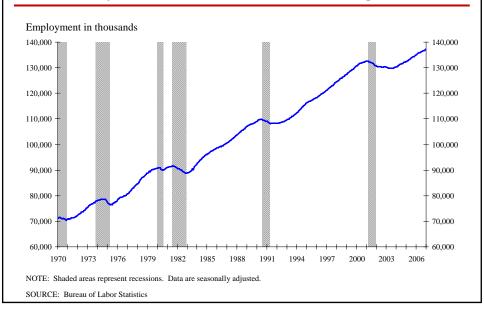




# Chart 1-5. The percentage of the population that is employed has trended up since September 2003

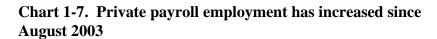
- The proportion of the population 16 years and over that is employed fell from a pre-recession peak of 64.7 percent in April 2000 to 62.0 percent in September 2003. The ratio has trended up since then.
- While the employment-population ratio rose to 63.4 percent by the end of 2006, it was still well below its pre-recession peak.

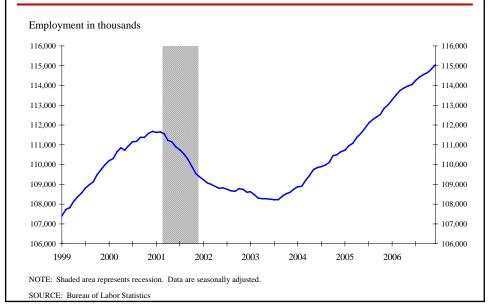




## Chart 1-6. By the end of 2006, nonfarm payroll employment had risen by 7.3 million since its recent low in August 2003

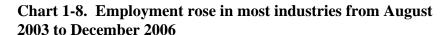
- Nonfarm payroll employment fell by about 2.7 million from the beginning of the recession in March 2001 to August 2003.
- Between August 2003 and December 2006, payroll employment increased by about 7.3 million, with large gains in construction, professional and business services, private education and health services, and leisure and hospitality.

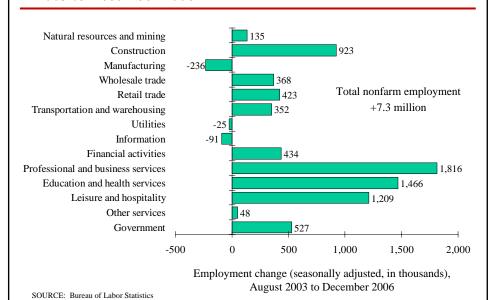




# Chart 1-7. Private payroll employment has increased since August 2003

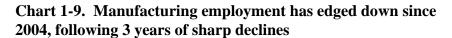
- Private nonfarm employment fell sharply during 2001. The pace of employment declines slowed markedly in 2002.
- Private payroll employment has increased since August 2003. By December 2006, about 6.8 million private sector jobs had been added.

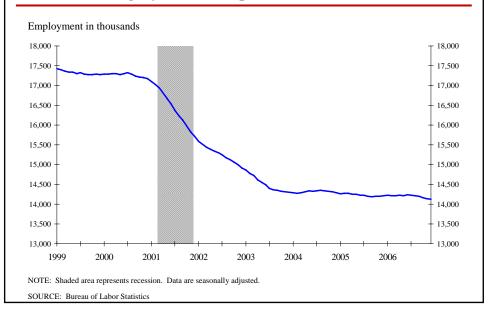




#### Chart 1-8. Employment rose in most industries from August 2003 to December 2006

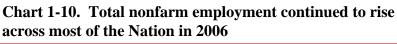
- Job growth from August 2003 to the end of 2006 was fairly widespread among
  the major industry sectors. Employment gains in professional and business
  services, in education and health services, and in leisure and hospitality
  accounted for about 60 percent of total job growth over the time period.
- Between August 2003 and December 2006, employment declined in manufacturing and in information.

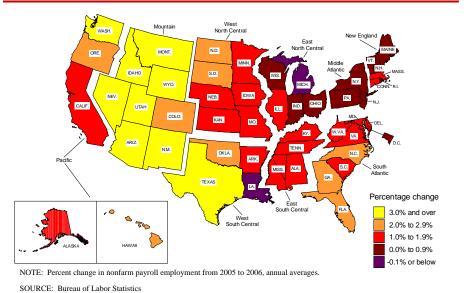




# Chart 1-9. Manufacturing employment has edged down since 2004, following 3 years of sharp declines

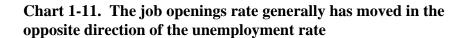
- Over the 2001 to 2003 period, manufacturing lost 2.9 million jobs (measured December 2000 to December 2003). Over the 2004 to 2006 period, the number of factory workers edged down by 165,000.
- At 41.1 hours per week in 2006, the factory workweek nearly returned to the 41.3 hour manufacturing workweek that prevailed in 2000 (annual average data).

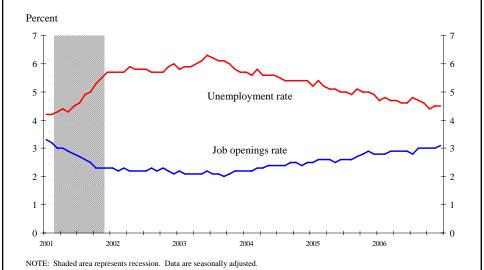




#### Chart 1-10. Total nonfarm employment continued to rise across most of the Nation in 2006

- Employment increased in 48 states and the District of Columbia, with 38 states posting increases of 1.0 percent or more over the year. Employment was down in two states, Louisiana and Michigan.
- The largest over-the-year increases in employment occurred in states of the Mountain division: Arizona (5.4 percent), Wyoming (4.9 percent), Nevada and Utah (4.8 percent each), and Idaho (4.6 percent).
- Reflecting the continuing impact of Hurricane Katrina, Louisiana recorded the largest percentage decrease in employment (-1.9 percent) from 2005 to 2006.

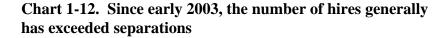


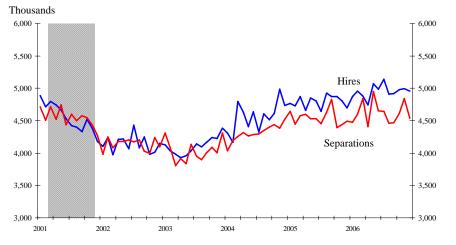


SOURCE: Bureau of Labor Statistics

### Chart 1-11. The job openings rate generally has moved in the opposite direction of the unemployment rate

- The job openings rate (the number of job openings as a percent of employment plus job openings) decreased during the 2001 recession. As the job openings rate edged up from mid-2003 forward, the unemployment rate declined.
- Both the unemployment rate and the job openings rate are approaching their pre-recession levels.



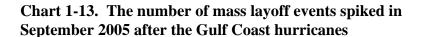


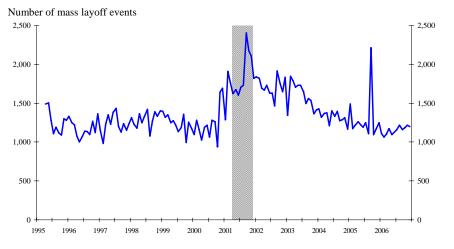
NOTE: Shaded area represents recession. Data are seasonally adjusted.

SOURCE: Bureau of Labor Statistics

# Chart 1-12. Since early 2003, the number of hires generally has exceeded separations

- The average number of monthly hires and separations rose through 2003 and 2004, but showed little net change in 2005. Hires and separations edged up in 2006, with an average of about 5.0 million hires and 4.6 million separations per month.
- The number of hires and separations each month demonstrates that the amount of churn in the labor market dwarfs net changes in employment.





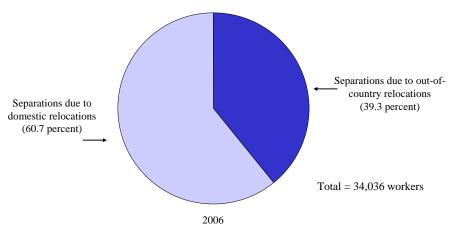
NOTE: Shaded area represents recession. Data are seasonally adjusted.

