

ZONING ADVISORY PANEL PUBLIC COMMENT

Received Between September 17, 2021 (noon) and October 8, 2021 (noon)

As part of the County's strong commitment to an open and transparent public process, comments received from any Citizen which reference the Zoning Advisory Panel (ZAP) are usually made available to the general public through uploading the comments to the County's website prior to the next ZAP meeting. Similarly, if the commenter requests, the information may also be forwarded to the ZAP Members directly.

** Please Note: Inclusion of Public Comments herein, does not imply any support nor opposition of the comments by the County.*

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From: [Thomas, Andrew](#)
To: [County Planning Mail](#)
Subject: Public comment, ZAP, 9.22.2021
Date: Wednesday, September 22, 2021 1:27:59 PM
Attachments: [Public comment, ZAP, Andrew Thomas, 9.22.2021.docx](#)
[2021LaborMarket-OneSheet.pdf](#)
[Real wages..pdf](#)

CAUTION: This email originated from outside of the organization. Do not click links or open attachments unless you recognize the sender and know the content is safe.

Please see attached public comment and supporting documentation.

Thank you,

Andrew Thomas

--

Andrew R. Thomas

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Public comment, ZAP Meeting, September 22, 2021

1. To address David Brown's comment regarding intergenerational perceptions, I strongly encourage the ZAP to consider the following:
2. **Wage Stagnation in Nine Charts**
<https://www.epi.org/publication/charting-wage-stagnation/>

FIGURE 1

The U.S. middle class had \$17,867 less income in 2007 because of the growth of inequality since 1979

Household income of the broad middle class, actual and projected assuming no growth in inequality, 1979–2011



Note: Data show average income of households in the middle three-fifths.

Source: EPI analysis of Congressional Budget Office data

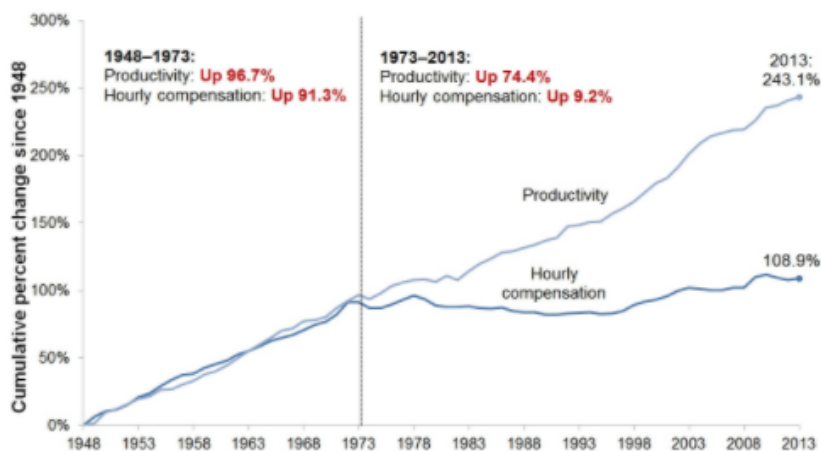
Reproduced from Figure I in *Raising America's Pay: Why It's Our Central Economic Policy Challenge*

Share on Facebook Tweet this chart

FIGURE 2

Workers produced much more, but typical workers' pay lagged far behind

Disconnect between productivity and typical worker's compensation, 1948–2013



Note: Data are for compensation (wages and benefits) of production/nonsupervisory workers in the private sector and net productivity of the total economy. "Net productivity" is the growth of output of goods and services less depreciation per hour worked.

Source: EPI analysis of Bureau of Labor Statistics and Bureau of Economic Analysis data

Updated from Figure A in *Raising America's Pay: Why It's Our Central Economic Policy Challenge*

FIGURE 3

When it comes to the pace of annual pay increases, the top 1% wage grew 138% since 1979, while wages for the bottom 90% grew 15%

Cumulative change in real annual wages, by wage group, 1979–2013

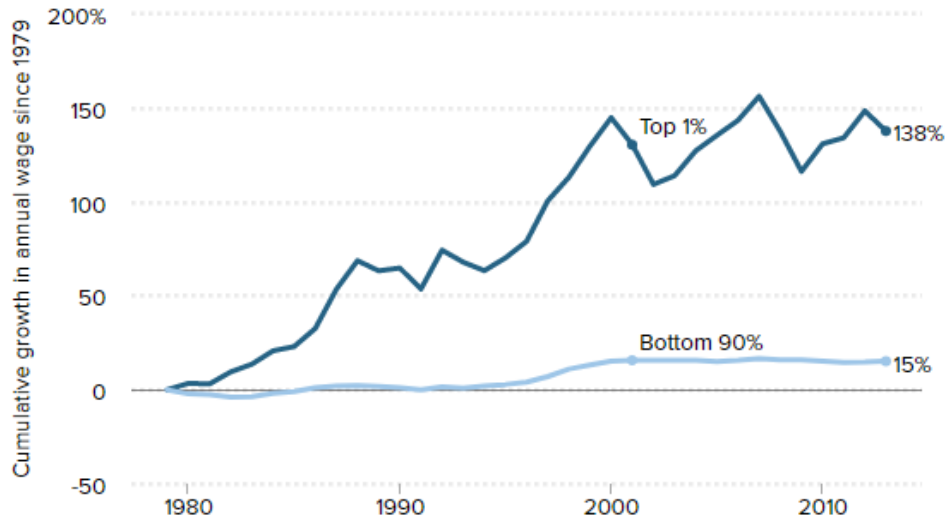


Chart Data

Source: EPI analysis of data from Kopczuk, Saez, and Song (2010) and Social Security Administration wage statistics

Reproduced from Figure F in *Raising America's Pay: Why It's Our Central Economic Policy Challenge*

FIGURE 4

Middle-class wages are stagnant—Middle-wage workers' hourly wage is up 6% since 1979, low-wage workers' wages are down 5%, while those with very high wages saw a 41% increase

Cumulative change in real hourly wages of all workers, by wage percentile,* 1979–2013

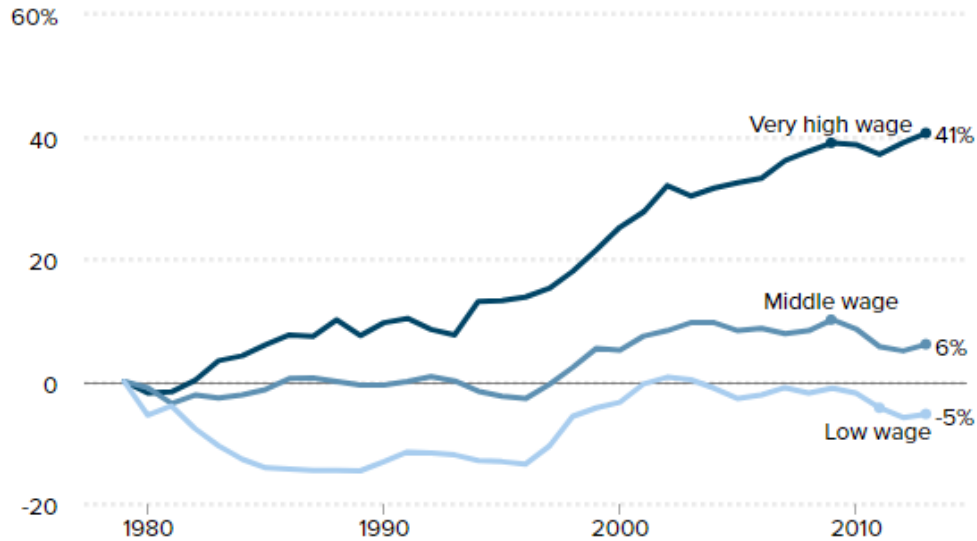


Chart Data

* Low wage is 10th percentile, middle wage is 50th percentile, very high wage is 95th percentile.

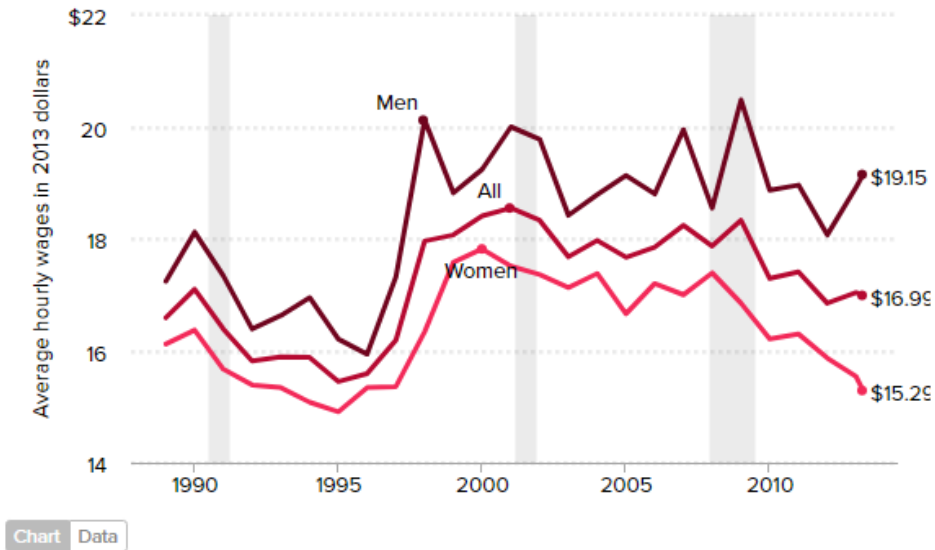
Source: EPI analysis of Current Population Survey Outgoing Rotation Group microdata

Reproduced from Figure F in *Why America's Workers Need Faster Wage Growth—And What We Can*

FIGURE 5

Wages of young college grads have been falling since 2000

Real average hourly wages of young college graduates, 1989–2014



Note: Data are for college graduates age 21–24 who do not have an advanced degree and are not enrolled in further schooling. Data for 2014 represent 12-month average from April 2013–March 2014. Shaded areas denote recessions.

Source: EPI analysis of Current Population Survey Outgoing Rotation Group microdata

Adapted from Figure N in *The Class of 2014: The Weak Economy Is Idling Too Many Young Graduates* ...

FIGURE 6

Employers are cutting health care for young workers, both college and high school graduates

Share of employed recent high school and college graduates with health insurance provided by their own employer, 1989–2012

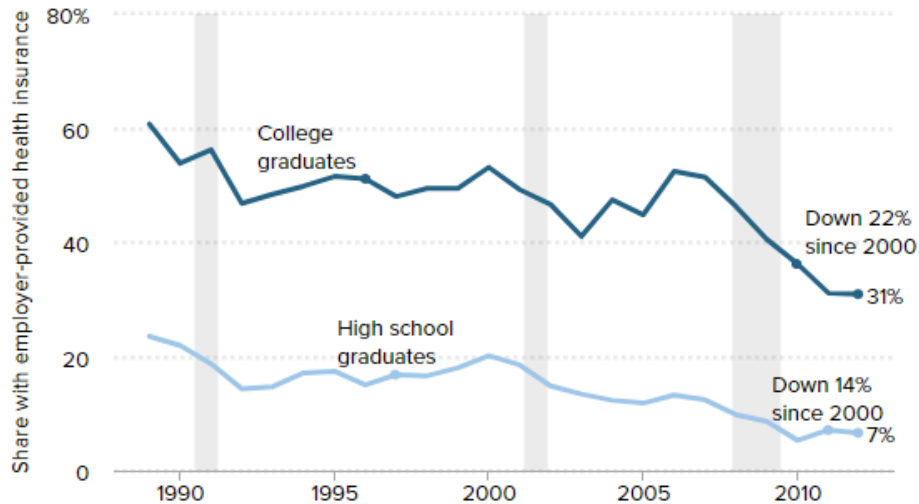


Chart Data

Note: Coverage is defined as being included in an employer-provided plan where the employer paid for at least some of the coverage. Data are for college graduates age 21–24 who do not have an advanced degree and are not enrolled in further schooling, and high school graduates age 17–20 who are not enrolled in further schooling. Shaded areas denote recessions.

Source: EPI analysis of Current Population Annual Social and Economic Supplement microdata
Reproduced from Figure O in *The Class of 2014: The Weak Economy Is Idling Too Many Young Graduates*

Economic Policy Institute

3. What's causing wage stagnation in America?
<https://insight.kellogg.northwestern.edu/article/wage-stagnation-in-america#:~:text=U.S.%20workers%20have%20grappled%20with%20wage%20stagnation%20for,cheap%20goods%20from%20China%20and%20sapped%20domestic%20>
4. Are wages rising, falling, or stagnating? <https://www.brookings.edu/blog/up-front/2019/09/10/are-wages-rising-falling-or-stagnating/>
5. Congressional Research Service, Real Wage Trends, 1979 to 2019, <https://sgp.fas.org/crs/misc/R45090.pdf> See attached.
6. Health care: America vs. the World. PBS News Hour: <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=BytzrjEfyfA>
7. Why Housing Policy Feels Like Generational Warfare, To Millennials, at least By [Alexis C. Madrigal](https://www.theatlantic.com/technology/archive/2019/06/why-millennials-cant-afford-buy-house/591532/), The Atlantic <https://www.theatlantic.com/technology/archive/2019/06/why-millennials-cant-afford-buy-house/591532/>
8. A majority of young adults in the U.S. live with their parents for the first time since the Great Depression, <https://www.pewresearch.org/fact-tank/2020/09/04/a-majority-of->

A. Thomas, Public Comment, ZAP, 9.22.2021

[young-adults-in-the-u-s-live-with-their-parents-for-the-first-time-since-the-great-depression/](#)

9. Will births rebound in the US? Probably not. <https://www.brookings.edu/blog/up-front/2021/05/24/will-births-in-the-us-rebound-probably-not/>
10. Montana's Labor Shortage: <https://dli.mt.gov/Portals/57/Documents/2021LaborMarket-OneSheet.pdf> see attached.
11. THE MONTANA GAP: Finding the formula: http://www.choteauacantha.com/news/article_dc8cc48a-f644-11e7-acbe-2f82951ae8e1.html

AT A GLANCE

MONTANA'S LABOR SHORTAGE

Montana is open for business, but a critical labor shortage, stemming in large part from a pandemic-era expansion of unemployment, affects nearly every industry in our economy. It's a crisis that threatens to stifle growth and leave our economy behind.

Montana businesses face worker shortage while recovering from pandemic losses

— KTVH Helena Montana

"...[Steve's Café owner Steve] Vincelli says he made the decision to only open six days a week at each location because of staffing difficulties and not wanting to burn out the staff he does have...Steve's Cafe isn't the only business struggling to find workers right now. Many other Main Street businesses across the state are having hiring difficulties."

Labor shortage: Missoula businesses struggle to find workers

— Missoulian

"Jack and Christy Wich are desperate to give people jobs, but they can't find anyone willing to take them...'Some other employers I've talked to feel the same way,' she said. 'The enhanced unemployment the government put out was wonderful for a lot of people, but at this point they don't have to go out and actively look for work. And that goes through September, so that's going to mean a tough summer for us.'"

Kalispell café temporarily closes due to staffing shortage

— Daily Inter Lake

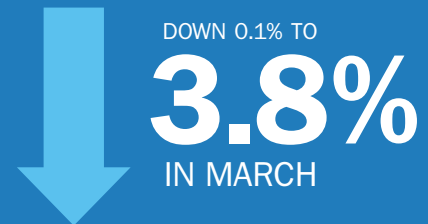
"'We made this difficult choice because we are unable to find enough staff to maintain consistent operations in this location,' the company said in a news release."

Flathead employers face staffing shortage, virtual workforce event planned next week

— NBC Montana

"Proof Research is a barrel manufacturer that also makes full build rifles and composite stocks. They say they're also facing a staffing shortage...'As our business continues to grow, we continue to look for employees, and right now it's a pretty tough market out there in the valley. There are so many places that are hiring, so a lot of competition with trying to find employees,' Proof Research HR manager Kim Johnson said."

Montana Unemployment Rate



-10,000 Workers

Our workforce is 10,000 or more workers smaller than it was pre-pandemic – despite an influx of new residents from out-of-state.

Enter Job Title, Skill, or Location Search for a Job

14,000+ Jobs

Job openings available statewide on
MontanaWorks.Gov



**Congressional
Research Service**

Informing the legislative debate since 1914

Real Wage Trends, 1979 to 2019

Updated December 28, 2020

Congressional Research Service
<https://crsreports.congress.gov>

R45090

Summary

Wage earnings are the largest source of income for many workers, and wage gains are a primary lever for raising living standards. Reports of stagnant median wages have therefore raised concerns among some that economic growth over the last several decades has not translated into gains for all worker groups. To shed light on recent patterns, this report estimates real (inflation-adjusted) wage trends at the 10th, 50th (median), and 90th percentiles of the wage distributions for the workforce as a whole and for several demographic groups, and it explores changes in educational attainment and occupation for these groups over the 1979 to 2019 period.

Key findings of this report include the following:

- **Real wages rose at the top of the distribution, whereas wages rose at lower rates or fell at the middle and bottom.** Real (inflation-adjusted) wages at the 90th percentile increased over 1979 to 2019 for the workforce as a whole and across sex, race, and Hispanic ethnicity. However, at the 90th percentile, wage growth was much higher for White workers and lower for Black and Hispanic workers. By contrast, middle (50th percentile) and bottom (10th percentile) wages grew to a lesser degree (e.g., women) or declined in real terms (e.g., men).
- **The gender wage gap narrowed, but other gaps did not.** From 1979 to 2019, the gap between the women's median wage and men's median wage became smaller. Gaps expanded between the median wages for Black and White workers and for Hispanic and non-Hispanic workers over the same period.
- **Real wages fell for workers with lower levels of educational attainment and rose for highly educated workers.** Wages for workers with a high school diploma or less education declined in real terms at the top, middle, and bottom of the wage distribution, whereas wages rose for workers with at least a college degree. The wage value of a college degree (relative to a high school education) increased markedly over 1979-2000. The college wage premium has leveled since that time, but it remains high. High-wage workers, as a group, benefited more from the increased payoff to a college degree because they are the best educated and had the highest gains in educational attainment over the 1979 to 2019 period.
- **Education and occupation patterns appear to be important to wage trends.** Worker groups studied in this report were more likely to have earned a bachelor's or advanced degree in 2019 than workers in 1979, with the gains in college degree attainment being particularly large for workers in the highest wage groups. For some low- and middle-wage worker groups, however, these educational gains were not sufficient to raise wages. Workers' occupational categories appear to matter as well and may help explain the failure of education alone to raise wages.

