Kentucky Annual Economic Report 2017

Christopher R. Bollinger
University of Kentucky, crboll@email.uky.edu

William H. Hoyt
University of Kentucky, william.hoyt@uky.edu

David Blackwell
University of Kentucky, dblackwell@uky.edu

Michael T. Childress
University of Kentucky, michael.childress@uky.edu

Click here to let us know how access to this document benefits you.

Follow this and additional works at: https://uknowledge.uky.edu/cber_kentuckyannualreports

Part of the Economics Commons

Repository Citation
https://uknowledge.uky.edu/cber_kentuckyannualreports/22

This Report is brought to you for free and open access by the Center for Business and Economic Research at UKnowledge. It has been accepted for inclusion in Kentucky Annual Economic Report by an authorized administrator of UKnowledge. For more information, please contact UKnowledge@lsv.uky.edu.
Center for Business and Economic Research
Department of Economics
Gatton College of Business and Economics
University of Kentucky

Dr. Christopher Bollinger, Director
Center for Business and Economic Research

Dr. William Hoyt, Chair
Department of Economics

Dr. David Blackwell, Dean
Gatton College of Business and Economics

Managing Editor
Michael T. Childress

Contributors
Timothy Bianco, Christopher Bollinger, Rex Bray, Adam Childress, Michael Childress, Bethany Paris, and Abigail Troske
CBER

Director: William Hoyt, Chair
Dr. Christopher Bollinger
Associate Director: David R. Agrawal
Dr. Mike Clark
Economic Analyst: Thomas Ahn
Dr. Bethany Paris
Research Associate: Adib Bagh
Michael T. Childress

Research Assistants:
Timothy Bianco
Rex Bray
Adam Childress
Xiaozhou Ding
M. Gray Hunter
Kara Shah
Phillip Sharkey
Abigail Troske

Research Analysts:
J.S. Butler
Mike Clark
Anthony Creane
Alison Davis
Alejandro Dellachiesa
Josh Ederington
James S. Fackler
John E. Garen
J. Robert Gillette

CBER Center for Business and Economic Research
244 Gatton Business and Economics Building
University of Kentucky
Lexington, KY 40506-0034

Voice: (859) 257-7675
Fax: (859) 257-7671
E-mail: cber@uky.edu
Web: http://cber.uky.edu

The Center for Business and Economic Research (CBER) is the applied economic research branch of the Carol Martin Gatton College of Business and Economics at the University of Kentucky. Its purpose is to disseminate economic information and provide economic and policy analysis to assist decision makers in Kentucky’s public and private sectors. In addition, CBER performs research projects for federal, state, and local government agencies, as well as for private-sector clients nationwide. The primary motivation behind CBER’s research agenda is the belief that systematic and scientific inquiries into economic phenomena yield knowledge which is indispensable to the formulation of informed public policy.

CBER’s research includes a variety of areas. Recent projects have been conducted on manpower, labor, and human resources; tourism economics; transportation economics; health economics; regulatory reform; public finance; technology use and adoption; education policy; and economic growth and development.
From the Director . . .

This report is one of the important ways that the Center for Business and Economic Research fulfills its mission as specified in the Kentucky Revised Statutes (KRS 164.738) to examine various aspects of the Kentucky economy. The analysis and data presented here cover a variety of topics that range from an economic forecast for Kentucky in 2017 to a broad presentation of factors affecting the economy.

We expect robust growth in Kentucky’s gross domestic product this year. Increases in both hourly earnings, as well as average weekly earnings, suggest a strengthening labor market, which potentially bodes well for workers during the coming year. The average unemployment rate in Kentucky for the six-month period from May 2016 to October 2016 has been around 5 percent; the last time Kentucky experienced an unemployment rate this low for six consecutive months was March 2001 to August 2001, over 15 years ago. Moreover, Census data released in September 2016 show that Kentucky’s median household incomes increased by over $2,000 from the previous year, evidence of an improving economy. Despite this relatively good news, growth rates have been uneven across the state. While the urban triangle region has enjoyed strong private sector wage and employment growth during this period, Eastern Kentucky has experienced a decline.

We present a broad array of data on Kentucky that measures both economic inputs and outputs. We have organized the data into twelve broad thematic areas: Agriculture, Community, Economic, Economic Security, Education, Energy, Environment, Health, Infrastructure, Innovation, Population, and Public Finance.

There is new research and analysis in the health section showing our estimates of Kentucky’s county-level social determinants of health. In the environment section, there are new estimates of lead (Pb) risk at the county level in Kentucky. We share updated research and analysis on Kentucky’s educational position relative to the states, as well as an assessment of our educational return on investment. We have also updated our assessment of Kentucky’s tax system in the public finance section with an examination of the relationship between the growth rates of taxes and income. Also, in the public finance section, we introduce some new expenditure categories, such as infrastructure spending. In short, throughout this report there is new and important information, data, and analysis on Kentucky’s economic situation.

The 2017 Kentucky Annual Economic Report includes data for Kentucky over many years which allows one to assess change over time. We have included data on the U.S. and the twelve states considered Kentucky’s main economic competitors — Alabama, Georgia, Illinois, Indiana, Mississippi, Missouri, North Carolina, Ohio, South Carolina, Tennessee, Virginia, and West Virginia. This enables comparisons on many dimensions of economic prowess and social well-being.

The data presented here represent a comprehensive accounting of many, although not all of the factors, affecting the state’s economy. The breadth of these data demonstrates that no single factor determines the state’s economic prospects—it is an amalgamation of many disparate factors which shape and determine our economic trajectory. However, there is one factor that is more important than all the others, and that is education. By investing in it, we can improve household incomes, individual health, and our overall quality of life. The key to Kentucky’s economic future lies in its human capital.

Dr. Chris Bollinger
The inspiration and framework for this report rests, of course, on the foundation constructed by prior CBER staff and the previous forty-four Annual Reports they produced. Moreover, we have melded their tradition of academic rigor with the intellectual breadth found in the biennial reports on trends affecting Kentucky’s future once produced by the staff of the Kentucky Long-Term Policy Research Center—Michal Smith-Mello, Billie Dunavent, Amy Watts (Burke), Mark Schirmer, Peter Schirmer, and Suzanne King. We also want to thank Jenna Anderson and Lynsay Christensen for their design work on the cover of this report.

Warren Nash, Executive Director of The Von Allmen Center for Entrepreneurship, also provided important support. This Center is the epicenter for entrepreneurship and commercialization at the University of Kentucky and in the Bluegrass Region. The Center brings together students, researchers, clinicians, mentors, service providers, and investors to create new businesses and jobs in the Commonwealth. The Von Allmen Center has been part of the Kentucky Innovation Network since its inception in 2002 (vace.uky.edu). Warren Nash is the Executive Director of the Von Allmen Center and he can be contacted at 859.257.6871 or warren.nash@uky.edu.

Von Allmen Center for Entrepreneurship & The Lexington Office of the Kentucky Innovation Network
The Kentucky Economy: Are we at the Peak?.................................................................1

Agriculture.........................................................................................................................9
  Agriculture and GDP..................................................................................................10
  Farm Employment..................................................................................................11
  Farms......................................................................................................................12
  Land Use..............................................................................................................13
  Value-Added Food Production...........................................................................14
  Farm Commodities............................................................................................15
  Local Food Suppliers.........................................................................................16
  Crop Insurance....................................................................................................17

Community.....................................................................................................................19
  Volunteer Rate.......................................................................................................20
  Volunteer Hours....................................................................................................21
  Trust.......................................................................................................................22
  Favors for Neighbors..........................................................................................23
  Children in Single-Parent Families....................................................................24
  Disconnected Young Adults.............................................................................25
  Charitable Contributions.....................................................................................26
  Nonprofits............................................................................................................27
  Crime Rate............................................................................................................28
  Criminal Offense Rate by County....................................................................29
  Social Capital Index............................................................................................30
  Neighborhood Quality..........................................................................................31

Economic.......................................................................................................................33
  Employment by Sector.........................................................................................34
  Transition from Goods to Services......................................................................35
  Wage & Salary Growth by State.........................................................................36
  Wage & Salary Growth by Kentucky Region.......................................................37
  Average Weekly Wages........................................................................................38
  Wage & Salary Ratio.............................................................................................39
  Employment Growth by State............................................................................40
  Employment Growth by Kentucky Region.........................................................41
  Job Growth.............................................................................................................42
  Regional Employment Shift................................................................................43
  Per Capita Personal Income................................................................................44
Table of Contents

Household Income.......................................................................................................45
Sources of Personal Income........................................................................................46
Income Sources by Location......................................................................................47
Earned Income Per Capita..........................................................................................48
Earned Income Per Capita by County.........................................................................49
Employment-Population Ratio...................................................................................50
Labor Force Participation.........................................................................................51
Employment by Foreign Companies........................................................................52
Exports..........................................................................................................................53
Housing Starts...........................................................................................................54
Foreclosures...............................................................................................................55

Economic Security.................................................................................................57
  Household Income Growth......................................................................................58
  Household Income Ratio........................................................................................59
  Gini Index by State..................................................................................................60
  Gini Index by County...............................................................................................61
  Personal Bankruptcies............................................................................................62
  Business Bankruptcies............................................................................................63
  Poverty Rate...........................................................................................................64
  Poverty Rate by County..........................................................................................65
  Child Poverty.........................................................................................................66
  Elder Poverty..........................................................................................................67
  Food Insecurity.......................................................................................................68
  Food Stamp Participation........................................................................................69
  Temporary Assistance For Needy Families.............................................................70
  Medicaid Beneficiaries...........................................................................................71
  Supplemental Security Income (SSI)......................................................................72
  Disability Income (DI)............................................................................................73
  Women, Infants, and Children (WIC).......................................................................74
  Transfer Payments by County................................................................................75
  Banking Status.......................................................................................................76

Education..................................................................................................................77
  Education Index......................................................................................................78
  Selected Educational Indicators............................................................................79
  Selected Obstacles to Education...........................................................................80
  Educational Spending ROI....................................................................................81
# Prologue

## Table of Contents

- Public Pre-K Enrollment
- Free and Reduced-Lunch Eligibility
- Performance on Standardized Tests
- Educational Achievement Gap
- College Readiness
- Advanced Placement Exam Mastery
- High School Attainment
- High School Graduation Rate
- College Attainment
- College Attainment by County
- Associate’s Degrees
- Science and Engineering Graduates
- Family Income by Education
- Employment by Education
- Volunteer Rate by Education
- Technology Use by Education
- Health by Education
- Public Assistance by Education
- Income Tax Revenue by Education
- Crime by Education

## Energy

- Energy Consumption by End-Use Sector
- Energy Consumption by Source
- Kentucky Coal Distribution
- Natural Gas Supplanting Coal
- Coal Production
- Mining & Coal
- Energy Consumption per GDP
- Energy Efficiency
- Industrial Electricity Costs
- Residential Electricity Costs
- Motor Gasoline Expenditures

## Environment

- Solid Waste
- Recycling
- Air Quality
Table of Contents

Air Quality (continued)................................................................................................119
Toxic Releases...............................................................................................................120
Lead Risk...................................................................................................................121

Health...........................................................................................................123
Social Determinants of Health................................................................................124
Premature Death....................................................................................................125
Risk Behaviors and Chronic Disease......................................................................126
Number at Risk for Chronic Disease......................................................................127
Chronic Disease by County: Number......................................................................128
Chronic Disease by County: Percent......................................................................129
Chronic Disease Risk by Age Group........................................................................130
Disability..............................................................................................................131
Health Insurance Coverage: Children....................................................................132
Health Insurance Coverage: Everyone....................................................................133
Oral Health..........................................................................................................134
Youth Alcohol and Drug Abuse..............................................................................135

Infrastructure...............................................................................................137
Developed Land....................................................................................................138
Broadband..........................................................................................................139
Water Quality......................................................................................................140
Solid Waste Disposal.........................................................................................141
Road Condition....................................................................................................142
Narrow Roads.....................................................................................................143
Bridges...............................................................................................................144
Problem Bridges by County................................................................................145
Commuting..........................................................................................................146

Innovation.......................................................................................................147
State Technology and Science Index......................................................................148
County-Level Innovation Index.............................................................................149
Entrepreneurial Depth.........................................................................................150
Entrepreneurial Breadth.......................................................................................151
Patents..................................................................................................................152
Patents by County.................................................................................................153
Small Business Innovation Research.....................................................................154
SBIR/STTR Awards by County..............................................................................155
# Table of Contents

- High-Technology Establishments ................................................................. 156
- Nonemployer Establishments ..................................................................... 157
- Industrial Research and Development ........................................................ 158
- Total Research and Development ................................................................. 159
- High-Speed Internet .................................................................................... 160
- Broadband Access & Use by County ............................................................. 161
- Venture Capital .............................................................................................. 162

## Population ................................................................................................. 163

- Population Totals .......................................................................................... 164
- Population Change ......................................................................................... 165
- Regional Population Change .......................................................................... 166
- County Population Changes .......................................................................... 167
- Minority Population ....................................................................................... 168
- White, Non-Hispanic Population ................................................................... 169
- Population by Age Group .............................................................................. 170
- Median Age .................................................................................................... 171
- Rural Population ............................................................................................. 172

## Public Finance ............................................................................................ 173

- General Fund Receipts by Source ................................................................. 174
- Revenue from Federal Transfers .................................................................... 175
- Tax Collections and Personal Income ............................................................ 176
- Structural Deficit ............................................................................................ 177
- Growth Rates, Taxes and Income ................................................................... 178
- Public Pension Funding Gaps .......................................................................... 179
- State and Local Revenue by Source ............................................................... 180
- State and Local Own Source Revenue ........................................................... 181
- State Portion of Total Revenue ...................................................................... 182
- State and Local Expenditures ........................................................................ 183
- Education Expenditures ................................................................................ 184
- Education Expenditures in the U.S. ................................................................. 185
- Community Development Expenditures ....................................................... 186
- Community Development Expenditures in the U.S. ....................................... 187
- Social Services Expenditures ........................................................................ 188
- Social Services Expenditures in the U.S. ......................................................... 189
- Public Protection Expenditures ...................................................................... 190
- Public Protection Expenditures in the U.S. ....................................................... 191
Table of Contents

Infrastructure Expenditures
Infrastructure Expenditures in the U.S.
Debt
Notes & Sources
Glossary

Infrastructure Expenditures .........................................................................................192
Infrastructure Expenditures in the U.S. ............................................................................193
Debt .............................................................................................................................194
Notes & Sources .........................................................................................................195
Glossary ......................................................................................................................207
Economically, this year has been rather straightforward. At this writing, it is looking like GDP will grow approximately 2 to 2.25 percent over last year (assuming the rather strong finish currently predicted for quarter four). The unemployment rate has hovered around 4.9 percent, with November closing strong at 4.6 percent. Employment grew by about 2 million jobs or about 1.6 percent. Inflation was at a modest 1.6 percent, although energy only grew by 0.1 percent and food costs actually declined about 0.4 percent (as of November). Without food and energy, prices rose a modest 2.1 percent. Hourly earnings rose nearly 4 percent (October 2015 to October 2016), while average weekly earnings rose about 2.5 percent. Both of these suggest a strengthening labor market exhibiting upward pressure on wages. This is consistent with the stable unemployment rate. Indeed, my forecasts last year were rather accurate, although I was a little optimistic on employment growth and overstated inflation.

Politically the year was a wild ride, with two remarkably different presidential candidates and what may have been one of the more acrimonious election cycles (certainly in my limited memory) in U.S. history. The polls completely missed the...
win by Republican candidate Donald Trump (largely owing to difficulty identifying likely voters). President-elect Trump has promised many changes, including reductions in regulation – in particular in the coal industry – and in international trade agreements. The next 18 to 24 months are likely to see some large changes in federal government regulation.

**State and Federal Economic Trends**

The economy has continued with GDP growth around 2 percent or a little higher. Figure 1 presents the level of GDP in real terms for the U.S. and Kentucky since 2005 (note: the U.S. is measured on the left Axis, Kentucky on the right). While the Great Recession is apparent, at this point we are on what looks like the long run growth path and have well surpassed the previous peak. Indeed, we have now experienced 29 quarters since the end of the recession, with 27 of those having positive GDP growth. Seventeen of those quarters had more than 2 percent real GDP growth. While the fourth quarter for 2015 and the first quarter for 2016 were relatively lackluster at 0.8 percent and 0.9 percent real growth respectively, third quarter was quite robust at 3.5 percent, and current predictions for the fourth quarter of 2016 appear to be in the 2.5 percent range. Most forecasts predict an overall growth rate for 2016 of about 2 percent, similar to what we have been experiencing nationally for the last five years or so. Overall, since the second quarter of 2009 (the trough of the recession), U.S. GDP has grown a total of 16 percent. Kentucky has grown as well, but generally at a slightly slower rate. Overall, to the first quarter of 2016 (the latest available),

![Figure 2: Employment Levels, U.S. and Kentucky (January 2002 to November 2016)](image-url)
Kentucky grew 13.7 percent from the trough in 2009. The comparable period for the U.S. was a growth of 15 percent. Overall, during the expansion, the U.S. has averaged 2.1 percent annual GDP growth while Kentucky has averaged 1.9 percent annual GDP growth.

Figure 2 presents employment levels for both the U.S. and Kentucky since 2002 (again the U.S. level is measured on the left hand axis, and Kentucky on the right). Here again the recession is obvious, and as is typical, the labor market recovered later than output growth (GDP). Since the beginning of the expansion in labor, national employment growth has hovered in the 1.5 to 2 percent range, and this year is no different at about 1.6 percent. Kentucky, however, has had somewhat slower growth this last year in particular, at only 1 percent, with most of that coming during the third quarter. The state actually experienced declines in employment early in the year, with a strong rebound during the third quarter and apparently into the fourth quarter. The decline and subsequent rebound may have been driven by declines in manufacturing and construction in particular. Historically, Kentucky’s employment growth rates are lower than the U.S. rates, and while this year’s difference is a little larger, it is not out of character.

Figure 3 presents the unemployment rate for both the U.S. and Kentucky (2002-2016). The most notable feature here is the fact that the long decline in unemployment appears to have ended. The unemployment rate in the U.S. has been very steady throughout 2016, hovering at about 4.9 percent. Kentucky, consistent with the more lackluster employment growth rates, actually approached 6 percent early in the year, but has dropped back to about 5 percent.
similar to the U.S. Nationally, at least, this most likely represents the long-run “full employment” unemployment rate. Unemployment is now a function only of structural (changing industry mix) and frictional (workers moving from one job to another) factors rather than unemployment caused by the recession. The November 2016 rate of 4.6 percent is comparable to the levels achieved at the peak of the last cycle in 2006-2007 and the peak in 1999; it is lower than the rate at the peak of the cycle in 1989. It may be that structural unemployment is slightly higher right now due to changing technology and industries.

Figure 4 provides some explanation for differences in the U.S. and Kentucky experiences this last year. Manufacturing employment in both the U.S. and Kentucky growth seems to have stagnated in the last 12 months. For Kentucky, which has a higher manufacturing base than the U.S. as a whole, this has certainly impacted both our economic growth and our unemployment rate. U.S. manufacturing fell by 0.4 percent during 2016, while manufacturing in Kentucky experienced declines early last year but ultimately rose 0.3 percent. Compared to the strong growth in previous years, and with Kentucky’s high reliance on that sector, this likely drove the higher unemployment mid-year.

Another declining industry in Kentucky, but less so the U.S., is construction. The U.S. saw a decrease in construction employment early in 2016, but the year ended strongly with net growth nationally in that sector. Kentucky, by contrast, has ended the year with a 2.7 percent reduction in construction employment. The sharpest declines came early in the year (for both the U.S. and Kentucky), which may explain much of the Kentucky unemployment numbers. The rebounding
unemployment numbers suggest that workers may be moving to other sectors, consistent with structural unemployment.

There were two industries that were less effected by the recession and have grown steadily through the recovery: “Transportation and Utilities” and “Health Care and Education.” Kentucky has a strong transportation hub, particularly in Northern Kentucky, but also in Louisville and Lexington. While the industry is cyclical, it has been a strong performer of late. Kentucky is well situated as a transportation crossroads between the southern, Midwestern and Appalachian regions, given that I-70, I-75, I-65, and I-64 all intersect around the greater Lexington-Louisville-Cincinnati areas and the Ohio River runs along the northern border.

The Health Care industry is far less cyclical than other industries and is surpassing manufacturing both nationally and in Kentucky as the top private employer. With the Baby Boom generation reaching retirement, growth is forecast for many years to come. Kentucky, like the rest of the United States, is seeing strong growth in this industry. In both the U.S. and Kentucky, Health Care and Education have surpassed manufacturing as the largest employment sector. I expect the trend to continue, and that this industry, far more than any other, will be insulated from future recessions.

Based on November, average hourly earnings are up 2.5 percent from the year prior, while average weekly earnings have risen 2.1 percent. Both are showing stronger annual growth than any time since the last peak, although somewhat slower than in the recovery during the 1990’s, comparable to that seen during the mid 2000’s. The faster growth further indicates that the economy has now reached “full employment” and it is arguable that the recovery is now complete.

Inflation for October 2015-October 2016 (latest available at this writing) was 1.6 percent. The low inflation would suggest an economy still recovering and not reaching a peak. However, the low inflation is nearly entirely driven by food at home prices and energy, particularly oil and gasoline. Gasoline prices began dropping in the fall of 2014 largely due to changes in technology. Last year (Oct. 2015 to Oct. 2016) they continued to fall, dropping by nearly 1 percent. Similarly, food prices overall fell 0.4 percent last year, led largely by a 6.5 percent decrease in meat prices. While food at home fell 2.3 percent overall, food away from home rose 2.5 percent, suggesting higher labor costs. Inflation without food and energy was 2.1 percent. The cost of shelter rose 3.5 percent and the cost of medical services rose 4.1 percent.

**Lexington, Louisville, and Cincinnati**

The golden triangle continues to lead Kentucky’s economy. Lexington, Louisville and Northern Kentucky have all experienced a stronger recovery than the state as a whole. Figure 5, presents unemployment rates through August 2016.
We find unemployment rates in the three cities were all below 4.2 percent with Lexington leading at 3.5 percent. All three cities had an increase unemployment during the summer; overall the rates remain low, peaking at under 5 percent for Cincinnati and Louisville, and 4.5 percent for Lexington. While Kentucky as a whole experienced only 1 percent job growth during the past year, both Cincinnati and Louisville experienced employment growth higher than the U.S. at 1.9 percent and 1.7 percent respectively. Lexington experienced employment growth of only about 1 percent, similar to the state as a whole. This may, like the state overall, be a combination of changes in the construction and manufacturing industries.

In all three cities, Transportation and Health Care were driving factors in employment growth over the last few years. Transportation services are more cyclical, while health care services – a larger proportion of total employment now than even manufacturing – are more insulated from cyclical patterns.

**FIGURE 5**
Unemployment Rate, Major MSAs in Kentucky
(seasonally adjusted, total nonfarm, all employees)

Forecast
All indicators suggest that the economy is now in the range of the new peak of the business cycle. The current expansion has lasted over 90 months (June 2009 through December 2016). Since 1945, the typical expansion has lasted 58 months. While only two other expansions since 1945 have lasted this long (November 1982-July 1990 and March 1991-March 2001), both have been relatively recent. Considering only the expansions since 1980, the average length is 75 months. If we discard the 12 month expansion between the 1980 and the 1981 recessions,
the average is still only 95 months. The longest expansion in post-war history, 120 months, occurred during the 1990’s (March 1991 to March 2001). A duration of 120 months would take us to July of 2019.

Given the unemployment stagnation of the last year, we can assume that the labor market has reached full employment. Examining other recoveries, we typically find that the unemployment rate tends to begin to turn back up after somewhere between 18 and 24 months near that full employment range. At this writing, we appear to be already twelve months into that period.