SOURCE: Bureau of Labor Statistics

### Chart 1-13. The number of mass layoff events spiked in September 2005 after the Gulf Coast hurricanes

- A mass layoff event occurs when fifty or more initial claims for unemployment insurance benefits are filed against an establishment during a 5-week period.
- The number of mass layoff events spiked in September 2005 in the aftermath of the Gulf Coast hurricanes, with 2,217 layoff actions affecting about 292,000 workers. The number of layoff actions had been on a declining trend since September 2001.
- During 2006, 13,998 total mass layoff events occurred in the nation, resulting
  in 1,484,391 initial claims filings for unemployment insurance. In 2005, there
  were 16,466 events and 1,795,341 initial claimants. The total number of initial
  claims for 2006 was the lowest reported for any January-December period
  since 1996.

Chart 1-14. In 2006, nearly forty percent of workers separated from their jobs due to the relocation of work were separated due to out-of-country relocations



NOTE: Data refer to extended mass layoffs (private sector nonfarm employers indicated that 50 or more workers were separated from their jobs for at least 31 days) in which the employer reports that work was relocated. These movements of work were to other U.S. locations or to locations outside of the U.S., and they occurred either within the same company or to other companies.

SOURCE: Bureau of Labor Statistics

# Chart 1-14. In 2006, nearly forty percent of workers separated from their jobs due to the relocation of work were separated due to out-of-country relocations

- Of the 34,036 workers separated from their jobs in 2006 due to the relocation
  of work, the separation of about forty percent (13,367 workers) was associated
  with the movement of work outside of the country. Domestic relocation—both
  within the company and to other companies—affected 20,669 workers.
- Extended mass layoffs and separations associated with the movement of work, domestically or overseas, reflect job loss where at least 50 people filed for unemployment insurance during a 5-week period and the layoff lasted more than 30 days. The extended mass layoff statistics and movement of work measures, therefore, do not reflect layoffs of fewer than 50 workers at these companies, nor does the program capture layoffs occurring at establishments with fewer than 50 workers. Moreover, these data do not cover situations in which firms initiate or transfer work to new locations when there are no layoffs involved.

#### Chart 1-15. Consumer prices usually increase more slowly than private employers' compensation costs

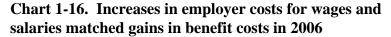


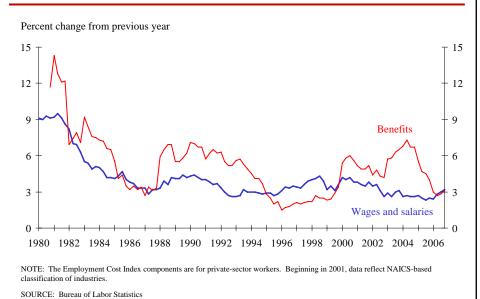
NOTE: The Employment Cost Index is for private-sector workers. Beginning in 2001, data reflect NAICS-based classification of industries. The Consumer Price Index is the CPI-U-RS research series as of April 2007.

SOURCE: Bureau of Labor Statistics

## Chart 1-15. Consumer prices usually increase more slowly than private employers' compensation costs

- The Employment Cost Index (ECI) measures the costs to employers of both employee wages and benefits, and the Consumer Price Index (CPI) measures the average change in prices paid by consumers for a variety of goods and services.
- Changes in the ECI and the CPI have tracked fairly closely over time, though increases in the CPI tend to be smaller than those for the ECI.
- In 2005 and 2006, however, increases in consumer prices exceeded growth in private employers' compensation costs.

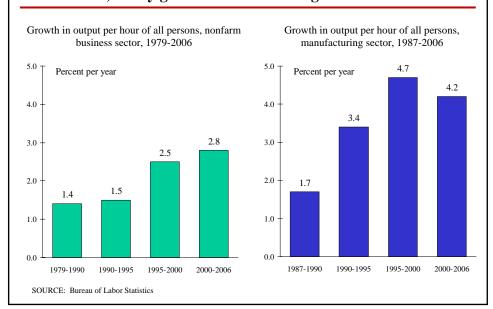




## Chart 1-16. Increases in employer costs for wages and salaries matched gains in benefit costs in 2006

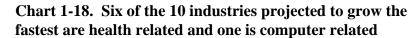
- In the private sector, benefit costs rose 3.1 percent for the year ending December 2006, comparable to an increase of 3.2 percent for wages and salaries. Increases in employer costs for benefits had outpaced gains in wages from 2000-2005.
- The cost of benefits typically has risen at a faster pace than wages, although, for a period in the late-1990s, growth in the cost of benefits fell below that of wages.

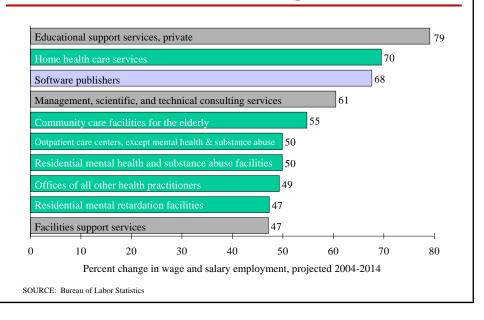
#### Chart 1-17. Labor productivity began to accelerate in the mid-1990s, led by gains in manufacturing



# Chart 1-17. Labor productivity began to accelerate in the mid-1990s, led by gains in manufacturing

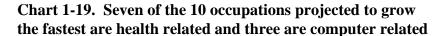
- Labor productivity relates changes in the real production of goods and services to changes in the hours of all persons working in a sector.
- Since 1990, labor productivity growth has averaged 2.3 percent per year in the total nonfarm business sector and 4.1 percent per year in manufacturing.
- In contrast to earlier long economic expansions, the expansion of the 1990s was
  marked by higher productivity growth in the latter part of the cycle. Nonfarm
  business productivity grew by 1.5 percent per year from 1990 to 1995 and by
  2.5 percent in the 1995 to 2000 period.
- Higher rates of productivity growth have continued into the current period.
   Since 2000, labor productivity has been rising at a 2.8-percent annual rate in nonfarm businesses and at a 4.2-percent annual rate in manufacturing.

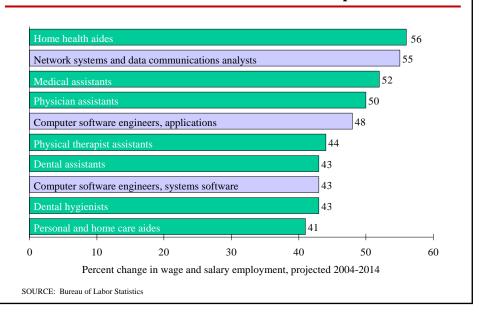




## Chart 1-18. Six of the 10 industries projected to grow the fastest are health related and one is computer related

- Private educational support services, projected to be the fastest growing industry over the 2004-2014 period, includes educational consulting, guidance counseling, and testing organizations.
- Projected employment growth in health care industries is driven by a growing
  and aging population that will demand more medical services, and by medical
  advances that create more types of treatment. Six of the 10 industries
  projected to grow the fastest are health related, including community care
  facilities for the elderly and residential care facilities for mental health and
  substance abuse.
- Information technology will continue to transform the economy and spur job
  growth in computer-related industries. Software publishing employment has
  more than doubled since 1990; as firms continue to invest heavily in
  information technology, employment will continue to grow.