The focus of this report is on wage rates and changes at selected wage percentiles, with some attention given to the potential influence of educational attainment and the occupational distribution of worker groups on wage patterns. Other factors are likely to contribute to wage trends over the 1979 to 2019 period as well, including changes in the supply and demand for workers, labor market institutions, workplace organization and practices, and macroeconomic trends. This report provides an overview of how these broad forces are thought to interact with wage determination, but it does not attempt to measure their contribution to wage patterns over the last four decades. For example, changes over time in the supply and demand for workers with

different skill sets (e.g., as driven by technological change and new international trade patterns) are likely to affect wage growth. A declining real minimum wage and decreasing unionization rates may lead to slower wage growth for workers more reliant on these institutions to provide wage protection, whereas changes in pay-setting practices in certain high-pay occupations, the emergence of superstar earners (e.g., in sports and entertainment), and skill-biased technological changes may have improved wage growth for some workers at the top of the wage distribution. Macroeconomic factors, business cycles, and other national economic trends affect the overall demand for workers, with consequences for aggregate wage growth, and may affect employers' production decisions (e.g., production technology and where to produce) with implications for the distribution of wage income. These factors are briefly discussed at the end of the report.

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Introduction

Wage earnings are the largest source of income for many workers, and wage gains are a primary lever for raising living standards.¹ Evidence that wage growth has stagnated among low- and middle-wage workers has therefore been viewed with concern and has raised questions about the patterns and magnitudes of these trends.

This report addresses such questions by examining real (inflation-adjusted) wage trends over the 1979 to 2019 period.² Specifically, it uses cross-sectional data collected from the Current Population Survey (CPS), a nationally representative sample of workers, to estimate real hourly wages at the 10th, 50th (median), and 90th percentiles of the wage distribution in each year, and then explores how those wage levels change over time.³ The sample comprises employed (full- and part-time), nonmilitary nonfarm wage and salary earners aged 25 to 64 years. Finally, all hourly wages were converted to 2019 dollars using the Consumer Price Index for All Urban Consumers, U.S. City Average (CPI-U).⁴ **Appendix A** provides details on the methodology used in this report.

While wages are typically the primary component of compensation—accounting for about 70% of compensation for the average worker—non-wage compensation, such as employer-provided health insurance, paid leave, and retirement contributions, plays a role in living standards as well.⁵ Workers may experience gains or losses in wages but overall compensation may not track these changes exactly because of the cost of non-wage compensation. For example, a 2015 study from the Bureau of Labor Statistics (BLS) found that while the overall median wage fell between 2007 and 2014, total compensation was statistically unchanged, mainly due to the rising costs of health insurance.⁶ In addition, due to the relative costs and provisions of benefits for workers at

¹ According to Congressional Budget Office (CBO) analysis of incomes in 2017, wage and salary income made up at least 62% of market income for households in the lower 95% of the income distribution. Labor income comprised nearly 58% of market income for households in the 96th to 99th percentiles. At 31%, labor earnings make up a lower, but still significant, share of household income among the top 1%. CBO defines market income as labor income, business income, capital gains realized from the sale of assets, capital income excluding capital gains, and income received in retirement for past services or from other sources. Conceptually, these percentages underestimate labor income because they exclude business income, and some business owners contribute labor to their firms and are compensated in the form of business income in lieu of wages. CBO, *The Distribution of Household Income and Federal Taxes, 2017*, October 2020, supplementary data, at <https://www.cbo.gov/publication/56575>.

² The analysis starts in 1979 because that is the first year for which comparable data to future years are available.

³ The data used to create annual hourly wage distributions (1979-2019) are from the Current Population Survey (CPS) Outgoing Rotation Groups (ORGs). **Appendix A** documents methods used to address outliers (i.e., implausibly low or high wage reports), the Census Bureau's practice of "top-coding" information on earnings, and other issues.

⁴ The CPI-U, which is a measure of the average change over time in prices paid by consumers for a market basket of goods and services, is commonly used to compare the real (inflation-adjusted) value of earnings or spending data at different points in time. The CPI-U, for example, is the most common index used to adjust state minimum wage rates. Other indices used to adjust for inflation in wage studies include the Consumer Price Index Research Series Using Current Methods (CPI-U-RS) and the Price Index for Personal Consumption Expenditures (PCE). As a point of comparison, from 1979 to 2019, the average annual increases in the CPI-U, CPI-U-RS, and PCE were 3.2%, 3.0%, and 2.7%, respectively. For a detailed description of indices used to adjust wages and a comparison of the values for different indices, see CRS Report R44667, *The Federal Minimum Wage: Indexation*, by David H. Bradley. There is no correction for regional price differences.

⁵ In June 2020, about 32% of the average worker's total compensation was in the form of employer-provided benefits. See Bureau of Labor Statistics, U.S. Department of Labor, *Employer Costs for Employee Compensation – June 2020 2020*, USDL-20-1736, Washington, DC, September 17, 2020, <https://www.bls.gov/news.release/pdf/ecec.pdf>.

⁶ Kristen Monaco and Brooks Pierce, *Compensation Inequality: Evidence from the National Compensation Survey*, Bureau of Labor Statistics, U.S. Department of Labor, *Monthly Labor Review*, Washington, DC, July 2015,

different points in the wage distribution, trends in wage and compensation inequality may differ over time.⁷

Because the data are cross-sectional, the trends identified in this report describe patterns among *groups of workers* at different percentiles in the wage distribution, but not the experience of individual workers. That is, because the CPS does not track the wages of a fixed group of workers over long periods of time, a finding that median wages have stagnated over the 1979 to 2019 period does not necessarily mean that a worker earning the median wage in 1979 personally experienced zero wage growth over this period. Individuals can and do move throughout the wage distribution over time. Instead, wage stagnation at the median indicates that the wage level below which half the population earns has not risen considerably between 1979 and 2019, as might be expected if overall living standards had increased broadly (i.e., such that the entire wage distribution *shifted* upwards).

In summary, analysis of the data shows that overall wages rose in real terms over the 1979 to 2019 period at the top of the wage distribution, increased more modestly at the middle of the wage distribution, and rose to an even lesser degree at the bottom of the distribution. Within these overall trends, there were important differences in patterns across demographic groups (e.g., median wages for women increased, whereas those for men declined). Differential patterns of wage growth narrowed the gap between median hourly earnings of men and women (i.e., the gender wage gap), but other wage gaps did not show such change over time. Real wages fell for workers with lower levels of educational attainment (i.e., a high school degree or less) and rose for highly educated workers, contributing to a wage gap between workers with different educational attainment levels that grew markedly over the 1979 to 2000 period and has plateaued since then. The rising wage premium to post-secondary education has likely contributed to relatively high wage growth at the top of the distribution, because workers there have greater shares of college-educated workers. Occupational composition of worker groups appears to matter as well and may explain the failure of education alone to raise wages for some groups. The report closes with a brief discussion of three groups of factors—market, institutional, and macroeconomic—that are widely thought to contribute to wage patterns.

Real Wage Trends

This section describes trends in real hourly wages over the 1979 to 2019 period at selected wage percentiles for nonmilitary, nonfarm workers between the ages of 25 and 64; wage patterns are disaggregated by sex, race, Hispanic ethnicity, and education. Wage trends for low-, middle-, and high-wage groups are examined by plotting wages at the 10th, 50th, and 90th percentiles of each demographic group's wage distribution over the period of study.⁸

<https://doi.org/10.21916/mlr.2015.24>.

⁷ For example, in the 2007 to 2014 period, BLS found that wage inequality was lower than compensation inequality due in part by more costly benefits for higher-wage workers. Kristen Monaco and Brooks Pierce, *Compensation inequality: evidence from the National Compensation Survey*, Bureau of Labor Statistics, U.S. Department of Labor, *Monthly Labor Review*, Washington, DC, July 2015, <https://doi.org/10.21916/mlr.2015.24>.

⁸ Wage percentiles indicate the wage level below which a certain share of a population falls. For example, a 10th percentile of \$12.00 for the overall population of wage earners indicates that 10% of wage earners have wages less than \$12.00. Likewise, a 10th percentile wage of \$9.75 for women indicates that 10% of female wage earners have wages less than \$9.75. This report uses the conventional approach of studying wages at the 10th, 50th, and 90th percentiles to estimate wage trends for low, middle, and high-wage earners, respectively. As a check, the same analysis presented in this report was conducted at the 20th and 80th percentiles to test that these patterns were not unique to the 10th and 90th percentile wage trends. These checks confirmed that similar patterns of wage growth held across the demographic

Wage trends are examined separately within demographic groups because workers in these groups are not distributed proportionately within the overall wage distribution. A sole focus on the overall wage distribution would therefore mask important differences in wage trends between groups. For example, because workers at the top of the distribution are disproportionately male, White, and, non-Hispanic (see **Appendix B**), tracking trends only in the overall distribution provides information mainly for those workers and may miss trends among relatively high-earning workers in other groups. **Appendix B** provides detailed data on the composition of different parts of the wage distribution in 1979 and 2019.

In addition to trends, estimated wage levels (i.e., dollars per hour) are presented at various points in time and wages are compared and contrasted across worker groups. As is always the case, wage estimates are influenced by the methodology used to produce them. For example, potential outliers are addressed by excluding very high and very low wages from the sample; related studies that do not “trim” their data in this way may achieve different wage estimates at the various percentiles.⁹ The methods used in this report are summarized in **Appendix A**.

As noted earlier, data used to analyze wage trends are cross-sectional, meaning that a separate nationally representative sample of workers is used to describe wages in each year. For this reason, trends in this section do not demonstrate wage patterns for a fixed set of workers. Individual workers can and often do move throughout the wage distribution over time, such that a worker at the 50th percentile in 1980 may be at a higher or lower percentile in subsequent years.¹⁰

Table 1 provides graphic presentations of real hourly wages across different demographic groups from 1979 to 2019. Also presented is the cumulative percentage change in real hourly wages at the 10th, 50th, and 90th percentiles between 1979 and 2019. It is worth noting that this measure is calculated using wage data only in those two years, and will therefore be very sensitive to year-to-year changes at the endpoints.¹¹ A negative cumulative percentage does not indicate, for example, that wages have fallen continuously over the entire 1979 to 2019 period.

groups, with some exceptions. Cumulative wage growth at the 80th percentile, while lower than that at the 90th percentile, was positive and higher than that at the median. Cumulative wage growth at the 20th percentile tends to be lower than that at the median and close or higher than that at the 10th percentile, but this was not always the case. For example, Black workers and Hispanic workers had higher cumulative wage growth rates at the 20th percentile than at the median.

⁹ Similarly, the earnings data used in this study are “top-coded” for very high earners, which means that actual earnings are not observed above a given dollar level (called a “top-code”). There are several ways of addressing this empirical challenge; CRS’s methods are described in **Appendix A**.

¹⁰ In addition, wage trends in this study reflect patterns among employed workers. Unemployed workers and those not participating in the labor market are not included in the analysis. The large job losses that occurred during the 2007 to 2009 economic recession as well as the continued pattern of declining labor force participation rates since the late 1990s may affect wage trends, particularly at the lower end of the distribution. For example, if low-wage workers drop out of the labor force because they are discouraged by their earnings prospects, the reduction in labor supply (and compositional effects) may result in wages higher than they would be if such workers remained in the workforce. In this study, it is not possible to estimate the size of such an effect.

¹¹ For example, the cumulative percentage change between 1979 and 2019 in hourly wages for non-Hispanic Black workers at the 10th percentile was 7.7% (**Table 1**). The cumulative percentage change between 1979 and 2018 was -0.3% for this group, between 1979 and 2017 it was 2.1%; between 1979 and 2016 it was -0.9%. The year-to-year difference is in each of these examples driven entirely by year-to-year changes in the 10th percentile wage level for non-Hispanic Black workers over the 2016 to 2019 period.

Table 1. Real Wage Trends over 1979-2019, by Selected Demographic Characteristics

Demographic	Real Wage Trends <i>Shaded Bars = Recessions</i>	Cumulative % Change in Real Wages		
		10 th percentile	50 th percentile	90 th percentile
Overall		6.5%	8.8%	41.3%
Men		-7.7%	-3.0%	41.9%
Women		9.6%	28.8%	70.6%
White (Non-Hispanic)		11.8%	13.5%	46.3%
Black (Non-Hispanic)		7.7%	1.2%	28.5%
Hispanic		-0.6%	-2.2%	14.0%
Non-Hispanic		6.7%	10.1%	42.7%

Sources: CRS estimates using Current Population Survey Outgoing Rotation Group data for 1979-2019. Recession data are from the National Bureau of Economic Research, at <http://www.nber.org/cycles.html>.

Notes: Sample comprises nonfarm wage and salary workers who are 25-64 years old and provide sufficient information to compute an hourly wage. Periods of recession are shaded in gray. Dollar amounts are adjusted for inflation using the Bureau of Labor Statistics Current Price Index for All Urban Consumers (CPI-U); <https://www.bls.gov/cpi/>.

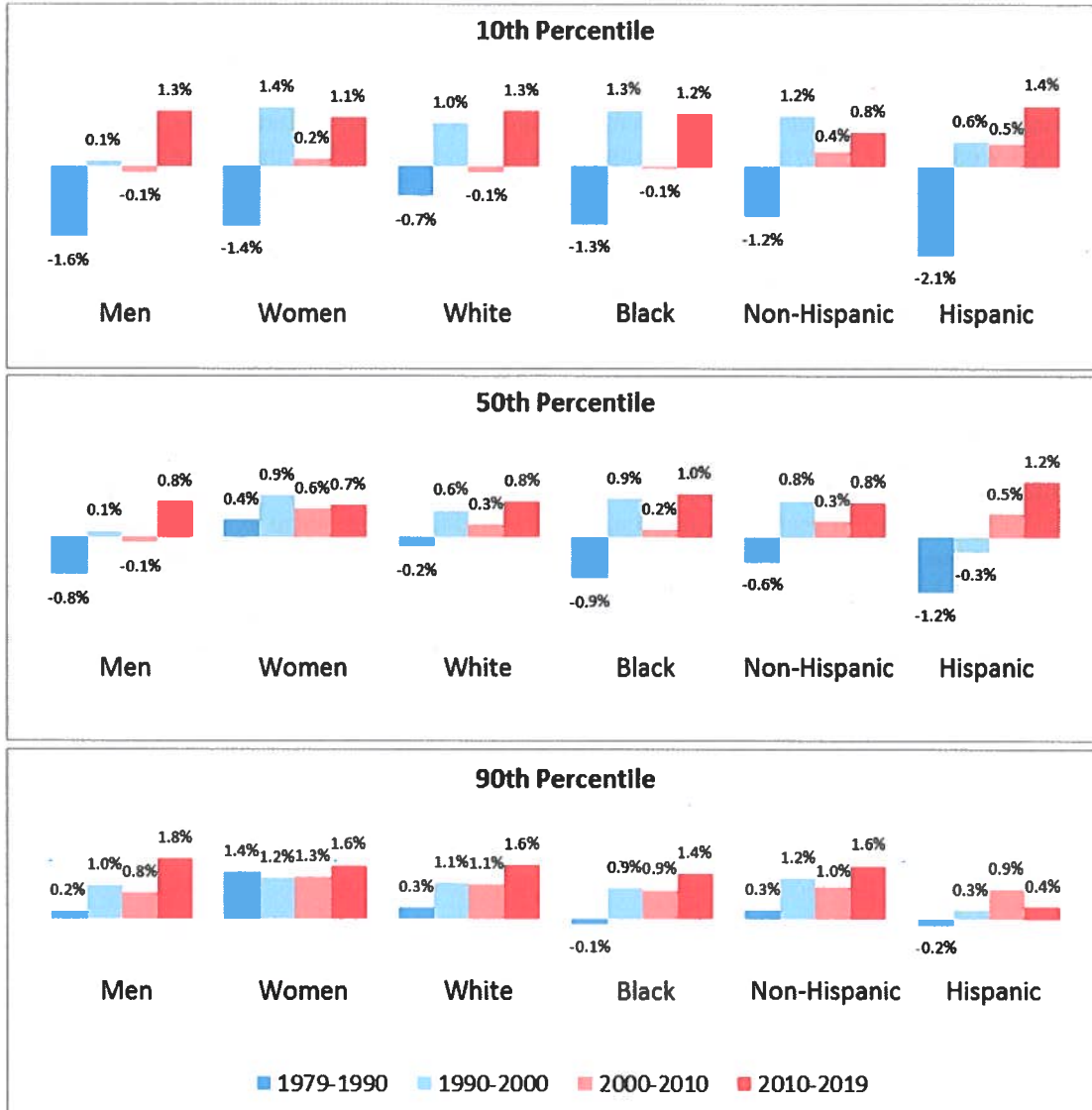
Wages at the 90th percentile increased across demographic groups, ranging from rates of 14.0% (Hispanic workers) to 70.6% (women). Overall, wages at the 90th percentile increased from an estimated \$39.14 to \$55.29 (a 41.3% increase) over the 40 years between 1979 and 2019, but the growth rate was not constant. After increasing by \$5.10 (\$39.14 to \$44.24) over the 20 years from 1979 to 1999, wages at the 90th percentile grew by an estimated \$11.05 over the 20 years from 1999 to 2019.¹²

Median wage trends were not uniform across demographic groups, with wages decreasing for some groups (e.g., men and Hispanic workers) but increasing for others (e.g., women). Overall, median wages increased from an estimated \$21.14 to \$23.00 (a 8.8% increase) over the 1979 to 2019 period. Wages at the 10th percentile followed a similar pattern (i.e., declining for men and Hispanic worker groups, but rising for others). Overall, wages at the 10th percentile increased in real terms from an estimated \$11.27 to \$12.00 (a 6.5% increase).