I expect national GDP growth to be around 2.5 percent during 2017. This is slightly faster growth than in previous years. I think that some of the policies likely enacted early in the Trump administration will positively impact GDP growth, at least in the short run. The unemployment rate has been relatively steady at 4.9 percent through this past year and I see no indication of major changes in that for 2017, and so I predict 4.8 percent unemployment, as I did last year. Last year I forecast that inflation would be 2 percent, however it was lower at 1.6 percent. I again predict 2 percent, although it may be lower if gasoline prices do not rise. I think it is unlikely that they will rise dramatically. However they may begin to rise enough to push the overall inflation up to the inflation rate we have seen in goods other than energy. Manufacturing employment has outpaced my forecast for the last three years, but was much closer to my forecast this year. I forecast no manufacturing employment growth this year.

While I do not think we will begin to see a recession this year, I am forecasting that we will experience the beginning of another recession within the next 24 months. This forecast is based rather simplistically on the regularity of business cycles. We are now approaching an economic expansion that will be ranked among the top three longest expansions in the past century (the 1990’s and the
1960’s). We will surpass the recovery length from the 1980’s by the end of first quarter in 2017. It is possible that our expansion will continue and we may set a new record. A number of factors present a great deal of uncertainty, including the policies of President Trump, decisions made by OPEC, the Brexit changes, and the European financial and labor markets. These factors could indeed hasten or retard any impending recession.
Agricultural economists at the University of Kentucky expect Kentucky net farm income to be about $1.5 billion in 2016, which is lower than the 2015 level of $1.7 billion and possibly the lowest level since 2010. The reasons for the downward trend include a decline in agricultural exports due to a strong dollar, weak overseas economies, and excess crop and livestock supplies. They also expect Kentucky’s agricultural cash receipts to decline. They forecast 2016 receipts at $5.4 billion, off 7 percent from $5.8 billion in 2015 and off 17 percent from the record high of $6.5 billion in 2014. Kentucky is not unique—nationally prices and incomes fell for the third straight year.

A 2015 study by the UK College of Agriculture, *The Importance of Agriculture for Kentucky*, found that the total economic impact of agriculture on the state’s economy was $45.6 billion of output, nearly 259,000 jobs, and $6.2 billion in labor income. The reality, however, is that the agricultural sector accounts for about 2 percent of Kentucky’s gross domestic product and has been steadily declining for the last several years.

Even though its contribution to the state economy has been generally decreasing, the impact of agriculture in a local or regional economy can be significant. Agricultural commodities and related activities can have an important economic impact, with studies of the equine and bourbon industries, for example, showing economic impacts in the billions of dollars. Kentucky’s farm traditions have long yielded significant economic benefits to the state, but the development of more refined, downstream products that use these raw materials holds the promise of even greater returns. In fact, the value-added part of Kentucky’s agricultural economy has been steadily increasing for the last several years.

While some form of agriculture enterprise is present in every Kentucky county, many rural communities are relatively more dependent on this industry for jobs and income. The Shaping Our Appalachian Region (SOAR) working group on *Agriculture, Community and Regional Foods, and Natural Resources* is aspiring to leverage the agricultural sector in Eastern Kentucky to create jobs and increase incomes. One of their goals is to connect local producers to local markets. This is a promising strategy, given the growth of the “slow food” movement and the state’s relatively strong embrace of local food suppliers and community supported agriculture (CSA).
While still playing an important role in some local and regional areas around the state, agriculture’s role in the larger state economy has been declining for many years. Within the Agriculture, Forestry, Fishing, and Hunting sector, the Bureau of Economic Analysis (BEA) includes “establishments primarily engaged in growing crops, raising animals, harvesting timber, harvesting fish and other animals from a farm, ranch or their natural habitats.” The BEA notes that “these establishments are often described as farms, ranches, dairies, greenhouses, nurseries, orchards or hatcheries...(and) the sector includes two basic activities: crop and animal production (farms) and forestry, fishing, and related activities.”

In 1963 agriculture accounted for about 5 percent of Kentucky’s gross domestic product (GDP), compared to about three-and-a-half percent for the U.S. and competitor states. In 2015, this economic sector accounted for 1.3 percent of Kentucky’s gross domestic product, compared to 1.1 percent in the U.S. and 1.0 percent in the competitor states. South Dakota has the highest percentage among the states with agriculture accounting for 8.2 percent of its gross domestic product while Connecticut has the lowest at 0.14 percent. Among the competitor states, Mississippi is the highest at 3.0 percent and Virginia the lowest at 0.4 percent.

Agriculture and Related Activities in Kentucky, Competitor States, and the U.S., 1963 to 2015
(agriculture, forestry, fishing & hunting as a percentage of GDP)

Source: U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of Economic Analysis
Farm mechanization and a changing state economy have resulted in a steady decline in the percentage of Kentuckians working on the farm. Farm employment is the “number of workers engaged in the direct production of agricultural commodities, either livestock or crops; whether as a sole proprietor, partner, or hired laborer.” The Bureau of Economic Analysis estimates Kentucky’s farm employment at about 85,500, which is around 3.4 percent of total employment or jobs in the state. As one can see on the chart below, this is much higher than either the competitor states or the U.S., both of which are estimated at 1.4 percent. While Kentucky’s farm employment is high compared to other states and the nation, it has decreased precipitously since the late 1960s when it was about 11 percent. Kentucky’s farm employment has been under 4 percent since 2005 and has remained more or less stable since that time.

**Farm Employment as a Percentage of Total Employment, Kentucky, Competitor States, and the U.S., 1969 to 2015**

(percentage of total jobs, includes full- and part-time employment)

*Source: U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of Economic Analysis*
The family farm has nearly become a quaint ghost of Kentucky’s past. Over the last half century, two major trends have transformed the state’s countryside: the consolidation of small, family-owned farms into larger enterprises; and the conversion of agricultural land to urban (or suburban) uses. As seen here, roughly one-third as many farms exist today as there were in 1950, while the average size of Kentucky’s farms has doubled. According to the 2012 Census of Agriculture, which is conducted every five years by the U.S. Department of Agriculture, Kentucky experienced the largest decrease in farmland among the states from 2007 to 2012. It is likely, however, that much of the decrease in farmland is due to farmland going idle rather than transformed through residential, industrial, or commercial development. Yet, during this period the number of farms decreased from 85,260 in 2007 to 77,064 in 2012. Most of the farms in Kentucky are owned by an individual or a family (90%), and 43 percent of Kentucky farmers spend at least 200 days a year off the farm working in other jobs.

Source: Kentucky Department of Agriculture & USDA
The 2012 National Resources Inventory (NRI) is the most recent in a series of natural resource inventories conducted by the U.S. Department of Agriculture’s Natural Resources Conservation Service (NRCS); it provides a consistent framework back to 1982. These data provide insights on the status, condition, and trends of land, soil, water, and related resources on the country’s non-Federal lands. Non-Federal lands include privately owned lands, tribal and trust lands, and lands controlled by state and local governments. The chart below shows that the vast majority of land in the U.S. falls into one of three categories: cropland, forest, or pasture/range. In Kentucky, these three categories account for 82 percent of the total land area; this is a higher percentage than the competitor states and the U.S. Forest accounts for the largest category in Kentucky, 41 percent. Approximately 8 percent of Kentucky is “developed,” compared to 11 percent in the competitor states and 6 percent in the U.S. When thinking about Kentucky’s physical environment, factors that affect trees and forests—whether as a by-product of economic activity, urban development, or invasive species—have the potential to profoundly influence the aesthetic qualities of Kentucky’s natural beauty.
While Kentucky’s farm traditions have long yielded significant economic benefits to the state, the development of more refined, downstream products that use these raw materials holds the promise of even greater returns. Salsa, not tomatoes, is an example of a value-added food product that can enrich and sustain a farm economy. In 2014 valued-added food production in Kentucky approached $5.5 billion (in constant 2015 dollars), representing a marked increase from $3.4 billion in 1993. There are any number of value-added food products—from honey to wine to jerky to jam—that provide opportunities to enrich individuals as well as communities and generate new economic opportunities that help sustain Kentucky’s rural areas.

Value Added to Food Products in Kentucky, 1993-2014
(constant 2015 billions)

Source: U.S. Census, Annual Survey of Manufacturers
FARM COMMODITIES

The past two-and-a-half decades have seen significant changes in Kentucky’s agricultural profile. In 1990, tobacco was the state’s signature commodity and constituted nearly a quarter of Kentucky’s farm receipts (23.8%). By 2000, tobacco ranked second and accounted for 18.5 percent of farm receipts, and by 2015 it had declined to sixth and 6.4 percent of Kentucky’s total farm receipts. While tobacco’s value has dropped precipitously, Kentucky’s other major crops—corn, soybeans, hay, and wheat—have all shown considerable improvement. The most dramatic growth, however, has been poultry—now the state’s top farm commodity. In 1990, farm chickens, broilers (chickens raised for food), and chicken eggs constituted less than 1 percent of total farm receipts (0.82%). In 2015, these three poultry commodities accounted for 19.8 percent of the $5.8 billion in total farm receipts. The dramatic swings in receipts for Kentucky’s various farm products underscores the necessity of agricultural diversity, so that farmers’ fortunes do not rise and fall based on the market for a single commodity. Aquaculture, for instance, was Kentucky’s 13th leading farm commodity in 2012 but is not in the top 17 for 2015, while mushrooms did not make the top 15 in 2012 but come in at 15 for 2015.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Rank</th>
<th>Commodity</th>
<th>Value of Receipts (thousands)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Broilers</td>
<td>960,169</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Cattle and calves</td>
<td>927,210</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Other animals &amp; products</td>
<td>923,459</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Soybeans</td>
<td>804,290</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Corn</td>
<td>772,807</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Tobacco</td>
<td>371,981</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Hay</td>
<td>216,299</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Chicken eggs</td>
<td>191,743</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>Misc. Crops</td>
<td>167,615</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>Wheat</td>
<td>164,083</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>Hogs</td>
<td>108,091</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>Turkeys</td>
<td>24,013</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>Farm chickens</td>
<td>3,136</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>Honey</td>
<td>888</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>Mushrooms</td>
<td>178</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td>Wool</td>
<td>64</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17</td>
<td>Mohair</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

LOCAL FOOD SUPPLIERS

Internationally, the “slow food” movement has grown exponentially, providing a boost to small farms in an era of industrialized agriculture and making fresher food, often organically grown, more readily available. Kentuckians are embracing the movement to foods grown closer to home, giving rise to an increasing number of bustling farmers’ markets that have helped advance agricultural diversification in a post-tobacco world and make healthy fare more readily available. Between 2003 and 2008, the number of farmers’ markets increased from 85 to 120. In 2008, more than three-fourths of Kentuckians said they occasionally (51.5 percent) or frequently (28.6 percent) made purchases at a farmers’ market. Currently the Kentucky Department of Agriculture lists 230 farmers’ markets across the state. Another way to obtain locally grown food is through a CSA, community-supported agriculture, which permit consumers to buy a portion of a farmer’s output—fruits, vegetables, and other farm products delivered weekly—at the beginning of the growing season. Kentucky is a leader in the number of farms that market products through CSAs. Vermont is the national leader at 53 CSA farms per 100,000 population, followed by Maine at 31. Kentucky ranks 11th nationally at 8.2. The U.S. average is 4.0 and the competitor state average is 3.7.

Source: 2012 Census of Agriculture
Note: CS is the weighted average of the competitor states.
As a business activity, farming is subjected to the vagaries of the market as well as hard-to-predict weather patterns and ever-present pestilence. Crop insurance policies, underwritten by the United States Department of Agriculture Risk Management Agency, can help reduce the inherent risk associated with working in the agricultural sector and create more economically resilient communities. Research on community disaster resilience shows that higher rates of crop insurance coverage are associated with higher levels of resilience. When normalized by the number of farmland acres in a state, Kentucky sits just below the national average with 13 crop insurance policies per 10,000 farmland acres. At 45.6, Illinois has one of the highest rates of crop insurance utilization in the country, while West Virginia has one of the lowest at 1.

Source: 2012 Census of Agriculture & 2015 USDA Risk Management Agency insurance data
Note: CS is the weighted average of the competitor states.
COMMUNITY characteristics exert a strong influence on economic outcomes. We know it intuitively, and it is increasingly confirmed by research. Studies have long found that individual economic success is associated with neighborhood or community quality. Research published in 2015 by economists Raj Chetty and Nathaniel Hendren, *The Impacts of Neighborhoods on Intergenerational Mobility: Childhood Exposure Effects and County-Level Estimates*, concludes that the quality of a child’s neighborhood can have a long-lasting effect into adulthood on college attendance, teenage birth rates, poverty status, and income. Based on related research from economist Eric Chyn published in 2016, the effect of a neighborhood on one’s future economic well-being is even stronger than what Chetty and Hendren found. Concepts like community development and economic development are linked so tightly that the terms are frequently used interchangeably. Economic activities take place in our communities, so characteristics that measure community connections, strengths and weaknesses, and resiliency are vital for understanding economic conditions and future economic prospects. Having a strong and robust civil society has many benefits. As was noted in a report from the University of Kentucky:

On many measures of community strength, Kentucky is on par with or better than the nation. Nonprofit Leadership Initiative, *More than Charity*, “Nonprofits provide access to the arts, protect the environment, feed the hungry, assist the disabled in finding meaningful employment, provide affordable mental health services, teach the illiterate to read, provide quality child care for working parents and hundreds of other services that strengthen our communities and enhance our quality of life.”

Measuring a concept as amorphous as community strength and social capital is difficult. Nonetheless, on many measures of community strength Kentucky is on par with or better than the national average, including the crime rate, volunteer rates, and levels of trust. Conversely, Kentucky’s number of hours volunteered, level of charitable giving, and number of nonprofits, lag behind the national average. The level of social capital is unevenly spread across Kentucky—as the map on page 30 reveals. Efforts to enhance social capital will likely take on renewed emphasis in the future as governments search out community-based organizations, nonprofits, businesses and citizens to forge partnerships in order to meet new and existing challenges facing our communities.
Some studies have linked participation in civil society—volunteering for example—to higher levels of community prosperity, higher achievement in schools, and improved individual health. Volunteers can tackle problems such as poverty, illiteracy, and drug abuse that public or private sectors have not adequately addressed—making a community more attractive for economic development. Some research even suggests that members of communities with high levels of civic participation enjoy better health and live longer. An estimated 22 percent of Kentucky’s population 15 and older volunteered at some point in 2015. There is a statistically significant difference between Kentucky and the U.S. (24.9%) and competitor state (25.1%) averages. Only three of the competitor states are statistically significantly different from Kentucky: Ohio, Indiana, and Virginia. The rest of the competitor states are statistically no different from Kentucky (95% CI). Nationally the highest volunteer rate belongs to Utah (39.7%) while the lowest is found in Florida (18.3%).
Volunteer Hours

Kentucky had around 785,000 volunteers in 2015 who contributed nearly 72 million hours of service, or around 20 hours per resident 15 years and older. The total annual estimated value of volunteer service in Kentucky in 2015 was about $1.5 billion. This is based on the Independent Sector’s annual estimate of the value of a volunteer hour for Kentucky in 2015 of $21.16. The average number of volunteer hours in Kentucky decreased from 26.6 in 2014, and is substantially lower than the competitive states (28.1) and US (30.5) averages. Moreover, at 20.1 volunteer hours per resident 15 years old and older, Kentucky ranks last in the county (Utah is first with 76.1 hours). Nonetheless, it is clear that volunteers, community groups, and nonprofit organizations add social and economic value to Kentucky’s economy and society.

Volunteer Hours, 2015,
Kentucky, Competitor States, and the U.S.
(average hours served in a year, per resident 15 and older)

TRUST

High levels of trust in a community help bind people together to work for the greater good in a host of ways. Trust has been called the lubricant that facilitates charitable acts, community development, and everyday commerce. When asked whether they trust people in their neighborhood, 41 percent of Kentuckians indicated “most of the people,” and just over 13 percent said “all of the people.” With over half of the population 18 or older (54%) expressing a high level of trust toward their neighbors, the Kentucky percentage is quite high—but the difference between Kentucky, the competitor states, and the U.S. is not statistically significant.

![Trust People in Neighborhood, 2013](image)

**Trust People in Neighborhood, 2013**

**Kentucky, Competitor States, and the U.S.**

(percent expressing trust, age 18 and older)

Source: Authors’ analysis of November 2013 Current Population Survey data (Civic Engagement Supplement)
FAVORS FOR NEIGHBORS

An indicator of community strength, social capital, and neighborhood cohesiveness is the extent to which neighbors do favors for each other. A majority of Americans do occasional favors for neighbors, with around 63 percent indicating they do so with varying frequency. The question posed is: How often did you and your neighbors do favors for each other? By favors we mean such things as watching each others children, helping with shopping, house sitting, lending garden or house tools and other small things to help each other – basically every day, a few times a week, a few times a month, once a month, less than once a month, or not at all? There are virtually no differences between Kentucky, the competitor states, and the U.S. in the frequency with which neighbors do favors for each other. Doing a favor for one’s neighbor does not appear to be too demanding since approximately 40 percent perform favors either “a few times a month” or “less than once a month.”

Favors for Neighbors, 2013
Kentucky, Competitor States, and the U.S.
(frequency neighbors provide favors to each other, 18 and older)

Source: Authors’ analysis of November 2013 Current Population Survey data (Civic Engagement Supplement)
Recent research shows that intergenerational (economic) mobility can be muted by the constellation of factors associated with growing up in a single-parent family (Chetty, et al., 2014). In 1960 approximately 12 percent of children under 18 in the U.S. lived with only one parent; in 2015, however, over one third of this county’s children lived in a single-parent family (34.9%). As a country we went from about one in ten children to over one in three—a substantial demographic shift. The research shows that children living in single-parent households tend to face more significant obstacles in life, which present emotional, health, economic and academic challenges for many of these children. And there can be lifelong economic consequences. As Raj Chetty and his colleagues have noted, “the United States is better described as a collection of societies, some of which are ‘lands of opportunity’ with high rates of mobility across generations, and others in which few children escape poverty.” Nationally, Mississippi has the highest rate of children living in single-parent families at 47.8 percent and Utah has the lowest rate at 19.5 percent. Both the Kentucky and competitor state percentages are around 35 to 37 percent, which is similar to the U.S. average.

**Children in Single-Parent Families, 2015, Kentucky, Competitor States, and the U.S.**

(percent of children under 18)

Source: American Community Survey, 1-year estimate, 2015, Table C23008
Strong, resilient, and vibrant communities are created and nurtured by actively engaged, invested, and connected citizens. The figure below shows the percentage of young adults (18 to 24 years old) who are “disconnected.” These young adults are not enrolled in school, are not currently employed, and have no degree beyond a high school diploma or GED. Collectively these factors could indicate that a young person is having difficulty making a successful transition to adulthood.

Kentucky’s 18 percent is not statistically different (using a 95% confidence interval) from South Carolina or any of the other competitor states showing a higher percentage (i.e., GA, TN, WV, AL or MS). However, Kentucky is statistically higher than the competitor state (15.6%) or U.S. (14.8%) averages, as well as the rest of the competitor states (i.e., VA, MO, IL, OH, IN, & NC). Vermont (not shown) has the lowest percentage of disconnected young adults at 8.3 percent while Mississippi has the highest with 20.2 percent.

Source: Estimated from 2014 1-Year PUMS
Charitable Contributions

America’s giving spirit continued to rise in 2015 with giving by individuals increasing by an estimated 3.8 percent in 2015 (compared to an increase of 5.7 percent in 2014) according to The Giving Institute. At $265 billion, charitable giving by individuals in 2015 was equal to about 71 percent of the estimated total contributions from all sources, $373 billion. Nationally the average charitable contribution among those who itemize deductions—which is 30 percent of those who file an income tax return—equaled $4,791 for the 2014 tax year, compared to $3,953 in Kentucky. Among the competitor states, Tennessee has the highest amount at $6,711 and Ohio the lowest at $3,670. Obviously those who do not itemize deductions on their tax returns also make charitable contributions, but it is estimated that itemizers account for just over 80 percent of all charitable contributions from individuals. Overall, The Giving Institute reports that in 2015 per capita giving by U.S. adults was $1,101, and average U.S. household giving was $2,124.

Charitable Contributions in 2014, Kentucky, Competitor States, and the U.S.
(average contribution of itemizers, tax year 2014)

Source: Internal Revenue Service, Statistics of Income, Historical Table 2
Note: CS is the competitor state weighted average
Like the number of volunteers or the amount of money donated to charity, the number of nonprofits is an indicator of a community’s social capital. The nearly 1.6 million nonprofits in the U.S. include social organizations (e.g., art, health, education, and advocacy groups), labor unions, business and professional organizations, religious congregations and organizations with more than $5,000 in annual revenue. Nonprofits also have a direct economic impact. According to a 2014 report from the Urban Institute, *The Nonprofit Sector in Brief 2014*, “the nonprofit sector contributed an estimated $887.3 billion to the U.S. economy in 2012, composing 5.4 percent of the country’s gross domestic product (GDP).” The average number of nonprofits per 10,000 population in the U.S. is 49.5, compared to Kentucky’s 41.8. Among the competitor states, Kentucky has the fewest number of nonprofits per 10,000 population. At 57.3 per 10,000 population, Missouri has the most among competitor states. Montana has the highest number overall with 98.7 while Nevada has the lowest at 30.7. As of July 2016, Kentucky had 18,515 registered nonprofit organizations.

Registered Nonprofit Organizations, 2016, Kentucky, Competitor States, and the U.S. (per 10,000 population)

Note: CS is the weighted average of the competitor states
According to the FBI 2015 Uniform Crime Report, violent crimes in the U.S. increased 3.9 percent from 2014 to 2015, while property crimes decreased by 2.6 percent—the thirteenth consecutive year the collective estimates for these offenses declined. In the U.S. overall, the estimated rate of violent crime was 373 offenses per 100,000 inhabitants, and the property crime rate was 2,487 offenses per 100,000 inhabitants. The violent crime rate rose 3.1 percent compared to the 2014 rate, and the property crime rate declined 3.4 percent. The number of reported property crimes per 100,000 persons in Kentucky is 2,178 (2015), a rate lower than all competitor states except for Virginia, West Virginia, and Illinois. Reports of violent offenses, including murder and nonnegligent manslaughter, forcible rape, robbery, and aggravated assault, also were well below the national rate here in 2015 and below the rates reported by eleven of twelve competitor states (Virginia’s rate is lower). Kentucky’s comparatively low crime rate remains a strong asset that contributes to a sense of well-being and trust which, in turn, helps create caring places that nurture productive lives.
Any discussion of community would be incomplete without consideration of the role of crime, which can instill fear, undermine trust, and fray connections—and impact economic development decisions and outcomes. Around 81 percent of Group A offenses in Kentucky fall into one of five categories: larceny/theft (28%), drug/narcotic (20%), assault (15%), burglary/breaking and entering (8.5%), and destruction/damage/vandalism of property (9%). Group A offenses are serious crimes that include the categories listed above as well as arson, homicide, and sex offenses. The total number of Group A offenses increased by 25 percent from 2014 to 2015, which is a substantial increase; by comparison the increase from 2013 to 2014 was 7.5 percent. Perhaps it is no surprise that Kentucky’s metro areas have the highest rates of serious crime, but rural areas of the state are certainly not immune to the same types of serious criminal offenses taking place in the largest cities. This map shows the number serious criminal offenses (Group-A) per 1,000 population at the county level. At a rate of 4.6, Martin County has the lowest rate of Group-A offenses per 1,000 population in the state while Bell has the highest at 116.7. By comparison, Kentucky’s overall rate is 62.5. The rate for Kentucky’s 35 urban counties is 75, which is higher, of course, than the rate for slightly rural (55.9) or mostly rural (36.2) counties.