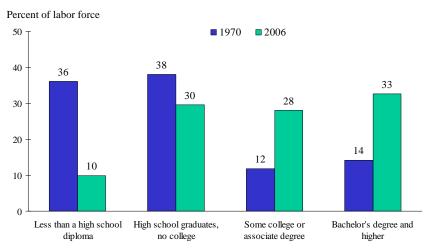


#### Chart 1-19. Seven of the 10 occupations projected to grow the fastest are health related and three are computer related

- Health care occupations are expected to grow rapidly over the 2004-2014
  period as a growing and aging population continues to demand a high level of
  quality health care services. Health care aide and assistant occupations are
  projected to grow especially quickly as organizations try to control costs.
  Aides and assistants are expected to assume some duties formerly done by
  more highly paid health care workers, such as dentists, physicians, and
  therapists.
- Computer occupations also are expected to grow rapidly as new technologies
  develop and as computer use expands. However, growth is projected to be
  slower than it was in the previous decade due to offshore outsourcing of work
  and because the maturing computer industry is not expected to grow quite so
  rapidly as in the past.

<b>Section 2</b>		
Education		

Chart 2-1. The educational attainment of the labor force has improved over time

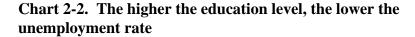


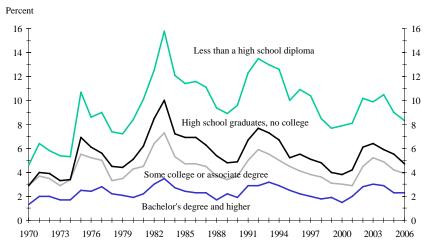
NOTE: Data are from the March 1970 and March 2006 Current Population Survey and are for persons 25 to 64 years old.

SOURCE: Bureau of Labor Statistics

# Chart 2-1. The educational attainment of the labor force has improved over time

- Education is an important determinant of labor market outcomes. The more education a person has, the more likely he or she is to be in the labor force and the less likely he or she is to be unemployed.
- The proportion of persons 25 to 64 years old with some college (or an
  associate degree) more than doubled between 1970 and 2006. The share with
  a bachelor's degree and higher also more than doubled over the period. In
  contrast, the share of the labor force with less than a high school diploma
  declined markedly.



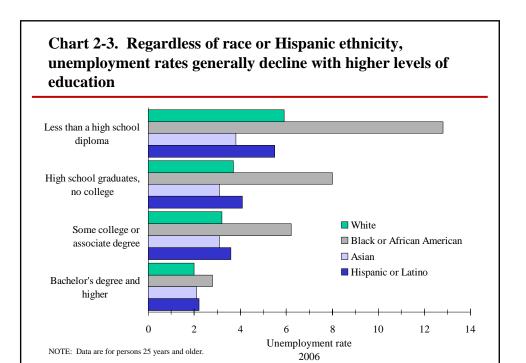


NOTE: Data are from the March 1970-2006 Current Population Survey and are for persons 25 to 64 years old. Beginning in 1992, data are based on highest diploma or degree received; prior to this time, data were based on years of school completed.

SOURCE: Bureau of Labor Statistics

# Chart 2-2. The higher the education level, the lower the unemployment rate

- In March 2006, the unemployment rate for persons 25 to 64 years old without a high school diploma was 8.3 percent, while the jobless rate for college graduates was 2.3 percent. This compares with unemployment rates of 4.6 and 1.3 percent, respectively, in March 1970.
- The unemployment rate for high school dropouts trended upward until the early 1980s. Although the rate has generally trended lower since then, it remains considerably higher than in 1970.
- In contrast, the jobless rate for college graduates has held fairly steady over the long term.



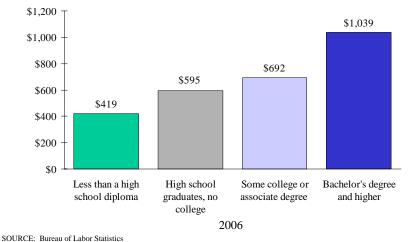
#### Chart 2-3. Regardless of race or Hispanic ethnicity, unemployment rates generally decline with higher levels of education

SOURCE: Bureau of Labor Statistics

- In 2006, among persons 25 years and older, the unemployment rate of blacks with a college degree (2.8 percent) was 10 percentage points lower than the rate for blacks with less than a high school diploma (12.8 percent).
- The unemployment rate for white college graduates (2.0 percent) was about 4
  points below that of whites with less than a high school diploma (5.9 percent).
- The unemployment rate for Hispanic college graduates (2.2 percent) was about 3 points below that of Hispanics with less than a high school diploma (5.5 percent).



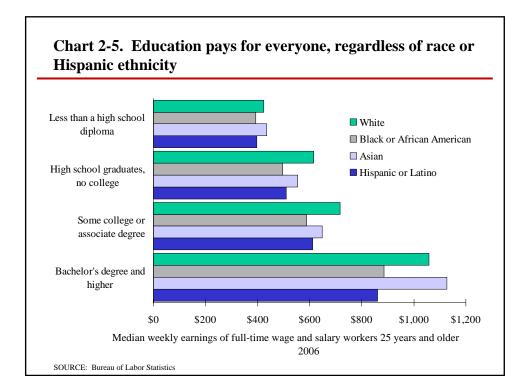
Median weekly earnings of full-time wage and salary workers 25 years and older



SOURCE. Buleau of Labor Statistic

#### **Chart 2-4. Education pays**

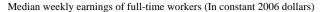
- Earnings increase with higher levels of education.
- In 2006, for example, among workers 25 years and older, median weekly
  earnings of wage and salary workers who usually worked full time were
  almost two and a half times more for persons with at least a college degree
  than for those who had not completed high school.

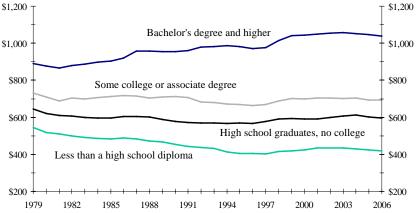


# Chart 2-5. Education pays for everyone, regardless of race or Hispanic ethnicity

- Regardless of race or Hispanic ethnicity, college graduates earn substantially
  more than do high school graduates and more than twice as much as high
  school dropouts.
- In 2006, for example, median weekly earnings for black high school dropouts were \$393, while earnings for black college graduates were \$886.
- Among Hispanics, median weekly earnings for high school dropouts were \$396, while earnings for Hispanic college graduates were \$860.

### Chart 2-6. Real median weekly earnings for college graduates have trended up over time





NOTE: Median weekly earnings of full-time wage and salary workers 25 years and older. Earnings data have been adjusted using the CPI-U-RS research series as of April 2007. Beginning in 1992, data are based on highest diploma or degree received; prior to 1992, data were based on years of school completed.

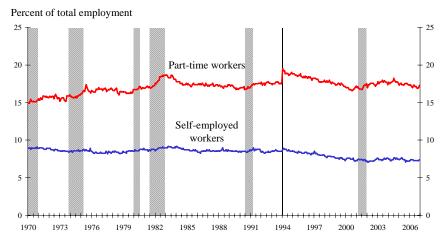
SOURCE: Bureau of Labor Statistics

### Chart 2-6. Real median weekly earnings for college graduates have trended up over time

- Only college graduates have experienced growth in real median weekly earnings since 1979. In contrast, high school dropouts have seen their real median weekly earnings decline by about 22 percent.
- Real earnings for high school graduates and for persons with some college or an associate degree were little changed over the 1979-2006 period.
- For most workers, real earnings have been relatively flat since 1998.

Section 3						
Employment Relationships						

Chart 3-1. Fewer than 2 in 10 employed persons work part time; fewer than 1 in 10 workers is self-employed



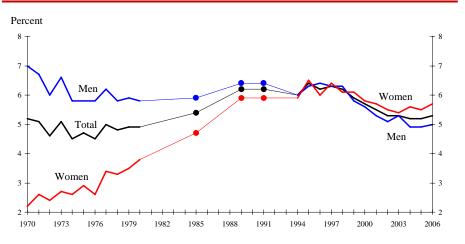
NOTE: Shaded areas represent recessions. Data are seasonally adjusted. Beginning in 1994, data reflect the introduction of a major redesign of the Current Population Survey that included changes affecting the measurement of part-time workers and self-employment.