To explore how real wage trends evolved over the 1979 to 2019 period, **Figure 1** shows annualized wage growth rates over various time periods (roughly a decade each) by wage percentile and demographic group. Considering first wage growth at the 10th and 50th percentiles, **Figure 1** reveals that the 10th percentile wage declined in real terms during the 1980s for all groups, and, with the exception of women, the median (50th percentile) wage declined as well. In the 1990s, 10th percentile and median wages increased for nearly all demographic groups. This was followed by a general slowdown (and some modest declines) in real wage growth in 2000-2010, after which (i.e., 2010-2019) 10th percentile and median wages grew for all demographic groups. Annualized real wage growth at the 90th percentile was positive in all periods and for all demographic groups except Black workers and Hispanic workers, for whom the 90th percentile wage declined slightly during the 1980s.

¹² Put another way, annualized wage growth was 0.6% over 1979-1999 and 1.1% over 1999-2019.

Figure I. Annualized Real Wage Growth by Percentile and Demographic



Source: CRS estimates using Current Population Survey Outgoing Rotation Group data for 1979-2019.

Notes: Sample comprises nonfarm wage and salary workers who are 25-64 years old and provide sufficient information to compute an hourly wage. Dollar amounts are adjusted for inflation using the Bureau of Labor Statistics Current Price Index for All Urban Consumers (CPI-U); <https://www.bls.gov/cpi/>.

Wage Trends for Low, Middle, and High Earners by Sex, Race, Ethnicity, and Educational Attainment

Aggregate trends and overall averages can mask important dynamics within groups. For example, although women *as a group* saw sizable wage gains across the 10th, 50th, and 90th percentiles from 1979 to 2019, the trends and growth rates varied considerably between Black and White women and between Hispanic and non-Hispanic women.¹³ Similar variation occurred within other demographic groups. Further, comparing rates of change can be misleading because worker groups start (in 1979) at different base wages.¹⁴ For example, women's wage growth over 1979-2019 at the median was 28.8%, compared to a 3.0% wage loss experienced by men at the median. However, the median wage for women in 2019 was *still lower than the male median wage* in the same year.

This section explores these patterns by disaggregating the major trends in real hourly wages by sex, race, and Hispanic ethnicity; these are presented in **Figure 2**, below. The discussion is organized by earner group—low wage (10th percentile), median wage (50th percentile), and high wage (90th percentile). It bears repeating that the data used to analyze wage trends are cross-sectional, and as such do not capture individuals' movements between earner groups (e.g., an individual worker may move from a lower to higher earnings group over time, or vice versa). Women experienced rising wage levels at the 10th, 50th, and 90th percentiles in nearly all demographic groups—the exception is Hispanic women at the 10th percentile. Among male workers, the 10th percentile wage fell for all demographic groups except Black men between 1979 and 2019, and the median wage fell for Black men and Hispanic men but increased modestly for White men. Wages at the 90th percentile rose for all male groups.¹⁵

¹³ The race/ethnicity categories in this report—White, Black, and Hispanic—are mutually exclusive. That is, a “White” or “Black” worker is non-Hispanic.

¹⁴ For example, a \$5 increase translates into 50% growth if wages were \$10 in 1979 and into 25% growth if wages were \$20 in 1979.

¹⁵ In interpreting trends in wages for different groups, it is important to note that changes for one wage distribution (e.g., women overall) do not represent averages of more detailed demographic groups within this overall distribution. For example, the wage distribution for women overall is separate from groups within “women” overall—White women, Black women, and Hispanic women, which each represent a distinct distribution. Thus, when interpreting the results, trends for groups for larger demographic are not the weighted average of the subgroups within that larger demographic.

Figure 2. Wages at Selected Percentiles, by Sex, Race, and Ethnicity, in 1979 and 2019
Wages in 2019 dollars



Source: CRS estimates using Current Population Survey Outgoing Rotation Group data for 1979-2019.

Notes: White and Black worker groups refer to non-Hispanic White and non-Hispanic Black workers, respectively. Dollar amounts are adjusted for inflation using the CPI-U.

Low-Wage Workers

Wages at the 10th percentile fell in real terms over 1979-2019 for Hispanic women and Hispanic men and White men, and increased to varying degrees for other groups.¹⁶ In 1979, wages at the 10th percentile ranged from \$10.22 for Black and Hispanic women to \$14.68 for White men, whereas in 2019 wages in the 10th percentile ranged from \$10.00 for Hispanic women to \$14.38 for White men.

Men’s wages at the 10th percentile fell by 7.7% (\$14.09 to \$13.00) from 1979 to 2019. Within the group of low-wage male earners, however, White men experienced the largest percentage decline from 1979 to 2019, a drop of 2.0% (\$14.68 to \$14.38), and a 1.8% decline for Hispanic men (\$11.45 to \$11.25); Black men’s wages increased by 3% (\$11.10 to \$11.43).¹⁷

¹⁶ This pattern of wage growth for low-wage workers differs from patterns between 1979 and 2018, over which period the 10th percentile wage declined to some degree for all groups. Recent wage growth in the lower portion of the wage distribution may be driven in part by recent state-level minimum wage increases. See CRS Report R43792, *State Minimum Wages: An Overview*, by David H. Bradley and Abigail R. Overbay.

¹⁷ As noted earlier (see footnote 11), when analysis compares only two data points (in this case 1979 and 2019), findings are sensitive to year-to-year changes in at the endpoints. For example, when the 1979 to 2017 period is considered, the wages of Hispanic men at the 10th percentile had the largest percentage decline (by 8.9%), followed by White men (7.6% decline), and Black men (6.0% decline).

Women's wages at the 10th percentile rose by 9.6% between 1979 and 2019, from \$10.25 to \$11.24. When looked at by race and ethnicity, it appears that the overall improvement in wages among low-wage women was driven mainly by the gains (13.5%) in hourly earnings for White women (\$10.57 to \$12.00) and, to some extent, by the 1.3% gains for Black women (\$10.22 to \$10.35). For low-wage Hispanic women, 10th percentile wages fell by 2.2% from \$10.22 to \$10.00.

Middle-Wage Workers

Wage trends at the median (50th percentile) diverged sharply between men and women from 1979 to 2019. Overall, median wages for men fell by 3.0% but rose by 28.8% for women. In 1979, median wages ranged from \$13.74 for Hispanic women to \$26.42 for White men, whereas in 2019 median wages ranged from \$15.87 for Hispanic women to \$27.78 for White men.

While median wages for White men rose by 5.1%, from \$26.42 to \$27.78, over the 1979 to 2019 period, median wages for Black and Hispanic men fell. Median wages for Black men fell by 7.6%, from \$20.82 to \$19.23, and for Hispanic men by 8.8%, from \$19.73 to \$18.00.

Median wages for White women had the largest increase at 35.0% (\$16.73 to \$22.60), whereas median wages for Black women increased by 23.9% (\$14.69 to \$18.20) and for Hispanic women by 15.5% (\$13.74 to \$15.87).

High-Wage Workers

At the 90th percentile, wages grew across all groups, but the magnitude and levels varied by sex and race. Overall, wages for men at the 90th percentile rose by 41.9% and for women by 70.6%. In 1979, wages at the 90th percentile ranged from \$25.01 for Hispanic women to \$44.03 for White men, whereas in 2019 wages at the 90th percentile ranged from \$33.63 for Hispanic women to \$68.83 for White men.

Wages for White men at the 90th percentile rose by 56.3% from 1979 to 2019, from \$44.03 to \$68.83. Although wages at the 90th percentile for Black and Hispanic men also rose over this period, they did not increase by as much. The 90th percentile wage for Black men increased by 22.1% (from \$35.23 to \$43.00) and for Hispanic men by 11.4% (\$34.52 to \$38.46).

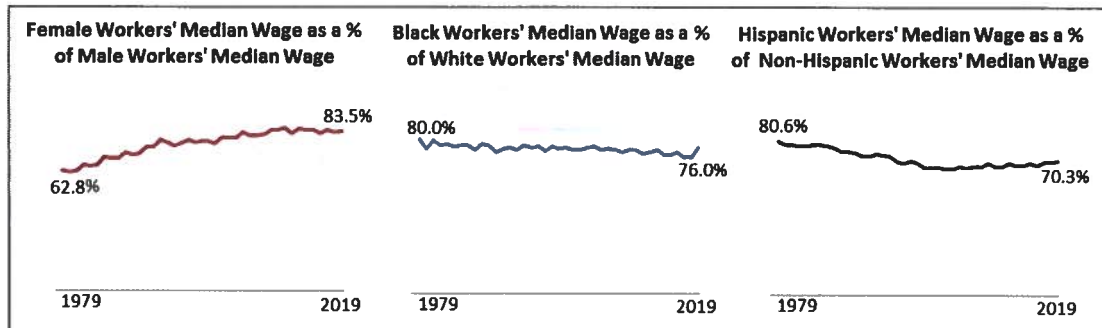
White women at the 90th percentile experienced the largest percentage increase in wages of any group examined in this study, with wages increasing by 70.6%, from \$28.62 to \$48.82. Among Black women, the 90th percentile wage increased by 51.1%, from \$27.04 to \$40.87, and for Hispanic women the increase was 34.4%, from \$25.01 to \$33.63.

Wage Gaps

Differential wage growth over 1979 to 2019 affected wage inequality within and between demographic groups. The superior wage growth at the 90th percentile, alongside weaker growth or declining wages at the bottom half of the distribution, translated into growing wage inequality within all demographic groups, but groups varied by the degree of increased inequality. For example, the 10th percentile wage for men was 32.0% of the 90th percentile male wage in 1979; in 2019 this ratio fell to 20.8% (i.e., the 10th percentile wage moved further away from the 90th percentile wage over time). Among White men, the ratio fell from 33.3% to 20.9% between 1979 and 2019. The ratio declined from 31.5% to 26.6% for Black men and from 33.2% to 29.3% for Hispanic men.

As measured at the median, strong wage growth among female workers and wage loss among men led to a narrowing of the gender wage gap. Women's median wage as a share of men's median wages), increased from 62.8% to 83.5%.¹⁸ Other median wage differentials (Figure 3) did not show similar narrowing, however. The wage gap between Black and White workers grew, as did the gap between median-wage Hispanic workers and median-wage non-Hispanic workers.

Figure 3. Median Wage Ratios, 1979-2019



Source: CRS estimates using Current Population Survey Outgoing Rotation Group data for 1979-2019.

Notes: Sample comprises nonfarm wage and salary workers who are 25-64 years old and provide sufficient information to compute an hourly wage. Periods of recession are shaded in gray. Dollar amounts are adjusted for inflation using the CPI-U. All graphics use the same scale: 0%-100% on vertical axis, and years 1979-2019 on the horizontal axis.

Wages by Educational Attainment: The College Premium

The rise in real hourly wages for workers with higher levels of educational attainment stands out among wage trends over the 1979 to 2019 period.¹⁹ Specifically,

- Among workers with a bachelor's or advanced degree, wages at the 10th, 50th, and 90th percentiles rose in real terms between 1979 and 2019, with increases of 6.9%, 15.2%, and 42.1%, respectively (Table 2), suggesting rising demand for college-educated workers (that is not offset by rising supply of such workers), improved bargaining conditions for them, or both.
- Over the same period, wages declined markedly at the 10th, 50th, and 90th percentiles for workers with a high school diploma (or equivalent) or less education, suggesting increasingly few labor market opportunities for less-educated workers, a decrease in wage bargaining power, or both. The median wage for high-school-educated workers fell by 11.1%, whereas the wage at the 10th and 90th percentiles fell by 5.4% and 8.3%, respectively (Table 2).

¹⁸ The gender wage gap is 100% minus the ratio of women's to men's median wages. So, the gap decreased from 37.2% (=100%-62.8%) in 1979 to 16.5% (=100%-83.5%) in 2019.

¹⁹ The shares of workers in each category of educational attainment have shifted a great deal since 1979. In 1979, for example, about 31% of the population age 25 and older had at least some college education, whereas the other 69% had a high school degree (or equivalent) or less education. By 2019, these percentages were almost reversed—62% with at least some college and 38% with a high school diploma or less education. See U.S. Census Bureau, *CPS Historical Time Series Tables*, "Table A-1. Years of School Completed by People 25 Years and Over, by Age and Sex: Selected Years 1940 to 2019," Washington, DC, 2020, <https://www2.census.gov/programs-surveys/demo/tables/educational-attainment/time-series/cps-historical-time-series/ta-1.xlsx>.

- The higher-education wage premium—the percent difference between the median wage for bachelor’s or advanced degree holders and the median wage for workers with a high school education or less—grew considerably from 1979 to 2000, from about 49.8% to 93.6%.²⁰ The premium has remained high since that time, but the growth in the gap has slowed; the premium was 94.2% in 2019.

Table 2. Wage Trends by Education and the Higher-Education Wage Premium

Education Group	Real Wage Trends <i>Shaded Bars = Recessions</i>	Cumulative % Change in Real Wage Levels over 1979-2019		
		10 th percentile	50 th percentile	90 th percentile
College Degree Holders		6.9%	15.2%	42.1%
High School Diploma or Less Education		-5.4%	-11.1%	-8.3%

Sources: CRS estimates using Current Population Survey Outgoing Rotation Group data for 1979-2019. Recession data (in gray) are from the National Bureau of Economic Research, at <http://www.nber.org/cycles.html>.

Notes: Sample comprises nonfarm wage and salary workers who are 25-64 years old and provide sufficient information to compute an hourly wage. Periods of recession are shaded in gray. Dollar amounts are adjusted for inflation using the CPI-U.

Figure 4 shows real median wages for workers at five different levels of educational attainment from 1979 to 2019—less than a high school degree, high school degree or equivalent, some college (including associate degrees and non-degree-holders with some college education), bachelor’s degree, or advanced degree. The data show falling real median wages for workers with less than a bachelor’s degree over the 1979 to 2019 period and rising wages for workers with at least a bachelor’s degree. One commonality across all education groups is that most of the changes, increasing or decreasing real wages, occurred in the 1980s and 1990s, with slower changes occurring since about 2000 across groups. Specifically, Figure 4 shows the following:

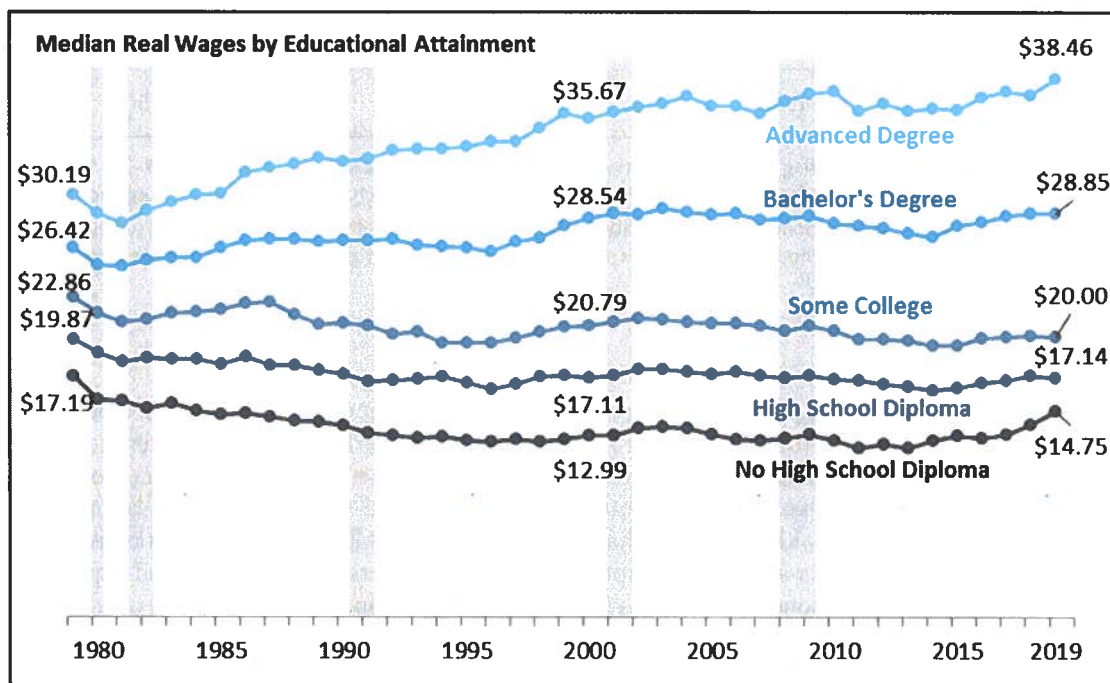
- Workers with less than a high school degree saw a fall in median wages from \$17.19 in 1979 to \$12.99 in 2000 (a 24.4% decline); between 2000 and 2019, wages increased by 13.5% to \$14.75.
- The median wage for workers with a high school degree also fell, from \$19.87 in 1979 to \$17.11 in 2000; the median wage for this group increased modestly (0.2%) over 2000 to 2019, when the median wage was \$17.14.
- For workers with some college education, the median wage fell from \$22.86 in 1979 to \$20.79 in 2000 (a 9.1% decline) and \$20.00 in 2019 (a 3.8% decline over

²⁰ The premium describes the difference between college-educated workers’ median wage and high school (or less) educated workers’ median wage, as a percentage high school (or less) educated workers’ median wage.

the 2000 to 2019 period). Thus, nearly three-quarters of the total decrease occurred in the 1980s and 1990s.

- Although the median wage for workers with a bachelor’s degree rose by 9.2%, from \$26.42 to \$28.85, over the 1979 to 2019 period, a considerable share of these gains (88%) occurred between 1979 and 2000.
- For workers with education above a bachelor’s degree, median wages increased by more than \$8.00, or 27.5%, from 1979 to 2019. Median wages for this group increased in the 2000 to 2019 period, albeit at a slower pace than in the 1979 to 2000 period.