Criminal Offense Rate by County, 2015
(Group-A Offenses)

Source: Authors’ calculations from Kentucky State Police, Crime in Kentucky – 2015
We know that strong communities are important for several reasons, but the relationship between social capital—which the OECD defines as the “networks together with shared norms, values and understandings that facilitate cooperation within or among groups”—and economic growth and prosperity is still being explored and studied. Pulling from the existing economic development literature, The World Bank notes that “development and growth specialists are uncovering the importance of social cohesion for societies to prosper economically and for development to be sustainable.” Relying on U.S. county-level data, Rupasingha, Goetz, and Freshwater (2000) find that “social capital has a statistically significant, independent positive effect on the rate of per-capita income growth.” These authors have developed an approach for constructing a county-level social capital index (Rupasingha, et al., 2006) which we have updated with more current data and present in the map below. The variables used in this index include, but are not limited to, voting turnout rates, the number of nonprofit organizations, and the presence of membership organizations. The darker areas of the map indicate denser networks of social connections while the lighter areas suggest lower levels of social capital. This map shows a dense concentration of social capital in Western Kentucky and much less in Eastern Kentucky.

Social Capital Index, 2010-2015

Source: Author’s analysis of multiple data sources, various years (see Notes & Sources).
The incidence of crime is one way to measure the quality of a neighborhood. Other factors that detract from neighborhood quality include graffiti, dilapidated housing, and litter. To gauge the quality of neighborhoods in which children live, the National Survey of Children’s Health posed several questions to survey respondents, including “In your neighborhood, is there litter or garbage on the street or sidewalk?,” “Does the neighborhood contain poorly kept or dilapidated housing?,” and “In your neighborhood is there vandalism such as broken windows or graffiti?” The numbers in the chart below are estimates of the percentage of children living in neighborhoods where none of these three detracting elements are present. While not much lower than the U.S. percentage (71.3%), Kentucky’s percentage (66.7%) is statistically significantly lower. Virginia has the highest value among the competitor states (80.1%) and West Virginia the lowest (60.7%).

Source: 2011 National Survey of Children’s Health
We present our 2017 economic forecast for Kentucky in the first section of this report. There we discuss our expectations for the future trajectory of gross domestic product, employment, and inflation for the U.S., Kentucky, and the state’s major metropolitan areas. We expect robust growth in Kentucky’s gross domestic product. Increases in both hourly earnings, as well as average weekly earnings, suggest a strengthening labor market, which potentially bodes well for workers during the coming year. It has been a long road to recovery. In the 18-month period from December 2007 to June 2009—the peak of the last economic expansion to the trough of the Great Recession—the state shed nearly 104,000 jobs (seasonally adjusted) as the unemployment rate nearly doubled from 5.5 percent to 10.9 percent. Kentucky’s seasonally adjusted unemployment rate in October 2016 was 5.1 percent, ranking it 29th among the states. The average unemployment rate in Kentucky for the six-month period from May 2016 to October 2016 has been around 5 percent; the last time Kentucky experienced an unemployment rate this low for six consecutive months was March 2001 to August 2001, over 15 years ago. Census data released in September 2016 show that Kentucky’s median household incomes increased by over $2,000 from the previous year, evidence of an improving economy. Despite this relatively good news, Kentucky has lagged behind the U.S. and competitor state averages in the growth of private wages and employment from the peak of the last economic expansion in 2007 to the present. Moreover, growth rates have been uneven across the state. While the urban triangle region has enjoyed strong private sector wage and employment growth during this period, eastern Kentucky has experienced a decline. In this section we refocus the lens on the wider economic landscape and present data on a broader collection of economic indicators. We describe how Kentucky’s economy has gradually changed, such as the movement away from goods-production and toward service-providing—something that has important implications for tax policy in Kentucky. We also present data on the extensive and continuing reliance on transfer payments—especially in Kentucky’s 60 mostly rural counties, the importance of international trade and foreign direct investment, and the broadening disparity in wages between urban and rural regions.
Kentucky’s economy has changed since 1990. There were, for example, about 424,000 more people employed in 2015 compared to 1990—an increase of 29 percent. Over the same time period Kentucky’s population increased about 20 percent. While the overall number of jobs increased, the distribution of employment among these eleven major sectors changed significantly—reflecting the fundamental forces affecting all states. Two sectors lost a significant number of workers during this period—manufacturing, which had about 31,700 less workers in 2015 (a 12% decline) and mining and logging, which lost around 20,400 jobs (a 59% decline). Conversely, the largest increases in employed occurred in professional and business services (116,000 more jobs for an increase of 117%), educational and health services (108,500 more jobs—70% increase), trade, transportation, and utilities (79,300 more jobs—26% increase), government (69,900 more jobs—28% increase), leisure and hospitality (65,900 more jobs—54% increase), and finance (27,800 more jobs—43 percent increase).
ECONOMIC

TRANSITION FROM GOODS TO SERVICES

Economic activity in Kentucky has been changing for the last several decades. Specifically, economic activity has been shifting away from the production of goods and toward the provision of services. These data illustrate in this figure the major sectors in Kentucky’s economy as components of the total state gross domestic product (GDP). In the early 1960s services accounted for about 40 percent of Kentucky’s economic output and goods amounted to about 50 percent. However, around 1980 the provision of services contributed more to the state’s economy than the production of tangible goods. And now services account for nearly 59 percent of Kentucky’s economy while goods amount to about 27 percent. Government has increased as a percentage of the economy during this time period too, growing from 11.5 to 14.3 percent. Changes in consumption patterns have followed a similar trajectory. As the state’s economy and consumption tilt away from goods and toward services, the sales and use tax base has slowly diminished. This is because most services, such as haircuts or automobile mechanic labor, are not subject to the sales tax. The result has been a gradual reduction in the elasticity of the sales and use tax—still an important source of revenue for the state.

Source: Bureau of Economic Analysis
Private sector growth of total wages and salaries in a state over time is indicative of its economic energy. Here we look at the growth between the peak of the last economic expansion, which was during the fourth quarter of 2007, and the fourth quarter of 2015 (the most recent data available). By the final quarter of 2015, total wages and salaries in the U.S. were just over 26 percent higher compared to the peak of the last economic expansion. In our region of the country, Tennessee, Georgia, Kentucky, North Carolina, and South Carolina increased at a pace similar to the U.S., evidenced by Kentucky’s 26.2 percent and each of the other four states growing at least 25 percent. Overall, the competitor state average is slightly lower at 22.3 percent. On the national level, North Dakota has the highest wage and salary growth during this period—registering a blistering 93 percent increase—and Nevada has the lowest rate at about 5 percent.

Source: Author’s calculations using data from the Bureau of Labor Statistics, Quarterly Census of Employment and Wages (private, all industries, all sizes). The U.S. estimate is constructed from state data.

Note: CS is a weighted average of the competitor states
WAGE & SALARY GROWTH BY KENTUCKY REGION

Using the same data and approach that is described on the preceding page, the growth rate of total wages and salaries for Kentucky and its regions from the peak of the last economic expansion to the fourth quarter of 2015 is shown below. All of Kentucky’s regions—except for Eastern Kentucky—experienced growth rates on par with the U.S. average of 26.2 percent (a county-level map of these four regions is available in the glossary). At 29.4 percent, Kentucky’s so-called Urban Triangle is the only region in Kentucky to outperform the U.S. average. The Urban Triangle is the state’s primary economic engine. If it were a state its growth rate would have ranked 11th nationally, placing it among the top tier of states.

Source: Author’s calculations using data from the Bureau of Labor Statistics, Quarterly Census of Employment and Wages (private, all industries, all sizes). See glossary for map of Kentucky regions by county.
The peak of the last economic expansion was in the final quarter of 2007—the beginning point on the graph below (the trough of the Great Recession was during the second quarter of 2009). Once adjusted for inflation, average wages were nearly 7 percent higher in the final quarter of 2015 in Kentucky and 6.5 percent higher in the U.S. Comparisons through this time period are best made quarter-to-quarter since seasonal variations exercise a significant impact on average wages; this is due to an influx of relatively lower paid workers during the late spring, summer, and early fall (e.g., service industry associated with seasonal tourism and some lower skilled construction during the warm weather months). Kentucky’s average weekly wages in the fourth quarter of 2015 were $885 (or $998 once adjusted for Kentucky’s lower cost-of-living), which is lower than the U.S. average of $1,081.
WAGE & SALARY RATIO

This figure illustrates the gap in wages between Kentucky workers in metro counties and those in “somewhat rural” and “mostly rural” counties. Going back to 1969, wages in metro areas have been consistently higher than those in rural counties—especially Kentucky’s 60 mostly rural counties. In 2014, for example, wages in metro counties were about 30 percent higher than those in “somewhat rural” counties and just over 50 percent higher than wages in “mostly rural” counties. The rising wage differential between the 35 so-called metro counties and rural counties increased steadily from the late 1970s to 2000. This trend did not change much until the Great Recession. The trend reversed in 2007, with wages in metro counties disproportionately affected by the recession. Beginning in about 2010 the gap between metro and mostly rural counties began to widen again, while the “metro to somewhat rural county” has remained stable. Based on his studies of rural communities across America, economist Mark Drabenstott outlined an approach over a decade ago for rural America to increase its economic prospects. His framework for improving rural prosperity has relevance for Kentucky: think and act regionally; find a new economic niche in high-value knowledge industries that leverage the region’s strengths; and place a premium on homegrown entrepreneurs.

Wage & Salary Ratio in Kentucky by Geographic Area, 1969-2014
(Ratio Between Beale Codes 9-8-7, 6-5-4, and 3-2-1)

Source: Bureau of Economic Analysis, CA30, Economic Profile
The private sector growth rate of total employment is indicative of a state’s economic energy. Here we look at the growth rate between the peak of the last economic expansion, which was during the fourth quarter of 2007, and the fourth quarter of 2015. The U.S. average is 4.5 percent growth during this period. While not among the top states in the region (i.e., TN, GA, & SC), Kentucky still outperformed most of its competitors in employment growth with a 3.4 percent increase (compared to 2 percent for the competitor state average). Kentucky has the 19th highest employment growth rate among the 50 states over this eight year period. North Dakota has the highest total employment growth, experiencing a 27.8 percent increase. Wyoming, on the other hand, experienced a 3.4 percent decrease in total employment, the largest decline among the states.

Employment Growth by State

Employment Growth, Peak of the Last Economic Expansion to 2015 (Q4), Kentucky, Competitor States & the U.S.

Source: Author’s calculations using data from the Bureau of Labor Statistics, Quarterly Census of Employment and Wages (private, all industries, all sizes). The U.S. estimate is constructed from state data.

Note: CS is a weighted average of the competitor states
Employment growth by Kentucky Region

Using the same data and approach that is described on the preceding page, the growth rate of total employment for Kentucky and its regions from the peak of the last economic expansion to the fourth quarter of 2015 is shown below (a county-level map of these four regions is available in the glossary). Kentucky’s Urban Triangle experienced a 6.8 percent increase in total employment, which exceeds the U.S. average of 4.5 percent. The other regions in the state grew more slowly, as evidenced by the 0.9 percent increase in Western Kentucky and 2.1 percent increase in South Central Kentucky. In Eastern Kentucky employment is over 9 percent lower—a significant decline over the eight year period that reflects the declining fortunes of the coal industry as well as other factors.

Source: Author’s calculations using data from the Bureau of Labor Statistics, Quarterly Census of Employment and Wages (private, all industries, all sizes). See glossary for map of Kentucky regions by county.
In the 18-month period from December 2007 to June 2009—the peak of the last economic expansion to the trough of the Great Recession—Kentucky lost nearly 104,000 (seasonally adjusted) jobs or about 6.7 percent of its total. By comparison, the U.S. job total was down 6.5 percent and the competitor states lost 7.4 percent. This was not, however, the low point for job losses. Kentucky, along with the rest of the nation, continued to shed jobs for another 8 months and finally reached the low point in February 2010. By this time, the state had lost 121,900 jobs, down 7.9 percent, compared to 8.5 percent in the competitor states and 7.6 percent nationally. Digging out of the recession has been slow, taking nearly seven years until November 2014 to reach the same level of employment it had in December 2007. Kentucky’s seasonally adjusted unemployment rate in July 2016 was 4.9 percent, ranking it 30th among the states. South Dakota had the lowest unemployment rate (2.8%) and Alaska the highest (6.7%). The U.S. unemployment rate in July 2016 was 4.9 percent.
Regional Employment Shift

The graph below shows Kentucky’s regional competitive effect from a shift-share analysis. A shift-share analysis is one way to identify broad economic sectors that are particularly strong, or weak, in a state or regional economy. This type of analysis takes into account broad national employment trends as well as trends within an industry to determine how much of a change in employment is due to state or regional factors. It can be used to identify a state’s leading, or lagging, economic sectors. A state’s leading economic sector is one that outperforms the same sector at the national level. Here we examine the period from June 2009, the trough of the Great Recession, to the present (June 2016). How then, did Kentucky’s major economic sectors perform relative to their national counterparts during this period? Kentucky’s manufacturing and professional & business services sectors outperformed their national counterparts during this seven-year economic expansion. Conversely, given the job losses in the coal industry, it is no surprise that Kentucky’s mining and logging sector is “lagging.” However, it might be somewhat surprising that the economic sector lagging the most is educational and health services. This might seem counter-intuitive since the sector grew nearly 10 percent during this period, but had it grown at the national level of nearly 16 percent there would be nearly 15,000 more jobs here.

Employment Changes, June 2009 to June 2016, Kentucky Specific Regional Shift
(based on a shift-share analysis)

Source: Estimated by the author using data from the U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics (BLS), all employees, not seasonally adjusted
While Kentucky’s per capita personal income has grown significantly over the years, its position relative to the nation has not demonstrably improved since around 1974. Indeed, Kentucky’s per capita income has oscillated around 80 percent of the national average since the mid-1970s. In 2015 it was about 82 percent of the U.S. average while the average of the competitor states was around 91 percent. Lagging growth in per capita income has kept Kentucky ranked in the bottom 10 states (i.e., 44th in 2015). Within Kentucky there are marked differences between urban, somewhat rural, and mostly rural counties—as reflected in their respective 2015 per capita income levels of $42,560, $35,210, and $31,240.

Per Capita Personal Income as a Percentage of the U.S. Average, Kentucky and Competitor States, 1929 to 2015

Source: U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of Economic Analysis
Household Income

At $42,400, median household income in Kentucky is currently about 75 percent of the U.S. median; it is 90 percent for the competitor states. The median level is the point at which half the households are lower and half are higher. In real dollars, Kentucky’s high point was in 1998 when median household income was $52,700; real dollars factor out inflation and are expressed as constant dollars. Kentucky’s median household income, in real dollars, was about $10,000 less in 2015 compared to 1998. In 2015 significantly more Kentucky households—28.1 percent—reported less than $25,000 in income, compared to 22.1 percent nationally (based on the 2015 American Community Survey 1-year estimate). Kentucky’s lower cost of living accounts for part, but not all, of the state’s lower income level. The estimated regional price parity for Kentucky (based on Bureau of Economic Analysis estimates) is 88.7, indicating that prices for a range of items in the state are about 88.7 percent of the U.S. average. The U.S. Census Bureau has two main surveys to collect data on incomes in America. The chart below is based on Current Population survey (CPS), Annual Social and Economic Supplement (ASEC) data. The American Community Survey (ACS) numbers are slightly different. For example, the 2015 Kentucky median household income is 81 percent of the U.S. number based on ACS data.

Source: U.S. Census, Table H-8. Median Household Income by State
The composition of personal income and its changing nature can exercise a large effect on state and local revenue growth since the personal income tax combined with the occupational tax constitutes the largest portion of Kentucky’s state and local revenue receipts. Over the last several years, Kentucky, like the competitor states and the U.S., has experienced a shift in the composition of personal income that has affected revenue adequacy. In 1969, net earnings comprised 79 percent of total personal income in Kentucky. Dividends, interest, and rent, made up another 11 percent. Transfer payments, which consist of government programs like Social Security, Medicare, Temporary Assistance for Needy Families (TANF), and Supplemental Security Income (SSI) payments (to name a few), are essentially untaxed and made up the remaining 10 percent. By 2015, however, net earnings had declined to 60 percent of total personal income while transfer payments increased to 24.6 percent. By comparison, in 2015 transfer payments constituted 18.9 percent and 17.4 percent of personal income in the competitor states and the U.S., respectively.

Source: U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of Economic Analysis
There are significant differences across Kentucky’s urban, somewhat rural, and mostly rural counties in the composition of income. In 2015 there were eleven rural counties where transfer payments as a share of total personal income topped 50 percent and 21 that exceeded 40 percent. Among the 35 urban counties transfer payments constituted 20 percent while net earnings made up 64 percent of total personal income. These percentages shift away from net earnings and toward transfer payments for the 25 somewhat rural and 60 mostly rural counties. Over one-third (39%) of total personal income comes from transfer payments in Kentucky’s mostly rural counties. Clearly, there are systemic, deep-seated development hurdles in these counties that are difficult to clear despite the multiple attempts to do so over the last several decades.

Because earned income is the portion of personal income that does not include transfer payments from various social assistance or public welfare programs, it is a good indicator of the underlying economic vitality of a state, county, or region. Kentucky’s earned income per capita relative to the U.S. average increased steadily from 1960 to 1977, but did not result in an improvement in the state’s national ranking. Since 1977 Kentucky’s earned income relative to the U.S. has dropped and is currently at 73.0 percent, which ranks 47th among the states. Kentucky’s earned income per capita is $29,051, significantly below the highest state, Connecticut ($59,880) and above the lowest state, Mississippi ($25,640).

Source: U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of Economic Analysis. Earned income = personal income minus current transfers
Earned Income Per Capita by County

When President Johnson’s War on Poverty was gathering steam in late 1960s, 41 of Kentucky’s 120 counties had per capita earned income levels placing them in the bottom ten percent of the 3,000-plus counties in the United States. As we note on the previous page, earned income is the portion of personal income that does not include transfer payments from various social assistance or public welfare programs, and therefore is a good indicator of the underlying economic vitality of a region. By 2015—46 years later—34 of these counties, or 83%, were still in the bottom ten percent. About two-thirds of the counties nationally (67%) and in the dozen nearby competitor states (68%) that were in the bottom ten percent in 1969 were still there in 2015. While most of these persistently poor counties are in Eastern Kentucky, the map shows several counties in the south central part of the state. An important public policy question is why the percentage of persistently poor counties is so much higher in Kentucky, especially compared to the competitor states.

Kentucky Counties by Earned Income Per Capita
(Bottom 10 Percent Nationally, 1969 and 2015)

Source: Estimated by the author using data from the Bureau of Economic Analysis
Note: Earned Income is calculated by subtracting current transfers from personal income and dividing by the total population.
EMPLOYMENT-POPULATION RATIO

This ratio is the proportion of the civilian non-institutional population aged 16 years and older that is employed. According to the U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics (BLS), some believe the employment-population ratio is a better indicator of economic activity and economic performance than the unemployment rate. North Dakota and West Virginia had the highest and lowest employment-population ratios in 2015, 69.1 and 49.4 percent, respectively. Kentucky’s 2015 value was 53.7 percent—somewhat lower than both the competitor states (58.5) and the U.S. (59.3) averages. Kentucky experienced an over-the-year change of -1.1 percentage points from 2014 to 2015; nationally the ratio increased by 0.3 percentage points. In 1976 Kentucky and the United States had identical employment-population ratios of 56.9 percent, but, as evidenced in the figure below, both the competitor states and the U.S. have experienced employment-population ratios 2 to 5 percentage points higher than Kentucky since the mid-1980s. At 53.7 percent, Kentucky’s employment-population ratio is ranked 46th and is at its lowest point in 40 years.

The labor force participation rate is the proportion of the civilian noninstitutional population that is in the labor force, which is slightly different from the employment-population ratio described on the previous page. The labor force is comprised of individuals who are employed as well as individuals who are unemployed but searching for a job. The national labor force participation rate increased from around 60 percent in 1970 to about 67 percent in 2000, driven in large part by the increased participation of women. In 2015 the U.S. labor force participation rate for individuals 16 and older was 63.1 percent and Kentucky’s was 58.8 percent. Kentucky’s labor force participation rate for those 20 to 24 looks very similar to both the competitor states and the U.S. However, the labor force participation rate for Kentuckians 25 to 54—the prime working years—is 76.1 percent compared to 81.3 percent for the United States. And, in the 55 to 64 age group, Kentucky is significantly lower, as evidenced in the chart below.

![Labor Force Participation by Various Age Groups, Kentucky, Competitor States, and the U.S., 2015](chart)

*(percent of individuals in the labor force)*

Source: 2015 American Community Survey 1-Year Estimate
Foreign companies create important economic benefits for the American economy. These companies invest billions of dollars in the U.S. economy and create hundreds of thousands of jobs. Kentucky has worked hard to capitalize on the opportunities presented by globalization—reflected by the presence in the state of more than 400 international companies from nearly 30 countries. A majority-owned U.S. affiliate is an American business enterprise in which there is a foreign direct investment that accounts for at least 50 percent of the ownership. In Kentucky there are an estimated 107,500 individuals employed by majority-owned U.S. affiliates. As a percentage of total full- and part-time wage and salary employment, it is 5.5 percent in Kentucky. This is higher than the U.S. average of 4.4 percent as well as the competitor state average of 4.8 percent.

### Employment of Majority-Owned U.S. Affiliates, 2014, Kentucky, Competitor States, & the U.S.

(percentage of total full- & part-time wage and salary employment)

Source: Author’s calculations using data from the Bureau of Economic Analysis, Regional Economic Accounts & International Data.

Note: CS is a weighted average of the competitor states.
Exports constitute an important piece to the state’s economic prosperity. Kentucky’s exports of goods have more than doubled in real dollars over the last fifteen years. From 1999 to 2015 the compound annual growth rate of Kentucky’s exports is 7.4 percent; this is higher than the U.S. growth rate of 4.9 percent and the 5.8 percent experienced by the competitor states. The value of Kentucky’s exports of goods in 2015 was $27.6 billion, which is equivalent to 14.2 percent of Kentucky’s gross domestic product; it was 7.9 percent for the competitor states and 8.4 percent for the U.S. Most of Kentucky’s exported goods go to Canada, which accounted for 26.3 percent of the total. The United Kingdom was second (9.3), followed by the Mexico (8.3), China (7.0), and France (6.4). Kentucky’s businesses exported to over 190 different countries in 2015, but the top five and top ten countries received nearly 57 percent and 78 percent, respectively, of the total value. Half (51.3 percent) of the value of exported goods is accounted for by transportation equipment (e.g., aerospace and motor vehicle industries), followed by chemicals (16.1), computer and electronic products (6.3), machinery-except electrical (6.1), and primary metal manufacturing (2.4). Combined, these five sectors accounted for 82.2 percent of Kentucky’s exports in 2015.