SOURCE: Bureau of Labor Statistics

# Chart 3-1. Fewer than 2 in 10 employed persons work part time; fewer than 1 in 10 workers is self-employed

- In 2006, about 17 percent of all employed persons usually worked part time (less than 35 hours per week). For the vast majority of these workers, a parttime schedule was preferred.
- The pronounced upward shift in part-time employment in January 1994 was due to definitional and measurement changes associated with the redesign of the Current Population Survey.
- In 2006, about 7 percent of all workers were self-employed.

Chart 3-2. About 1 in 20 workers has more than one job



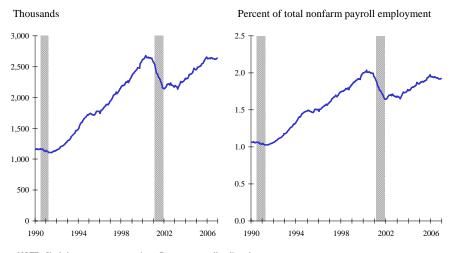
NOTE: Data are for May of each year. Beginning in 1994, data reflect the introduction of a major redesign of the Current Population Survey. Comprehensive surveys of multiple jobholders were not conducted in 1981-84, 1986-88, 1990, and 1992-93.

SOURCE: Bureau of Labor Statistics

#### Chart 3-2. About 1 in 20 workers has more than one job

- In May 2006, about 7.6 million workers held more than one job, representing 5.3 percent of all employed persons.
- For women, the multiple jobholding rate rose markedly from 1970 through the end of the 1980s, while the rate for men changed little over this period. For the last several years, women have been somewhat more likely than men to work more than one job.

### Chart 3-3. About 2 percent of nonfarm jobs are in temporary help services



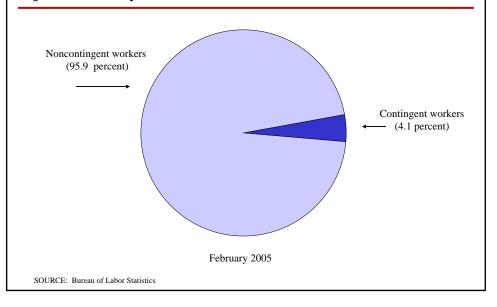
NOTE: Shaded areas represent recessions. Data are seasonally adjusted.

SOURCE: Bureau of Labor Statistics

# Chart 3-3. About 2 percent of nonfarm jobs are in temporary help services

- Employment in temporary help services—an industry that provides workers to many other industries—grew rapidly during the 1990s and into 2000.
- After falling sharply during the 2001 recession, employment in the industry began trending back up in 2003. By the end of 2005, the industry accounted for nearly 2 percent of total nonfarm payroll employment, about the same share as at its previous peak in 2000.
- In 2006, temporary help services employment was little changed on net.

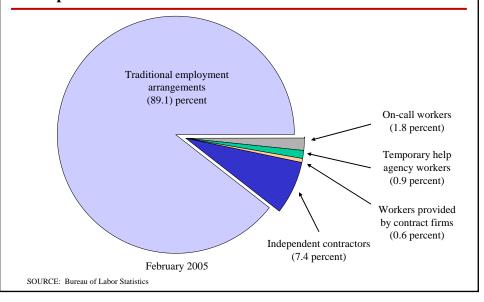
Chart 3-4. In 2005, about 1 in 25 workers could be described as "contingent," believing that they could not work at their job indefinitely



# Chart 3-4. In 2005, about 1 in 25 workers could be described as "contingent," believing that they could not work at their job indefinitely

- Conceptually, contingent workers can be thought of as those workers who have no explicit or implicit contract for ongoing employment. Under the broadest definition, which includes workers who do not expect their jobs to last, they made up approximately 4 percent of workers in February 2005. The percentage of workers classified as "contingent" has edged down from about 5 percent in February 1995 (when the data on contingent work were first collected).
- In 2005, slightly more than one-half of contingent workers would have preferred a permanent job; about one-third of contingent workers preferred the contingent arrangement (the remainder were either undecided or did not respond).

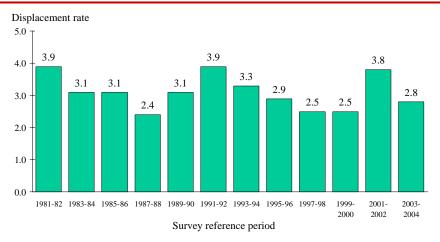
Chart 3-5. In 2005, about 10 percent of employed persons worked in alternative employment arrangements, mostly as independent contractors



# Chart 3-5. In 2005, about 10 percent of employed persons worked in alternative employment arrangements, mostly as independent contractors

- About 1 in every 10 workers in February 2005 was employed in an "alternative" employment arrangement. This category includes independent contractors, on-call workers, temporary help agency workers, and workers provided by contract firms.
- Independent contractors accounted for just over two-thirds of those in alternative employment arrangements.
- The vast majority of independent contractors were satisfied with their arrangement. Just over half of temporary help workers would have preferred a traditional employment arrangement.





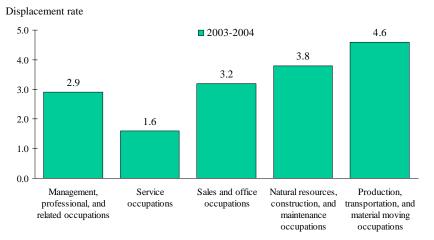
NOTE: Displaced workers are persons 20 years and older who lost or left jobs they had held for at least 3 years because their plant or company closed or moved, there was insufficient work for them to do, or their positions or shifts were abolished. The 2-year displacement rates shown here are the most recent data available.

SOURCE: Bureau of Labor Statistics

#### Chart 3-6. Displacement rates rise during recessions

- The displacement rate—which reflects the likelihood of job loss due to plant
  or company closings, reduced work loads, or the abolishment of positions or
  shifts—increases during recessions and falls during recoveries.
- The risk of job loss was higher during 1981-82, 1991-92, and 2001-02, the survey reference periods that included recessions. As labor market conditions improved following the downturns, the risk of job loss due to displacement declined.

Chart 3-7. Production, transportation, and material moving workers were most likely to be displaced in 2003-2004



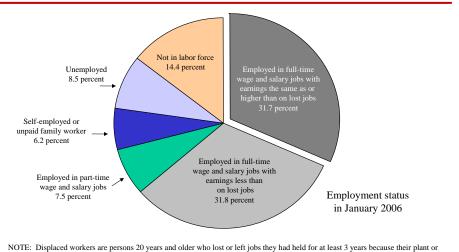
NOTE: Displaced workers are persons 20 years and older who lost or left jobs they had held for at least 3 years because their plant or company closed or moved, there was insufficient work for them to do, or their positions or shifts were abolished. The 2-year displacement rates shown here are the most recent data available.

SOURCE: Bureau of Labor Statistics

# Chart 3-7. Production, transportation, and material moving workers were most likely to be displaced in 2003-2004

- The displacement rate reflects the likelihood of job loss due to plant or company closings, reduced work loads, or the abolishment of positions or shifts.
- Workers in production, transportation, and material moving occupations were the most likely to be displaced in 2003-2004. In contrast, workers in service occupations were least likely to be displaced during the period.

Chart 3-8. About one-third of workers displaced from fulltime jobs in 2003-2004 found full-time jobs that paid at least what they made on their old jobs

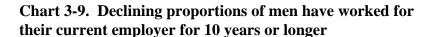


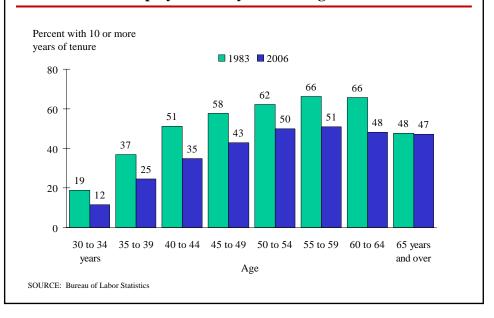
company closed or moved, there was insufficient work for them to do, or their positions or shifts were abolished.