Figure 4. Median Wage by Educational Attainment
Wages in 2019 dollars



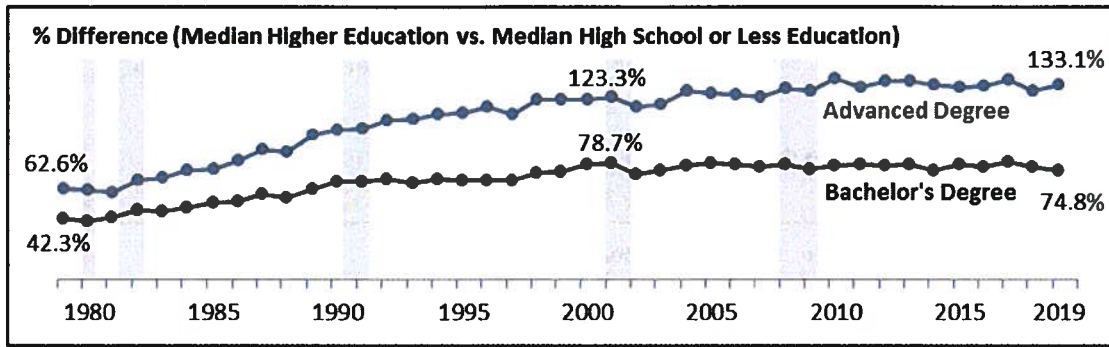
Sources: CRS estimates using Current Population Survey Outgoing Rotation Group data for 1979-2019. Recession data (in gray) are from the National Bureau of Economic Research, at <http://www.nber.org/cycles.html>.
Notes: Sample comprises nonfarm wage and salary workers who are 25-64 years old and provide sufficient information to compute an hourly wage. Periods of recession are shaded in gray. Dollar amounts are adjusted for inflation using the CPI-U.

Figure 5 shows the higher-education premium, which is the percentage difference between the median wages received by workers with a bachelor’s degree and those with an advanced degree (shown separately), and the median wage received by workers with a high school degree or less.²¹ Although the wage premium for workers with higher education rose in the 1979 to 2000 period,

²¹ The rising higher-education premium suggests that labor market conditions and wage-setting institutions evolved in a way that was relatively more beneficial for workers holding at least a bachelor’s degree (e.g., demand for skilled workers increased relative to demand for high-school-educated workers); a body of research supports this view. Nonetheless, others have pointed out that the differential between college degree holders and high-school-educated workers may be overstated because highly educated workers—more so than less-educated workers—tend to concentrate in cities with very high costs of living. See, for example, Enrico Moretti, “Real Wage Inequality,” *American Economic Journal: Applied Economics*, vol. 5, no. 1 (2013), pp. 65-103.

the premium has been approximately flat since 2000 for workers with a bachelor's degree. For workers with advanced degrees, the wage premium continued to rise after 2000 but at a much slower rate than in the 1979 to 2000 period.

Figure 5. College Degree Wage Premium and Advanced Degree Wage Premium, Relative to a High School Education or Less



Sources: CRS estimates using Current Population Survey Outgoing Rotation Group data for 1979-2019. Recession data (in gray) are from the National Bureau of Economic Research, at <http://www.nber.org/cycles.html>.

Notes: Sample comprises nonfarm wage and salary workers who are 25-64 years old and provide sufficient information to compute an hourly wage. Periods of recession are shaded in gray. Dollar amounts are adjusted for inflation using the CPI-U.

Skilled Trades

The previous section highlighted the strong wage growth experienced by workers with at least a bachelor's degree (relative to workers with a high school degree or less education) over the 1979 to 2000 period, and the high and sustained wage premium for these workers thereafter (see **Figure 5**). Such trends suggest elevated relative demand for skilled workers, whereas labor market conditions for less-skilled workers have become less favorable. Formal education is a common measure of worker skill, but it is not the only one. Workers can gain skills and expertise through nondegree postsecondary programs (e.g., certifications), apprenticeships, and on-the-job training (formally and informally acquired). Recent Bureau of Labor Statistics (BLS) data and projections point to strong and continuing demand for workers in this "middle-skill" range (i.e., education and/or training beyond high school but less than a college degree) in some occupations. For example, the occupations in **Table 3** typically do not require a post-secondary degree for entry positions had median annual earnings in 2019 that were greater than the overall median of \$39,810 and were projected by BLS to grow by at least 50,000 jobs and with average or better employment growth between 2019 and 2029.

Table 3. Occupations with High Projected Employment Growth and High Annual Earnings That Do Not Require a Post-Secondary Degree

Occupation	Typical Education Needed for Entry	Typical On-the-Job Training	Median Earnings (2019)	Employment (2019)
Exercise trainers and group fitness instructors	High school diploma or equivalent	Short-term on-the-job training	\$40,390	373,700
Licensed practical and licensed vocational nurses	Postsecondary nondegree award	None	\$47,480	721,700
Computer user support specialists	Some college, no degree	None	\$52,270	687,200
Industrial machinery mechanics	High school diploma or equivalent	Long-term on-the-job training	\$53,590	399,400
Sales representatives of services, except advertising, insurance, financial services, and travel	High school diploma or equivalent	Moderate-term on-the-job training	\$56,130	1,070,500
Electricians	High school diploma or equivalent	Apprenticeship	\$56,180	739,200

Sources: Bureau of Labor Statistics Occupational Employment Projections, at https://www.bls.gov/emp/ep_data_occupational_data.htm; and Occupational Employment Statistics, at <http://www.bls.gov/oes/>.

Note: Median annual earnings across all occupations stood at \$39,810 in 2019.

Worker Characteristics by Wage Group

Table 1 shows a general pattern of strong wage growth at the top of the wage distribution over the 1979 to 2019 period, with slower growth or falling wages at the median and bottom of the distribution. Although these patterns hold in general across demographic groups, there is considerable variation in the magnitudes and patterns of change across sex, race, and Hispanic ethnicity. For example, whereas both men and women experienced significant wage growth at the 90th percentile of their respective distributions, wage growth among female workers was nearly 30 percentage points higher than it was among men. And, although median wages for non-Hispanic workers rose over 1979 to 2019, median wages fell for Hispanic workers.

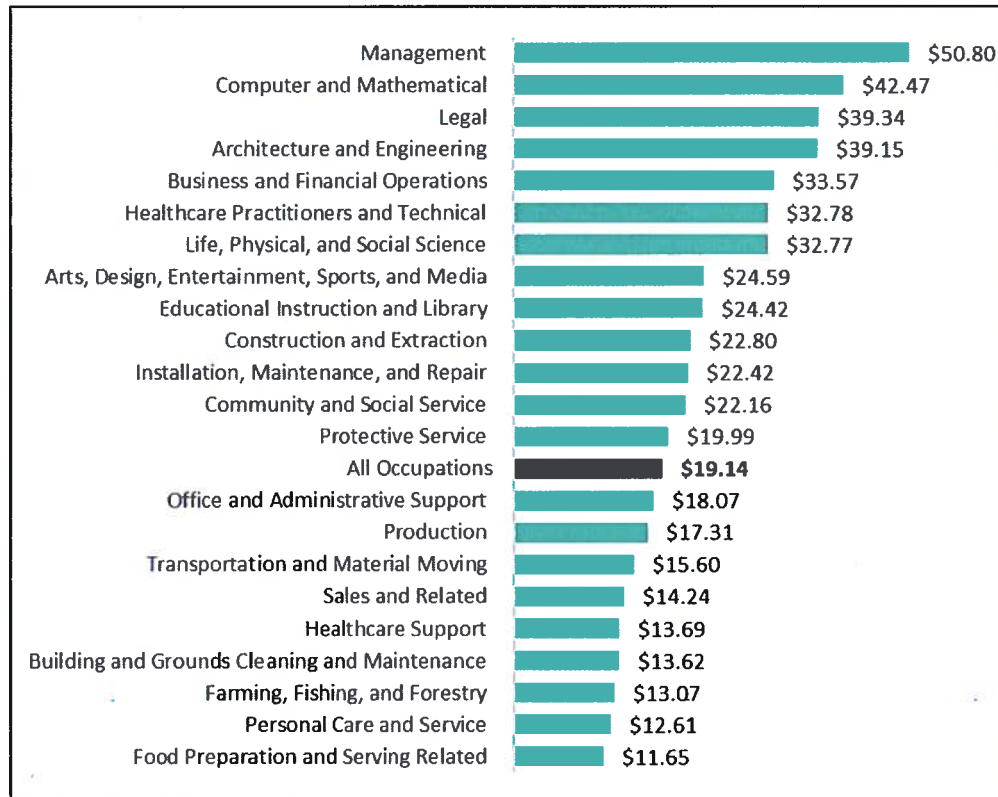
To better understand these cross-group differences, this section compares and contrasts workers' educational attainment and occupational distribution in 1979 and 2019.²² Because greater educational attainment generally has a positive relationship with wages (**Figure 4**), worker groups that have seen educational gains over 1979 to 2019 are more likely to have experienced wage gains than those that did not (or did to a lesser degree).²³ Shifts in occupation may affect wage trends as well. Occupations require different mixes of skills and work experience, and where the workers meeting these requirements are scarcer, wages tend to be higher. The range of

²² Many other factors are likely to influence wage patterns and contribute to cross-group variations in wage growth, but are not addressed here. For example, changes in employment policies that affect bargaining power (e.g., no-hire rules) and changes within occupation (e.g., in terms of worker requirements and the task content of certain jobs, such as nursing) are not explored here.

²³ For example, given that college degree holders, on average, earn higher wages than non-degree holders, a group that increased its share of college-educated workers over that time period might be expected to see greater wage gains than a group that did not—given the significant rise in the college premium between 1979 and 2019.

occupational wages is illustrated in **Figure 6**, which shows median hourly wages spanning \$11.65 (food preparation and serving workers) to \$50.80 (managers) in May 2019; across all occupations the median hourly wage was \$19.14. As such, wages might grow faster for a demographic group that was more successful at shifting workers from low-paying to higher-paying occupations.²⁴

Figure 6. Median Hourly Wages by Broad Occupation Group, May 2019



Source: Bureau of Labor Statistics, Occupational Employment Statistics, at <http://www.bls.gov/oes/>.

The next three tables show data on education levels and broad occupation group of low-wage workers in 1979 and 2019 (**Table 4**), middle-wage workers in 1979 and 2019 (**Table 5**), and high-wage workers in 1979 and 2019 (**Table 6**). For the purposes of this portion of analysis, low-wage workers are those with wages at the 5th to 15th percentiles, middle-wage workers are those with wages at the 45th to 55th percentiles, and high-wage workers are those with wages at the 85th to 95th percentiles. The earnings groups are expanded by +/- five percentage points (in contrast to earlier analysis of workers at the 10th, 50th, and 90th percentiles) because this section describes the educational attainment and occupational composition of worker groups, and including more workers in each group allows for more precise estimate of education and occupational percentages. Overall, the analysis shows the following:

- Workers were more likely to have completed a bachelor's or advanced degree in 2019 than workers in 1979, with the gains in educational attainment being particularly large for workers in the highest wage group. The higher education level of low- and middle-wage workers in 2019, compared to 1979, is noteworthy

²⁴ Shifts in educational attainment and occupation are likely to be strongly correlated because some higher-paying occupations require a college degree.

in light of slightly rising or declining (depending on the specific demographic group) real wages over the 1979 to 2019 period; in general, wages tend to rise with education.

- Across all demographic and wage groups, workers lost employment shares in production work. Low-wage workers were generally concentrated in service jobs in 2019, whereas high-wage workers, to varying degrees, moved into managerial, executive, professional, and technical jobs. Occupational shifts for middle-wage workers differed across demographic groups.

The tables and discussion in this section describe worker characteristics by earnings group (low, middle, and high) in 1979 and 2019. As noted elsewhere, the data used in this report are cross-sectional and do not follow a fixed group of individuals over time. This means that the educational and occupational changes discussed below do not capture a set of individuals' education and job outcomes between 1979 and 2019, but the compositional change of workers in the three earner groups in these two years. For example, a rise in the share of college-degree holders in the middle-wage group does not necessarily reflect the share of middle-wage workers in 1979 that went on to complete a college degree.

Low-Wage Workers

Across demographic groups, low-wage workers increased their educational attainment between 1979 and 2019: the shares of workers who ended their schooling at or before high school graduation declined, and the shares of workers who completed some postsecondary education increased. Women in particular experienced strong gains in educational attainment, in absolute and relative terms. Over the 1979 to 2019 period, the shares of low-wage women with a bachelor's degree or higher rose from 4% to 17%, slightly exceeding the share of low-wage men with a bachelor's degree or higher in 2019. Concurrently, women's 10th percentile wages grew in real terms by 9.6% over the same period (see **Table 1**). But educational gains do not translate into wage growth for all groups. The share of low-wage male and Hispanic workers with increased education also rose from 1979 to 2019—albeit less than the gains compared to low-wage women—but these groups' wages at the 10th percentile fell in real terms, suggesting that other factors counterbalanced the upward pressure on wages typically generated by greater educational attainment.

The prominence of service occupations in 1979 and 2019 (28% and 33% of low-wage workers, respectively) and sharp decline in production jobs between 1979 and 2019 are noteworthy features of low-wage workers' occupational distribution.²⁵ Service occupations command a range of wages, but many pay less at the median than production jobs (see **Figure 6**). All demographic groups have a lower percentage of workers in production occupations in 2019 compared to 1979. Notably, workers that experienced declining wages over the 1979 to 2019 period were those that mostly experienced an increased share of employment in service occupations (e.g., male and Hispanic workers). This suggests that occupational shifts may help explain wage trends for low-wage workers.

²⁵ Service occupations include food preparation and service jobs, building maintenance, protective services, personal services (e.g., child care, hairdressers), and health care support jobs (e.g., home health aides, orderlies, dental assistants).

Middle-Wage Workers

Among middle-wage workers, all demographic groups made considerable gains in educational attainment over the 1979 to 2019 period. For example, shares of workers with a high school diploma or less schooling declined by 26 percentage points among men and 47 percentage points among women, and shares of college degree holders increased.

In addition to educational gains, women's strong (28.8%) median wage growth over 1979 to 2019 may be related to marked occupational shifts over that period. In particular, middle-wage women moved from clerical and production jobs to higher-paying executive and managerial jobs, and to professional and technical occupations. Likewise, wage loss among Hispanic workers (who experienced a 2.2% decline at the median) occurred alongside gains in educational attainment and a 16 percentage point decline in production employment that was offset by gains in other occupation groups, particularly service jobs.

High-Wage Workers

Although wage patterns varied across demographic groups for low-wage and middle-wage workers, wages grew in real terms at the 90th percentile for all groups over the 1979-2019 period. Education gains and heightened concentration of employment in executive and professional occupations appear to help explain strong wage growth. The strong performance of high-wage workers (i.e., at the 90th percentile of wages) suggests that labor market demand for skilled workers increased over the 1979 to 2019 period, or that this group otherwise improved its bargaining position over compensation.²⁶ High-wage workers increased their educational attainment dramatically between 1979 and 2019, and—with the exception of Hispanic workers—were predominantly college degree holders in 2019. This finding for Hispanic workers should be put in the context of noteworthy compositional changes for this group. In particular, Pew Research Center reports that Hispanics are an increasingly diverse population, which may affect cross-time comparisons (i.e., differences in Hispanic worker characteristics in 2019 and 1979 may be greater than those for other worker groups).²⁷ Over the same period, high-wage workers became concentrated in executive, administrative, and managerial jobs and professional, technical, and related jobs, such that by 2019 these occupations represented more than 50% of employment in each group (more than 80% of employment when Hispanic workers are excluded from analysis).

²⁶ Another interpretation is that the bargaining position of certain highly paid workers (e.g., CEOs) improved. A broader discussion of factors influencing wage patterns at the top of the earnings distribution is in CRS Report R44705, *The U.S. Income Distribution: Trends and Issues*, by Sarah A. Donovan, Marc Labonte, and Joseph Dalaker.

²⁷ Antonio Flores, *How the U.S. Hispanic population is changing*, Pew Research Center, September 18, 2017, <http://www.pewresearch.org/fact-tank/2017/09/18/how-the-u-s-hispanic-population-is-changing/>.

Table 4. Low-Wage Workers' Educational Attainment and Occupation, by Selected Demographics, 1979 and 2019

	Overall		Male		Female		Black (Non-Hispanic)		White (Non-Hispanic)		Hispanic		Non-Hispanic	
	1979	2019	1979	2019	1979	2019	1979	2019	1979	2019	1979	2019	1979	2019
Education														
High School Diploma or Less	80%	54%	73%	57%	85%	53%	91%	58%	77%	44%	92%	74%	79%	47%
Some College	13%	29%	14%	27%	11%	30%	7%	30%	14%	35%	7%	19%	14%	32%
Bachelor's Degree and Higher	7%	17%	12%	16%	4%	17%	2%	12%	9%	22%	1%	8%	8%	20%
Occupation														
Executive, Administrative, and Managerial	4%	5%	8%	5%	2%	4%	1%	3%	6%	6%	1%	3%	4%	6%
Professional, Technical, and Related	7%	10%	8%	7%	6%	12%	4%	7%	9%	15%	3%	5%	7%	12%
Sales	13%	13%	6%	10%	19%	16%	5%	11%	13%	13%	10%	11%	13%	14%
Administrative Support, Including Clerical	20%	16%	7%	11%	15%	17%	6%	11%	27%	21%	7%	9%	22%	18%
Service	28%	33%	19%	27%	36%	39%	51%	44%	21%	25%	32%	39%	28%	31%
Construction and Extraction	2%	4%	8%	9%	NA	NA	4%	2%	1%	3%	4%	9%	2%	2%
Installation, Maintenance, and Repair	1%	2%	7%	4%	NA	NA	1%	2%	1%	2%	2%	3%	1%	1%
Production	18%	10%	20%	12%	19%	8%	19%	10%	17%	9%	32%	10%	16%	9%
Transportation and Material Moving	6%	9%	16%	14%	3%	5%	10%	10%	6%	7%	8%	11%	6%	8%

Source: CRS estimates using Current Population Survey Outgoing Rotation Group data for 1979-2019.