**Kentucky Exports of Goods, 1999-2015**

(constant 2015 billions)

Source: Office of Trade and Industry Information (OTII), Manufacturing and Services, International Trade Administration, U.S. Department of Commerce.
A housing start is when a new foundation is laid. Because housing starts represent the first step in a series of cascading future purchases, such as furniture, appliances, and landscaping, a housing start is considered a leading economic indicator and a foundation of determining future economic trends. Going back to 1980, Kentucky’s housing starts peaked in 2004 with 22,623 and declined steadily until hitting its nadir of about 7,400 in 2009. Following the U.S. and competitor state trend, Kentucky housing starts have stabilized since then and increased to nearly 10,600 in 2015. The overall trends nationally have seen relatively strong gains in multifamily housing, such as apartment buildings, and somewhat lackluster growth in single-family homes, which is a much bigger driver of economic growth. In Kentucky, single family homes accounted for 6,600 of the new starts in 2015, or nearly two-thirds of the total market.
Leading up to the Great Recession, the federal government and the private sector undertook extensive efforts to increase the number of homeowners by keeping mortgage rates low and by allowing small, or nonexistent, down payments. By the fourth quarter of 2007—the peak of the last economic expansion—the homeownership rate was 69 percent nationally and 75 percent in Kentucky. It is now clear, however, that many of these new homeowners could not afford their homes, as evidenced in the figure below by a sharp increase in foreclosures beginning in 2008. In Kentucky the percentage of mortgage loans in foreclosure peaked in the fourth quarter of 2011 at 4 percent. The foreclosure rate has declined since then and currently stands at 1.68 percent; the national rate is 1.55 percent. Kentucky's 1.68 percent is its lowest foreclosure rate since the fourth quarter of 2001 when it was 1.60 percent. By the third quarter of 2016 the homeownership rate was 67.8 percent in Kentucky and 63.5 percent nationally.
Many have found themselves on the wrong side of globalization, mechanization, and technological change—as well as having first-hand experience with numerous other social and economic factors like low-performing schools and the disintegration of the nuclear family.

Just as Thomas Piketty delineated the scope of global inequality in his opus, *Capital in the Twenty First Century*, a populist movement is sweeping across the globe—from Asia to Europe, and now to North America. More than income or wealth inequality is propelling this movement, but it has surely provided ample fuel for the popularity of the populist message.

A series of reports and studies released over the last few years have focused on the plight of the working class. The *Economic Report of the President*, which was released in February 2016, points out that the share of pretax income going to the top 1 percent increased from 8 percent to 18 percent from 1975 to 2014. In this report (on the following page), we present our analysis of how middle-class families have become less economically secure. For at least 35 years, household income levels have changed at uneven rates depending upon whether one is “rich,” “poor,” or somewhere in-between. For Kentucky families, incomes at the 25th percentile—what some might consider “lower middle class”—declined 1.1 percent compared to growth nationally of around 11 percent in real dollars. By comparison, incomes at the 75th percentile, or “upper middle class,” increased for Kentucky and the U.S. by around 19 and 34 percent, respectively, in real dollars, from the late 1970s to the mid-2010s.

Toward the end of 2015, the Pew Research Center released a report entitled *The American Middle Class is Losing Ground*. They present statistics showing how the size of the American middle class has been slowly contracting since the early 1970s. For example, 61 percent of American adults lived in middle-income households in 1971, but this has steadily decreased since then and is estimated to be 50 percent in 2015.

Many individuals still do not feel economically secure seven years after the end of the Great Recession. In addition to uneven income growth, the poverty rate as well as public assistance program participation is higher in Kentucky than in many of the competitor states, evidence of continued economic uncertainty for many. The growth rate in wages, salaries, and employment, and therefore economic security, is not uniform across the state. The best antidote to decreasing wages is the pursuit of education.
Middle-class families have become less economically secure. For at least 35 years, household income levels have changed at uneven rates depending upon whether one is “rich,” “poor,” or somewhere in-between. For Kentucky families, incomes at the 25th percentile—what some might consider “lower middle class”—declined 1.1 percent compared to growth nationally of around 11 percent in real dollars. By comparison, incomes at the 75th percentile, or “upper middle class,” increased for Kentucky and the U.S. by around 19 and 34 percent, respectively, in real dollars, from the late 1970s to the mid-2010s. The contrast is the greatest between incomes at the 10th and 90th percentiles, with incomes declining in Kentucky by -0.8 at the lower income level and increasing by 33 percent at the upper income level; a large difference also exists between the 10th and 90th percentiles for the competitor states and the U.S. These data reflect total pre-tax personal income from all sources for all adults in the household. Noncash benefits, such as foodstamps, health benefits, or subsidizing housing are not included as household income. Many factors have contributed to the widening gap, including the rise of globalization and outsourcing, increasing returns to high-level skills, the automation of routine jobs, declining unionization, immigration, and tax policies.

Changes in Household Income, by Income Level, 1977-79 to 2013-15, KY, Competitor States and the U.S.
(based three-year averages of 2015 dollars)

Household income levels at the 25th and 75th percentiles can be viewed as boundaries around America’s middle class. In the late 1970s, upper middle class households—those at the 75th percentile—had incomes about 3 times larger than lower middle class households, which are those at the 25th percentile; this is true of Kentucky, its competitor states, and the United States overall, where the ratios were 3, 3.1, and 3.1, respectively around 35 years ago. However, the gap has widened since then, evidenced by the ratios increasing to 3.7, 3.6, and 3.7 for Kentucky, its competitor states, and the U.S. by the mid-2010s. The figure below shows a downward trend in the Kentucky ratio for the past 5 years. Unfortunately this is not a function of increasing incomes at the 25th percentile; rather, the declining ratio is the result of decreasing incomes, in real dollars, at the 75th percentile. Kentucky household incomes at the 25th percentile remained fairly stable during this period—in real terms—at about $21,200. However, household incomes declined from $82,300 to $77,300 at the 75th percentile, which decreased the ratio between them.

The Gini index for the United States in 2015 (0.482) was (statistically) significantly higher than in the 2014 (0.480)—indicating that income inequality increased across the country from 2014 to 2015. The Gini Index is a measure of income dispersion. A higher number indicates more concentration of income in fewer hands, with a value of “1” indicating that one person holds all the income. The Census Bureau estimated that in 2014 the “richest” 20 percent of households had 51.2 percent of the income—more than in 1967 when the upper 20 percent of Americans had 43.6 percent of the income. The focus on the income distribution has been an important part of the political discourse for at least the last few decades, and it arguably reached new levels of intensity among the political, economic, academic, and journalistic cognoscenti with the publication of Thomas Piketty’s opus, Capital in the Twenty-First Century. These debates have focused on whether, in fact, there is income inequality, and what, if anything, should be done to address it. The map below shows that Kentucky, with a Gini Index value of (.478), has a higher Gini Index (more inequality) than 28 states, and is lower than 5 states; it is statistically the same as 16 states. New York has the highest Gini Index value (.514) and Utah the lowest (.425).
GINI INDEX BY COUNTY

This map shows the Gini Index values for Kentucky counties organized into quartiles, or four equal groups. As explained on the previous page, the Gini Index is a measure of income dispersion. A higher number indicates more concentration of income in fewer hands, with a value of “1” indicating that one person holds all the income. The highest Gini Index values (i.e., higher income inequality) are concentrated in the poorest areas of Kentucky. Mason County has the highest Gini Index value (.52) and Hickman County has the lowest (.35).

Kentucky County-Level Gini Index, 2011-2015

Source: U.S. Census Bureau, 2011-2015 5-Year American Community Survey
Bankruptcy is defined as “a legal proceeding involving a person or business that is unable to repay outstanding debts.” The idea is to develop a plan that enables the individual (or business) to gain a fresh financial start while providing creditors with some prospect of repayment for outstanding debts. The personal bankruptcy rate provides an indication of the overall financial health of individuals and families. As consumers acquire excessive debt or economies are in recession, for example, the threat of personal bankruptcy increases. The laws governing bankruptcy changed in 2005, which had the immediate effect of reducing the number of individuals filing for bankruptcy. The personal bankruptcy rate in Kentucky has essentially been the same as the competitor states, which in 2015 is around 3.4 bankruptcies per 1,000 population. The U.S. average has been somewhat lower over the 2000-2015 period, and stood at 2.6 in 2015. Overall, the bankruptcy rate has been on a downward trend since 2010, and is approaching levels not seen since before the Great Recession.

Source: Estimated using data from Administrative Office of the U.S. Courts & Census data, various years.
According to the National Bureau of Economic Research (NBER), the trough of the most recent recession was in the second quarter of 2009. It is perhaps no surprise, then, that 2009 is the peak year, as shown in the graph below, for the number of businesses that filed for bankruptcy. Across the various Circuit and District Courts in 2009, there were 60,837 bankruptcy business filings (Chapters 7, 11, 12, 13)—but this has steadily declined since then with 24,636 in 2015. Business filings across the U.S. in the first six months of 2016 are 3.6 percent higher than the number filed in the first six months of 2015. When expressed as a percentage of business establishments, Kentucky has been lower than the competitor states and the U.S. during the last few years but has historically had similar rates.

Source: Estimated from Administrative Office of the U.S. Courts data along with establishment data from the U.S. Census, County Business Patterns, various years. Note: 2015 data are estimated by using 2014 establishments and 2015 bankruptcies.
Living in poverty can have far-reaching economic, social, and cultural consequences for families and entire populations. Studies reveal that those who grow up in poverty not only experience a lack of basic needs, but that this scarcity can shape their lives and families for generations. In addition, the concentrations of poverty have a significant negative effect on the fiscal health of cities and regions that, as a result, must shoulder higher spending. The U.S. poverty rate increased during the Great Recession and currently stands at around 15 percent. Kentucky’s poverty rate has been on an upward trend since 1999 and currently is at about 20 percent. From about 1980 to the present, Kentucky’s poverty rate has been consistently higher than both the U.S. and competitor states.

**Kentucky Annual Economic Report 2017**

**POVERTY RATE**

Poverty Rate 1977 to 2015, Kentucky, Competitor States, and the U.S. (percent of individuals in poverty, 3-year average)

POVERTY RATE BY COUNTY

Kentucky’s persistently poor counties are concentrated in Eastern Kentucky, but high poverty is found across the state. Poverty rates in Martin, McCreary, and Owsley Counties are over 40 percent—the highest in the state—while Boone, Oldham, and Spencer Counties have rates in the single digits. There can be, of course, concentrated pockets of poverty within counties with relatively low rates. At 25 percent, the “mostly rural” counties generally have higher poverty rates than “slightly rural” (19.3%) and metro counties (15.9%).

Estimated County Poverty Rates, 2014

Source: U.S. Census Bureau, Small Area and Income Estimates (SAIPE)
CHILD POVERTY

Child poverty, and all that it bodes for the future, continues to be disturbing and vexing problem for Kentucky. Here, we illustrate child poverty rates for Kentucky, the competitor states, and the U.S. The rates shown are for children who live in households with incomes below 100 percent of the federal poverty level. Kentucky’s poverty rate for children under 18 in 2015 was 25.9 percent, a significant increase from 20 percent in 2000. Kentucky’s child poverty rate is significantly higher than the U.S. rate of 20.7 percent (using a 90 percent margin of error). At 31.3 percent, Mississippi has the highest child poverty rate in the nation; New Hampshire is the lowest with a child poverty rate of 10.7 percent.

Poverty Rate, 2015, Children Under 18, Kentucky, Competitor States and the U.S.

(percent of individuals)

Source: 2015 American Community Survey 1-Year Estimates
The first wave of Baby Boomers started hitting the traditional retirement age of 65 in 2011 and many are financially ill-prepared for retirement. The Employee Benefit Research Institute’s 2016 Retirement Confidence Survey finds, among other insights, that 39 percent of retirees are “very confident” about having enough money to live comfortably throughout their retirement years, which is significantly higher than the 18 percent who felt very confident in the 2013 survey. Thirty-six percent are “somewhat” confident, 12 percent are “not too” confident, and 12 percent are “not at all” confident. According to the survey, 64 percent of retirees saved money for retirement—which obviously means that over one-third did not. This widespread lack of saving for retirement places many seniors in a precarious position for their retirement years. At 11.2 percent, Kentucky’s population of persons aged 65 and older who live below the poverty level is higher than most of the competitor states as well as the U.S. average of 9.0 percent. And, these differences are statistically significant. However, there is not a statistically significant difference between Kentucky and Mississippi, which has the highest poverty rate among the competitor states.
Annual surveys conducted by the U.S. Department of Agriculture show that the prevalence of food insecurity has been steadily increasing over the last decade. Food security is defined as having “access at all times to enough food for an active, healthy life for all household members,” while food insecurity means “that the food intake of one or more household members was reduced and their eating patterns were disrupted at times during the year because the household lacked money and other resources for food.” An estimated 10.1 percent of Kentucky households experienced food insecurity during the 1999-2001 period, and this increased to 17.6 percent in the most recent period. The competitor states and the U.S. averages were lower than Kentucky’s, at 14.4 and 13.7 percent respectively. Generally, national data show that rates of food insecurity tend to be higher for certain groups, such as households with children—especially young children (under age 6), households with children headed by a single parent—especially a woman, households headed by a minority—especially Black and Hispanic, and those with lower incomes.

Prevalence of Food Insecurity, Kentucky, Competitor States and the U.S., 1999-2015
(percentage of households with low or very low food security)

Source: United States Department of Agriculture, Household Food Security in the United States, various years.
The Food Stamp Act of 1977 defines this federally-funded program as one intended to “permit low-income households to obtain a more nutritious diet.” Nationally, almost 75 percent of Food Stamp Program (FSP) participants are in families with children and more than one-quarter of participants are in households with seniors or people with disabilities. From 1980 to 1999, Kentucky’s average monthly participation in the Food Stamp Program—known as the Supplemental Nutrition Assistance Program (SNAP)—was approximately 500,600 individuals. The low point in participation was in 1999 when it was 396,400. The number of participants climbed precipitously from that point to nearly 880,000 in 2013, which was over double the 1999 total. It has been declining since then though, as evidenced in the figure below. From May 2015 to May 2016, the number of individuals participating in the SNAP program in Kentucky declined 15.6 percent—a decline unmatched by another state. In 2016, an estimated 14.7 percent of Kentucky’s population participated in the FSP, a percentage similar to both the competitor states (14.3%) and the U.S. (13.7%). SNAP benefits are dependent on, among other factors, family size and income levels—with the average SNAP recipient in the U.S. receiving about $126 a month in FY 2016. From January through May 2016 the average per person benefit in Kentucky was $123.

Source: U.S. Department of Agriculture Food and Nutrition Service and U.S. Census
*The 2016 estimate is based on January to May numbers.
TEMPORARY ASSISTANCE FOR NEEDY FAMILIES

The number of Kentuckians receiving Aid to Families with Dependent Children (AFDC)—known as Temporary Assistance to Needy Families (TANF) since the 1996 welfare reform law—has decreased significantly from its high point of 229,400 in 1992 to 44,600 in 2016; roughly 80 percent of the recipients in 2016 were children. This decline is not unique to Kentucky. For example, marking the 20th anniversary of the 1996 legislation that fundamentally changed the program, the Center on Budget and Policy Priorities (CBPP) issued a report in August, 2016, noting that nationally the number of families receiving TANF (AFDC) benefits for every 100 families with children in poverty has declined sharply over time. In 1979, for instance, 82 families per 100 with children in poverty received benefits, compared to 68 in 1996—when TANF was enacted—to 23 in 2014. As a percentage of the total population, more Kentuckians received TANF benefits in 2016, about 1.0 percent, than the competitor state average of 0.5 percent. At 1.1 percent, Tennessee has the highest percentage among the competitor states while Georgia and Indiana have the lowest at 0.25 percent. The benefit amount for a Kentucky family of three is $262 per month, which has not changed since 1996. If the benefit had been indexed to the inflation rate it would equal $404 in 2016.

![AFDC/TANF Recipients, Kentucky, Competitor States, and the U.S., 1980-2016](chart.png)

Source: The Administration for Children and Families, U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, and U.S. Census
MEDICAID BENEFICIARIES

Medicaid is a state-federal partnership to provide health care coverage for people with lower incomes, older people, individuals with disabilities, and some families and children. The Medicaid program is jointly funded by states and the federal government. In Kentucky, the Department for Medicaid Services administers the $22 billion program—the budgeted level for the 2016-2018 Biennium. There are many types of services provided for Kentucky’s 1.2 million Medicaid beneficiaries—from inpatient hospitalization to long-term care to prescription drugs for acute care. In the wider context of Kentucky’s state budget, Medicaid constitutes a significant portion of total state government spending. According to the National Association of State Budget Officers, State Expenditure Report: Fiscal Years 2013-2015, 24 percent of Kentucky state government expenditures were for Medicaid. Kentucky’s federal match in FY2017 is 70.5%, meaning that the federal government is paying $2.39 for every $1 of state funds. The percentage of the population on Medicaid in Kentucky, the competitor states, and the U.S. is 27, 20 and 23 percent, respectively. And, as a result of the Affordable Care Act, Kentucky has experienced one of the largest increases in Medicaid enrollment in the country. The U.S. average is a 27 percent increase in enrollment, compared to Kentucky’s 100 percent.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Area</th>
<th>Pre-ACA Average Monthly Enrollment</th>
<th>Total Monthly Medicaid/CHIP Enrollment (Sept 2015)</th>
<th>% Change</th>
<th>% Total Population Enrolled</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>US</td>
<td>56,392,477</td>
<td>72,531,285</td>
<td>27%</td>
<td>23%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AL</td>
<td>799,176</td>
<td>888,641</td>
<td>11%</td>
<td>18%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GA</td>
<td>1,535,090</td>
<td>1,756,974</td>
<td>15%</td>
<td>17%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IL</td>
<td>2,626,943</td>
<td>3,097,016</td>
<td>18%</td>
<td>24%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IN</td>
<td>1,120,674</td>
<td>1,467,926</td>
<td>31%</td>
<td>22%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>KY</td>
<td>606,805</td>
<td>1,213,829</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td>27%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MS</td>
<td>637,229</td>
<td>693,980</td>
<td>9%</td>
<td>23%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MO</td>
<td>846,084</td>
<td>963,241</td>
<td>14%</td>
<td>16%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NC</td>
<td>1,595,952</td>
<td>1,987,921</td>
<td>25%</td>
<td>20%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OH</td>
<td>2,341,481</td>
<td>2,953,740</td>
<td>26%</td>
<td>25%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SC</td>
<td>889,744</td>
<td>972,098</td>
<td>9%</td>
<td>20%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TN</td>
<td>1,244,516</td>
<td>1,616,888</td>
<td>30%</td>
<td>24%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VA</td>
<td>935,434</td>
<td>967,338</td>
<td>3%</td>
<td>12%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>WV</td>
<td>354,544</td>
<td>565,849</td>
<td>60%</td>
<td>12%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CS</td>
<td>14,926,867</td>
<td>17,931,612</td>
<td>20%</td>
<td>20%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


Note: CS is a weighted average of the competitor states.
The Supplemental Security Income (SSI) is a Federal income supplement program that is administered by the Social Security Administration (SSA) and funded by general tax revenues (not Social Security taxes). According to the SSA, “It is designed to help aged, blind, and disabled people, who have little or no income, and it provides cash to meet basic needs for food, clothing, and shelter.” Of Kentucky’s 184,100 recipients in 2015, 5 percent were aged and 95 percent were blind and/or disabled. Nearly one-third of the recipients were either under 18 (14.5%) or over 64 years old (17.3%). As is evident by the figure, the percentage of Kentuckians receiving SSI benefits, 4.2 percent, is much higher than the U.S. (2.6%) or competitive state averages (2.5%).
According to the Social Security Administration, “Studies show that just over 1 in 4 of today’s 20 year-olds will become disabled before reaching age 67.” The Social Security Disability Insurance (SSDI) program pays benefits to disabled individuals and some family members if the individual worked long enough and paid Social Security taxes. Kentucky has a higher than average disability rate so it is not surprising that a higher percentage of the state’s population receive DI benefits. The percentage of Kentuckians between 18 and 64 years old who receive DI benefits is 8.1 percent, markedly higher than both the competitor state (5.6%) and U.S. (4.7%) averages. The average monthly benefit nationally for disabled workers is $1,166. This program, however, is resting on a shaky financial foundation. Analysts at RAND have pointed out that there is not enough money going into the program to provide benefits to a growing caseload—noting that changes to the program are inevitable and just over the horizon.

**WOMEN, INFANTS, AND CHILDREN (WIC)**

Women, Infants, and Children (WIC) is a federal nutrition program for “supplemental foods, health care referrals, and nutrition education for low-income pregnant, breastfeeding, and non-breastfeeding postpartum women, and to infants and children up to age five who are found to be at nutritional risk.” In Kentucky, around 2.5 percent of the population receives WIC benefits, representing a steady decline since its recent peak in 2010; in fact, Kentucky’s percentage is at its lowest point since the early 1990s. Kentucky’s percentage is only slightly higher than the U.S. (2.4%) and competitor states (2.1%).

---

*Source: U.S. Department of Agriculture Food and Nutrition Service and U.S. Census*
Transfer payments are benefits transferred from local, state, or federal governments to an individual. These payments include, but are not limited to, retirement and disability insurance benefits like Social Security, medical benefits such as those provided through Medicaid and Medicare, income maintenance benefits like TANF and SNAP, unemployment insurance compensation, and veterans’ benefits. Transfer payments account for about 17 percent of total personal income for the U.S. (24.7 percent for Kentucky statewide)—but several Kentucky counties are significantly higher than the national and state averages. There are eleven Kentucky counties over 50 percent, and 21 counties where transfer payments are between 40 and 49 percent of personal income; there are 62 counties between 26 percent and 39 percent. The percentages for Kentucky’s metro, slightly rural, and mostly rural counties are, respectively, 20, 29, and 39. There are several counties that are heavily dependent on transfer payments as a source of personal income, with the highest percentages concentrated in the Eastern Kentucky.
Banking Status

Whether someone has a bank account can have important implications for their financial well-being. According to the Federal Deposit Insurance Corporation (FDIC), “access to an account at a federally insured institution provides households with the opportunity to conduct basic financial transactions, save for emergency and long-term security needs, and access credit on fair and affordable terms.” Moreover, it can help protect “households from theft and reduces their vulnerability to discriminatory or predatory lending practices.” Surveys done by FDIC find that low-to-moderate income Americans are less likely to “access mainstream financial products such as bank accounts and low-cost loans.” At 9%, Kentucky households are slightly more likely to be “unbanked” than either the competitor states (8.2%) or the U.S. (7%), and the same is true for being “underbanked,” which are households that use both traditional banks as well as alternative financial services. Nationally as well as in Kentucky, the percentage of households that are unbanked has been declining since 2009—declining from 12% to 9% in Kentucky and from 7.6% to 7% nationally. While overall the unbanked percentage in the U.S. is only 7% in 2015, it rises to 25.6% for households with less than $15,000 in annual income, 18.2% for black households, and 16.2% for Hispanic households.

### Household Banking Status, 2015, Kentucky, Competitor States, and the U.S.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Status</th>
<th>KY</th>
<th>CS</th>
<th>US</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Status Unknown</td>
<td>3.7%</td>
<td>4.2%</td>
<td>5.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fully Banked</td>
<td>69.1%</td>
<td>67.8%</td>
<td>68.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Underbanked</td>
<td>18.2%</td>
<td>19.9%</td>
<td>19.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unbanked</td>
<td>9.0%</td>
<td>8.2%</td>
<td>7.0%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: FDIC National Survey of Unbanked and Underbanked Households, 2015
E

DUCATION IS EXPENSIVE for both the individual and the taxpayer. In fiscal year 2015, 37.5 percent of Kentucky’s total state expenditures went to either elementary and secondary education (17%) or higher education (20.5%), 7.9 percentage points higher than the national average of 29.6 percent (NASBO, State Expenditure Report, 2016). Average tuition across Kentucky’s postsecondary system increased 188 percent from 2001-02 to 2014-15 while per capita personal income increased 49 percent over the same period. Education might be expensive but the lack of education is even more costly. Investments in education yield multiple dividends. According to a 2016 RAND study, government spending on early childhood education returns $2 to $4 for every $1 invested. And, as one climbs the educational ladder, the resulting economic benefits, such as higher income and lower unemployment, get larger, especially for those with a 4-year degree or higher. Likewise, there is a clear and consistent pattern with higher levels of education associated with better health, less dependence on public assistance, and increased technology use—just to name a few other benefits. And what is generally good for the individual also benefits the wider community—such as lower crime rates and more volunteerism.