SOURCE: Bureau of Labor Statistics

#### Chart 3-8. About one-third of workers displaced from fulltime jobs in 2003-2004 found full-time jobs that paid at least what they made on their old jobs

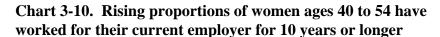
- Some displaced workers drop out of the labor force after losing their jobs; others look for work. Most find work again.
- About one-third of those displaced from full-time jobs during the 2003-2004 period had found new full-time wage and salary jobs that paid at least as much as their old job and about one-third found full-time jobs that paid less. The remainder were not in the labor force, looking for work, or working part time or for themselves.

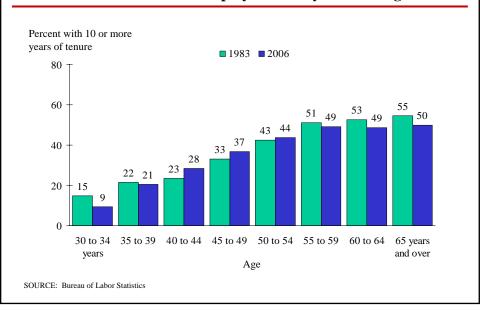




#### Chart 3-9. Declining proportions of men have worked for their current employer for 10 years or longer

- In nearly every age group, the proportion of men who worked for their current employer for 10 years or longer declined between 1983 and 2006.
- Many perceive longevity with an employer as a measure of employment stability. Hence, long tenure and rising tenure are viewed as "good" and short tenure and falling tenure as "bad." Tenure can be an ambiguous indicator, however. For example, many people change employers voluntarily to take better jobs. If the economy is performing well, more workers have opportunities to change jobs voluntarily, possibly resulting in a decline in tenure.

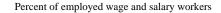


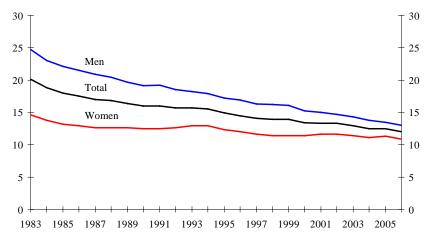


# Chart 3-10. Rising proportions of women ages 40 to 54 have worked for their current employer for 10 years or longer

- Between 1983 and 2006, the proportion of women who have worked for their current employer for 10 years or longer increased among those 40 to 54 years old.
- Some of this increase reflects differences in the labor market experiences of women in different generations.





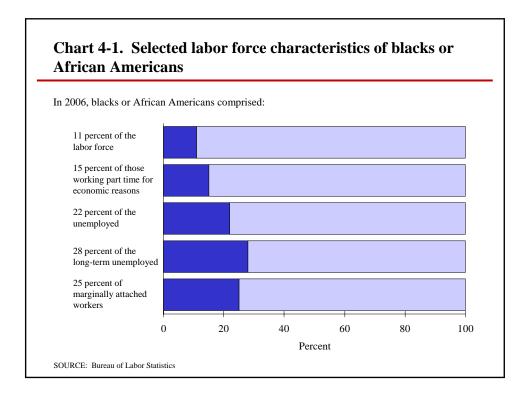


SOURCE: Bureau of Labor Statistics

#### Chart 3-11. Union membership has declined over time

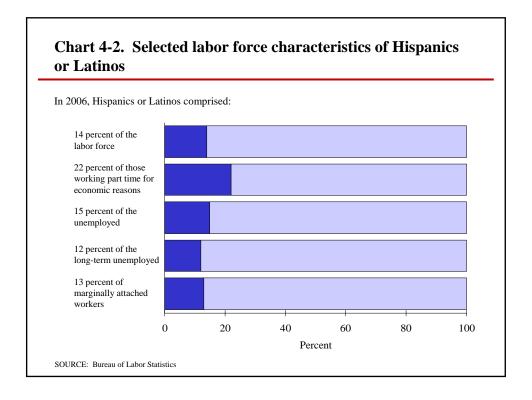
- In 2006, 12 percent of wage and salary workers were union members, down from 20.1 percent in 1983 (the first year for which comparable data are available).
- Nearly 4 in 10 government workers were union members in 2006, compared with fewer than 1 in 10 private-sector employees.
- Men are more likely than women to be union members; however, the disparity
  has narrowed over time. The difference in union membership among men and
  women reflects, in part, differences in occupation and industry.

Section 4							
Race and Hispanic Ethnicity							



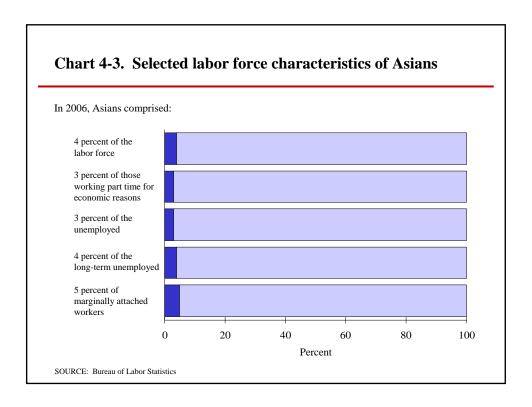
### Chart 4-1. Selected labor force characteristics of blacks or African Americans

- Blacks are more likely than other groups to experience labor market problems.
   For instance, while blacks made up 11 percent of the U.S. labor force in 2006, they accounted for 22 percent of the unemployed and 28 percent of the long-term unemployed (persons unemployed for 27 weeks or longer).
- Also, blacks comprised a disproportionately large share of the marginally attached—persons who were available for work and had searched for work during the prior 12 months but who were not currently looking for work.



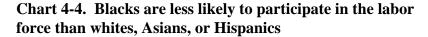
## Chart 4-2. Selected labor force characteristics of Hispanics or Latinos

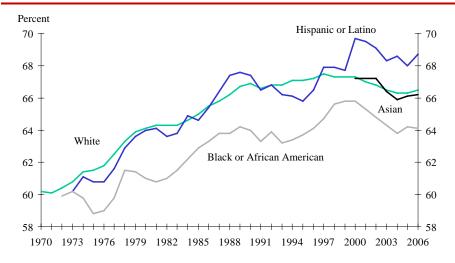
- Hispanics made up 14 percent of the labor force in 2006.
- However, they accounted for 22 percent of persons employed part time for economic reasons and 15 percent of the unemployed.
- Persons whose ethnicity is identified as Hispanic or Latino may be of any race.



#### Chart 4-3. Selected labor force characteristics of Asians

- Asians made up about 4 percent of the labor force in 2006.
- They accounted for similar proportions of the unemployed and other categories of persons experiencing certain types of labor market difficulties.

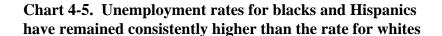


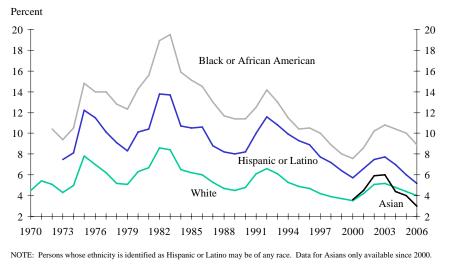


NOTE: Persons whose ethnicity is identified as Hispanic or Latino may be of any race. Data for Asians only available since 2000. SOURCE: Bureau of Labor Statistics

# Chart 4-4. Blacks are less likely to participate in the labor force than whites, Asians, or Hispanics

- In 2006, the labor force participation rate—the percent of persons 16 years and over who are working or looking for work—was 64.1 percent for blacks; this compared with 68.7 percent for Hispanics.
- The rates for whites and Asians were about equal—66.5 percent and 66.2 percent, respectively.