Notes: "Low-wage workers" refers to workers at the 5th-15th percentiles of their respective wage distribution. "NA" indicates an estimated percentage of less than 1%.

Table 5. Middle-Wage Workers' Educational Attainment and Occupation, by Selected Demographics, 1979 and 2019

	Overall		Male		Female		Black (Non-Hispanic)		White (Non-Hispanic)		Hispanic		Non-Hispanic	
	1979	2019	1979	2019	1979	2019	1979	2019	1979	2019	1979	2019	1979	2019
Education														
High School Diploma or Less	60%	26%	60%	34%	68%	21%	70%	30%	55%	23%	79%	59%	59%	23%
Some College	19%	29%	21%	31%	20%	32%	19%	38%	20%	30%	14%	28%	20%	30%
Bachelor's Degree and Higher	21%	45%	20%	36%	13%	47%	11%	32%	25%	48%	7%	13%	21%	48%
Occupation														
Executive, Administrative, and Managerial	11%	18%	13%	18%	7%	17%	4%	12%	13%	21%	5%	9%	11%	19%
Professional, Technical, and Related	20%	29%	15%	21%	15%	32%	14%	17%	24%	32%	8%	7%	21%	32%
Sales	5%	7%	5%	8%	5%	6%	3%	7%	5%	7%	4%	6%	5%	7%
Administrative Support, Including Clerical Service	20%	14%	8%	6%	45%	26%	22%	23%	19%	11%	15%	19%	19%	13%
Construction and Extraction	5%	5%	6%	11%	NA	NA	5%	3%	4%	6%	10%	14%	5%	5%
Installation, Maintenance, and Repair	5%	5%	9%	10%	NA	NA	2%	2%	5%	5%	4%	1%	6%	5%
Production	19%	7%	26%	10%	15%	5%	20%	9%	17%	7%	29%	13%	19%	7%
Transportation and Material Moving	8%	6%	11%	9%	2%	2%	11%	11%	6%	5%	12%	12%	8%	6%

Source: CRS estimates using Current Population Survey Outgoing Rotation Group data for 1979-2019.

Notes: "Middle-wage workers" refers to workers at the 45th-55th percentiles of their respective wage distribution. "NA" indicates an estimated percentage of less than 1%.

Table 6. High-Wage Workers' Educational Attainment and Occupation, by Selected Demographics, 1979 and 2019

	Overall		Male		Female		Black (Non-Hispanic)		White (Non-Hispanic)		Hispanic		Non-Hispanic	
	1979	2019	1979	2019	1979	2019	1979	2019	1979	2019	1979	2019	1979	2019
Education														
High School Diploma or Less	40%	6%	35%	7%	39%	3%	52%	7%	40%	6%	60%	23%	39%	5%
Some College	20%	12%	19%	12%	22%	11%	22%	17%	20%	12%	22%	30%	20%	11%
Bachelor's Degree and Higher	40%	82%	46%	81%	38%	86%	26%	76%	40%	82%	18%	47%	41%	84%
Occupation														
Executive, Administrative, and Managerial	23%	34%	27%	35%	13%	34%	10%	32%	24%	36%	12%	20%	23%	35%
Professional, Technical, and Related	28%	47%	28%	45%	40%	52%	20%	43%	27%	44%	14%	36%	28%	47%
Sales	5%	6%	7%	7%	6%	5%	2%	4%	6%	7%	3%	6%	5%	6%
Administrative Support, Including Clerical Service	7%	4%	5%	3%	29%	6%	14%	5%	7%	3%	12%	9%	7%	3%
Construction and Extraction	12%	2%	12%	3%	NA	NA	7%	2%	12%	2%	14%	10%	12%	2%
Installation, Maintenance, and Repair	6%	1%	4%	NA	NA	NA	7%	1%	5%	NA	8%	5%	5%	NA
Production	12%	1%	11%	2%	7%	NA	20%	3%	12%	1%	22%	3%	12%	1%
Transportation and Material Moving	6%	1%	4%	1%	2%	NA	14%	3%	5%	1%	7%	3%	6%	1%

Source: CRS estimates using Current Population Survey Outgoing Rotation Group data for 1979-2019.

Notes: "High-wage workers" refers to workers at the 85th-95th percentiles of their respective wage distribution. "NA" indicates an estimated percentage of less than 1%.

Factors Affecting Wage Trends

This section briefly describes some of the major factors believed to affect wage trends. A full discussion of these factors, and the empirical evidence associated with different causal factors, is beyond the scope of this report. Rather, several of the primary mechanisms that are thought to contribute to wage growth or stagnation are outlined. In many cases, individual wages are likely determined by the interaction of several forces, such as workers' skills and their value to employers, job match quality, and relative bargaining power. Broadly speaking, these factors can be grouped into two categories: market factors (affecting the supply of and demand for workers) and institutional factors (affecting rules governing compensation). Over time, changes in these factors for various groups (e.g., in education and training investment, employers' demand for workers with certain skills, and institutions that govern wage bargaining), along with macroeconomic growth, play a role in shaping the wage gains or losses for those groups.

Market Factors

Workers come to labor markets—often local labor markets—with varying levels of human capital—collections of skills and experience, abilities, and other job-relevant attributes—where they match with employers seeking to hire certain types of workers. Some jobs require specialized skills and training (e.g., medical practitioners, skilled crafts like carpentry), whereas others can be performed by most workers of any skill level. For example, most workers could operate a cash register or perform simple building maintenance tasks with cursory on-the-job training. Employers are generally willing to pay more to skilled workers for two reasons. First, skilled workers come to the job with the required human capital to be productive and thus are well-positioned to help generate higher revenues for the firm. Second, because skilled workers are relatively scarce, employers offer higher wages to attract them away from other firms. To the extent that workers' skill sets become more valuable to employers over time or more scarce, wages should rise, and vice versa.

Technological change, international trade, immigration and other factors affecting labor supply changes, along with the quality of job matches are among the key market factors thought to contribute to recent wage trends. These forces briefly described here; a more detailed discussion is in CRS Report R44705, *The U.S. Income Distribution: Trends and Issues*, by Sarah A. Donovan, Marc Labonte, and Joseph Dalaker.

Technological change can affect wage patterns by changing employers' demand for certain groups of workers.²⁸ Where new technology raises workers' productivity (often for high-skilled workers)—and their value to employers—demand will rise, and put upward pressure on wages. At the same time, technological progress has reduced demand where workers' effort can be replaced by automation or information technology.²⁹ Technological improvements can further affect employers' demand for certain workers by increasing the feasibility of offshoring (i.e.,

²⁸ For an overview, see Daron Acemoglu and David H. Autor, "Skills, Tasks and Technologies: Implications for Employment and Earnings," in *Handbook of Labor Economics*, eds. Orley Ashenfelter and David Card, vol. 4B (Elsevier, 2011), pp. 1043-1171.

²⁹ For example, the availability of affordable desktop computers, word processing software, voicemail, and email eliminated many tasks traditionally performed by certain clerical staff (e.g., typists, secretaries), and increased automation in manufacturing plants reduced the demand for certain production workers.

moving production outside the United States) certain production tasks and services that do not need to be performed in proximity to the consumer (e.g., book-keeping, call-center activities).

Recent global trading patterns have altered what goods and services the United States produces, and thereby the demand for labor to carry out that production. For example, the long-term decline in U.S. manufacturing employment, which lasted through the end of the Great Recession, has led a number of researchers to investigate the extent to which the decline is caused by increased import penetration in manufacturing, which can easily be traded. Recent studies focus on the impacts of China's establishment (starting in 2000) as a global supplier of manufactured goods.³⁰ Increased international competition—and particularly from China—is among factors that contributed to factory closings and production shifts that displaced large numbers of U.S. workers. It had additional employment consequences for firms that provided inputs and support services to the manufacturing sector (e.g., suppliers of raw materials, delivery services, warehousing), and affected economic conditions in surrounding communities.

Changes to labor supply over time will also influence wages, at least in the short term. Public attention often centers on the supply effect of immigration, but other economic changes can shift the supply of labor as well. For example, social and economic change dramatically increased women's labor supply in the latter half of the last century. In addition, other policy mechanisms, such as changes in income tax rates or changes affecting the payoff to labor (e.g., the Earned Income Tax Credit) can influence the labor supply of targeted groups of workers. The labor market effects of immigration comprise a large and complex area of economic research.³¹ Economic theory produces a range of possible outcomes that depend on the characteristics of incoming immigrant workers and how they compare to a country's existing pool of labor, the degree to which new immigrants and existing workers compete for jobs in the same labor markets, how employers respond to the new labor supply, macroeconomic considerations, and other factors. That said, a large influx of a particular worker group (e.g., low skilled workers) translates into an increase in labor supply, and could lower wage offers in the short run.

The quality of a job match (i.e., the suitability of a particular worker to a particular job) matters to wages as well. Job search is costly for both workers and employers, and sometimes workers accept less-than-optimal jobs (or employers make job offers to suboptimal candidates) to minimize search costs. Factors affecting job match quality include workers' information about job openings (e.g., the existence of vacancies, job attributes and how they align with worker preferences), employers' ability to locate jobseekers and accurately assess worker qualifications,

³⁰ These include Daron Acemoglu, David Autor, and David Dorn, Gordon H. Hanson, and Brendan Price, "Import Competition and the Great US Employment Sag of the 2000s," *Journal of Labor Economics*, vol. 34, no. 1 (Part 2 2016), pp. S141-S198; and Justin R. Pierce and Peter K. Schott, "The Surprisingly Swift Decline of U.S. Manufacturing Employment," *American Economic Review*, vol. 106, no. 7 (July 2016), pp. 1632-1662; and David H. Autor, David Dorn, and Gordon H. Hanson, *The China Shock: Learning from Labor Market Adjustment to Large Changes in Trade*, National Bureau of Economic Research, 21906, January 2016, <http://www.nber.org/papers/w21906>. The results of these studies should be considered with a few caveats in mind. For one, these studies focus on gross employment changes in the manufacturing sector; they do not account for potential employment gains in other sectors (e.g., U.S. export sectors and related sectors like transportation and warehousing). Also the proliferation of complex international supply chains increasingly blurs line between foreign and domestic outputs and complicates empirical analyses such as these. Finally, these studies do not account for the potential positive impact lower-priced imports can have on the real incomes of a broad range of consumers in the economy.

³¹ A detailed discussion of what economic theory predicts about the labor market impacts of immigration for the United States, and a review of the empirical literature is in National Academies of Sciences, Engineering, and Medicine, *The Economic and Fiscal Consequences of Immigration*, ed. Francine D. Blau and Christopher Mackie (Washington, DC: The National Academies Press, 2016); see also CRS Report R42988, *U.S. Immigration Policy: Chart Book of Key Trends*, by William A. Kandel.

and geographic mobility. Better job matches increase workers' value, and to the extent that workers can bargain effectively for a portion of that improvement, wages rise.

Institutional Factors

Labor market institutions are the set of formal and informal rules that govern compensation, and include the minimum wage, the strength and structure of labor unions, and employment practices that affect workers' ability to bargain over compensation. Changes to institutions over time can therefore affect wage trends as well.

Minimum wages may affect wage growth through two primary channels. First, and most directly, minimum wages set a floor for low-wage workers. Second, to the extent that employers maintain wage differentials between the lowest-wage workers and those higher in the wage distribution, minimum wage increases may affect both minimum wage workers and those with earnings above those levels. Minimum wage earners may see declines in real wages to the extent that the minimum wage is not increased, or increases do not keep pace with inflation. The federal minimum wage, for example, was not increased from 1981 through 1989, thus falling in real value for nearly a decade. Recent evidence suggests that the decline in the real value of the federal minimum wage in the 1980s played a moderate role in increasing the wage gap between low and middle earners.³²

Changes in unionization, employment policies, and workplace organization can affect workers' relative bargaining power and influence wage growth. For example, the evidence of a "union wage premium" suggests that, other factors being equal, union members have higher wages compared to nonunion members. Empirical evidence indicates that the private-sector union wage premium is in the 10%-20% range.³³ However, over time these gains apply to a shrinking pool of workers, as the union membership rate declined from 20.1% in 1983 to 10.3% in 2019, with much of that decline in the private sector. As such, empirical work in this area has suggested that the decline in unionization contributed to stagnating wages and rising inequality, particularly in the 1980s.³⁴ These effects are particularly meaningful for middle-wage workers and for men, because traditionally male "blue collar" jobs, such as manufacturing and construction, had higher unionization rates.

The use of employment policies to restrict firms' competition for workers may affect wages by limiting workers' relative bargaining power. Many workers achieve wage gains by changing jobs. The gains associated with job mobility (i.e., movement between jobs) are therefore restricted, plausibly, where franchise agreements include provisions that prohibit employers from hiring workers from other firms affiliated with the same franchisor (i.e., no-poach or no-hire provisions) or where employment contracts include provisions restricting workers from accepting job offers from firms in the same industry (i.e., noncompete clauses). A recent study of no-poach provisions in franchise contracts found that 58% contained some restriction on franchisees' ability to recruit and hire workers from other firms within the franchise system.³⁵

³² David H. Autor, Alan Manning, and Christopher L. Smith, "The Contribution of the Minimum Wage to US Wage Inequality over Three Decades: A Reassessment," *American Economic Journal: Applied Economics*, vol. 8, no. 1 (January 2016), pp. 58-99.

³³ See, for example, Fernando Rios-Avila and Barry T. Hirsch, "Unions, Wage Gaps, and Wage Dispersion: New Evidence from the Americas," *Industrial Relations*, vol. 53, no. 1 (January 2014), pp. 1-27.

³⁴ David Card, "The Effect of Unions on Wage Inequality in the U.S. Labor Market," *Industrial and Labor Relations Review*, vol. 54, no. 2 (January 2001), pp. 296-315.

³⁵ Alan B. Krueger and Orley Ashenfelter, *Theory and Evidence on Employer Collusion in the Franchise Sector*,

In addition, a movement toward greater use of contractors and subcontractors in some industries has, by some accounts, reduced the bargaining power of certain worker groups (e.g., lower-paid workers in service occupations) and put downward pressure on their wages.³⁶ For example, many companies that traditionally employed their own janitorial staff now obtain cleaning and maintenance services through a separate vendor. Although such restructuring can be beneficial in terms of efficiency gains, this workplace movement also disassociates workers from the general pay schedule of the industry and from large firms more specifically. Such workplace models (e.g., service contractors not part of the core business for which they are providing services) operate in highly competitive markets, which puts pressure on employers to keep operating costs (including labor costs) low, and poses greater challenges for union organizing.

At the same time, changes in pay-setting practices in certain high-pay occupations, the emergence of superstar earners (e.g., in sports and entertainment), and other factors may have improved wage growth for some workers at the top of the wage distribution.³⁷

Macroeconomic Factors

In general, aggregate employment increases with economic growth. This occurs because as innovations bring new and better products to market, consumer demand for goods and services rises, and all things equal, so does employment.³⁸ Macroeconomic forces can also affect employment through changes on the production side (i.e., by changing the costs of producing goods and services). In the long run, labor productivity (i.e., output produced per hour of labor) and wages tend to move together, as lower production costs cause firms to expand production and increase their demand for labor. The degree to which greater demand for workers translates into growth in aggregate earnings (i.e., the sum of all workers' earnings across the workforce) and the distribution of those earnings among workers depends on variety of factors, including market and institutional factors discussed above, and overarching macroeconomic forces. A growing gap between labor productivity and compensation³⁹ and the related decline in labor's share of gross domestic income (GDI) from 57.2% of GDI in 1979 to 53.4% of GDI in 2019,⁴⁰ suggests a shift

Princeton University, Industrial Relations Section, Working Paper #614, Princeton, NJ, September 1, 2017, p. 7, <http://dataspace.princeton.edu/jspui/bitstream/88435/dsp014f16c547g/3/614.pdf>.

³⁶ David Weil, *The Fissured Workplace* (Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press, 2014).

³⁷ For example, studies have questioned whether the close relationship at some corporations between chief executive officers (CEOs) and their boards (which set their pay) creates "principal-agent" problems that have allowed CEOs undue influence over setting their own pay. These arguments are evaluated in CRS Report RL33935, *The Economics of Corporate Executive Pay*, by Gary Shorter and Marc Labonte.

³⁸ Private sector consumption is an important component of gross domestic product (GDP). U.S. Bureau of Economic Analysis data indicate that personal consumption expenditures have made up at least 60% of GDP since 1979, and its share of GDP increased between 1979 and 2019. The share has varied around 68% since 2009. U.S. Bureau of Economic Analysis, *Shares of Gross Domestic Product: Personal Consumption Expenditures*, retrieved from Federal Reserve Economic Database, Series DPCERE1A156NBEA, Federal Reserve Bank of St. Louis; <https://fred.stlouisfed.org/>.

³⁹ B. Ravikumar and Lin Shao, *Labor Compensation and Labor Productivity: Recent Recoveries and the Long-Term Trend*, Federal Reserve Bank of St. Louis, Economic Synopses, No. 16, August 12, 2016, <https://research.stlouisfed.org/publications/economic-synopses/2016/08/12/labor-compensation-and-labor-productivity-recent-recoveries-and-the-long-term-trend/>.