Increasing educational attainment as well as educational achievement have measurable positive benefits. Stanford economist Eric Hanushek and his colleagues published a study in 2016 estimating a strong connection between academic achievement and state-level economic growth. They found, for example, that if Kentucky students performed at the same level as those in Minnesota—the state with the highest performing students in the country—then gains to Kentucky’s GDP over the next 80 years could top $1 trillion or 5 times the current level. Kentucky’s educational status has improved since the early 1990s when its educational reputation was at a low point. Our analysis shows that Kentucky is statistically higher than 9 states, lower than 16 states, and statistically no different from 24 states, based on 12 educational attainment and achievement factors combined into a single index. To improve educational outcomes in Kentucky we cannot limit our focus solely to the classroom. Kentucky faces many obstacles to cost-effective educational performance, ranging from high poverty to poor health. Moderating the harmful effects of poverty on learning will help to reduce these obstacles and facilitate even higher returns.
The map below shows how educational outcomes in Kentucky compare to those in other states. Based on 12 educational attainment and achievement factors combined into a single index (see the table on the following page), Kentucky is statistically higher than 9 states, lower than 16 states, and no different statistically from 24 states (using a 90% confidence interval). Looking at Kentucky’s competitor states, this Index shows that Kentucky ranks higher than Alabama, Mississippi, and West Virginia, but lower than Virginia. There is not a statistically significant difference between Kentucky and the other competitor states (i.e., Georgia, Illinois, Indiana, Missouri, North Carolina, Ohio, South Carolina, and Tennessee).
Some key indicators used to compare states on educational outcomes are listed below. They include measures of educational attainment, such as the percentage of the population 25 to 54 (prime working age) with a high school diploma or bachelor’s degree, as well as educational achievement, including the percentage of students scoring proficient or higher on the various National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP) reading, math, and science exams. The percentages of Kentucky 4th and 8th graders scoring proficient or higher on the NAEP exams in 2015 is statistically higher than the national (public) average in two instances—4th grade reading and 4th grade science. Conversely, Kentucky’s 8th graders continue to struggle evidenced by the math scores being statistically significantly lower than the national public average for each of the seven NAEP assessments from 2003 to 2015. And there is no statistical difference between Kentucky and the U.S. for 8th grade reading, 8th grade science, and 4th grade math. On the other hand, Kentucky high school students continue to make significant gains in the percentage of recent graduates who are college and career ready as well as demonstrating Advanced Placement exam mastery. Finally, as evidenced by many of the indicators listed below, there is a considerable gap between Kentucky and the top tier of states.

### Comparing Education Indicators for Kentucky, United States, and the Top 16 States, 2015-2016
(numbers are percentages)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Education Indicators</th>
<th>Kentucky</th>
<th>U.S.</th>
<th>Average for Top 16 States†</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>HS Diploma or Higher (2015)</td>
<td>88.4</td>
<td>88.5</td>
<td>91.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Two-Year Degree (2015)</td>
<td>9.1</td>
<td>9.0</td>
<td>9.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bachelor’s Degree or Higher (2015)</td>
<td>25.6</td>
<td>33.0</td>
<td>38.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adj. Cohort HS Grad Rate (2015)</td>
<td>88.0</td>
<td>83.2</td>
<td>86.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ACT % College/Career Ready (2016)</td>
<td>20.0</td>
<td>26.0</td>
<td>34.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8th Grade Math NAEP (2015)</td>
<td>27.7</td>
<td>32.1</td>
<td>40.3*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8th Grade Reading NAEP (2015)</td>
<td>36.1</td>
<td>32.7</td>
<td>39.2*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8th Grade Science NAEP (2015)</td>
<td>34.5</td>
<td>33.1</td>
<td>40.7*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4th Grade Math NAEP (2015)</td>
<td>40.5</td>
<td>39.4</td>
<td>45.9*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4th Grade Reading NAEP (2015)</td>
<td>40.4</td>
<td>34.8</td>
<td>40.9*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4th Grade Science NAEP (2015)</td>
<td>44.4</td>
<td>36.5</td>
<td>43.5*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AP Exam Mastery (2015)</td>
<td>19.0</td>
<td>22.4</td>
<td>24.2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

†The top 16 states are statistically significantly higher than Kentucky (using a 90% confidence interval): CT, IA, MA, MD, ME, MN, ND, NE, NH, NJ, PA, UT, VA, VT, WA & WI.

*This is the average of the state averages—not a weighted average of these 16 states.

Note: HS Diploma, Two-Year Degree, and Bachelor’s Degree are for those between 25 and 54, the prime working age. The NAEP data reflect the percentage of public students scoring proficient or higher, and the U.S. data represents the National Public.
SELECTED OBSTACLES TO EDUCATION

While Kentucky has made educational progress, there is much to be done to improve educational outcomes—and not all of it strictly in the classroom. As is evident by the numbers in the table, obstacles to cost-effective educational performance are more prevalent in Kentucky than in most other places. Each of the factors listed below represents a potential obstacle to optimal educational performance and/or cost-effective educational spending. Considering factors like poverty, parental education, obesity, students’ health status, disability rates, and missed school days, these obstacles, if addressed, would enable better educational outcomes in Kentucky.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Obstacles</th>
<th>Kentucky</th>
<th>U.S.</th>
<th>Average for Top 16 States†*</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Children who have at least one parent with a postsecondary degree (2014)</td>
<td>44.6</td>
<td>48.1</td>
<td>57.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Children eligible for free and reduced priced lunch (2014)</td>
<td>54.3</td>
<td>50.3</td>
<td>39.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Students who live in rural areas</td>
<td>41.1</td>
<td>20.2</td>
<td>24.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Children and teens (10 to 17) who are overweight or obese (2011)</td>
<td>35.7</td>
<td>31.3</td>
<td>28.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Students with disabilities as a percent of public school enrollment (2014)</td>
<td>14.4</td>
<td>12.9</td>
<td>14.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Limited English proficiency students as a of total enrollment (2014)</td>
<td>2.9</td>
<td>9.3</td>
<td>5.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Children (6 to 17) who missed 11 or more school days due to illness/injury (2011)</td>
<td>8.4</td>
<td>6.2</td>
<td>6.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Children under 17 whose overall health is fair or poor (2011)</td>
<td>3.2</td>
<td>3.2</td>
<td>2.3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

†The top 16 states based on the education index are: CT, IA, MA, MD, ME, MN, ND, NE, NH, NJ, PA, UT, VA, VT, WA & WI.
*These percentages are the averages of the state averages—not a weighted average of the top 16 states.
Kentucky’s 2015 NAEP results show that, on average, an estimated 37 percent of 4th and 8th graders scored proficient or higher on the math, reading, and science exams. With per pupil expenditures of $11,966 (adjusted for cost-of-living differences across the states), Kentucky gets an estimated 3.1 NAEP proficiency percentage points for every $1,000 in per pupil spending. A 2014 report from the U.S. Chamber of Commerce found that Kentucky’s educational return on investment (ROI) was about average. However, the analysis did not account for the relative differences in obstacles to optimal educational performance and/or cost-effective educational spending faced by the states. Using multiple regression analysis to control for the obstacles listed in the table on the facing page, we find that Kentucky and 10 other states perform better than expected. These states achieve higher levels of NAEP proficiency per dollar spent on education (i.e., Educational ROI) than one would expect given the considerable obstacles facing many students. Meanwhile, 9 states perform lower than expected and 30 perform as expected.
The Kentucky Department of Education Kindergarten Readiness Screener data show that only half (50.1%) of the students who entered kindergarten in 2015 were ready when assessed on three scales: academic/cognitive; language development; and physical development. Moreover, children with Limited English Proficiency (26%), those receiving Free or Reduced Price Meals (39.7%), and those with a disability (31.1%) have even lower levels of readiness. Early childhood development programs can help. A 2016 RAND study—*Informing Investments in Preschool Quality and Access in Cincinnati: Evidence of Impacts and Economic Returns from National, State, and Local Preschool Programs*—touts their benefits. “High-quality preschool programs represent a significant investment of resources, but that investment may be paid back through improved outcomes during the school-age years and beyond,” said the authors. They found that “credible estimates of the economic return for full-scale high-quality preschool programs range from about $2 to $4 for every $1 invested.” Similarly, a 2009 CBER study estimated that in Kentucky “the total estimated benefit is more than $5 for every $1 the state would invest in an expanded pre-k program.” According to estimates from the National Institute for Early Education Research, 31.3 percent of Kentucky’s 3- and 4-year-olds are enrolled in public pre-kindergarten programs.

**Estimated Enrollment in Pre-K Programs, Kentucky, Competitor States and the U.S., 2014**

(percent of all children 3- and 4-years-old in public Pre-K, Pre-K special education, & Head Start)

Source: Estimated from *The State of Preschool 2014, State Preschool Yearbook, National Institute for Early Education Research*. Note: These estimates likely include some double-counted children since some Head Start children are likely in State Pre-K programs too.
Less-advantaged students face many obstacles to educational success. On average, students eligible for free- or reduced-priced lunch in Kentucky follow national trends and do not score as high on standardized tests such as NAEP when compared to students who are not eligible; the same is true for Kentucky’s various state-specific assessment tools, such as the Kentucky Performance Rating for Educational Progress (K-PREP). Regardless of the assessment system, less-advantaged students do not perform as well, on average, as more-advantaged students. Researchers at organizations like the Education Trust, for example, have examined the underlying reasons for the achievement gap and identified several systemic causes. A student’s eligibility for the so-called free-lunch program is determined by household income and size. During the 2013-2014 school year, Kentucky ranked above the national average with 54.3 percent of public school students eligible for free- or reduced-priced lunch. The national average is 50.3 percent. Among the 50 states, Mississippi has the highest percentage at 72.2 percent while New Hampshire has the lowest at 27.7 percent.

**Students Eligible for Free or Reduced-Price Lunch, 2013-14, Kentucky, Competitor States, and the U.S.**

(Percent of public school students, school year 2013-14)


Note: WV data is for the 2012-2013 school year
PERFORMANCE ON STANDARDIZED TESTS

The National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP), commonly known as the “Nation’s Report Card,” gauges student progress in a variety of subject areas, including reading, mathematics, and science. Here we present the test results for 4th and 8th graders from 2000 to 2015. The percentages of Kentucky 4th and 8th graders scoring proficient or higher on the NAEP exams have generally increased from the early years, but the 2015 results bring just two bright spots—4th grade reading and 4th grade science. Kentucky 4th grades scored significantly higher than the national average on these two exams. While there are 1 to 4 percentage point differences from 2013 to 2015, none of the 2015 percentages are statistically significantly different from the 2013 results. Kentucky’s 8th graders continue to struggle evidenced by Kentucky’s 8th grade math scores being statistically significantly lower than the national public average for each of the seven NAEP assessments from 2003 to 2015.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Kentucky’s Math, Reading, and Science NAEP Results, Percentage Scoring Proficient or Higher, By Subject, Grade, and Year</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Year</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2002</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2003</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2005</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2007</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2009</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2011</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2013</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2015</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: National Center for Education Statistics (NCES), Institute of Educational Sciences (IES), National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP), Kentucky State Profile.

Note: A dash (–) in the cell indicates that this test was not taken by Kentucky students. An arrow pointed down (↓) next to a number indicates that the percentage is statistically significantly lower than the National public percentage. Conversely, an arrow pointed up (↑) next to a number indicates that the percentage is significantly higher. No arrow indicates that the Kentucky percentage is not significantly different from the National public.
Research published this year by RAND on the economic consequences of the achievement gap in Pennsylvania illustrates the magnitude of these costs for the wider society. In Kentucky, the academic success of disadvantaged children will affect whether the state’s future remains one of disproportionate poverty or gives way to rising prosperity. Economic disadvantage has a significant negative drag on academic performance, and the sheer number of economically disadvantaged students in Kentucky adversely affects overall performance on both state and national tests. Kentucky has the nation’s thirteenth highest population of students eligible for free or reduced-price lunches (54.3%), a reliable proxy for poverty and need. The different outcomes on the National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP) exams are stark. The percentage of students scoring at or above proficiency is consistently and markedly lower for less-advantaged students in every subject area. As evident below in the figure, proficiency levels for less-advantaged students are generally less than half the level of more-advantaged students. Were we to close the substantial academic gaps associated with inequities, Kentucky students would be performing at dramatically higher levels relative to their national peers and our goals for education would be nearly realized.

Kentucky 2015 NAEP Results by Free- and Reduced-Lunch Eligibility
(percent of students scoring at or above proficient)

Source: National Center for Education Statistics
An estimated 20 percent of Kentucky’s recent high school graduates are considered “college ready” in all four of the tested subjects—English, reading, mathematics, and science—down from 21 percent last year. The percentage of students nationally and in the competitor states who are “college ready” in all four subjects is higher than in Kentucky, 26 and 23 percent respectively (these percentages are also down from 2015 when they were 28 and 24 percent). It should be noted that one reason for Kentucky’s lower percentage is that since 2009 state law mandates that every 11th grader take the ACT—even those who have no interest or intention of going to college. In contrast, 81 percent of the graduating class in the competitor states and 64 percent nationally took the ACT in 2016. At 53 percent, Massachusetts has the highest percentage of students “college ready” in all four subjects, but only 28 percent of students took the ACT in 2016.

Source: The Condition of College & Career Readiness, 2016, various state reports, ACT, Inc.
In order to pass an Advanced Placement (AP) examination, a high school student must demonstrate mastery of college-level material. Indeed, many colleges and universities award college credit for students showing AP mastery (scoring 3+ on an exam). With the Education Commission of the States reporting that 19 to 26 percent of college freshmen nationally need remedial courses, it is vitally important for high school students to be challenged academically and perform at a high level. The College Board, which administers the advanced placement program, offers 35 different AP exams each spring on subjects ranging from Art History to Calculus to Macroeconomics. In 2015, there were 1.1 million U.S. public high school graduates who had taken an AP exam at some point, with 666,610 scoring a 3 or higher. Of the roughly 3 million high school graduates in 2015, 22.4 percent demonstrated mastery on an AP exam. This is a substantial increase from the 10.2 percent in 2000. Kentucky’s students have also increased their performance on AP exams over the years, from 5.5 percent in 2000 to 19 percent in 2015. Despite this increase, Kentucky still lags behind the competitor states’ 19.6 percent, but the gap has narrowed considerably. Maryland had the highest percentage of students in the class of 2015 scoring a 3 or higher on an AP exam during high school—31.7 percent. Mississippi, at 5.8 percent, was the lowest.

![Graph showing the percentage of high school students scoring 3+ on AP exams, Kentucky, Competitor States, and the U.S., 2000-2015.](attachment:image)

Source: College Board, AP Report to the Nation, various years, and the AP Cohort Data, Graduating Class, various years.
Kentucky’s labor force increasingly competes in a global environment that demands rising levels of educational attainment. At a minimum, today’s workers need a high school diploma. Following the education reforms of the early 1990s, Kentucky’s adult population (25 and older) made significant gains, as the portion with a high school diploma or higher rose from 65 percent in 1990 to 85 percent in 2015. At the same time, the nation improved to 87.2 percent, which is a statistically significant difference from Kentucky’s 85 percent. Looking just at those individuals 25 to 54—the prime working age group—Kentucky’s 88.4 percent is the same as the U.S. average of 88.5 percent, but trails the competitor state average of 89.3 percent—a statistically significant difference. Among the competitor states, Mississippi, Alabama, and Georgia have statistically significantly lower rates, while the six highest states are statistically significantly higher; South Carolina, North Carolina, and Tennessee are statistically the same as Kentucky. Among all states, 32 are higher, 9 are lower, and 8 are statically the same as Kentucky. California has the lowest high school graduation rate (83.1%) and North Dakota has the highest (95.7%).

![High School Graduate or Higher, Kentucky, Competitor States and the U.S., 2015](chart.png)

Source: 2015 American Community Survey 1-Year Estimate

Note: CS is the weighted average of the competitor states.
High-school graduation rates hit a new high of 83.2% in the U.S. in the 2014-15 academic year, according to the Department of Education, continuing a five-year trend of gains in a basic and fundamental credential for gaining employment and access to higher education and training. According to a White House press release, these graduation rates “show progress for all reported groups of students, including students of color, low-income students, students with disabilities, and English learners. Black, Hispanic, and Native American students continued to narrow the gap between their graduation rates and those of their white peers, even as all groups made progress...” There are important economic consequences of dropping out of high school—for the individual, of course, but also for the wider community. The U.S. Department of Education data shown in the figure below are the latest data for the competitor states and Kentucky, which are for the 2014-2015 school year. As one can see by the figure, Kentucky is well positioned among the competitor states with an 88 percent adjusted cohort graduation rate (ACGR). At 90.8 percent, Iowa has the highest ACGR in the country while New Mexico has the lowest at 68.6 percent.

Graduation Rate, 2014-2015 School Year,
Kentucky, Competitor States, and the U.S.
(four-year regulatory adjusted cohort graduation rate)
Kentucky workers face growing competition for low-wage, low-skill jobs, and increasingly for high-skill jobs. Today, any “routine” job and a growing number of high-skill jobs can be automated and outsourced. Competition in such an environment requires providing something that others cannot. That “something” will come from workers who have high levels of education and skill. Essentially, the rigors of the global economy require creative, highly-skilled, college-educated workers. Since 1990, Kentucky has made important progress, as the proportion of adults 25 and older with a four-year degree or higher climbed from 13.6 percent to 23 percent in 2015; by comparison, the U.S. percentage in 2015 was 30.7. Among prime working age adults 25 to 54, however, the state continues to significantly lag the competitor states and the nation in educational attainment at the college level—25.6 percent for Kentucky compared to 31.5 and 33 percent for the competitor states and U.S. respectively. Virtually all of the competitor states are statistically significantly higher than Kentucky. Alabama is statistically no different from Kentucky, but Mississippi and West Virginia are significantly lower. Massachusetts has the highest rate in the U.S. (46.3%) and West Virginia the lowest (21.5%). Nationally 38 states have statistically significantly higher rates than Kentucky while 4 are lower (7 states are statistically the same as Kentucky).

Bachelor's Degree or Higher, Kentucky, Competitor States and the U.S., 2015
(percent of individuals 25 to 54 years old)

Source: 2015 American Community Survey 1-Year Estimates
Note: CS is the weighted average of the competitor states.
There are five Kentucky counties where the percentage of the population with a bachelor’s degree or higher (using the 2011-2015 five-year estimate) exceeds the U.S. average of 29.7 percent. These five counties anchor the so-called urban triangle—Fayette (41.2%), Oldham (39.4%), Woodford (32.9%), Jefferson (31.5%), and Boone (30.8%). There are thirteen counties that are above the Kentucky average of 22.3 percent but below the U.S. average—ranging from Boyle County’s 22.6 percent to Campbell County’s at 29.1 percent. Kentucky’s remaining 102 counties are below the Kentucky average, with several in the single digits. It is extremely difficult for any geographic region—whether a city, a county, a state, or a country—to be globally competitive without a skilled and educated population.
ASSOCIATE’S DEGREES

The associate’s degree is a terminal degree for many people, while others use it as a springboard toward a bachelor’s degree. Regardless, CBER analysis done in 2015 on the economic and societal benefits of postsecondary education shows that an individual with an associate’s degree or a bachelor’s degree will, on average, have higher income, less unemployment, and better health outcomes—to name a few of the benefits afforded by higher education—than someone with lower levels of education. The percentage of prime working age adults between 25 and 54 years old in Kentucky with an associate’s degree is 9.1 percent. Among the competitor states, several are statistically significantly higher (i.e., MS, NC, OH, SC, & IN) while Georgia, Virginia, and Tennessee are significantly lower. The rest of the competitor states (i.e., AL, IL, MO, & WV), the weighted average of the competitor states (9.1%), and the U.S. (9%) are not statistically significantly different from Kentucky. Nationally 21 states are higher, 10 are lower, and 18 are statistically the same as Kentucky. Maryland is the lowest at 7 percent and North Dakota is the highest at 16.6 percent.

Source: 2015 American Community Survey 1-Year Estimates
Note: CS is the weighted average of the competitor states.
SCIENCE AND ENGINEERING GRADUATES

Staying competitive in the global economy depends upon many things—including continuous innovation in products and services. An essential element for innovation is having a high-skilled workforce with science, technology, engineering, and mathematics (STEM) training and expertise. This point was reinforced by the November 2013 BEAM report, Seizing the Manufacturing Moment: An Economic Growth Plan for the Bluegrass Economic Advancement Movement. While remaining substantially below the competitor states and the U.S., the total number of science and engineering degrees conferred per 1,000 individuals 20 to 24 years old in Kentucky has increased since 1997—from 8.1 per 1,000 individuals in this age group to 12. By comparison, the competitor states (17.4) and the U.S. (18.2) awarded significantly more STEM-designated bachelor’s degrees in 2015. Since the trough of the Great Recession in 2009 the percentage increase in these numbers is greater in the U.S. (37%) and the competitor states (35%) than in Kentucky (26%).

STEM-Designated Bachelor’s Degrees Awarded, Kentucky, Competitor States, and the U.S., 1997-2015
(total degrees conferred per 1,000 individuals 20-24 years old)

Source: Author’s analysis of Integrated Postsecondary Education Data System (IPEDS) data using 2013 designated CIP Codes to identify STEM degrees & U.S. Census data for population estimates
Economists and other researchers have long demonstrated the relationship between education and earnings. Many Kentuckians worry that higher education only pays off if they leave home and move to the metropolitan areas of the state. The figure below examines how family income is affected by the education level of the head of the household in four different regions of the state: the Urban Triangle, Western Kentucky, Eastern Kentucky, and South Central Kentucky. Using data from the American Community Survey (ACS) for the years 2009-2013, statistical methods were implemented to isolate the impact of education on earnings from the many other known factors such as age and gender which affect earnings as well. A family where the head of the household has an Associate’s degree has 29% higher total income than a family where the householder is a high school graduate; this trend is present in all four regions of Kentucky. Even more striking, earning a Bachelor’s degree leads to a 56% higher family income than the family headed by a high school graduate. The biggest impact on average family income can be seen in Eastern Kentucky, where income jumps from $40,100 to $70,100 per year when the head of household has a high school diploma and Bachelor’s degree, respectively.

Source: Education Pays Everywhere!, CBER Issue Brief, October 2015
EMPLOYMENT BY EDUCATION

While it is well known that a positive relationship exists between educational attainment and earnings for those who are in the labor market, an important part of how education impacts the well-being of families in Kentucky is the access to employment that it provides. Looking at unemployment rates between 2009 and 2013 for the state of Kentucky, the graph below shows the variation of unemployment rates for the entire state and also by level of education. The official rates, reported by the Bureau of Labor Statistics (BLS), are computed at a monthly level. This is compared to the American Community Survey (ACS) data which is an annual estimate designed so that researchers can examine economic and demographic characteristics of the population at the national, state, and local levels. According to the ACS and BLS data, the approximate unemployment rate in 2013 was in the range of 8.0 to 8.3 percent. In this same year, the rate of unemployment was highest for individuals with a high school diploma (9.9%) and lowest for citizens with a Bachelor’s degree (3.9%). Overall, one can conclude from the graph that those with a college degree face a much lower unemployment rate than those with only a high school diploma.