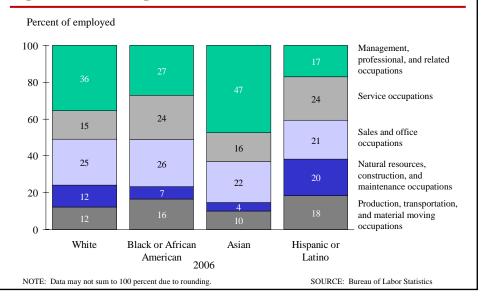


SOURCE: Bureau of Labor Statistics

#### Chart 4-5. Unemployment rates for blacks and Hispanics have remained consistently higher than the rate for whites

- The unemployment rate for blacks 16 years and over generally has been at least twice that of whites.
- The jobless rate for Hispanics, while higher than that for whites, is lower than that for blacks.
- The rate for Asians is similar to that of whites.

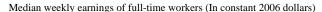
# Chart 4-6. Blacks and Hispanics are less likely than are whites and Asians to be employed in management and professional occupations

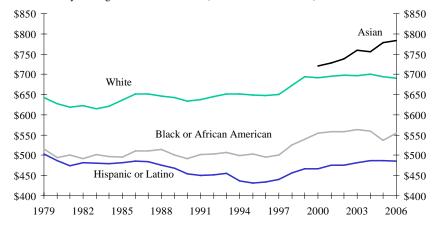


# Chart 4-6. Blacks and Hispanics are less likely than are whites and Asians to be employed in management and professional occupations

- In 2006, blacks and Hispanics were less likely to be employed in management, professional, and related occupations than their white or Asian counterparts.
- Blacks and Hispanics were more likely than whites or Asians to work in service occupations.
- Hispanics were more likely than whites, blacks, or Asians to work in natural resources, construction, and maintenance occupations.

### Chart 4-7. Earnings of blacks and Hispanics are lower than those of Asians and whites





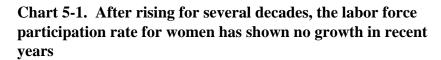
NOTE: Earnings are median weekly earnings of full-time wage and salary workers. Earnings data have been adjusted using the CPI-U-RS research series. Persons whose ethnicity is identified as Hispanic or Latino may be of any race. Data for Asians only available since 2000.

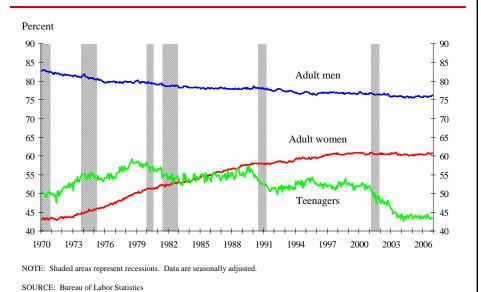
SOURCE: Bureau of Labor Statistics

## Chart 4-7. Earnings of blacks and Hispanics are lower than those of Asians and whites

- The median usual weekly earnings for full-time wage and salary workers are higher for Asians and whites than for blacks and Hispanics.
- In 2006, median weekly earnings of white workers were \$690, compared with \$554 for blacks and \$486 for Hispanic workers. Asians earned \$784 per week.

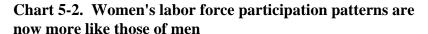
Section 5		
Women		

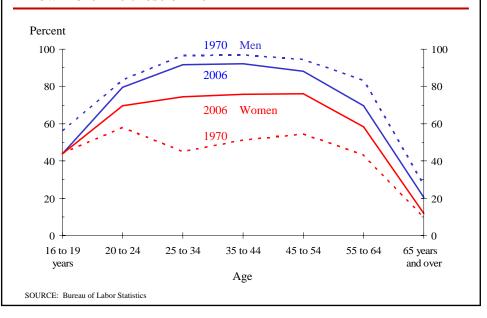




# Chart 5-1. After rising for several decades, the labor force participation rate for women has shown no growth in recent years

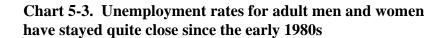
- The labor force participation rate for adult women rose dramatically during the 1970s and 1980s. In the 1990s, growth in participation slowed substantially.
   The participation rate has shown no growth in recent years.
- The participation rate for adult men has drifted down over time.
- The participation rate for teenagers (both sexes, 16 to 19 years old) has trended downward since the late 1970s. From 2000 to 2003, the rate declined sharply. Since 2003, the rate has held fairly steady. The teen rate is more cyclically sensitive than that for adults.

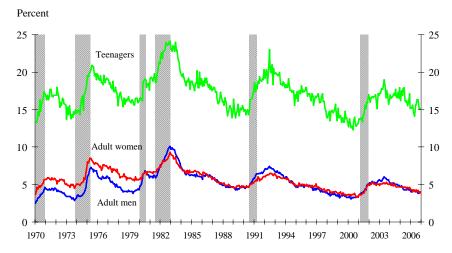




### Chart 5-2. Women's labor force participation patterns are now more like those of men

- In 1970, the impact of marriage and motherhood on women's labor force participation rates was strikingly evident. At that time, their participation reached its initial peak at ages 20-24, dropped at ages 25-34, and then gradually rose to a second peak at ages 45-54 before tapering off.
- In 2006, this pattern of peaks and valleys was no longer evident, as women had
  increasingly added the role of worker to their lives. Indeed, women's labor
  force participation pattern by age now resembles that of men, although at a
  lower overall participation rate.



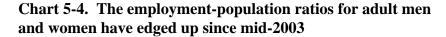


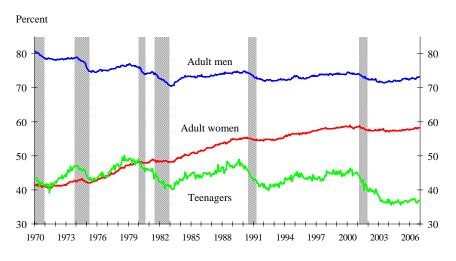
NOTE: Shaded areas represent recessions. Data are seasonally adjusted.

SOURCE: Bureau of Labor Statistics

# Chart 5-3. Unemployment rates for adult men and women have stayed quite close since the early 1980s

- The unemployment rates for adult men and adult women have tracked quite closely since the early 1980s. Prior to that time, the jobless rate for adult women tended to be higher than that for men.
- The jobless rate for teenagers is much higher than that for adults, largely
  because teens have less education and training, less experience, and tend to
  move in and out of the job market more frequently.



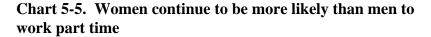


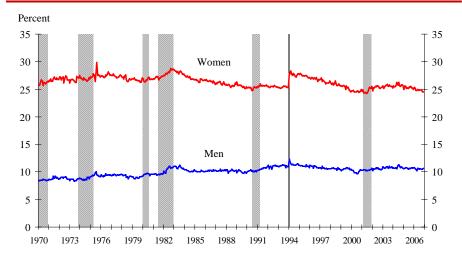
NOTE: Shaded areas represent recessions. Data are seasonally adjusted.

SOURCE: Bureau of Labor Statistics

# Chart 5-4. The employment-population ratios for adult men and women have edged up since mid-2003

- The employment-population ratio (the proportion of the population that is employed) for adult men has hovered around 72 percent since the early 1980s, with the exception of cyclical declines during recessions. The ratio for adult women—58.0 percent in 2006—rose markedly over the past several decades (although there were also cyclical swings), reflecting the dramatic influx of women into the job market.
- The employment-population ratios for adult men and women declined during the 2001 recession, but have edged up since mid-2003.
- The employment-population ratio for teenagers fell steeply from 2000 to 2003, and has leveled off since. The teen ratio is more cyclically sensitive than the ratio for adults.





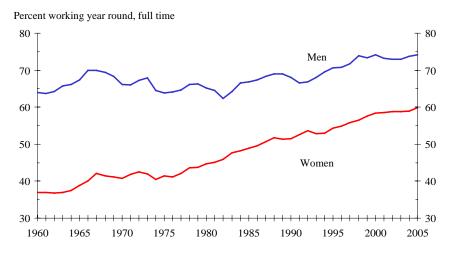
NOTE: Shaded areas represent recessions. Data are seasonally adjusted. Beginning in 1994, data reflect the introduction of a major redesign of the Current Population Survey that included changes affecting the measurement of part-time workers.