⁴⁰ GDI measures overall economic activity by the incomes generated from producing gross domestic product (GDP), which is a measure of final expenditures.

in these forces such that national income growth translates into lower growth in aggregate earnings than in the past.⁴¹

Similarly in times of economic recession, private sector demand for goods and services declines, putting strain on the labor market. Employment levels fall and high unemployment rates (together with declining revenues) put downward pressure on overall wage growth. Countervailing that pressure is a tendency of employers to retain their most productive workers, which affects both the composition of the workforce (i.e., who remains after layoffs) and creates an incentive for workers to increase effort and productivity to avoid a layoff.⁴² Macroeconomists also observe that middle-skill workers experience relatively higher job loss during recession, which may further contribute to differential wage growth because displaced workers tend to reenter the labor market at lower wage levels and may increase competition for other jobs held by middle- and lower-skilled workers. Although difficult to observe in aggregate wage statistics, research based on microeconomic data indicates wages tend to fall during recessions and rise during recoveries (i.e., wages are procyclical), although the wage response appears to vary from recession to recession.⁴³

⁴¹ There are many views on what drives the decline in labor's share of income. The results of a BLS analysis suggests that technological change is an important driver; notably BLS finds that the decline in labor's share of income is pronounced in information-technology industries (e.g., software publishers and wireless telecommunications carriers); others have emphasized the role of increased global integration, including trade in final and intermediate goods, and declines in the labor's bargaining power over compensation. Michael Brill, Corey Holman, Chris Morris, Ronjoy Raichoudhary, and Noah Yosif, *Understanding the labor productivity and compensation gap*, Bureau of Labor Statistics, *Beyond the Numbers: Productivity*, vol. 6, no. 6, June 2017, <https://www.bls.gov/opub/btn/volume-6/understanding-the-labor-productivity-and-compensation-gap.htm>. Data on labor's share of gross domestic income in 1979 and 2017 are from Federal Reserve Economic Database, *Shares of gross domestic income: Compensation of employees, paid, Percent, Annual, Not Seasonally Adjusted*, Federal Reserve Bank of St. Louis, Series A4002E1A156NBEA, <http://fred.stlouisfed.org>. Compensation data do not include labor income paid to small business owners.

⁴² Edward P. Lazear, Kathryn L. Shaw, and Christopher Stanton, "Making Do With Less: Working Harder during Recessions," *Journal of Labor Economics*, vol. 34, no. S1 (January 2016), pp. 333-360.

⁴³ Michael W. L. Elsby, Donggyun Shin, Gary Solon, "Wage Adjustment in the Great Recession and Other Downturns: Evidence from the United States and Great Britain," *Journal of Labor Economics*, vol. 34, no. S1 (January 2016), pp. 246-291.

Appendix A. Data Used in this Report

The data used to create annual hourly wage distributions over the 1979-2019 period are from the Current Population Survey (CPS) Outgoing Rotation Groups (ORGs). The CPS is a large-scale household survey conducted monthly by the Census Bureau. CPS participants are interviewed for four consecutive months, then leave the survey for eight months, when they reenter the survey for a final four months. The ORGs are made up of respondents completing their fourth month in the survey (i.e., before they go out on an eight-month hiatus) and those completing their eighth and final interview. Unlike other groups, the ORGs are asked about their usual earnings and hours worked, making them a particularly useful sample for hourly wage studies.

This report's sample comprises individuals 25 to 64 years old who were employed in nonfarm, nonmilitary wage and salary jobs during the survey week and reported enough information to compute an hourly wage. Excluded from the sample are self-employed workers, Armed Forces members, workers in agricultural occupations, and workers whose wages were imputed by the Census Bureau. As others have done, CRS excluded Census-imputed wages due to the finding by Hirsch and Schumacher (2002) that a large portion of them were imputed with error.⁴⁴

CRS estimates hourly wages by dividing workers' reported usual weekly earnings by their usual weekly hours of work. For workers who report they are paid by the hour, their reported hourly rate of pay were used. Wages represent earnings before deductions. For workers who are *not* paid by the hour (*non-hourly workers*), wages include tips, overtime pay, and commissions. Unfortunately, this information on overtime, tips, and commissions is not collected for hourly workers before 1994 and is therefore not included here in hourly wage estimates for them.⁴⁵ Wages are weighted by the product of a worker's CPS weight and their weekly hours (i.e., wages are hours-weighted).

CPS earnings data are "top-coded"—that is, any reported earnings above a given top-code value are replaced with the top-code value—to reduce the likelihood that any particular survey respondent can be identified in the data. In 1979, the first year of data, weekly earnings are top-coded at \$999 per week. The top-code changes twice over the 1979-2019 period: it was raised to \$1,923 per week in 1989 and to \$2,884.61 per week in 1998. Although necessary to maintain the anonymity of survey respondents, top-coding is problematic to studies that attempt to characterize the wage distribution on a year-by-year basis, because the wage distribution is not observable above the top-code value, and the top-code value changes over time. Researchers have addressed top-coded values using a variety of methods. CRS follows the Center for Economic and Policy Research's method by modeling earnings as having a log-normal distribution and replacing top-coded values with gender-specific estimates of the mean value of weekly earnings above the top-code value.⁴⁶

⁴⁴ Barry Hirsch and Edward Schumacher, "Match Bias in Wage Gap Estimates Due to Earnings Imputation," *Journal of Labor Economics*, vol. 22, no. 3 (2002), pp. 689-722.

⁴⁵ It is possible to estimate overtime, tips, and commission for hourly workers after 1994. However, doing so would create an inconsistent series and interfere with the attempt to describe trends over the full 1979-2019 period. To the extent that the compensation structure (i.e., the relative contribution of base wages plus overtime, tips, and commissions) has changed over time for hourly workers, the reported wages for hourly workers could understate or overstate wage trends.

⁴⁶ As a sensitivity check, wage trends are also estimated using methods applied by Autor, Manning, and Smith (2016), and did not find notably different trends. David H. Autor, Alan Manning, and Christopher L. Smith, "The Contribution of the Minimum Wage to US Wage Inequality over Three Decades: A Reassessment," *American Economic Journal: Applied Economics*, vol. 8, no. 1 (January 2016), pp. 58-99. Data and statistical codes used in this paper are at http://economics.mit.edu/faculty/dautor/data/ams_aej_15.

Following standard practice, wage outliers (i.e., implausibly low or high wage reports) were addressed by excluding wages that are less than \$0.50 in 1989 dollars and greater than \$150 in 1989 dollars. Hourly wages were converted to 2019 dollars using the Consumer Price Index for All Urban Consumers, U.S. City Average (CPI-U). The CPI-U, which is a measure of the average change over time in prices paid by consumers for a market basket of goods and services, is commonly used to compare the real (inflation-adjusted) value of earnings or spending data at different points in time. The CPI-U, for example, is the most common index used to adjust state minimum wage rates.

Appendix B. Demographic and Occupational Composition of the Wage Distribution in 1979 and 2019

This report has looked at wage trends by demographic group and earner category, and worker characteristics within those groups. For example, the median wage for women in a given year is defined with respect to the distribution of *women's wages* (not the overall wage distribution).

Table B-1 explores the interaction between demographic groups and earnings from a different perspective. It describes the composition of the workforce overall and within the bottom, middle, and top third of the overall wage distribution.

Overall, the workforce was more diverse in 2019 than it was in 1979 (i.e., the share of White workers and non-Hispanic workers decreased), and the sex composition more balanced. In 2019, workers were older and better educated (i.e., a higher share of workers with at least a bachelor's degree). The share of workers in production jobs fell sharply between 1979 and 2019 (with losses in other job categories as well, such as administrative support and clerical work), with gains in employment share in many categories—the largest gains being in professional, technical, and related occupations.

These compositional changes did not all occur, however, to the same degree in each third of the overall wage distribution. For example, Black workers remained overrepresented in the bottom third of the distribution; the share of Black workers in the top third of wage earners rose by 1 percentage point between 1979 and 2019. Similarly, although female workers and Hispanic workers gained shares in the upper wage tercile (i.e., top third), they remained underrepresented among top earners in 2019.

In terms of shifting occupational composition, from 1979 to 2019

- in the bottom third of the wage distribution, the share of workers in production work declined by 8 percentage points and in administrative support and clerical jobs by 6 percentage points. Over the same period, workers in the bottom third became more concentrated in service-sector employment (24% to 28%).
- in the middle wage tercile, the share of workers in production work declined by 11 percentage points and in administrative support work by 5 percentage points. On the other hand, workers in this tercile increased their share of employment by 9 percentage points in professional, technical, and related jobs, and by 6 percentage points in executive, administrative, and managerial occupations.
- in the top third of the wage distribution, the share of workers in executive, administrative, and managerial occupations and professional, technical, and related jobs increased from 44% in 1979 to 75% in 2019.

Table B-1. Worker Characteristics by Wage Tercile, 1979 and 2019

	<u>Overall</u>		<u>Bottom Third</u>		<u>Middle Third</u>		<u>Top Third</u>	
	1979	2019	1979	2019	1979	2019	1979	2019
Race								
White ^a	87%	78%	83%	75%	88%	81%	92%	80%
Black	10%	11%	14%	15%	10%	11%	6%	7%
Other	2%	10%	3%	10%	2%	9%	2%	13%
Hispanic Ethnicity								
Non-Hispanic	95%	85%	93%	77%	95%	87%	97%	94%
Hispanic	5%	15%	7%	23%	5%	13%	3%	6%
Sex								
Male	56%	52%	30%	44%	59%	53%	83%	60%
Female	44%	48%	70%	56%	41%	47%	17%	40%
Age								
25-34 years	40%	30%	40%	37%	45%	31%	34%	21%
35-44 years	25%	27%	24%	23%	24%	27%	29%	30%
45-54 years	21%	24%	21%	21%	19%	23%	23%	28%
55-64 years	14%	19%	16%	18%	13%	19%	13%	21%
Education								
High School Diploma or Less	61%	30%	77%	49%	60%	27%	45%	9%
Some College	18%	26%	14%	31%	20%	30%	20%	17%
Bachelor's Degree and Higher	21%	44%	9%	20%	20%	43%	35%	73%
Occupation								
Executive, Administrative, and Managerial	12%	18%	5%	6%	11%	17%	20%	32%
Professional, Technical, and Related	17%	27%	9%	12%	19%	28%	24%	43%
Sales	7%	8%	9%	10%	5%	7%	5%	7%
Administrative Support, Including Clerical	18%	13%	23%	17%	20%	15%	10%	5%
Service	12%	14%	24%	28%	7%	8%	3%	4%
Construction and Extraction	5%	5%	2%	5%	5%	6%	8%	3%
Installation, Maintenance, and Repair	5%	3%	2%	3%	6%	5%	7%	2%
Production	18%	7%	18%	10%	19%	8%	15%	2%
Transportation and Material Moving	7%	6%	7%	9%	8%	6%	7%	2%

Source: CRS estimates using Current Population Survey Outgoing Rotation Group data for 1979 and 2019.

Notes: Sample comprises nonfarm wage and salary workers who are 25-64 years old and provide sufficient information to compute an hourly wage.

- a. Race is described irrespective of Hispanic ethnicity. The share of the overall population of workers that was White and non-Hispanic in 1979 was 80% and Black non-Hispanic was 10%; these shares were 63% and 10% in 2019.

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Acknowledgments

Research support for this report was provided by Paul Romero.

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To: [Greg McNally](#); [Roger Baltz](#); [Abigail St. Lawrence](#); [Thomas, Andrew](#); [billgowen@helenaabstract.com](#); [thedentmanllc@yahoo.com](#); [mkurmove@gmail.com](#); [Dean O'Neill](#); [db.flyz@gmail.com](#); [Don Dallas <land@dallas-land.com>](#); [gharris@helenahar.com](#); [Helena LC Craig Winterburn](#); [jerry1@hamlinconstruction.com](#); [Jerry Spencer](#); [jdusenberry@janddtruckrepair.com](#); [Jim McCormick](#); [publisher@montanadailygazette.com](#); [John W. Herrin](#); [beth@triplersurveying.com](#); [jonathon.ambarian@kxlh.com](#); [jd2.dooling@gmail.com](#); [kimsmithvalley@hotmail.com](#); [Andy Hunthausen](#); [Lindsay Morgan](#); [Mark O'Neill](#); [Matthew Monfroton](#); [Michael Kakuk](#); [mtpaisan@gmail.com](#); [mj.fasbender@bresnan.net](#); [Nicole Giacomini](#); [Peter Italiano](#); [Ralph Kuney](#); [rlchristians@gmail.com](#); [Shirley Herrin](#); [steveburch@missouririvercontractors.com](#); [sutick@mt.net](#); [tim@mooreappraisalfirm.net](#); [Tom Rolfe](#); [Tony@jbartengineers.com](#); [trevoretaylor@hotmail.com](#); [suzorhoy4montana@gmail.com](#)
Subject: ZAP Hearings -- 9 Months of Public Hearing Not properly Noticed for Public Involvement and Public Testimony Arbitrarily and Capriciously Limited while Everyone Else has Unlimited Testimony (Discrimination and Violates intent of Mt. Constitution & MCA).
Date: Tuesday, October 5, 2021 7:12:23 PM

CAUTION: This email originated from outside of the organization. Do not click links or open attachments unless you recognize the sender and know the content is safe.

This is a formal complaint against L & C County Administrative Staff and Appointed ZAP members for holding almost 20 public hearings to address changes to the Helena Valley Planning Area Zoning Regulations for three Subzones – Urban, Transitional and Rural – without properly involving the public in this all important regulatory formulation process.

In addition – the L & C County has artificially and illegally limited public testimony to only 5 minutes to each private citizen, but allowed unlimited testimony, comments and discussions by ZAP members, County Planning Staff, invited County technical experts, and non-county contracted personnel.

The 5 minute limit of public testimony by non-county affiliated personnel is Arbitrary and Capricious (note: these are purposeful legal terms) that severely limits the ability of anyone outside the inner county circle to present facts, truths and procedural challenges to that being presented by the county orchestrated hearing controllers – severely damaging the public's rights to participate and changing the direction/policies/thought processes of the ZAP committee members, the public and altering the course of history.

By severely limiting public involvement over the Past 9 months, the County has once again deny to citizens the right to know, the rights to participate in the rule making process and violated their rights to protect the Constitutionally and MCA property/happiness/business/family/financial etc. interests versus the power wielded by the County to impact their lives.

L & C County has artificially stacked the Administrative Rule making and Subdivision Development Permit Review process to slow rural growth at every step of the process including the 2004 and 2015 Growth Policy to Subdivision Regulations and Decisions, plus now Three layers of Zoning regulations.

As proven many times in District Court, in the media and through forced legal damage claim settlements, L & C County has a long history of ignoring wise and meaningful public requests for Administrative Rule making changes, but this County absolutely refuses to ever change course and marches forward to a predetermined goal of slowing rural growth anyway that is remotely possible

(but often illegal).

Leading all of us -- the County Government, landowners, business interests, citizens, low-medium income households, public service agencies, county staff, etc. -- to have to all jump off the cliff and endure the widespread community harm that a select few anti-rural development County managers repeatedly feel is they are justified in perpetuating.

WHY is it so hard for L & C County to govern for the real public good?

The system has been rigged at every step for the past 17 plus and ultimately unfairly and for ever more importantly forever altering the course of history for the Tri-county Community.

The State of Montana Constitution states --

Preamble

We the people of Montana grateful to God for the quiet beauty of our state, the grandeur of our mountains, the vastness of our rolling plains, and desiring to improve the quality of life, equality of opportunity and to secure the blessings of liberty for this and future generations do ordain and establish this constitution.

Popular Sovereignty

Section 1. Popular sovereignty. All political power is vested in and derived from the people. All government of right originates with the people, is founded upon their will only, and is instituted solely for the good of the whole.

Inalienable Rights

Section 3. Inalienable rights. All persons are born free and have certain inalienable rights. They include the right to a clean and healthful environment and the rights of pursuing life's basic necessities, enjoying and defending their lives and liberties, acquiring, possessing and protecting property, and seeking their safety, health and happiness in all lawful ways. In enjoying these rights, all persons recognize corresponding responsibilities.

Individual Dignity

Section 4. Individual dignity. The dignity of the human being is inviolable. No person shall be denied the equal protection of the laws. Neither the state nor any person, firm, corporation, or institution shall discriminate against any person in the exercise of his civil or political rights on account of race, color, sex, culture, social origin or condition, or political or religious ideas.

Freedom Of Speech, Expression, And Press

Section 7. Freedom of speech, expression, and press. No law shall be passed impairing the freedom of speech or expression. **Every person shall be free to speak or publish whatever he will on any subject,** being responsible for all abuse of that liberty. In all suits and prosecutions for libel or slander the truth thereof may be given in evidence; and the jury, under the direction of the court, shall determine the law and the facts.

Right Of Participation

Section 8. Right of participation. The public has the right to expect governmental agencies to afford such reasonable opportunity for citizen participation in the operation of the agencies prior to the final decision as may be provided by law.

Montana Code Annotated 2019

TITLE 2. GOVERNMENT STRUCTURE AND ADMINISTRATION

CHAPTER 3. PUBLIC PARTICIPATION IN GOVERNMENTAL OPERATIONS

Part 1. Notice and Opportunity to Be Heard

Legislative Intent

2-3-101. Legislative intent. The legislature finds and declares pursuant to the mandate of Article II, section 8, of the 1972 Montana constitution that legislative guidelines should be established to secure to the people of **Montana their constitutional right to be afforded reasonable opportunity to participate in the operation of governmental agencies prior to the final decision of the agency.**

Public Participation -- Governor To Ensure Guidelines Adopted

2-3-103. Public participation -- governor to ensure guidelines adopted. (1) (a) **Each agency shall develop procedures for permitting and encouraging the public to participate in agency decisions that are of significant interest to the public.**

The procedures must ensure adequate notice and assist public participation before a final agency action is taken that is of significant interest to the public. The agenda for a meeting, as defined in **2-3-202,** **must include an item allowing public comment on any public matter that is not on the agenda of the meeting** and that is within the jurisdiction of the agency conducting the meeting. However, the

agency may not take action on any matter discussed unless specific notice of that matter is included on an agenda and public comment has been allowed on that matter. Public comment received at a meeting must be incorporated into the official minutes of the meeting, as provided in **2-3-212**.

(b) For purposes of this section, "public matter" does not include contested case and other adjudicative proceedings.

(2) The governor shall ensure that each board, bureau, commission, department, authority, agency, or officer of the executive branch of the state adopts coordinated rules for its programs. **The guidelines must provide policies and procedures to facilitate public participation in those programs**, consistent with subsection (1). These guidelines must be adopted as rules and published in a manner so that the rules may be provided to a member of the public upon request.