Source: *Want a Job? Get a College Degree, CBER Issue Brief, October 2015*
Volunteer Rate by Education

In the Community section of this report we present data on volunteer rates for Kentucky, its competitor states, and the U.S., and discuss some of the social and economic benefits that result from high levels of community service and volunteerism. In the figure below we present volunteer rates for Kentucky, its competitor states, and the U.S. for four broad education groups: individuals with less than a high school degree, individuals with a high school degree only, individuals with some college (including associates degrees), and individuals with at least a bachelor’s degree. The percentages below reflect the net effect of education on volunteering while holding other factors constant, such as income, gender, race, urbanity, and age. Kentucky’s volunteer rates shown in the figure are consistent with the U.S. and competitor states for all of the education categories. There is, in addition, a clear and consistent relationship between increasing education levels and higher rates of volunteerism. Individuals with a bachelor’s degree volunteer at a significantly higher rate than those with less education. This is important given the social and economic benefits realized from volunteer activities.

Volunteer Rate by Education, 2015
Kentucky, Competitor States and the U.S.
(net effect of educational attainment, ages 25 and older, percentage)

Source: Author’s analysis of September 2015 Current Population Survey (CPS) Volunteer Supplement data
Research shows that because the Internet permeates so many aspects of our lives, access to and use of it appear to be increasingly important for anyone becoming politically informed, socially integrated, and economically successful in the Information Age. Studies suggest that “Internet use increases employment and income, enhances consumer welfare, and promotes civic engagement,” (NTIA, 2013), and that enhancing the nation’s broadband infrastructure can improve innovation, entrepreneurship, and productivity. The importance of high-speed Internet access promises to become even more important in the future as online education becomes more firmly rooted. Recent analysis conducted by CBER shows that the independent effect of education (holding income, gender, age, race, and urbanity constant) is strong. For example, individuals in Kentucky with a Bachelor’s degree or higher have a much higher probability of accessing the Internet (87%), ranging from locations such as home, work, school, library, cafe, a friend’s house or some other place, than someone with a high school diploma (67%). This relationship is consistent across all levels of education and all geographic regions shown.

Source: Estimated by the author using CPS July 2015 Computer and Internet Supplement data
Health by Education

Higher levels of education are generally associated with healthier behaviors and lower rates of chronic diseases. We analyzed data from the Behavioral Risk Factor Surveillance System (BRFSS) to explore these relationships. These data represent a comprehensive sample of Kentuckians and provide information on the prevalence of these conditions. Our models control for other factors, such as race, gender, age, and employment, and estimate differences in diagnosis rates for four important chronic diseases or symptoms: heart attack, angina, stroke, and diabetes. For each of these four diseases or symptoms, the rates are lower among those with college degrees. Individuals with a college degree reduce their rates of heart attack by 40%, angina by 20%, stroke by 28%, and diabetes by 27% compared to those with a high school diploma. Our models indicate that if Kentucky could increase the rates of Associate’s and Bachelor’s degrees each by only 1 percentage point, we would reduce rates of heart attack and stroke by 0.3 percentage points, and diabetes by 0.1 percentage points. This could result in a cost savings of over $6 million annually. By achieving education attainment rates comparable to the rest of the U.S., Kentuckians could save nearly $200 million annually in health care related costs. The results are clear: higher levels of education lead to better health outcomes.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Disease</th>
<th>High School</th>
<th>Associate’s</th>
<th>Bachelor’s</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Heart Attack</td>
<td>6.7%</td>
<td>6.4%</td>
<td>6.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Angina</td>
<td>4.0%</td>
<td>5.2%</td>
<td>4.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stroke</td>
<td>3.4%</td>
<td>2.9%</td>
<td>3.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Diabetes</td>
<td>4.1%</td>
<td>4.1%</td>
<td>4.1%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Education for Your Health!, CBER Issue Brief, October 2015
In Kentucky, the percentage of high school graduates who are the head of a household and at least 25 years old receiving SNAP benefits (the Supplemental Nutrition Assistance Program previously known as Food Stamps), Medicaid health benefits, Supplemental Security Income (SSI), or some other form of public assistance income is ten times higher than those with a bachelor’s degree or higher. For example, as illustrated below, the percentage of Kentucky high school graduates (household head and 25 or older) participating in SNAP is 18 percent compared to 3.5 percent for those with a 4-year college degree. Importantly, this relationship—higher levels of educational attainment associated with lower levels of public assistance program participation—holds across a range of public assistance programs including, of course, those shown in the chart but not limited to these three programs. Research done, for example, by the College Board and RAND shows a robust relationship across several public assistance programs, such as the National School Lunch Program, Unemployment Insurance, and various housing programs. Our research estimates show that the SNAP, SSI, and Medicaid participation rates all decline as education levels increase (while holding other factors constant). In short, investing in education reduces the need and usage of public assistance programs.
A positive relationship exists between educational attainment and earnings, which has been well established in the literature through multiple studies. This, in turn, influences the revenues generated for the state of Kentucky through the personal income tax. The graph below presents a summary of the overall estimates for Kentucky, which shows the percentage of households by education level and the share of state income tax revenues remitted by each level. Families headed by someone without any type of college degree contribute about 22 percent of total personal income tax revenues while making up 44 percent of total households. In contrast, families headed by someone with an Associate’s degree contribute approximately 8 percent of the personal income tax revenues, while making up only 7 percent of all households. Most importantly, families headed by a person with a Bachelor’s degree make up only 13 percent of households, but contribute 25 percent of the total state income tax revenue. The 9 percent of families headed by someone with graduate or professional degrees contribute 22 percent of total state income tax revenue. Individuals with a college degree comprise 30 percent of the overall population in Kentucky but generate over 50 percent of the state income tax revenue. Adding in those individuals with some college, these numbers jump to almost 60 percent and over 75 percent, respectively.

Source: How to Raise State Revenue without Raising Taxes, CBER Issue Brief, October 2015
Crime impacts the lives of Kentuckians in myriad ways. It has direct costs to victims and indirect costs through property values and business activity. Data from the Uniform Crime Reporting Program Data Series (UCR) were used (2000-2012), as well as data from the Bureau of Economic Analysis (BEA), to estimate the relationship between higher education and crime. The results were derived using statistical techniques that isolate how changes within a county in the education level will impact the crime rate. The models focus on the total crime rate, violent crime rate, and property crime rate for counties in the state of Kentucky. The average rate of violent crime for the state of Kentucky across this time was 0.15 percent, or 15 violent crimes per 10,000 people. The average property crime rate was 0.29 percent, or 29 property crimes per 10,000 people. The figure below presents the model estimates of how predicted crime rates would change as 1 percent of the people in a county were to move from having a high school diploma to either some college (typically an Associate’s degree) or a Bachelor’s degree (or higher). By moving 1 percent of the population into a Bachelor’s degree, violent crime could be reduced by about 1 crime per 10,000 people.

![Estimated Reduction in Kentucky Crime Rates by Educational Attainment](image)

*Source: Crime and Punishment and Education, CBER Issue Brief, October 2015*
HE IMPLICATIONS OF A shifting energy landscape will be felt now and in the future as the Kentucky economy and labor markets are compelled to adapt and react. For example, Toyota, which employs approximately 8,000 in Scott County, is encouraging its manufacturing plants to use increasing amounts of renewable and hydrogen energy as it pursues Environmental Challenge 2050, its corporate-level plan of zero CO$_2$ emissions. Toyota is not alone. Some of the largest corporate employers in Kentucky—GE, UPS, Ford, Walmart—have environmental and energy plans to reduce greenhouse gases and use more renewable energy. Business is embracing “green,” and the role that coal will play in the future is expected to diminish. According to the 2040 forecast presented in the World Energy Outlook 2016: “Globally, renewable energy ... sees by far the fastest growth. Natural gas fares best among the fossil fuels, with consumption rising by 50%. Growth in oil demand slows over the projection period, but tops 103 million barrels per day (mb/d) by 2040. Coal use is hit hard by environmental concerns and, after the rapid expansion of recent years, growth essentially grinds to a halt.” According to a 2015 Brookings policy brief, coal-fired generation is on the decline in the United States, dropping from 44 percent of the total share of electricity generation in March 2011 to 34 percent in April 2012. And the Energy Information Administration is forecasting that coal’s share will decline to 32 percent by 2040. The bottom line is this: long-term forecasts by the private and public sectors predict that coal will continue to play a significant role in the global energy mix for decades to come, but is trending down due to market forces and environmental concerns. The changing economics of the coal industry have been widely publicized. Cheaper sources of energy, like natural gas and renewables, more stringent air-quality regulations, and weaker-than-expected demand for coal in Asia are leading to decreases in the amount of coal produced in Kentucky. Statewide coal production declined in 2015 to 61.4 million tons, a 21 percent decrease from 2014; this marks the lowest level of recorded annual production since 1954. Affordable coal-fired electricity has allowed Kentucky to attract energy-intensive industries, but this will change in the future. As coal plays a lesser role in providing energy, so too will its impact in the economy. And while we are acutely aware of the coal mining job losses, the state’s manufacturing sector—which employs nearly 250,000—could also be affected as Kentucky’s competitive advantage of lower industrial electricity costs is dampened as coal declines.
Energy consumption is categorized into four broad sectors: industrial, commercial, residential, and transportation. Industry consumes the bulk of energy in Kentucky, accounting for 37 percent of the total consumption (2014). As noted in the Kentucky Department for Energy Development and Independence, 2015 Energy Profile, our state has large manufacturing operations like General Electric, Ford, and Toyota, as well as other “energy-intensive manufacturing processes including; aluminum smelting, iron and steel mills, paper mills, chemical production, and glass manufacturing.” By comparison, industrial consumption by the competitor states and the U.S. as a percentage of total energy consumption is 30 and 32 percent, respectively. The transportation sector in Kentucky is the second largest consumer of energy, accounting for 25 percent, compared to 26 and 27 percent in the competitor states and the U.S. The residential sector in Kentucky, the competitor states, and the U.S., consumes 22, 25, and 22 percent. And while the commercial sector in Kentucky accounts for only 15 percent, it represents 19 and 18 percent of total energy consumption for the competitor states and the U.S. Broadly speaking these distributions suggest that public policies affecting energy usage will be disproportionately felt in Kentucky by industrial users.

Kentucky Energy Consumption by End-Use Sector, 2014

Source: U.S. Energy Information Administration, State Energy Data System
Of the four broad energy sources used in Kentucky—coal, natural gas, petroleum, and renewables—coal accounts for half of the total consumption, 50 percent (2014). This percentage has been fairly stable since (at least) 2011 when it was 52 percent. While the chart below represents energy consumption for all uses, Kentucky relies heavily on coal for electricity generation. According to the Kentucky Department for Energy Development and Independence, 2015 Energy Profile, “Of the electricity generated in Kentucky in 2014, 92 percent was derived through the combustion of coal.” This is expected to change, however, given the many factors affecting coal usage, such as federal environmental regulations, aging coal generators, and low natural gas prices. The upshot is that Kentucky will become increasingly dependent upon natural gas for future electricity generation. By comparison, coal consumption by the competitor states and the U.S. as a percentage of total energy consumption is 27 and 18 percent, respectively, and is declining. Natural gas is about 14 percent in Kentucky, but much higher and rising in the U.S. (28%) as well as in the competitor states (23%). The competitor states and the U.S.—as well as Kentucky—are moving away from coal and toward natural gas.

**Kentucky Energy Consumption by Source, 2014**
(consumption by fuel type)

- Coal, 50%
- Natural Gas, 14%
- Petroleum, 31%
- Renewables, 5%

*Source: U.S. Energy Information Administration, State Energy Data 2014, Consumption*
The vast majority of Kentucky coal is used to generate electricity. Of the 77.4 million tons of Kentucky coal produced in 2014, roughly 70 million tons was distributed domestically among the four categories shown below: electric power sector; coke plant; commercial & institutional; and industrial plants (excluding coke). A small amount of Kentucky coal is exported out of the country—roughly 4.4 million tons—and the rest is thought to be stockpiled. Of the Kentucky produced coal that was consumed domestically in 2014, it is estimated that 90 percent went toward electric power generation. However, for a variety of reasons, electrical power plants are moving away from coal and toward natural gas as a fuel source (see the next page), and this has been a major factor in the decline of Kentucky’s coal industry.

### Kentucky Coal Distribution, 2014
(domestic consumption by end-user type)

- **Electric Power Sector**: 90%
- **Coke Plant**: 1%
- **Commercial/Institutional**: 0.4%
- **Industrial Plants (excluding Coke)**: 8%

*Source: U.S. Energy Information Administration, Annual Coal Distribution Report 2014*
Natural Gas Supplanting Coal

The use of natural gas to produce electricity—and the concomitant decline in the use of coal—has been going on for nearly 20 years. In 1988 coal accounted for about 57 percent of the total megawatt hours generated and natural gas accounted for just over 9 percent. This was the high point for coal and the low point for natural gas when viewed over the 66 year period from 1949 to 2015. Since 1988, coal has been declining and natural gas has been increasing, as is readily evident by the line chart below. Currently, we are at a watershed moment for coal. For the first time, natural gas is expected to supplant coal as the principal source of fuel for generating electricity in the United States. The fracking boom has made natural gas a more financially attractive source of fuel for generating electricity. Relatively cheap natural gas, the rising importance of renewable sources, which currently accounts for about 13 percent of total net electricity generation in the U.S., and the mounting environmental concerns surrounding coal-fired power plants, are making fundamental changes to the global energy market—which, of course, are being felt in Kentucky’s coal regions.

Source: Energy Information Administration, State Energy Data System
Note: Percentages for 2016 and 2017 are forecasts
COAL PRODUCTION

The changing economics of the coal industry have been widely publicized. Cheaper sources of energy, like natural gas and renewables, more stringent air-quality regulations, and weaker-than-expected demand for coal in Asia are leading to decreases in the amount of coal produced in Kentucky. Statewide coal production declined in 2015 to 61.4 million tons, a 21 percent decrease from 2014; this marks the lowest level of recorded annual production since 1954. The high point of coal production in the state was in 1990 when 179 million tons was mined in 40 Eastern and Western Kentucky counties. Coal production has been declining since that time, evidenced by the 2015 production total as well as the lower number of counties (25) reporting some level of production. The map below shows the 1990 and 2015 production levels, with every county except three—Lawrence, McLean, and Ohio—experiencing a decline over that 25-year period. As is evident by the map, the declines in the Eastern Kentucky counties have been much steeper than those experienced in Western Kentucky. The decline in coal production has continued into 2016 with coal production down in the first three quarters 35 percent compared to the first three quarters of 2015.

Kentucky Coal Production, by County, 1990 & 2015

MINING & COAL

As of July 1, 2016, an estimated 6,465 persons were employed at Kentucky coal mines—the lowest level recorded since 1898 when there were an average of 6,399 coal miners. While Kentucky mines a significant amount of coal in both Western and Eastern Kentucky, the bulk of the job losses have been in Eastern Kentucky. When viewed within the context of the state’s wider economy, mining employment and coal mining employment are 0.93% and 0.4% of total employment, respectively. Similarly, mining production accounts for 1.9% of Kentucky’s gross domestic product. While the effects of declining production and loss of jobs are small relative to the size of the state’s overall economy, the communities where these jobs are concentrated have been hit extremely hard. According to the latest employment numbers from the Kentucky Energy and Environment Cabinet, in the second quarter of 2016 (April to June), coal mining employment was 3,764 in Eastern Kentucky and 2,701 in Western Kentucky. These employment numbers include all employees engaged in production, preparation, processing, development, maintenance, repair, shop or yard work at mining operations, mining operations management and all technical and engineering personnel; it does not include office workers.

Source: Bureau of Economic Analysis & Energy Information Administration, Annual Coal Report, various years, and Kentucky Coal Facts, various years
Kentucky has an energy intensive economy. To generate $1 in state gross domestic product, Kentucky consumes about 9,390 Btu (2014). By comparison, the U.S. average is around 5,710 Btu and the competitor state average is 6,700 Btu. This difference is driven, in part, by Kentucky’s larger than average manufacturing sector, which, of course, depends greatly upon energy as a production input. One implication of this higher dependence on energy as an economic input is that, compared to most of the competitor states, Kentucky’s economy is more sensitive to energy prices.

**Energy Consumption per GDP**

Energy Consumption per Real Dollar of GDP, 2014, Kentucky, Competitor States, and the U.S. *(thousand Btu per 2014 dollar)*

Source: Calculated using data from the U.S. Energy Information Administration and Bureau of Economic Analysis.
Energy Efficiency

This variable is an indicator of energy efficiency and conservation. It is the number of megawatt hours of electricity sold to all customers; it is inclusive of residential, commercial, industrial, and transportation sales and customers. It is not a perfect measure of energy efficiency, since it is affected by the industrial mix in a state. If we limited this to only residential sales and customers, then Kentucky’s energy usage/efficiency improves somewhat when compared to the competitor states and the U.S. For example, while Kentucky has the second highest usage when including all sales and customers (see below, comparing competitor states only), it is the seventh highest when only examining residential usage/efficiency. Kentucky’s megawatt usage per residential customer is 13.4 (in thousands of megawatt hours), which is below Tennessee (15.0), the highest competitor state; Illinois is the lowest competitor state using the residential measure (8.6). The residential only competitor state average is 12.4 while the U.S. average is 10.8—both lower than Kentucky’s residential per customer usage. Part of the reason for Kentucky’s higher-than-average per customer usage at the residential level is surely due to the state’s relatively low electricity costs.

Megawatt Hours per Energy Consumer, 2015, Kentucky, Competitor States, and the U.S.
(thousands of megawatt hours)

Source: Calculated using data from the U.S. Energy Information Administration
INDUSTRIAL ELECTRICITY COSTS

Frequently cited as an important factor to recruit new industries to Kentucky as well as keep existing industries competitive, electricity prices here are consistently below the U.S. and competitor state averages. Kentucky’s industrial rates are lower because of an abundance of coal and coal-fired power plants in the state and region. However, the average retail price of electricity to industrial customers increased in Kentucky by 96 percent from its nadir of 2.8 cents in 1997 to 5.5 cents in 2015. As prices have increased so too have the worries that Kentucky is losing its comparative advantage in low-cost utility rates; price increases for the U.S. and competitor states during the same time period have been about 50-52 percent compared to Kentucky’s 96 percent. Nonetheless, in 1990 Kentucky had the seventh lowest industrial rate in the country and in 2015 the fifth lowest—trailing only Louisiana, Montana, Oklahoma, and Washington. And among the competitor states Kentucky’s industrial rates are the lowest. Kentucky’s annual rate in 2014—at 5.5 cents per kilowatt-hour—was well below the U.S. (6.9) and competitor states (6.4).

Source: U.S. Energy Information Administration
RESIDENTIAL ELECTRICITY COSTS

According to the U.S. Census Bureau, Consumer Expenditure Survey, the typical “consumer unit” had $55,978 in average annual expenditures in 2015—with annual electricity expenses of $1,460. In the South Region of the U.S.—where Kentucky and eight of the competitor states are located—average annual expenditures were $52,020 and annual electricity expenses were $1,759. Electricity costs range in these two examples from 2.6 to 3.4 percent of total expenditures. Using data from the U.S. Energy Information Administration, residential average monthly electricity bills, among the competitor states, ranged from a low of $90 in Illinois to a high of $144 in South Carolina. At $115, Kentucky’s average monthly bill is virtually the same as the U.S. average. Like industrial customers of electricity, Kentucky’s residential customers enjoy somewhat lower rates than most competitor states.

Source: U.S. Energy Information Administration
The typical American “consumer unit,” what most would consider the average household, spent $55,978 on various products and services in 2015 according to the Consumer Expenditure Survey; “gasoline and motor oil” accounted for $2,090 of the total—about 3.7 percent of the total; this represents a decline from the 5.1 percent in 2013 and 4.6 percent in 2014. In 2015 the average price for a gallon of gas in the U.S. was about the same as it was a decade earlier (in constant 2015 dollars).

Source: Energy Information Administration, State Energy Data System
PUBLIC POLICY DEBATES about the current and future status of Kentucky’s coal industry illustrate the connections between the economy, the environment, and global energy markets—including the tensions between them. The Shaping Our Appalachian Region (SOAR) initiative to rejuvenate the Eastern Kentucky economy in the wake of the precipitous decline of the coal industry, illustrates in its *Regional Blueprint for Economic Growth* how we are forced to reckon with, and ultimately reconcile, what can be competing policy objectives. The Blueprint calls for an increase in natural resource extraction and establishing the region as a tourism destination. Our economic development policies and practices can, and do, affect the quality of the air, water, land, and other environmental assets of the state. At the same time, a body of literature has emerged demonstrating how community amenities, such as a clean and beautiful environment, can be used as a tool for attracting and retaining entrepreneurs and innovators—who can also be job creators. Environmental regulations are important considerations for CEOs exploring sites for industrial expansion or relocation—but so are “quality of life” considerations, which might include a clean environment. For example, choosing from a list of 28 different factors, ranging from labor costs to environmental regulations, the single most important factor for respondents to the latest *Annual Survey of Corporate Executives and Consultants on Site Selection* was the availability of skilled labor, evidenced by 93 percent ranking it as either “important” or “very important.” By comparison, “environmental regulations” ranked 14th on the list at 70 percent while “quality of life” factors ranked 3rd at 88 percent. At a time when the broad-based threats to the environment resulting from climate change appear to be gaining traction as an important public-policy issue around the globe, the typical Kentuckian is breathing cleaner air, drinking cleaner water, and being more responsible with solid waste than ever before. Our state still has areas that are currently designated nonattainment or marginal areas for all criteria pollutants by the U.S. Environmental Protection Agency (EPA), compares poorly to competitor states and the U.S. on the level of cancer-causing toxic releases, and is allowing a larger portion of out-of-state solid waste disposal to be dumped in our landfills, but many of the environmental quality trends are moving in a positive direction.
SOLID WASTE

Beginning in 2002, state law required waste haulers and recycling haulers to register and report to each county in which they provide service, thereby providing data on the number of households that participate in municipal solid waste collection (MSW). The 2015 statewide household participation rate for MSW collection was 85.2 percent. The Kentucky Division of Waste Management (DWM) estimates that another 5-10 percent of households either legally self-haul their waste to transfer stations or are otherwise not counted in these numbers because they use dumpsters in multi-unit housing complexes. Consequently, the real percentage of households participating in municipal solid waste collections is likely 90 to 95 percent according to the DWM. The remaining 5 to 10 percent of households are thought to illegally dump their waste.

Source: Kentucky Division of Waste Management Annual Reports, various years
According to the Kentucky Division of Waste Management, Kentuckians recycled 36.6 percent of common household recyclables in 2015 (e.g., aluminum, cardboard, steel, plastic, newspaper, glass, and paper), a 1 percentage point decline from a year earlier. As one can see in the figure, the percentage of generated waste that is recycled has climbed steadily over the last two decades. And, according to the U.S. Environmental Protection Agency (EPA), Americans generated about 254 million tons of trash in 2013 and recycled (or composted) approximately 87 million tons of this material—resulting in a 34.3 percent recycling rate. Americans generate around of 4.40 pounds of individual waste per person each day and recycled or composted 1.5 pounds of it. Kentucky was slow to the recycling movement, but has gathered momentum supporting this initiative, now matching the U.S. average.

(As a Percentage of Waste Generated in Kentucky)

Source: Kentucky Division of Waste Management, Annual Report, Fiscal Year 2016
AIR QUALITY

The Kentucky Division for Air Quality reports that Kentuckians are breathing cleaner, healthier air. The Division points out that “this improvement is a direct result of reduced air pollution. For example, emissions of sulfur dioxide (SO2) from Kentucky coal-fired power plants totaled 1.5 million tons in 1976. In 2015, those emissions had dropped to 131,696 tons – a remarkable 91 percent reduction.” The Division notes that the “decrease is all the more dramatic considering Kentucky’s population and economy have grown significantly during that same time period. New air pollution control technologies, improved vehicle fuel economy, and a growing emphasis on energy efficiency have all contributed to cleaner air.” The pollutants shown in the figure below are Ozone (O3), Sulfur Dioxide (SO2), and Nitrogen Dioxide (NO2). While individual pollutants oscillate from year to year, overall the trend shows a decline in pollution levels from 1984 to 2014. The pollutants are shown in terms of parts per million (ppm). Other important air pollutants, expressed in both parts per million and micrograms per cubic meter (µ/m³) are shown on the facing page. This graph shows generalized pollution trends through time. It does not show trends for specific sites nor does it demonstrate attainment for any particular area. While individual pollutants may spike in certain years, overall trends show declines in pollution levels.