SOURCE: Bureau of Labor Statistics

# Chart 5-5. Women continue to be more likely than men to work part time

- Women are more than twice as likely as men to work part time—that is, fewer than 35 hours per week. In 2006, about 25 percent of employed women were part-time workers, compared with 11 percent of employed men.
- The upward shift in part-time employment in January 1994 was due to
  definitional and measurement changes associated with the redesign of the
  Current Population Survey. These changes in definitions and measurement had
  a greater impact on the data for women than for men.



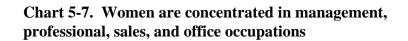


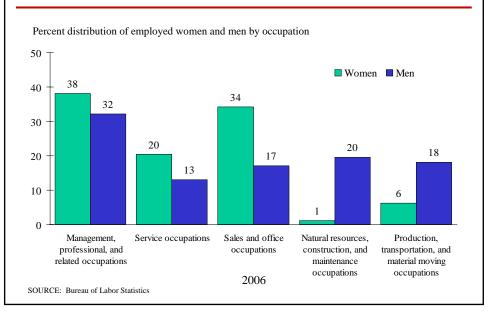
NOTE: Data are collected in March and refer to the preceding calendar year.

SOURCE: Bureau of Labor Statistics

#### Chart 5-6. Year-round, full-time work has trended up

- Among women who work at some time during the year, the proportion working year round (50-52 weeks) and full time (35 hours or more per week) has grown over the past several decades. In part, this trend reflects women's movement into occupations that are typified by year-round, full-time work.
- The proportion of men working year round and full time—which is considerably higher than that for women—showed little definite movement until the early 1980s. Since then, it has trended upward.



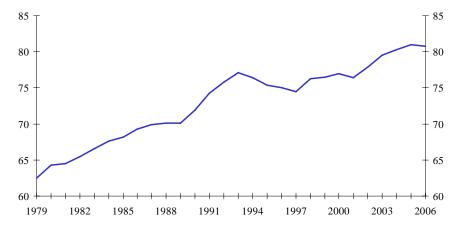


# Chart 5-7. Women are concentrated in management, professional, sales, and office occupations

- Almost three-quarters of women were employed in management, professional, sales, and office occupations in 2006, compared with about half of men.
- Fewer than 1 in 10 women were employed in natural resources, construction, and maintenance occupations or production, transportation, and material moving occupations.

## Chart 5-8. Women's earnings have increased substantially as a percent of men's

Women's earnings as a percent of men's



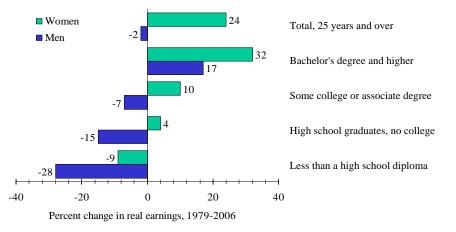
NOTE: Earnings are median usual weekly earnings of full-time wage and salary workers.

SOURCE: Bureau of Labor Statistics

# Chart 5-8. Women's earnings have increased substantially as a percent of men's

- The ratio of women's to men's earnings, at about 81 percent in 2006, has risen sharply since 1979, when it stood at about 63 percent.
- In 2006, black women earned 88 percent of what black men did; among Hispanics, the earnings ratio was 87 percent. In contrast, white women's earnings were 80 percent of white men's and Asian women's earnings were 79 percent of Asian men's.
- This simple comparison of earnings for men and women who usually work full
  time does not control for many factors that can be significant in explaining
  earnings differences, such as educational attainment, occupation, hours of
  work, job tenure, and other factors.

Chart 5-9. The change in real earnings since 1979 has been more favorable for women than for men at all levels of education



NOTE: Change in median usual weekly earnings of full-time wage and salary workers 25 years and older, adjusted using the CPI-U-RS research series as of April 2007. In 2006, data were based on highest diploma or degree received; in 1979, data were based on vears of school completed.

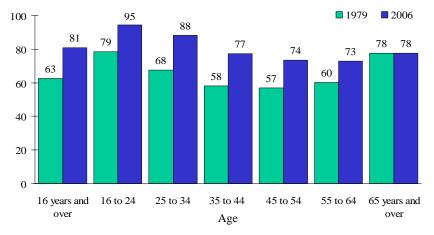
SOURCE: Bureau of Labor Statistics

# Chart 5-9. The change in real earnings since 1979 has been more favorable for women than for men at all levels of education

- Overall, real earnings for women 25 years and over increased by nearly 25 percent from 1979 to 2006, while men's real earnings were little changed.
- Women with at least a high school diploma experienced increases in real earnings. For men, only college graduates saw an increase; all other education groups experienced a decline in real earnings.
- While women fared better overall than men during this time period, in a sense
  they were playing "catch up" to men. The growth in women's earnings reflects
  the impacts of a rise in the proportion of working women with a college
  education, an increase in women in higher-paying managerial and professional
  jobs, and a shift toward more year-round, full-time work among women.

### Chart 5-10. The women's-to-men's earnings ratio has increased for most major age groups

Women's earnings as a percent of men's



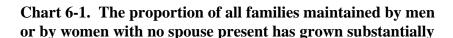
NOTE: Earnings are median usual weekly earnings of full-time wage and salary workers.

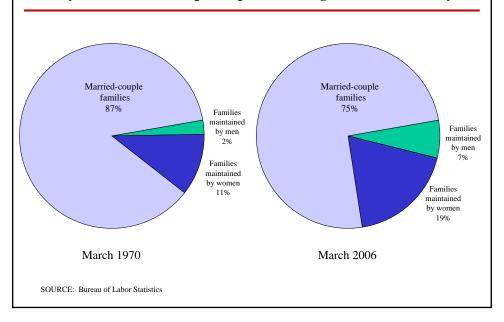
SOURCE: Bureau of Labor Statistics

## Chart 5-10. The women's-to-men's earnings ratio has increased for most major age groups

- The women's-to-men's earnings ratios have increased for workers under 65 years old over the 1979-2006 period. The ratio for those 65 years and over was unchanged.
- In 2006, the ratios were highest for women 16 to 34 years old.
- Care should be taken in interpreting these data, however, as they provide only a
  snapshot of earnings patterns in 2006. Older women faced a different social
  and economic climate at the start of their work lives than that which exists for
  young women today. Consequently, the lifetime earnings pattern of today's
  older women is not a reliable guide to the lifetime earnings pattern of today's
  younger women.

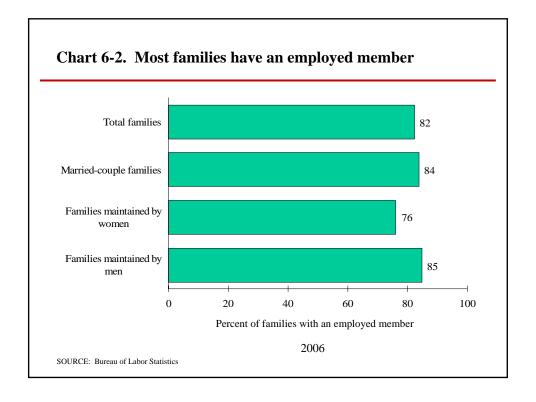
Section 6 Families			





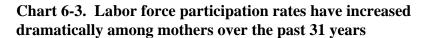
#### Chart 6-1. The proportion of all families maintained by men or by women with no spouse present has grown substantially

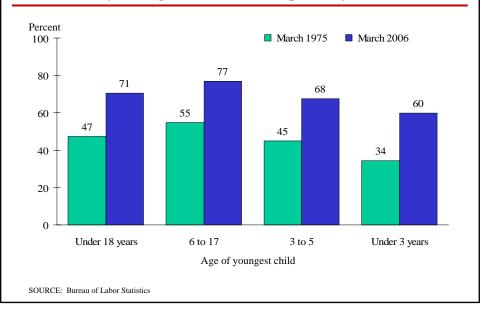
- Families are defined as a group of two or more persons residing together who
  are related by birth, marriage, or adoption. Families are classified either as
  married-couple families or as families maintained by women or men without
  spouses.
- Families maintained by women with no spouse present have grown markedly
  as a proportion of all families over time. In March 2006, almost 2 in 10
  families were maintained by a woman; 36 years earlier, they comprised about
  1 in 10. The percentage of families maintained by men grew from 2 to 7
  percent over the period.
- Not only has the proportion of families maintained by men or women grown dramatically over time, but there also have been remarkable changes in the work patterns among married-couple families. The share of married-couple families in which both the husband and wife had earnings increased from 46 percent in 1970 to 57 percent in 2005, while the proportion comprised of families with just the husband as an earner fell from 33 percent to 18 percent. The proportion of married-couple families with no earners was 14 percent in 2005.