Note: **L & C County has adopted just such policies** – but I contend that the lack of effort to adequately inform all impacted landowners at any point in the Last nearly 2 year Zoning Process is a violation of the intent of State of Mt. Constitution and MCA requirements.

Although L & C County did send out on post card to most county landowners prior to the first or second Consolidated Planning Board hearing around May 2020, the post card only said there was a public hearing on a set day and time, but didn't even state that the hearing would be at the Helena Civic Center auditorium and it contained zero information or map of the proposed 10-acre average lot size restricted areas – targeting the roughly 150,000 acres of rural property, but ignoring the transitional or urban areas for harsh land-use restrictions.

WHY? Posting a few adds in the newspaper and on the County Website does not show a real intent by the County to adequately inform rural landowners about the plans to severely restrict their use of their lands or to sell their major asset to future buyers that don't need average 10-acre lot size parcels.

WHAT is the justification and science to support these administrative takings actions?

At several early 2020 County sponsored public hearing, Peter Italiano was asked if landowners could be properly notified about the initial proposed 160-, 20-, and 10-acre average lot size restriction zones and his response was a simple and harsh – NO.

WHY? Zero effort to send out simple 4-6 page informational flyers to all impacted rural landowners at any point in the rural making process? No detailed articles were ever posted in the newspaper beyond the IR articles initiated coverage of the well attended and heated fall 2020 Board of County Commissioners Hearings.

WHERE was the county out-reach and effort to inform impacted landowners? Posting a few maps on roads doesn't cut the mustard.

When PI was repeated asked if the citizens could have a vote on the proposed Zoning regulations (Note: Like is required under citizen initiated Part II zoning) again is answer as a emphatic – NO.

WHY? Why are Part II landowners forced to get 50% of the landowners to support a Waterdown Zoning plan, when the County's 120 page 2020 County Initiated Zoning plan only requires 2 County Commissioners to vote to approve a County Initiated Zoning Plan?

Given the fact that the overwhelming majority of people that attended county 5 listening sessions, 5 BoCC hearings and 4-5 Planning Board hearings opposed the Targeted Rural Only Zoning Plan --- over 90-95% of the 1822 written pages of comments and hundreds of verbal public testimony voiced strong opposition to the 120 plus page 2020 Zoning Proposal -- how is it that the County managers decided to adopt this plan anyway?

Where is the democratic and legal justice in L & C County approach to Subdivision and Zoning rural making over the last 17 years?

Also L & C County officials have repeatedly violated the State and L & C County's own Opening Meeting by repeatedly interrupting public and artificially limiting verbal public testimony during the 2020 Planning Board Hearings (e.g. Chairman Gregory Thomas), in testimony given to the Board of County Commissioners (e.g. Chairwomen Susan Good Geise) and now in the longs series of ZAP hearings.

Can the ZAP committee members understand why citizens have such a low opinion of governmental agencies and that is especially true here in L & C County because of all negative energy being wasted in repeated lawsuits and a County full of headstrong managers that won't let the citizen into the skin game and play fair in the playground of life.

Sent from [Mail](#) for Windows

From: [DW Paulson](#)
To: [County Planning Mail](#)
Subject: FW: ZAP
Date: Thursday, October 7, 2021 2:21:41 PM
Attachments: [ZAP letter Oct 2021.pdf](#)
[2015 letter to planning.pdf](#)
[2018 letter to planning.pdf](#)
[6-24-20 Spokane Creek Neighbors2 Public Comment .pdf](#)

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From: DW Paulson <dw3bars@outlook.com>
Sent: Thursday, October 7, 2021 1:59 PM
To: DW Paulson <dw3bars@outlook.com>
Subject: ZAP

Lewis and Clark County
Community Development and Planning Department
316 N Park Avenue Helena Montana
Attention ZAP

Please accept the attached Letter and attachments as public comment to the Zoning Advisory Panel. Thank you for the opportunity to provide comments and we appreciate your efforts to involve the public. Please reply to acknowledge that the electronic submittal was received and is readable.

October 7, 2021

To: Community Development and Planning Department
Attention Zoning Advisory Panel
From: Spokane Creek Neighbors

We appreciate the work you are doing and the opportunity to provide comments to the Zoning Advisory Panel (ZAP) on behalf of several Spokane Creek Neighbors. These comments are specific to the Spokane Creek Drainage area and as you consider your recommendations we ask that you protect the availability of water in the Spokane Creek area. Water is the life blood of our human and natural ecosystem that must be protected in order to sustain us and the Montana lifestyle that we all cherish. Of all the elements that you are considering water availability has to be number one for sustaining our life style, property values and the natural environment. You have discussed water issues in the North Hills but we want to make you aware that the Spokane Creek area is heading down the same path. The water issues here are not as visible as the North Hills but the problem is fast approaching and we have long been sounding the alarm.

Clearly as subdivision increases there is an increasing drawdown of the aquifer, existing wells and environmental degradation of the historically viable fresh water Spokane Creek and its ecosystem. In approximately 2008 Wheat Ridge Estates a large high density subdivision was beginning to be built and as it developed things started to change. By 2014 as the subdivision continued to grow Spokane Creek flow was noticeably decreasing each year as progressively longer and longer reaches were drying up. Concern for this development prompted a letter to Lewis and Clark County Community Development and Planning Department in April 2015 to make the Planning Department aware of the problem. By 2018 it became evident that in addition to decreasing flow our wells were also experiencing lower water levels. The decreasing flow and lower well levels prompted a second letter in March of 2018. As building continued ground water and creek flow continued

to decrease and we again addressed the problem in a June 24, 2020 letter, supported by data from the Montana Ground Water Information Center. All three of these letters are attached and they document the progressive and rapid loss of ground water over the past seven years.

Recharge is not keeping up with the drawdown from the increasing numbers of wells. Longtime residents of the area can attest to 40 years of history that Spokane Creek was a viable fresh water stream and ecosystem with the sole exception of the recent high development years. It was a typical fresh water creek with normal spring freshets preceding continuous summer flow and a groundwater ecosystem supporting abundant vegetation, wetlands, wildlife, birds, and aquatic life. And we are sure that this has been the history of this creek for a very long time.

Now the water loss is aggravated by spring flooding which has no chance of recharging the aquifer. Flash floods, with substantial contribution from the subdivision, inundate a dry creek bed, last about a day and the creek is dry again the next day. The spring flood of 2016, was the first time that water overtopped Three Bars Road and the second time occurred in the spring of 2018. These two years are the only time we know of that water overtopped the road with the exception of the 2003 flood. This is called Flashing, the water is lost and there is no chance of aquifer recharge.

The precise date of the 2016 flash flood is unknown but the 2018 flood which caused considerable damage and required expensive replacement of the culverts occurred in the March 22nd time frame. The creek was dry within a few hours and did not flow again until May 10, 2018. There was no continuous flow in 2017. In 2018 the flow started on May 10th and lasted until July 14, 2018. In 2019 the creek started flowing on March 26th and stopped on June 16th. There has been no flow since. The ground water elevation high enough to support a free flowing creek is now well below the creek bed. An eight foot ground water monitoring station near Three Bars Road indicated that ground water was at 7.7 feet below the creek bed in June of 2020. This year the monitoring station is dry showing the ground water level is in excess of eight feet below the creek bed.



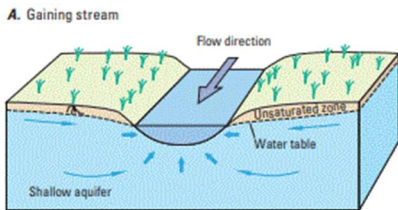
Summer 2010 photo showing typical flow and abundant grass fed by groundwater that was the norm until 2014 when flow was noticeably decreasing.



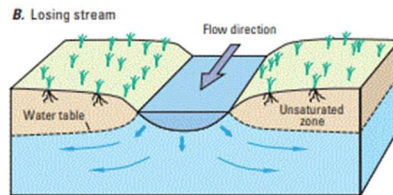
Summer 2020 photo of the dry creek bed. Recent flow has been short lived and weak. There has been no flow since June of 2019



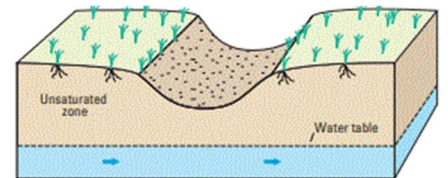
Summer 2020 photo of dead and dying trees. These trees area were still alive in 2014 even though the flow had started to decrease.



Freshwater creek and groundwater ecosystem supporting abundant vegetation, birds and aquatic life including frogs and small fish that was typical of Spokane creek for many years.

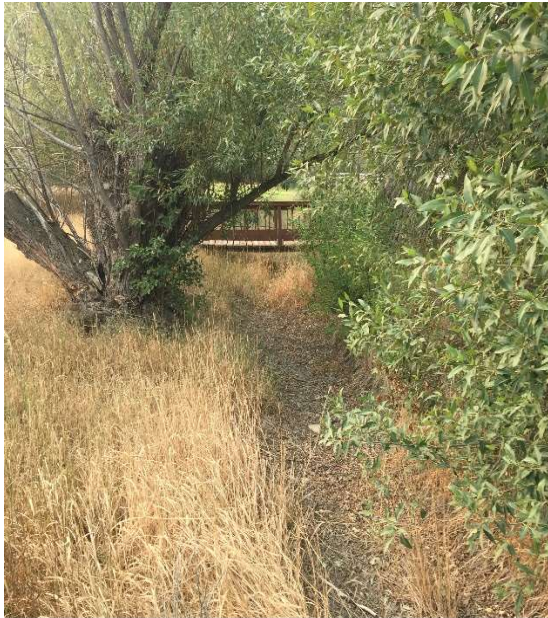


Water flowing from creek to aquifer. Noticeable drying of the creek affecting vegetation became noticeable and alarming in 2014 resulting in notification to the Lewis and Clark Planning of the impending problem in 2015.



Current dry creek bed with no recharge capabilities. June 16, 2019 was the last time there was flow in the creek. The water table is now in excess of 8 feet below the creek bed near Three Bars Road.

The Figures are from Streamflow Depletion by wells USGS Circular 1376 provide a visual depiction of the result of ground water depletion on streamflow and vegetation. Notably in the last figure ground recharge has ceased. Circular1376 also notes "... the effects of groundwater withdrawals can spread to distant connected streams, lakes, and wetlands through decreased rates of discharge from the aquifer to these surface-water systems."



Spokane Creek at Johnson Road August 2021



1980 Spokane Creek adjacent to Johnson Road

During your deliberations your members have highlighted many issues that are close to home for us. Issues like, consideration of impacts to current property owners, avoiding shifted costs, property values, life style, the natural environment, ensuring water availability and not impacting existing wells. These things are important for longtime residents, new residents, and those building now that have no knowledge of the stressed aquifer.

Water issues won't fix themselves and the longer they go unaddressed the worse it will get. It's not something to be kicked down the road. As you consider your recommendations we ask that you significantly restrict further subdivision in our area until a comprehensive transparent hydraulic study of the entire Spokane creek drainage area, not just the footprint of the proposed development, is completed. Subdivision density, and subsequent well water withdrawal, must be designed to match aquifer recharge. No other approach is sustainable, and decisions about subdivision density cannot be made without data obtained through such a comprehensive, transparent, hydraulic study.

The importance of your recommendations can not be overstated. Allowing new subdivisions is an irreversible commitment of existing water resources that can't be changed. The trend is clear. It's unmistakable, water availability in the Spokane Creek drainage area is decreasing. A complete understanding of water resources and ecosystem impacts now and into the future should be a prerequisite of new development.

Thank you

Spokane Creek Neighbors

Signatures are on the following pages

Attached letters

4/8/15

3/30/18

6/24/20

Name	Address	Signature
Rodger & Laura Nordahl	2735 Three Bars Dr. E. Helena MT 59635	Rodger & Laura Nordahl
DAN + LORA MCDADD	5974 JOHNSON RD. EAST HELENA MT 59635	Lora Mcdadd
Pattie + DAVID CAMERON	5945 Heartache Rd E. Helena MT. 59635	David Cameron Patricia Cameron
ROBERT & CECILLE GRAFFI	5996 N. THREE BARS RD. EAST HELENA, MT 59635	Robert Graffi Cecille Sanders Graffi
Dennis D. + Marie A. Haywood	2485 Three Bars Dr East Helena, MT 59635	Dennis D. Haywood Marie A. Haywood
Ann Guerin	2515 Three Bars Dr E. Helena, MT 59635	Ann Guerin
Nat & Hillary Carter	0031 Johnson Rd E. Helena, MT 59635	Nat Carter Hillary Carter
JOANN MORRISSE	5949 HEARTACHE RD E. HELENA, MT 59635	Joann Morriss

Name	Address	Signature
Dan Sloat Deb Sloat	5914 Johnson Rd	Dan Sloat Deb Sloat
MARTY VAN SLIKE + TONI VAN SLIKE	5924 N. THREE BARS EAST HELENA	Marty Van Slike Toni Van Slike
DRAKE TUMMEL + JOYCE TUMMEL	2601 - THREE BARS DR. EAST HELENA	Drake Tummel Joyce Tummel
DALE PAULSON + NANCY PAULSON	2610 THREE BARS DRIVE EAST HELENA	Dale Paulson Nancy Paulson
FAYDEE HAMILTON	5845 JOHNSON RD. E. HELENA, MT 59635	Fay Dee Hamilton
DAVE MARLIN	2645 Three Bars Dr E. Helena MT 59635	Marlene Fay David Loy
Jody McDaid	5946 Johnson Rd. E. Helena	Jody McDaid
VICKI M ^c DAID	5900 JOHNSON E. HELENA MT 59635	Vicki McDaid

Board Members:

This letter communicates concerns of several residents of the Spokane Creek Neighborhood centering near the intersection of Spokane Creek Road and Three Bars Road regarding the proposed Helena Valley Zoning Regulations. We wish to make three observations and one request of the Board.

Observations:

- Water withdrawal from certain aquifers within the Helena Valley Planning Area currently exceeds recharge, and as such, certain aquifer water supplies are already not sustainable. (Supporting information follows below).
- Aquifer boundaries and recharge characteristics within the Helena Valley Planning Area are highly variable and not well understood. While the general approach of limiting Rural Residential Mixed Use (RRMU) density to a minimum parcel size of 10 acres (assuming 1 well per 10 acres) is an approximation based on past research, the clustering concept described in Section 7 may not result in sustainable aquifer water supply for that cluster, and also may deprive adjacent clusters of water.
- Section 7, RRMU, paragraph 706.01.3 describes how rural 10 acre lots may be subdivided into clusters over a larger area in order to “reduce the potential for groundwater depletion”. This is a very mechanistic approach and does not take into consideration research and data on actual aquifer boundaries and ground water recharge rates through hydrogeologic analysis of sustainable groundwater withdrawal. Completion of a hydrogeologic analysis and extensiveness of that analysis is key. Further, an analysis of just the footprint of a subdivision cluster is not an analysis of the entire impact area, which is defined by the aquifer perhaps covering a large area.

Our concern is simply that aquifer water withdrawal is not less than aquifer recharge. The amount of aquifer recharge is quite variable within RRMU areas, and the subdivision scenarios described in Section 7 Figure 1 cannot guarantee water withdrawal will be sustainable without scientific analysis.

Request:

- The Helena Valley Zoning Regulations should mandate that a comprehensive hydrogeologic sustainability analysis be conducted before RRMU subdivision or cluster decisions are made, or, financial and engineering provisions must be provided to detail how water will be provided from other sources (e.g. river or reservoir) should aquifers prove to be unsustainable.

To restate our request more simply, we ask that at a minimum, subdivision density be based on scientific measurement and analysis of water sustainability. Hydrogeologic studies must precede development.

Sincerely,

Spokane Creek Neighbors

Spokane Creek Neighbors Include the Following:

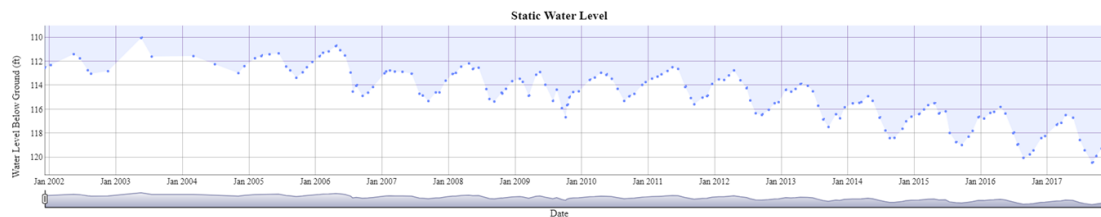
Nancy & Dale Paulson	2610 Three Bars Drive East Helena, MT 59635-9710
Joyce & Drake Tummel	2601 Three Bars Drive East Helena, MT 59635
Toni & Martin Van Slyke	5924 North Three Bars Road East Helena, MT 59635-9424
Marie and Denny Haywood	2485 Three Bars Drive East Helena, MT 59635-9709

Indications of Declining Aquifer Water Levels Within the Helena Valley Planning Area

1.) Montana Ground Water Information Center Data: Prairie Nest & Lone Prairie Well

Groundwater Information Center Well Hydrograph

The following chart represents the current hydrograph for this well. Data reported are static water levels in feet below ground surface. A filter has been applied to the data to remove all dry and/or non-static measurements.



GWIC ID: 191548
 Site Name: LCNQPD - PRAIRIE NEST AND LONE PRAIRIE WELL
 Location: 10N02W29DDBB
 Total Depth: 136 feet
 Number of Measurements: 169
 Period of Record: 12/7/2001 2:15:00 PM - 12/1/2017 12:49:00 PM

This chart shows declining well levels from 2002 (110 feet) through 2017 (120 feet) near East Helena. This is but one example of long-term declining aquifer water levels within the Helena Valley Planning Area. Similar results can be observed for other wells.

2.) Two studies indicate that 1 well per 10 acres was sustainable there, while 1 well per acre was not.