Source: Kentucky Energy and Environment Cabinet, Division for Air Quality

Kentucky Air Quality Trends, 1983 to 2015
(O3, SO2, NO2)

Source: Kentucky Energy and Environment Cabinet, Division for Air Quality
As noted on the facing page, the Kentucky Division for Air Quality reports that Kentucky’s air is getting cleaner. The pollutants shown in the figure below are Carbon Monoxide (CO), Particulate Matter (PM$_{10}$), Fine Particulate Matter (PM$_{2.5}$). And, just like with Ozone (O$_3$), Sulfur Dioxide (SO$_2$), and Nitrogen Dioxide (NO$_2$) shown on the previous page, the pollutants in the graph below have been declining gradually over the time period shown. This graph shows generalized pollution trends through time. It does not show trends for specific sites nor does it demonstrate attainment for any particular area. While individual pollutants may spike in certain years, overall trends show declines in pollution levels.

Source: Kentucky Energy and Environment Cabinet, Division for Air Quality
TOXIC RELEASES

Toxic pollutants can cause cancer or other serious health effects, such as reproductive or birth defects, as well as adverse ecological and environmental consequences. The Environmental Protection Agency (EPA) provides data to help communities identify chemical disposal facilities and other toxic release patterns that warrant public vigilance. Combined with hazard and exposure information, these data can be valuable in risk identification. Given that toxic releases are often byproducts of the manufacturing process, it is not surprising that Kentucky, which is home to an above-average manufacturing base, reported 14.1 pounds of toxic releases per capita in 2015, an estimate that exceeds the national average (10.5 pounds) and most peer states. Kentucky, however, lags behind the competitor states of Mississippi (21.7), Indiana (20.6), Alabama (17.6), and West Virginia (17.1).

Note: CS is the weighted average of the competitor states.)
Lead poisoning has serious health consequences. According to the Mayo Clinic, “Exposure to even low levels of lead can cause damage over time, especially in children. The greatest risk is to brain development, where irreversible damage may occur. Higher levels can damage the kidneys and nervous system in both children and adults. Very high lead levels may cause seizures, unconsciousness and possibly death.” Using a method developed by epidemiologists from the Washington State Department of Public Health, we produced a county-level map of Kentucky showing the estimated relative risk for lead exposure. This method, which has been widely embraced by environmental health experts associated with the Center for Disease Control and the American Public Health Association, uses two variables to assign relative risk: the age of the houses (which predicts the likelihood of lead paint) and poverty; the environmental health literature finds that kids are more likely to come into contact with lead in older houses and that living in conditions of poverty elevates the risk. Risk levels are not uniform within a county; that is, not everyone in Jefferson County will be at the highest level of risk. Likewise, not everyone in Warren County will be at the lowest level. Instead, the map illustrates the estimated average lead risk level at the county level.

The health of individuals is affected by many factors, including individual behaviors regarding diet and exercise, but also community characteristics. In this chapter we present information on the social determinants of health—the underlying factors that affect the overall health of a population—as well as data on the health outcomes of Kentuckians.

The U.S. Department of Health and Human Services advances a “place-based” framework under the auspices of the Healthy People 2020 initiative to explain and understand the factors affecting health outcomes. This framework includes five principal areas that constitute the social determinants of health: economic stability; education; social and community context; health and health care; and neighborhood and built environment. Using 24 separate factors organized into these five categories, we estimate the strength of the social determinants of health at the county level. Together, these factors reflect critical elements in our social and physical environments that affect individual health. Counties in Central and Western Kentucky show the best outcomes, with less favorable outcomes in Eastern Kentucky. The state’s health shortcomings are well known. For example, America’s Health Rankings 2015, which delineates our high rates of chronic disease, disability, and health care costs, ranks the state 44th. Another 2015 report, this one released by The Commonwealth Fund, Aiming Higher: Results from a Scorecard on State Health System Performance, 2015 Edition, puts Kentucky in the bottom quartile of states in an assessment of health system performance; this study uses 42 indicators to measure access to and quality of health care, as well as the prevalence of healthy behaviors. High smoking (26%) and obesity (35%) lead to higher risk levels for chronic disease (68%). In addition, the Kentucky has the second highest disability rate in the country among working-age adults 18 to 64 years old, 15.7 percent compared to 10.4 percent for the U.S. And generally speaking, Kentucky’s health behaviors and health outcomes are worse than both the competitor states as a group, as well as the U.S. overall. These health outcomes have consequences, including higher rates of premature death, lower workforce participation rates, higher public assistance costs, and less-than-optimal worker productivity. Improving the health of Kentuckians will not only enhance the quality of life for many, it will also enhance the state’s economic development opportunities.
SOCIAL DETERMINANTS OF HEALTH

The health of individuals is affected by many factors, including, of course, individual behaviors regarding diet and exercise, but also including community characteristics. The U.S. Department of Health and Human Services advances a “place-based” framework under the auspices of the Health People 2020 initiative to explain and understand the factors affecting health outcomes. This framework includes five principal areas that constitute the social determinants of health: economic stability; education; social and community context; health and health care; and neighborhood and built environment. Using 24 separate factors organized into these five categories, we estimate the strength of the social determinants of health at the county level. Using a technique known as principal component analysis, we rank Kentucky’s 120 counties into quartiles, or four equal groups, by analyzing variables that include, but are not limited to, the poverty rate, the rate of successful transition to adult life after high school graduation, the number of community associations, the number of various types of health care providers, and environmental conditions such as air and water quality. Together, these factors reflect critical elements in our social and physical environments that affect individual health. Counties in Central and Western Kentucky show the best outcomes, with less favorable outcomes in Eastern Kentucky.

Social Determinants of Health by Kentucky County

Source: Data collection and analysis performed by Timothy Bianco, Rex Bray III, and Michael Childress.
These county-level estimates of premature death are indicative of the population’s overall health status. Premature deaths occur before a person reaches an expected age, which in this case is 75 years old. The belief is that many of these deaths are preventable. The numbers represent the potential years of life lost due to premature death—adjusted to facilitate comparisons across all U.S. counties. The data categories in the map below reflect quartiles, or four groups of 30 counties each. According to the 2016 County Health Rankings report, the years of potential life lost measure (YPLL) “is age-adjusted to the 2000 U.S. population to allow comparison between counties and is reported as a rate per 100,000 people.” The results of these calculations are shown in the map below, with the highest YPLL values in counties of eastern Kentucky. For comparison, the U.S. median is 7,702 and the Kentucky median is 9,536. The range of values for Kentucky counties is 5,196 (Oldham County) to 15,316 (Knott County).
RISK BEHAVIORS AND CHRONIC DISEASE

According to the Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (CDC), more than 75 percent of health care costs are due to chronic conditions such as heart disease, cancer, stroke, diabetes, and arthritis. Many patients have multiple chronic conditions and their care costs up to seven times as much as those with one chronic condition. Much of the chronic disease is caused by four preventable health risk behaviors—lack of exercise, poor nutrition, smoking, and heavy alcohol consumption. When compared to the U.S. as well as states that are widely considered to be Kentucky’s competitors for economic development prospects, Kentuckians are more likely to smoke, be obese, and not engage in regular physical activity—but look similar to the U.S. and competitor states with respect to heavy alcohol consumption.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Risk Behavior</th>
<th>U.S. (%)</th>
<th>CS (%)</th>
<th>KY (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Current Smoker</td>
<td>17*</td>
<td>19*</td>
<td>26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Obese</td>
<td>29*</td>
<td>31*</td>
<td>35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lack of Physical Activity</td>
<td>26*</td>
<td>28*</td>
<td>32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Heavy Alcohol Consumption</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Authors’ analysis of data from Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (CDC), Behavioral Risk Factor Surveillance System Survey Data, Atlanta, Georgia: U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, Centers for Disease Control and Prevention, 2015

Note: The competitor states are AL, GA, IL, IN, MO, MS, NC, OH, SC, TN, VA, & WV.

*These percentages are statistically different from the Kentucky percentages (alpha=.05).
Overall, one-quarter of Kentucky adults engage in multiple chronic disease causing behaviors. About 32 percent have none of the risk factors of smoking, obesity, inactivity, or heavy drinking, and 41 percent have one. However, 22 percent have two and nearly 5 percent exhibit three or four. Much of chronic disease is caused by these four risk factors and it is estimated that 75 percent of health care costs are due to chronic conditions such as heart disease, cancer, stroke, diabetes, and arthritis. Compared to the competitor states and the U.S., adults in Kentucky are more likely to have one or more chronic disease risk factors.

Number of Key Chronic Disease Causing Behaviors, 2015, Kentucky, Competitor States, and the U.S. (percent of total adults)

Source: Author’s analysis of Behavioral Risk Factor Surveillance System data
As we have written in previous pages, one-quarter of Kentucky adults exhibit multiple chronic disease causing behaviors. These behaviors or resulting outcomes include smoking, obesity, inactivity, and heavy drinking. We estimate that 41 percent have one of these behaviors, 22 percent have two, and 5 percent exhibit three or four. The map below and the one on the next page illustrate different facets of this problem. Because most of the state’s population live in the urban triangle region, the vast majority of the people at risk for chronic disease are concentrated in this region—even though they represent a comparatively lower percentage of the population in these counties. Jefferson County has the highest number of adults at risk for chronic disease at nearly 356,000. When developing approaches and allocating resources to address chronic disease across Kentucky, it is important to consider the sheer number at risk as well as the percentage.

Source: Author’s analysis of CDC Behavioral Risk Factor Surveillance System data, various years
A very different picture of chronic disease is shown on this map. While the map on the previous page shows that the absolute number of those at risk for chronic disease is relatively small in Eastern Kentucky, it is relatively large when viewed as a percentage of the county population. Likewise, the number at risk in the urban triangle is quite large, but it is comparatively small as a percentage of the population.

Source: Author’s analysis of CDC Behavioral Risk Factor Surveillance System data, various years
CHRONIC DISEASE RISK BY AGE GROUP

An estimated 68 percent of Kentucky adults demonstrate at least one of the four behaviors that put them at risk of developing a chronic disease—smoking, obesity, physical inactivity, or heavy alcohol consumption—compared to 59 percent in the competitive states and 56 percent in the United States. These rates have been consistent and stable for at least the last decade—an indication of how difficult it is to change chronic disease causing activities, not only in Kentucky but across the United States. And in Kentucky, the uninsured—currently about 6 percent of the population—are more likely to be at risk of developing a chronic disease (73%) than the insured (67%). The chronic disease risk does not change much across the age groups for those 25 and older. In Kentucky, 72 percent of adults in the prime working age group—25 to 54 years old—are at risk of developing a chronic disease. By comparison, an estimated 61 percent and 58 percent of prime working age adults exhibit behaviors putting them at risk for chronic disease in the competitor states and U.S., respectively.

Chronic Disease Risk by Various Age Groups, Kentucky, Competitor States, and the U.S. (percent of individuals at risk for chronic disease, 2015)

Source: Author’s analysis of Behavioral Risk Factor Surveillance System data
The Census Bureau asks six questions to determine the types and prevalence of disabilities. They include the following: Hearing Disability—Is this person deaf or does he/she have serious difficulty hearing?; Visual Disability—Is this person blind or does he/she have serious difficulty seeing even when wearing glasses?; Cognitive Disability—Because of a physical, mental, or emotional condition, does this person have serious difficulty concentrating, remembering, or making decisions?; Ambulatory Disability—Does this person have serious difficulty walking or climbing stairs?; Self-Care Disability—Does this person have difficulty dressing or bathing?; and, Independent Living Disability—Because of a physical, mental, or emotional condition, does this person have difficulty doing errands alone such as visiting a doctor’s office or shopping? Kentucky has the nation’s second highest rate of disability (15.7%) among working-age adults 18 to 64 years old. The U.S. average is 10.4 percent and the competitor states average is 11.6 percent. The prevalence of the six disability types among persons between 18 and 64 in Kentucky is: Visual—3.0 percent; Hearing—3.2 percent; Ambulatory—8.8 percent; Cognitive—6.9 percent; Self-Care—2.9 percent; and Independent Living Disability—5.7 percent.
An estimated 42,800 Kentucky children under 18 years old were not covered by health insurance in 2015, or about 4.2 percent of children. The percentage of uninsured children, which was 11.2 percent in 1999, has been generally declining as children were added to the Kentucky Children’s Health Insurance Program (KCHIP) or Medicaid. The Kentucky Children’s Health Insurance Program is free or low-cost health insurance for children. KCHIP is for children younger than 19 who do not have health insurance and whose family income is at or less than 218 percent of the federal poverty level. For example, a family of four can earn up to $52,980 a year and qualify for KCHIP. The percentages we cite are from the U.S. Census Bureau and represent children under 18, and therefore do not include those who are 18 years old. The percentage of uninsured children (under 18) in the competitor states and U.S. are 4.6 and 4.8 percent (2015), respectively.

HEALTH INSURANCE COVERAGE: EVERYONE

Though 29.8 million Americans were without health insurance in 2015, both the number and the percentage of uninsured people declined from the prior year. In Kentucky, 261,000, or 6 percent of the total state population, did not have health insurance in 2015. Medicaid has historically played a key role in providing health coverage for disproportionately poor Kentuckians, insuring an estimated 27 percent of the population here in 2015, compared to about 20 percent in the competitor states and 23 in the U.S. The implementation of the Affordable Care Act has increased the number of individuals on Medicaid over the past few years.

ORAL HEALTH

The oral health of our citizens is important for several reasons. First, it is important as a quality-of-life issue; healthy teeth and gums can translate into a better appearance, higher self-esteem, and more self-confidence, which are key to a better quality of life. Second, missing and decayed teeth or diseased gums can make it difficult to find employment and perform well on the job, adversely affecting the pocketbooks of individuals and families as well as the state’s capacity to realize economic development and increase prosperity. Third, and perhaps most important, missing teeth, inflamed gums, and cavities often make it difficult to eat a balanced diet, and increasingly research links poor oral health to illness, chronic disease, and even early mortality. While real public health gains have been made in oral health here, Kentucky’s overall status can best be termed as below average. A higher percentage of Kentucky adults between the ages of 18 and 64 have at least one missing tooth (44.8%), than in the U.S. (38.3%) or competitor states (40.3%).

### Oral Health Indicators, U.S., Competitor States, and Kentucky, 2014

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Oral Status</th>
<th>US (%)</th>
<th>CS (%)</th>
<th>KY (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Missing 1 to 5 permanent teeth</td>
<td>28.1*</td>
<td>27.6</td>
<td>26.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Missing 6 or more teeth, but not all</td>
<td>7.5*</td>
<td>9.0*</td>
<td>11.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Missing all teeth</td>
<td>2.7*</td>
<td>3.7*</td>
<td>6.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Visited dentist in last 12 months</td>
<td>64.2*</td>
<td>62.5</td>
<td>61.9</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*These percentages are statistically different from the Kentucky percentages (alpha=.05).

Source: Author’s analysis of data from Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (CDC), Behavioral Risk Factor Surveillance System Survey Data, Atlanta, Georgia: U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, Centers for Disease Control and Prevention, 2014

Note: The competitor states are AL, GA, IL, IN, MO, MS, NC, OH, SC, TN, VA, & WV.
Youth Alcohol and Drug Use

A range of behavioral risks can compromise the health and well-being of young people. Here, we illustrate trends in two such behaviors. While down sharply in recent years, a disturbing share of Kentucky high school students—17.5 percent of males and 18 percent of females—still report episodic heavy drinking (five or more drinks of alcohol in a row within a couple of hours on at least one day during the 30 days before the survey). There is not a statistically significant difference between Kentucky and the U.S. The percentage of Kentucky youth who reported using marijuana one or more times in the past month is lower than the U.S. percentages of 20.1 percent for females and 23.2 percent for males—but also are not statistically significantly different from the Kentucky rates. Importantly, measures of youth smoking, which we do not illustrate here, suggest Kentucky youth are turning away from the addiction most smokers acquired as teens. Overall, 5.7 percent of the state’s youth, compared with 3.4 percent nationally, reported smoking cigarettes on 20 or more days in the past 30 days in 2015, compared to 28 percent in 1997.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Male Alcohol Abuse**</th>
<th>Female Alcohol Abuse**</th>
<th>Male Marijuana Use***</th>
<th>Female Marijuana Use***</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1993</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1997</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1999</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2001</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2003</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2005</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2007</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2009</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2011</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2013</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2015</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* Grades 9-12
** Drank five or more drinks of alcohol in a row (within a couple of hours on at least 1 day during the 30 days before the survey)
*** Currently used marijuana (one or more times during the 30 days before the survey)
Source: Centers for Disease Control and Prevention, High School Youth Risk Behavior Survey, various years
Promises to invest in America’s infrastructure were front and center during the presidential campaign, and for good reason. Kentucky received a “C” on the 2013 Report Card for America’s Infrastructure, which is produced every four years by the American Society of Civil Engineers (ASCE); the U.S. got a “D+.” The engineers evaluate 16 separate categories from aviation to waste water according to capacity, condition, funding, future need, operation and maintenance, public safety and resilience. They highlight that Kentucky has 277 high hazard dams but only 5 percent have an Emergency Action Plan. In addition, $5 billion is needed to maintain and upgrade the drinking water systems and $2.1 billion is needed for wastewater systems. The report also points out that Kentucky has 1,244 structurally deficient bridges (the 2015 estimate is 1,183), and 34 percent of our major roads are poor or mediocre in quality.

Surveys of CEOs and consultants who are involved in industrial site selection decisions show that infrastructure considerations play an important role in their decision-making. For example, choosing from a list of 28 different factors, ranging from labor costs to environmental regulations, the single most important factor for respondents to the latest Annual Survey of Corporate Executives and Consultants on Site Selection was the availability of skilled labor, evidenced by 93 percent ranking it as either “important” or “very important.” Numerous infrastructure factors are included in list as well, led by “highway accessibility,” which is ranked 2nd on the list at 88 percent.

Maintaining—let alone expanding—Kentucky’s existing infrastructure, whether school buildings or roads, requires a tremendous amount of money. In today’s budgetary environment, finding the necessary funds is challenging. Generating the resources to maintain and expand the state’s basic infrastructure will not only continue to be a challenge, it will also be an important factor in keeping the state economically competitive for all forms of industry. Our analysis of state and local government infrastructure investments as a percentage of gross domestic product from 1995 to 2014 shows that Kentucky has invested slightly more (2.78%) than the competitor states (2.56%)—but about the same as the U.S. (2.72%). Kentucky’s newly passed Public-Private Partnerships law promises to open new opportunities for expanding infrastructure investments.
DEVELOPED LAND

Developed land includes a combination of land cover and use categories, such as large urban and built-up areas, small built-up areas, and rural transportation land. The manner in which communities develop and grow can, and does, have important public finance implications—particularly with regard to infrastructure needs. More developed land requires more roads, sewers, water systems, and other infrastructure needed to support a growing and/or shifting population. From 1982 to 2012, developed land as a percentage of total surface area nearly doubled in Kentucky, from 4.4 percent to 8.2 percent; this represents an increase of 86 percent in developed land in Kentucky, which is a higher rate than the competitor states (68%) or the U.S. (59%). However, the rate of change was minimal from 2007 to 2012—in Kentucky, the competitor states, and the U.S. overall—probably reflecting the impact of the Great Recession. State and local government infrastructure expenditures increased in Kentucky, on a per capita basis, from 1995 to 2013 by 34 percent (using constant 2015 dollars), compared to 14 percent in the competitor states and 22 percent in the U.S.

Developed Land, Selected Years, Kentucky, Competitor States, and the U.S. (percentage of total surface area)

Source: U.S. Department of Agriculture, Natural Resources Conservation Service, National Resources Inventory
Research shows that because the Internet permeates so many aspects of our lives, access to and use of it appear to be increasingly important for anyone becoming politically informed, socially integrated, and economically successful in the Information Age. Studies suggest that “Internet use increases employment and income, enhances consumer welfare, and promotes civic engagement,” (NTIA, 2013), and that enhancing the nation’s broadband infrastructure can improve innovation, entrepreneurship, and productivity (Brookings, 2013). The importance of high-speed Internet access promises to become even more important in the future as online education becomes more firmly rooted. The percentage of Kentucky households with access to a basic level of broadband—defined as download (DL) speed>3.0 mbps and upload speed>0.768 mbps—is nearly 100 percent. Unfortunately a basic level of broadband speed is no longer sufficient for many important applications. Distance learning, for example, requires a minimum 25 mbps DL for an “ok” experience and 50 mbps for a “good” experience. While about 86 percent of U.S. households have access to at least 25 mbps DL in 2014, only about 64 percent of Kentucky households have access to this speed. Even more striking are the state-level differences in the percentage of households with access to 1 Gig broadband, the *sine qua non* for broadband nirvana.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Area</th>
<th>Broadband Access</th>
<th>DL&gt;25 Mbps</th>
<th>DL&gt;50 Mbps</th>
<th>DL&gt;100 Mbps</th>
<th>DL&gt;1 GIG</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>US</td>
<td>99.7</td>
<td>85.6</td>
<td>82.3</td>
<td>63.9</td>
<td>8.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AL</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>75.7</td>
<td>68.1</td>
<td>66.3</td>
<td>8.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GA</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>86.1</td>
<td>84.7</td>
<td>77.6</td>
<td>11.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IL</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>94.9</td>
<td>93.2</td>
<td>89.4</td>
<td>14.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IN</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>87.3</td>
<td>82.8</td>
<td>72.0</td>
<td>39.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>KY</td>
<td>99.8</td>
<td>64.2</td>
<td>62.0</td>
<td>9.5</td>
<td>2.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MS</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>67.8</td>
<td>65.4</td>
<td>40.4</td>
<td>13.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MO</td>
<td>99.9</td>
<td>78.3</td>
<td>72.6</td>
<td>69.1</td>
<td>9.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NC</td>
<td>99.5</td>
<td>90.1</td>
<td>86.6</td>
<td>23.4</td>
<td>5.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OH</td>
<td>99.9</td>
<td>88.5</td>
<td>84.4</td>
<td>9.2</td>
<td>1.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SC</td>
<td>99.9</td>
<td>84.7</td>
<td>82.0</td>
<td>40.2</td>
<td>5.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TN</td>
<td>99.8</td>
<td>84.1</td>
<td>83.1</td>
<td>81.9</td>
<td>17.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VA</td>
<td>99.5</td>
<td>82.9</td>
<td>79.6</td>
<td>78.9</td>
<td>4.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>WV</td>
<td>98.9</td>
<td>64.7</td>
<td>64.7</td>
<td>39.6</td>
<td>0.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


Note: Broadband Access is from either wireline or wireless.
The United States enjoys one of the safest and most reliable supplies of drinking water in the world. The Safe Drinking Water Act of 1974 sought to preserve the nation’s water supply while maintaining high standards for quality. Most Americans get their water from a community water system (CWS), 49,000 of which served approximately 298 million people nationally in 2015, according to the Environmental Protection Agency. Over the past few years, around 7 to 8 percent of the U.S. population received its water from a system that reported a health-based violation. In Kentucky, this percentage has ranged from 3.3 in 2013 (not shown in the graph below) to 15.3 percent in 2014 to 10.6 percent in 2015. Kentucky’s average during the three-year period (2013 to 2015) is 9.7 percent, second only to Georgia (9.9%) among the competitor states. Among this group of states, Illinois and Virgina have the lowest three-year averages at 2.0 and 2.1 percent respectively.