#### Chart 6-2. Most families have an employed member

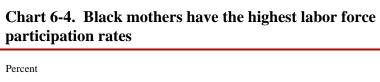
- Overall, about 4 in 5 families had an employed member in 2006. Those maintained by women with no spouse present were somewhat less likely than other families to have an employed member.
- Families with children are more likely to have an employed member (92 percent) than families with no children (75 percent). Many families without children are made up of older persons, who are less likely to be in the labor force.
- Of the 4.9 million families with an unemployed member in 2006, 70 percent had at least one worker.

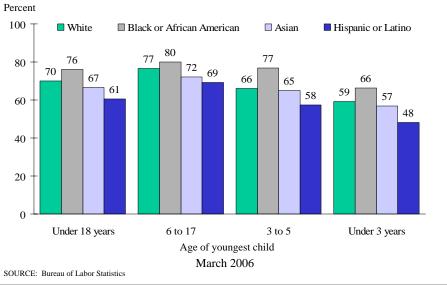




# Chart 6-3. Labor force participation rates have increased dramatically among mothers over the past 31 years

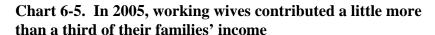
- In 2006, about 7 out of 10 mothers were labor force participants. In 1975, about 5 out of 10 were working or looking for work.
- In 2006, participation rates ranged from 60 percent for mothers whose youngest child was under 3 years old to 77 percent for those whose youngest child was 6 to 17.

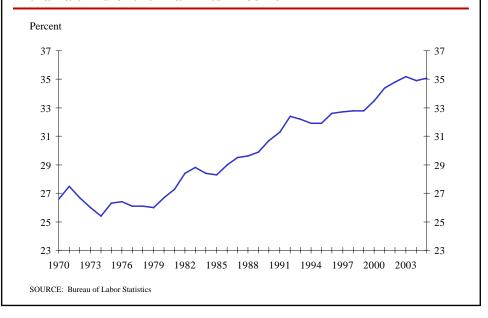




# Chart 6-4. Black mothers have the highest labor force participation rates

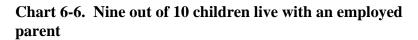
- In 2006, as in the past, black mothers with children under 18 were more likely than white mothers to be in the labor force—76 percent compared with 70 percent.
- Asian and Hispanic mothers were less likely than either black or white mothers to be labor force participants.

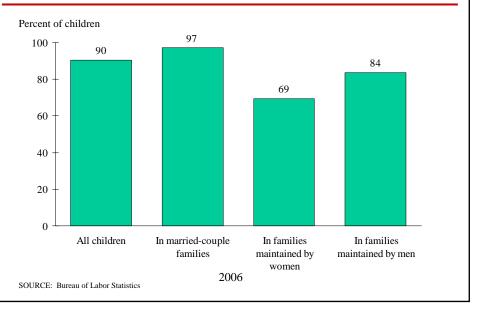




### Chart 6-5. In 2005, working wives contributed a little more than a third of their families' income

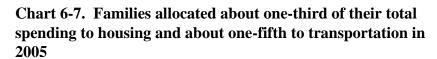
- As more wives have entered higher-paying occupations and more wives work full time all year, their contribution to family income has increased. By 2005, 35 cents of every dollar of married-couple family income were earned by the wife.
- Among married-couple families where both the wife and husband have earnings, 26 percent of wives earned more than their husbands in 2005. This was up from 18 percent in 1987.

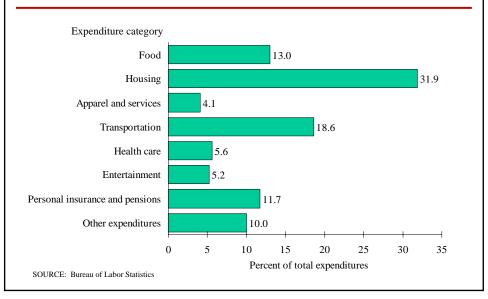




## Chart 6-6. Nine out of 10 children live with an employed parent

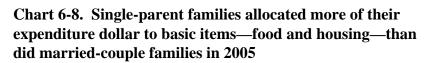
- Children in married-couple families are more likely to live with an employed parent (97 percent) than are children in families maintained by women (69 percent) or men (84 percent) with no spouse present.
- About 62 percent of all children live with mothers who work. Children are more likely to have a working mother in families maintained by women (69 percent) than are children in married-couple families (64 percent).

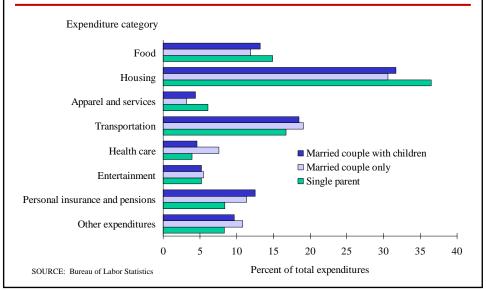




# Chart 6-7. Families allocated about one-third of their total spending to housing and about one-fifth to transportation in 2005

- Families are defined here as consumer units of two or more persons. These
  consumer units are traditionally-defined families or unrelated individuals who
  make joint expenditure decisions.
- Food was the third largest component in total spending. About 13 cents of every expenditure dollar was allocated to food.
- From 2004 to 2005, the largest increase among the major components of spending occurred in housing.

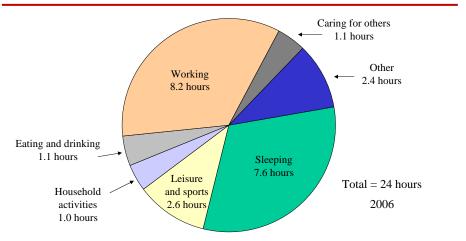




# Chart 6-8. Single-parent families allocated more of their expenditure dollar to basic items—food and housing—than did married-couple families in 2005

- In addition to food and housing, single-parent families allocated a larger share
  of their expenditure dollar to apparel and services (about 6 percent) than did
  other family groups.
- Married couples spent more as a share of total spending on transportation (about 19 percent) than did single-parent families.
- Each family group allocated roughly 5 cents of every expenditure dollar to entertainment.

Chart 6-9. On weekdays that they worked, employed persons with children spent two-thirds of an average day working and sleeping



NOTE: Data are for weekdays (Monday-Friday) only and refer to employed persons ages 25 to 54 who worked on the diary day and lived in households with children under 18. All categories, except sleeping and working, include related travel time. Data are 2006 annual averages.

SOURCE: Bureau of Labor Statistics

# Chart 6-9. On weekdays that they worked, employed persons with children spent two-thirds of an average day working and sleeping

- On an average work day (Monday-Friday) in 2006, employed persons ages 25
  to 54 with children in the household worked about one-third (8.2 hours) of the
  day. No other single activity was allocated as much time.
- This same group slept 7.6 hours on weekdays that they worked—0.7 hour less than the average for workers 15 years and older. The remainder of the day was spent doing a variety of activities, including leisure and sports (2.6 hours); caring for others (1.1 hours); eating and drinking (1.1 hours); household activities such as housework, food preparation, and household management (1.0 hours); and other miscellaneous activities.
- Of the 1.1 hours spent per day caring for others, about an hour was spent
  providing care to children (household and non-household) under the age of 18
  as a primary activity. Primary childcare activities include bathing, dressing,
  reading to, and playing with children.