- a. Bobst, A.L., Waren, K.B., Ahern, J.A., Swierc, J.E., and Madison, J.D., 2012, Hydrogeologic Investigaton of the North Hills study area, Lewis and Clark County, Montana, Technical Report.
- b. Bobst, A.L., Waren, K.B., Butler, J.A., Swierc, J.E., and Madison, J.D., 2014, Hydrogeologic investigaton of the Scratchgravel Hills study area, Lewis and Clark County, Montana, Technical Report.

3.) Emerald Ridge Subdivision Aquifer Depletion

- a. J. E. Swierc. 2014. Emerald Ridge Area Ground Water Resource Assessment. Lewis and Clark Water Quality Protection District

4.) Personal Observations of Spokane Creek Surface Flow:

Residents living here over 30 years note very infrequent flow in Spokane Creek, which used to run continually. Trees along the creek are stressed and a small wetland adjacent to the creek has dried. These observations did not correlate with annual rainfall, but were coincident with a large housing development nearby.

Dale W. Paulson
2610 Three Bars Drive
East Helena, MT 59635

March 30, 2018

Peter Italiano, Director
Lewis and Clark County Community Development and Planning Department
316 North Park Avenue
Helena, MT 59623

Subject: Concern for East Bench Water Aquifer Depletion

Mr. Italiano:

I am writing in representation of a number of neighbors in the Spokane Creek area to express our concerns related to reduced water levels in domestic wells which has recently come to our attention. This is also a follow up letter to a letter written to the planning department on April 8, 2015 by me. This letter is attached along with your Department's April 16, 2015 reply which was greatly appreciated.

The referenced 2015 letter expressed concern that rapidly decreasing ground water was clearly evident and the decrease had a clear correlation to the development of a high density subdivision located near the intersection of Highway 12 and 284. This was evidenced by increasing dry creek reaches along Spokane Creek. As an update no water has flowed through the Paulson property since the 2015 letter was written with the sole exception of the short duration spring runoff over frozen ground. This has not been the norm for the last 30 plus years.

With this as background our collective concern grew exponentially when it became clear that not only is Spokane Creek drying up but our wells are experiencing lower water levels that any of us can remember. We are providing a table of both quantitative and anecdotal observations by our neighbors that are cause for our concern (attached).

After reading the 2015 Growth Policy Update we are sure that none of this comes as a surprise but we believe it is important to document that the aquifer is clearly not recharging fast enough to maintain well levels in this area which substantially validates your prediction. As noted in Mr. Thebarger's April 16, 2015 letter, the agency already has evidence of groundwater withdrawals in subdivisions impacting wells and this letter provides additional information for your database related to the Spokane Creek area. In addition, it highlights the immediate need to obtain the data necessary to make necessary policy decisions, which could limit development to insure water availability into the future, again as noted in the attached CDP 2015 letter.

We are experiencing water depletion first hand and we compliment you for the work that went into developing the Key Points listed in Chapter Two – Water Availability of the Volume 1-Key Issues Report and many of the items in Volume Two - Helena Valley Area Plan Rural Growth Areas. We appreciate that DEQ and DNRC are partners in implementing this plan as the lowering the water table adversely impacts the total ecosystem including all forms of vegetation and wildlife in the area.

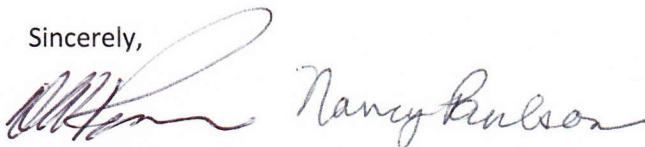
We also note the issuance of the Montana Climate Assessment carried out by the Montana University System's Institute on Ecosystems which predicts increasing drought conditions. This Assessment was written to help plan and adapt for future conditions.

Because of these concerns we ask that the CDP strongly take into consideration the following three requests.

- **Support immediate research on the condition of East Bench Aquifers.**
 - In support of Growth Policy Update 2015, RGA Performance Standards, Policy 1.6
 - Monitor wells in the Spokane Creek neighborhood as part of the L&C County Water Quality and Protection District program.
 - Provide a transducer to at least one well to monitor continuous water level fluctuations.
 - Prioritize in-depth East Bench research project in conjunction with Montana Bureau of Mines and Geology.
- **Support 2015 Growth Plan policies to limit RGA development density.**
 - Temporarily implement a moratorium on developments in the East Bench that are less than 10 Acre per lot until detailed aquifer analysis is complete. (Growth Policy Update 2015, RGA Density Control 1.2)
 - Your April 16, 2015 letter stated that "We will be drafting recommendations for enactment of large -lot zoning for that area unless and until a development proposal demonstrates how concerns for groundwater depletion, road conditions, and fire protection will be addressed to mitigate adverse impacts. At that point the burden of proof will be shifted from the public to the private development interests". We would like an update on that process.
- **Include our neighborhood in continued involvement in planning and zoning process.**
 - We wish to be involved in any extensive groundwater study of the East Bench Aquifer and any meetings related to this topic.
 - In addition we request an update on the progress that is being made in implementing the Helena Valley Area Plan Adopted March 3, 2016. In Particular we are interested in the status of the Water Quality Protection District's 2015 application noted in your April 16, 2015 letter.

We thank you for your attention to our requests and look forward to your reply and our continued involvement. Please find attached the list of neighbors expressing these concerns. Additionally, Marla Clark polled home owners in the Pine Hills area and their concerns are attached.

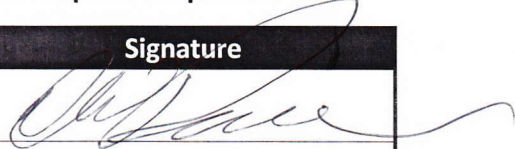
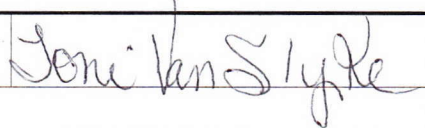
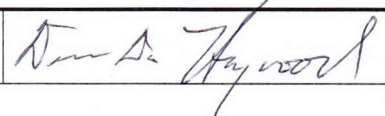
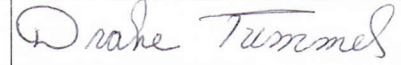
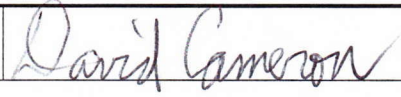
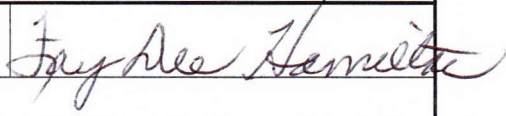
Sincerely,

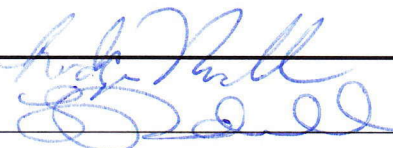
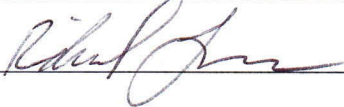
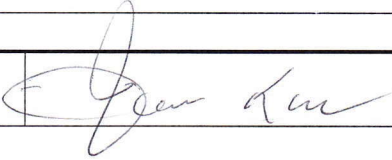
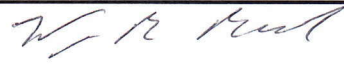


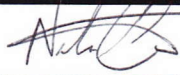
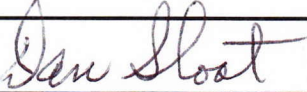

Dale and Nancy Paulson

cc: Kathy Moore, Environmental Division Administrator

Spokane Creek Neighbors Expressing Concern for East Bench Aquifer Depletion

Name	Address	Signature
Dale and Nancy Paulson	2610 Three Bars Drive East Helena, MT 59635-9710	
<p><u>Observations:</u> The original well static elevation was 23 feet and 43 feet end of last summer, a drop of 19 feet. I observed that dry reaches of the creek continue to expand.</p>		
Toni and Martin Van Slyke	5924 North Three Bars Road East Helena, MT 59635-9424	
<p><u>Observations:</u> The original well static elevation was 49 feet, but in October 2015, when putting in a hand pump, static level was 80 feet.</p>		
Marie and Denny Haywood	2485 Three Bars Road Drive East Helena, MT 59635	
<p><u>Observations:</u> Original static water level was 21 feet (3-29-1977) and we hope to have it re-measured this summer. We have not yet experienced any observable change in water pressure or flow. However, our next door neighbor's well went dry this past summer and he had to drill a new and deeper well. We support the contents of the Paulson letter.</p>		
Joyce & Drake Tummel	2601 Three Bars Drive East Helena, MT 59635	
<p><u>Observations:</u> The original well static elevation was 17 feet, but in September 2015 the static elevation was 55 feet a drop of 36 feet.</p>		
Pattie & Dave Cameron	5945 Heartache Road East Helena, MT 59635-9425	
<p><u>Observations:</u> We have not experienced any changes in our water supply. Not sure if this would be helpful or not. But we would support the community by signing your letter.</p>		
Faydee Hamilton	5845 Johnson Road East Helena, MT 59635	
<p><u>Observations:</u> I've lived here for 40 years and have ALWAYS had water running in the creek through my property until 4 years ago when it dried up completely. I'm not sure if someone dug an unauthorized pond upstream from me or if this is a result of all the new development and wells which are tapping into our aquifer. Whatever it is, it's a huge concern and needs to be addressed by the powers that be. I'm not sure what the static water level is on my well but hope to get that determined this summer. I DO however note that I've always had a strong well until last summer when my water pressure was markedly reduced. Sometimes to not much more than a weak stream in the shower and faucets.</p>		

Marla & Jim Clark	3545 Pine Hills Drive Helena, MT 59602	See MARLA CLARK POLL
<p><u>Observations:</u> Static water level is at 117ft., and the well depth is 195ft. The pumping level was at 160ft.,. When we had a new pump head (1-1/2 horse) installed in August 2015, they installed 175ft of drop pipe and set the pump at 180ft, 20ft lower. Before we installed this pump the old one was cavitating. Also, we used to be able to string two rainbirds together to water the lawn, but cannot do that now. We haven't tested for the yield, but when the well was installed in 1975, the yield at 167ft was 2 GPM. The estimate in 1975 for yield at 175ft was 12-1/2 GPM.</p> <p>GWIC ID#60510 (1983) well which belonged originally to Jim Gleich, no longer produced sufficiently. He had to drill a new well, #60516 in 1988.</p>		
Laura & Rodger Nordahl	2735 Three Bars Drive East Helena, MT	
<p><u>Observations:</u> We haven't had water in our creek for several years and usually had some for part of the spring and early summer. Our well is down a little, but I not know if that is dry years or aquifer levels dropping. As I have mentioned in the past, Laura and I agree with what is in your letters and want to sign it.</p>		
Sandy & Richard Leyva	5890 Johnson Road East Helena, MT 59635	
<p><u>Observations:</u> The original irrigation well was 22 feet deep with a static level of 15 feet around 1998. For the last two years the static level was about 20 feet except it didn't recharge in the spring. Consequently, we had to abandon that well and dig a new well, which went to 160 feet, with a static level of about 40 feet. We support the content of the Paulson letter.</p>		
Joann Koerber	5949 Heartache Road East Helena, MT 89131-1451	
<p><u>Observations:</u> I've been here for 26 years the water pressure outside and inside is substantially lower within the last 10 years.</p>		
Ann & Mic Guerin	2515 Three Bars Drive East Helena, MT 59635	NOT HOME
<p><u>Observations:</u></p>		
Dawn Rowling & Wynn Randall	2473 Spokane Creek Rd East Helena, MT 59635	
<p><u>Observations:</u> We moved to the property about two years ago. The only noticeable observation that I've made is that of low water pressure. I support the proposal in the letter.</p>		

Name	Address	Signature
Hillary & Nat Carter	6031 Johnson Road East Helena, MT 59635	
<u>Observations:</u>		
Deb & Dan Sloat	5915 Johnson Road East Helena, MT 59635	
<u>Observations:</u>		
Robert & Jeremiah Erickson	5942 North Three Bars Road East Helena, MT 59635-9424	
<u>Observations:</u>		
Cecille & Bob Graffi	5996 North Three Bars Road East Helena, MT 59635-9424	
<u>Observations:</u>		
<u>Observations:</u>		
<u>Observations:</u>		
<u>Observations:</u>		

To: Lewis and Clark County Planning Department

April 8, 2015

Subject: Key Issue Report

I understand how difficult it is for Planners to balance all of the competing needs when confronted by the diverse issues. The Key Issues Report is well done but the scope of the report is limited because the planning process focuses only on subdivisions. There is however the issue of secondary and cumulative effects that must also be considered in the planning process. I will focus on the continual lowering of groundwater outside the limits of the subdivision that affects the valley's ecosystem.

I have lived along Spokane Creek for more than thirty years and have watched the flow in the creek decrease to the point that a once continually flowing stream has perpetual dry reaches. This is because the level of the groundwater has been dropping. I have been aware of this phenomenon and in the past it was easy to equate intermittent dry reaches of Spokane creek to the lack of precipitation or limited snow pack. I did not directly equate the lowering of ground water with development that was taking place along the creek until a relatively high density subdivision located near the intersection of Highway 12 and 284 was developed. Dry creek reaches are increasing and there is a clear correlation between the continuing development and decreasing groundwater. Prior to this development the norm was 10 to 20 acre lots.

The impacts of this higher density development can easily be seen. The creek still flows when the ground is frozen and we have an early snow melt but when the melt is over it is clear that the dry reaches of the creek are increasing. On my property there is a pond that during most of my time here has contained water and supported normal wetland life including an abundance of frogs. With the advent of the aforementioned subdivision the pond is dry. The aquifer is clearly not recharging fast enough to maintain the pond or the flow in Spokane Creek. Now birds, deer, fox and other critters routinely use my stock watering tank as their water source. In addition the trees along the creek are being stressed. As noted in your key issues report Spokane Creek is located in an area defined by tertiary aquifers which are constrained by water availability.

It is also noted in the report that "County subdivision review is focused on individual impacts and not on the cumulative impacts of numerous developments over time. And the county relies heavily on reviews by DNRC and DEQ in making its determination that a proposed subdivision application includes substantial and credible evidence of adequate water availability". This acknowledgement that cumulative impacts have not been adequately considered is appreciated. But where the statements falls short is that the cumulative impact discussion is subdivision centric and doesn't consider subdivision impacts to the valleys ecosystem. The lowering of the water table to the point that streams and wetlands are affected is a harbinger of things to come and must have been overlooked in the adequate water availability determination.

The discussions in the IR raised my concerns when I read of incentivizing areas to be developed related to the availability of roads for transportation and fire suppression. I live in an area with good roads maintained by the state and if incentivizing leads to strip development along existing good roads without including a holistic look at environment and ecosystem impacts the planning process is falling short. This type of incentivizing could be a perfect storm for the Spokane Creek ecosystem. I will also note that incentivizing is a slippery slope for the County Planners because any resulting unanticipated impacts will be directly related to the planning process.

Below is part of the forward taken from *USGS Streamflow Depletion by Wells - Circular 1396*

“Groundwater discharge is a significant component of streamflow with groundwater contributing as much as 90 percent of annual streamflow volume in some parts of the country. In order to effectively manage the entire water resource for multiple competing uses hydrologists and resource managers must understand (magnitude, timing, and locations) of ground water pumping on rivers streams, springs, wetlands, and groundwater-dependent vegetation”

As an attachment I have also included a figure from the same the same circular depicting the relationship between groundwater and streamflow. The figure is instructive even though some reaches of Spokane Creek are already dry which is not shown.

This is intended to make you aware of something that may not have considered but I also intend this to be more than just a comment. I am requesting a response on how the issue I have outlined in this letter will be addressed.

Dale W Paulson

2610 Three Bars Drive

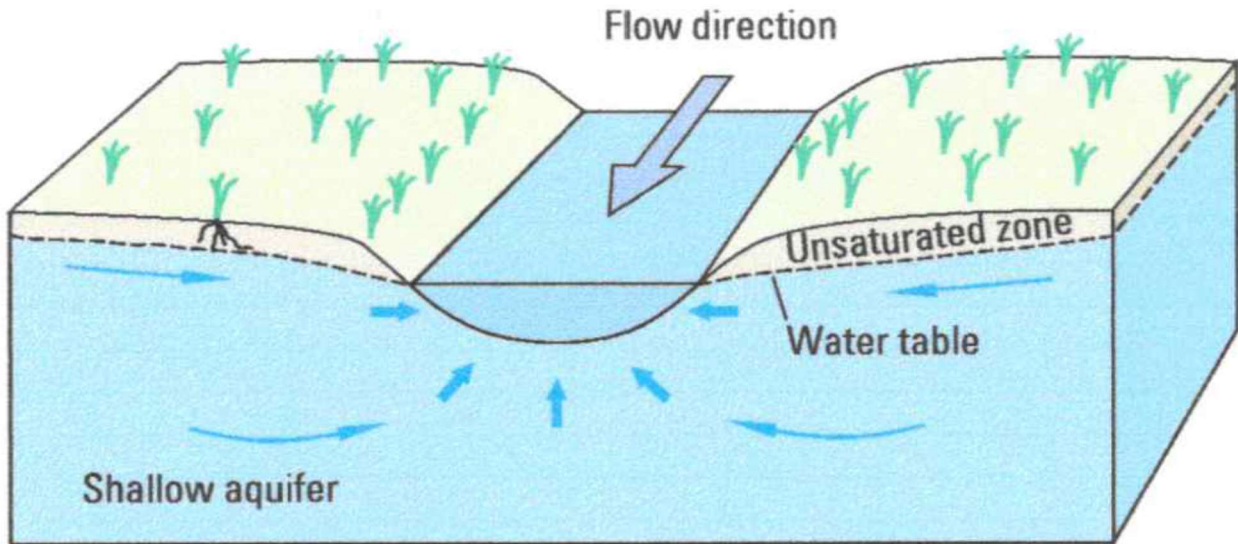
East Helena Montana 59635

(406) 475-3673

(A) Gaining stream reaches receive water from the groundwater system whereas (B) losing reaches lose water to the groundwater system.

USGS Streamflow Depletion by Wells - Circular 1396

A. Gaining stream



B. Losing stream