Source: U.S. Environmental Protection Agency, Drinking Water and Ground Water Statistics, various years
In 1992 the Kentucky General Assembly set the ambitious goal of reducing the amount of municipal solid waste (MSW) deposited in Kentucky landfills in each subsequent year—but waste continues to mount. While the total amount of solid waste deposited in Kentucky landfills trended downward from its peak of 5.35 million tons in 2007 to just over 5 million tons in 2013, the amount deposited in 2014 and 2015 increased to around 6 million tons. A growing portion of the total, as evidenced in 2014 and 2015, is solid waste from out-of-state sources; it reached a record high of almost 2 million tons in 2014 and remained high in 2015 with 1.75 million tons, a significant increase since the early to mid-1990s. As a result of this growing trend, out-of-state solid waste constitutes 29 percent of the total amount of waste deposited in Kentucky’s landfills—compared to less than 5 percent in the early to mid-1990s.

---

**Solid Waste Disposed in Kentucky Landfills, 1993-2015**

(millions of tons)

Source: KY Division of Waste Management
Ideas, innovation, and intellectual capital form the foundation of the evolving knowledge economy. But Kentucky, like most states, is still centered on making and growing things, extracting and transporting raw materials, and moving people and products to markets and workplaces. Thus, the traditional transportation infrastructure—the road system—is still an essential piece of the economic development puzzle. Around 27 percent of Kentucky’s economy is in goods-producing industries that are highly dependent on transportation, compared to about 19 percent nationally. And even as the nation’s economy evolves over the next few decades, the movement of freight along the country’s highways, a quintessential “old economy” activity, will continue to grow. An extensive and efficient transportation system, both now and in the future, can facilitate lower industry production costs and consumer prices, widen access to commodities for businesses and consumers, and broaden the pool of workers for business while creating more job opportunities. The bottom line: roads and road quality still matters. In the figure below, whether a road is in poor condition depends on pavement roughness, with only a small percentage (1.1%) of Kentucky’s roads in poor condition.

**Road Condition**

![Road Condition Chart]

Source: Author’s calculations based on Table HM-64, Highway Statistics 2014, Federal Highway Administration. CS is the weighted average of the competitor states.
NARROW ROADS

This is a measure of lane width for “other principal arterial” roads, not interstates, other freeways, or expressways. A narrow lane is one that is less than 12 feet wide. Obviously, the more narrow the lane, the more difficult it is to move products and material with large trucks. Consequently, economic development decisions can be affected by the state and condition of the transportation infrastructure. An estimated 19.2 percent of Kentucky’s other principal arterial roads are narrow, compared to 10.6 percent nationally and 13.4 percent for the competitor states.

Source: Author’s calculations based on Table HM-53, Highway Statistics 2014, Federal Highway Administration. CS is the weighted average of the competitor states.
There are 14,261 bridges in Kentucky, and nearly one-third of them (30.7%) are considered either structurally deficient or functionally obsolete—a higher percentage than the competitor states (21.8%) and the U.S. (23.4%). Of Kentucky’s 4,381 problem bridges, 1,183 are structurally deficient and 3,198 are functionally obsolete. Among all states in 2015, Kentucky had the thirteenth highest percentage of deficient bridges.

Source: U.S. Department of Transportation, Federal Highway Administration
This map shows that the highest concentration of structurally deficient (SD) or functionally obsolete (FO) bridges is in the southeastern part of the state. Counties are divided into four groups: 12 to 25 percent of the bridges are SD or FO (41 counties across the state); 25 to 33 percent (42); 33 to 50 percent (30); and 50 to 65 percent (8). There were 8 counties in 2015 where over half of the bridges were classified as structurally deficient or functionally obsolete. Letcher County had the highest percentage in the state, with nearly 64 percent of its bridges categorized as SD or FO.

Source: U.S. Department of Transportation, Federal Highway Administration
An estimated 76 percent of Americans 16 years and older drive to work alone, which is near an all-time high. By comparison, carpooling is around 10 percent and public transportation accounts for about 5 percent. The rest use some other form of transportation, like biking, or work from home. Reflecting both economic centers of gravity as well as the state of the infrastructure network, the map below illustrates Kentucky’s county-level average travel times to work. An estimated 82.4 percent of Kentuckians drive to work alone. Kentucky’s statewide average of 23 minutes is less than the U.S. average of 25.9 minutes (based on 5-year pooled 2011-2015 data). The counties in the map are divided into one of three categories: below the Kentucky average; above the Kentucky average but below the U.S. average; and above the U.S. average. Christian County in western Kentucky has the lowest average travel time at 17 minutes while Bracken County, located southeast of Cincinnati, is the highest at 37.8 minutes.

Average Travel Time to Work, 2011-2015
(Workers 16 Years and Older)

Source: U.S. Census Bureau, 2011-2015 5-Year American Community Survey
In an effort to gauge a state’s long-term economic prospects, the Milken Institute ranks states according to their science and technology performance in a 2016 report, State Technology and Science Index: Sustaining America’s Innovation Economy. They combine several indicators that reflect a state’s research and development inputs, risk capital and entrepreneurial infrastructure, human capital investments, technology and science workforce, and technology concentration and dynamism. Based on the results—Kentucky is ranked 47th, which is a few spots lower than its previous ranking of 44th in 2014. Despite this low ranking, in its list of U.S. metro areas with the fastest growth rate for new startups from 2009 to 2014, FiveThirtyEight.com lists three Kentucky metro areas in the top eleven nationally: Elizabethtown (#1 in the U.S.), Bowling Green (3rd), and Lexington-Fayette (11th).

Our examination of high-technology establishments over the period of 2003 to 2014 shows that Kentucky has consistently trailed the competitor states and the U.S. In 2014, 9.1 percent of establishments in competitor states and 9.7 percent in the U.S. are considered “high-tech.” In the same year only 7.3 percent of Kentucky establishments are considered “high-tech.” Why should anyone care about startups, innovations, and the funding for research and development that powers them? The answer is simple: over the long term our collective standard of living will likely depend on it. John Fernald at the Federal Reserve Bank of San Francisco and Charles Jones at Stanford have found that around three-fourths of U.S. economic growth since 1950 was fueled by just two factors—rising educational attainment and research intensity—with the later accounting for nearly 60 percent of the growth.

Despite the tight connections between research intensity, economic growth and job creation, total research and development expenditures as a percentage of gross domestic product are significantly lower in Kentucky (0.9%) compared to the competitor states (2.0%) and the U.S. (2.6%). As federal research and development funds become more limited, the nation’s universities can and should do more to realize their tremendous innovation and commercialization potential. Moreover, as government budgets tighten, policy makers, as well as taxpayers, increasingly expect a positive return on investment from scarce public resources. Kentucky needs good ideas, adequate finances, and energetic human capital to create and nurture high-growth enterprises.
Combining several indicators that reflect a state’s research and development inputs, risk capital and entrepreneurial infrastructure, human capital investments, technology and science workforce, and technology concentration and dynamism, the Milken Institute has ranked the states according to their science and technology prowess in a 2016 report, *State Technology and Science Index: Sustaining America’s Innovation Economy*. Kentucky is ranked 47th, which is a few spots lower than its previous ranking of 44th in 2014. The top state is Massachusetts, followed by Colorado, Maryland, California, Washington, Connecticut, Minnesota, Utah, Virginia, and Delaware.
COUNTY-LEVEL INNOVATION INDEX

Kentucky’s county-level results from the Innovation 2.0 Index are illustrated on the map below, with the highest innovation index values anchoring the three angles of the urban triangle (i.e., the Louisville area, Northern Kentucky, and the Fayette County area) and extending west to Hardin and Warren Counties. The index is based on five broad categories and includes 57 different variables. The five broad categories include Human Capital and Knowledge Creation, Business Dynamics, Business Profile, Employment and Productivity, and Economic Well-Being. Some of the variables include educational attainment, high-technology employment, broadband adoption, venture capital investments, patent creation, worker productivity, proprietor income, the poverty rate, and per capita income. The highest ranked Kentucky county is Boone at 111. San Mateo County, California— which is Silicon Valley—has the highest value of any county in the United States at 133.4; Issaquena County, Mississippi, has the lowest index value in the country at 54.8. The map below shows Kentucky’s counties distributed within categories representing the national quintiles, or five equal categories. That is, by taking all counties in the U.S. and ranking them lowest to highest, eleven Kentucky counties are in the top quintile or upper 20 percent of counties nationally. There are 55 Kentucky counties in the bottom quintile.

Innovation Index by Kentucky County

Entrepreneurship is a particularly promising vehicle for economic development, as reflected in the January 2012 update of the Kentucky Cabinet for Economic Development Strategic Economic Development Plan. Entrepreneurs help create new jobs, and generate wealth and new growth. They are innovative users of assets and resources and appear to be a critical mechanism for bringing new ideas and innovations to the marketplace. The depth of entrepreneurship can be gauged by examining the value created by entrepreneurs in a region as measured by the ratio of self-employment income to the number of self-employed workers in an economy. Unlike breadth which measures the number of entrepreneurs in a region, depth examines the value. High-value entrepreneurs clearly earn more, add more value, and enhance regional growth and prosperity more than other entrepreneurs. Kentucky has generally trailed the United States and competitor states in entrepreneurial depth. In 2015, Kentucky lagged the U.S. and competitor states by approximately $8,400 and $4,000 respectively.

(nonfarm proprietor income/nonfarm proprietor employment)

Source: U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of Economic Analysis
Entrepreneurship is integral to the American Dream. Imagination, intelligence, and tenacity can transform a good idea into a thriving business or a global enterprise. The Kauffman Foundation produces an annual Index of Entrepreneurial Activity which is based on monthly data from the Current Population Survey (CPS). According to Kauffman, “capturing new business owners in their first month of significant business activity, this measure provides the earliest documentation of new business development across the country.” During the period from 2013 to 2015, an estimated 0.31 percent of the American adults (20 to 64 years old), or about 310 out of 100,000 adults, created a new business each month. We use 3-year moving averages because of the volatility of state-level percentages due to small sample sizes—as evidenced by the Kentucky data in the figure below. The 2013-2015 average for the U.S., Kentucky, and competitor states are 0.31%, 0.28%, and 0.26%, respectively. As illustrated below, Kentucky’s percentage dropped from the 2012-2014 period, but this is not a statistically significant difference (using a 95% confidence interval). Likewise, limiting the analysis to the 2013-2015 period reveals that there is not a statistically significant difference between the Kentucky, U.S. and competitor state percentages.

![Individuals Creating New Businesses, Kentucky, Competitor States, and the U.S., 1996-2015](chart.png)

Source: Author’s analysis of CPS data provided by Robert W. Fairlie, Kauffman Index of Entrepreneurial Activity
Innovation, as measured by the number of patents issued, is widely regarded as a measure of a state’s entrepreneurial energy. Research finds that innovation, along with education, has a significant impact on a state’s per capita income. A study by the Federal Reserve Bank of Cleveland shows that states which spawn innovation, as measured by patents, can reap economic rewards that endure for generations. The authors conclude, “A state’s knowledge stocks (as measured by patents and education levels) are the main factors explaining a state’s relative per capita income.” In other words, Kentucky’s much lower-than-average patent stock—which has trailed the U.S. as well as the competitor states for the last 50 years—along with lagging educational attainment rates, are why the state’s per capita income has been languishing at just over 80 percent of the U.S. average for the last several decades.
From 2000 to 2015, Kentucky businesses and individuals acquired 7,639 utility patents, which are patents for invention. Of this total, 4,066 or 53 percent were from two counties: Fayette and Jefferson. The next 12 counties account for 2,310 or 30 percent. The county-level map illustrates the concentrated nature of patent generation in Kentucky.

Utility Patents by County, 2000-2015

Small Business Innovation Research (SBIR) and Technology Transfer (STTR) funding is available to companies with 500 or fewer employees; it is designed to stimulate high-technology innovation and facilitate the commercialization of scientific and technological discoveries. According to the National Science Foundation, “a high value indicates that small business firms in a state are doing cutting-edge development work that attracts federal support.” When compared to competitor states and the U.S. average, Kentucky has consistently lagged behind—but this appears to be changing. Over the last 8 years, SBIR/STTR funding as a percentage of gross domestic product has been generally declining in the U.S. and competitor states while steadily increasing in Kentucky. As the figure shows, Kentucky’s $93 per $1 million in state gross domestic product during 2013-15 is converging on the competitor state average of $108; the U.S. average, while declining, is still significantly higher at $133.
SBIR/STTR AWARDS BY COUNTY

Of all the dollars invested through the SBIR and STTR programs from 1983 to 2015, the majority went to ventures in two counties: Fayette and Jefferson. There were approximately 527 awards in Kentucky during this time and 273 were in Fayette County, representing 46 percent of the total funding. Jefferson County was the second highest recipient with 136 awards and around 33 percent of the total funding. Kenton, Woodford, and Warren Counties received 76 awards and 15.2 percent of the total funds. These five counties account for virtually all of Kentucky’s SBIR/STTR awards during this period (94%), which is indicative of the geographic concentration of Kentucky’s innovation ecosystem.

Source: Authors’ analysis of data from www.sbir.gov
HIGH-TECHNOLOGY ESTABLISHMENTS

According to the National Science Foundation (NSF), high-technology industries have at least twice the number of scientific, engineering, and technical occupations compared to the average for all industries. These workers have extensive education and training in the sciences, mathematics, and engineering. We use 50 different industries (at the 4-digit NAICS level) to identify high-technology establishments. Using the 46 sectors identified by NSF and four additional identified by the Milken Institute, we calculate the number of high-technology establishments as a percentage of total establishments. Dating back to 2003 Kentucky has consistently trailed the competitor states and the U.S. In 2014, 9.1 percent of establishments in competitor states and 9.7 percent in the U.S. are considered “high-tech.” In the same year only 7.3 percent of Kentucky establishments are considered “high-tech.”

(as a percent of total establishments)

Source: Author’s analysis of County Business Patterns, U.S. Census Bureau, various years
This is a measure of self-employment. According to the Census Bureau, “A nonemployer business is one that has no paid employees, has annual business receipts of $1,000 or more ($1 or more in the Construction industry), and is subject to federal income taxes.” Some examples of these businesses are beauty salons, child-care providers, landscaping services, barber shops, real estate agents, tax preparers, and electricians—just to name a few. These types of small enterprises grew steadily from the late 1990s until the Great Recession in 2008, when the growth rate stalled. Since then, the U.S. and the competitor states have rebounded and are now slightly above their pre-recession rates. Historically, Kentucky’s rate has been lower than the competitor states and the U.S., and since the Great Recession Kentucky’s rate has been essentially flat.

Nonemployer Establishments, Kentucky, Competitor States, and the U.S., 1997-2014
(per 1 million noninstitutionalized civilian population)

Source: Author’s analysis of data from the U.S. Census Bureau
INDUSTRIAL RESEARCH & DEVELOPMENT

A January 2012 report by Regional Technology Strategies, Inc., *Innovation Capacity: Calibrating Kentucky*, which was prepared for the Kentucky Science and Technology Corporation, states that “while a raft of diverse indicators and metrics are often employed to build a profile of a state’s innovation support capacity, the single most important measure is generally held to be industry R&D.” The report notes that in 2008 Kentucky was ranked 40th among the states on this measure when expressed as a percentage of total worker earnings. Nationally, funds spent by industry constituted over half of all funding for research and development. It is believed that these funds are directly related to productivity gains and innovation capacity. In Kentucky, industry spent about $7,000 per million dollars in state gross domestic product in 2013 on research and development. The competitor state average in 2013 was $13,800 and the U.S. average was $18,700. California has the highest amount nationally at $40,350 and Alaska the lowest with $770. In terms of the highest amount expended in absolute dollars among the competitor states, Illinois registered $13.1 billion—compared to Kentucky’s $1.3 billion.

Source: National Science Foundation, Business and Industrial R&D, various years
Note: Missouri data are not available for 2011.
While industrial research and development performance accounts for close to 73 percent of the national total, colleges and universities, nonprofits, federal and state government agencies account for the rest. According to the National Science Foundation (NSF), “a high value indicates that a state has a high intensity of R&D activity, which may support future growth in knowledge-based industries.” NSF also points out that “states with high rankings on this indicator also tended to rank high on S&E (science and engineering) doctorate holders as a share of the workforce.” When expressed as a percentage of state gross domestic product, the competitor state average in 2014 was just over 2 percent, compared to Kentucky’s value of just under 1 percent (0.9%); the U.S. average was about 2.6 percent.

A key driver that has accelerated globalization of the economy has been the emergence of nearly instantaneous data transfers enabled by broadband or high-speed Internet. Whether it is corporations doing business with one another, workers telecommuting, or consumers shopping for the latest bestselling book, high-speed Internet increasingly underpins 21st Century commerce. In the United States, an estimated 76.1 percent of the households have a broadband connection, compared to 75.4 percent for the competitor states and 76.9 percent for Kentucky. Despite Kentucky’s higher percentage, it is not statistically different from the U.S. or competitor state averages (using a 95% confidence interval). Numerous studies have identified measurable economic benefits associated with widespread access to high-speed Internet.

**Source:** Estimated using data from Current Population Survey, Computer and Internet Supplement, July 2015

**Note:** “CS” is the weighted average of the competitor states.
Based on our analysis, there are 19 “Nationally Competitive” counties in Kentucky with respect to high-speed Internet availability and utilization. These counties have download speeds and high-speed Internet utilization rates that are more or less equal to or greater than the U.S. averages (i.e., at least 80 percent of the households have access to 25 mbps download and at least 70 percent have high-speed Internet access in their homes). The next group of (23) counties is “On the Cusp,” with at least 50 percent of the households having access to 25 mbps but less than 70 percent of the households have broadband. Comprising the “Frustrated Surfers” category are 56 counties where less than 50 percent of the households have access to at least 25 mbps. Finally, the “Information Highway Slow Lane” is comprised of the 22 counties without 25 mbps download capability. We analyzed Current Population Survey data as well as National Broadband Map data to generate these estimates of county-level broadband access and use.

Estimated High-Speed Internet Infrastructure and Utilization, 2014
According to the Kauffman Foundation, most young companies are started from the savings of their founders and then sustained by positive cash flow. The next largest source of capital for young companies is credit cards, followed by borrowed money from family and friends, banks, and then venture capital. Research also shows that less than 20 percent of the fastest growing companies in the United States took any venture money. Moreover, venture capital investments are typically concentrated in a just few states, such as California and Massachusetts. Nevertheless, the level of venture capital in a state’s economy is frequently used as an indicator of innovation capacity and entrepreneurial energy. In 2015, venture capital investments in Kentucky were $130 per $1 million of state gross domestic product—which was substantially lower than the competitor states ($896) and the U.S. average ($3,349). From 2014 to 2015, venture capital investments jumped 14 percent nationally using this metric. By comparison, the competitor states experienced a 23 percent jump while Kentucky had a 21 percent decline.
Because Kentucky is generally more rural, has fewer minority citizens, and is somewhat older, the population has grown more slowly here compared to the U.S. Moreover, a state’s population growth rate is indicative of its economic energy. Between the peak of the last economic expansion, which was during the fourth quarter of 2007, and the “present” (2015), Kentucky experienced slower population growth (4.0%) than the U.S. (6.7%) or the competitor state average (5.2%). During this time period, there were marked regional differences within the state. Kentucky’s Urban Triangle experienced a 7.0 percent increase, and South Central Kentucky is not far behind at 4.6 percent. However, the population in Western Kentucky only grew about 1 percent and in Eastern Kentucky it declined 2.2 percent. And there are several counties with population levels lower in 2015 compared to 2007. In fact, 60 counties, largely in Eastern Kentucky, but several in the Western Kentucky, lost population during this time. The six largest declines were in Lee (-14.0%), Fulton (-9.1%), Harlan (-7.6%), Leslie (-7.5%), Martin (-6.9%), and Hickman (-6.9%) Counties; there another 16 counties experienced declines ranging from 4 to 6.5 percent, mainly in the traditional coal producing counties of both Western and Eastern Kentucky. On the other hand, population growth in much of Northern and Central Kentucky has been strong. The fastest growing counties were Scott (20.5%), Warren (14.4%), Boone (13.7%), Shelby (13.1%), and Jessamine (12.9%). Throughout much of the delta regions of Western Kentucky and the mountains of Eastern Kentucky, negative population momentum has been building for decades. Out-migration over generations has reduced the youth population and suppressed natural increase. In many rural communities there is a top-heavy age structure, which increases demand for medical and other services for the elderly, while reducing the supply of labor to provide these services. As a result, the long-term viability of these communities is threatened. Over the last five years Kentucky has become a more “urban” state, as the rural population declined and the urban/suburban areas grew. Looking to the future, we can likely expect more of the same. The Kentucky State Data Center is forecasting that Kentucky’s population will increase by just over 10 percent between 2015 and 2040, with the bulk of the growth taking place in Kentucky’s Urban Triangle region.
Kentucky’s population in the 2010 Census was 4,339,367, representing a 7.4 percent increase from the 2000 Census population of 4,041,769 and ranking it the 26th most populous state. As former state demographer Michael Price at the University of Louisville pointed out after the 2010 Census, while “the U.S. population grew at a faster pace (9.7 percent), the state population growth of nearly 300,000 persons is significant—the equivalent of adding a second Lexington.” Kentucky’s population was essentially flat from 1940 to 1970, growing by just over 13 percent while the U.S. population increased by over 55 percent. However, from 1970 to 2010, Kentucky’s population increased by 35 percent, which is lower than the competitor states (41 percent) and the United States (52 percent), but represents a significant increase from the preceding decades. The most recent population estimate (2015) for Kentucky is 4,425,092.

Population Totals, Kentucky, 1900-2015
(millions)

Source: U.S. Census Bureau
A state’s population growth rate is indicative of its economic energy. Here we present state growth rates between the peak of the last economic expansion, which was during the fourth quarter of 2007, and the “present” (2015). By 2015, the U.S. population was 6.7 percent higher than the peak of the last economic expansion (or in 2007). As evidenced in the chart below, Kentucky experienced slower population growth (4.0%) than the U.S. or the competitor state average (5.2%). Generally, there is a consistency between these population growth rates and total private employment growth during the same time period (see page 40). The populations of South Carolina, North Carolina, Georgia, Virginia, and Tennessee grew at a faster rate than the U.S.; Kentucky, however, grew less than two-thirds of the U.S. rate. At 15.9 percent, North Dakota has the highest growth rate during this period, and Michigan has the lowest (-0.8%); Kentucky has the

---

**Percentage Change in Population 2007-2015, Kentucky, Competitor States, & the U.S.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>State</th>
<th>Percentage Change</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>SC</td>
<td>6.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NC</td>
<td>4.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GA</td>
<td>5.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VA</td>
<td>4.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TN</td>
<td>4.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>US</td>
<td>6.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CS</td>
<td>5.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AL</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>KY</td>
<td>4.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IN</td>
<td>4.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MO</td>
<td>4.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MS</td>
<td>4.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IL</td>
<td>4.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OH</td>
<td>4.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>WV</td>
<td>4.0%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Source: U.S. Census Bureau*
Regional Population Changes

Population growth rates within a state can serve as an indicator of economic trends. The population growth rate of Kentucky and its regions from the peak of the last economic expansion in 2007 to the present (2015) is shown below (a county-level map of these four regions is available in the glossary). Kentucky’s Urban Triangle experienced a 7.0 percent increase; South Central Kentucky is not far behind at 4.6 percent. However, the population in Western Kentucky only grew about 1 percent and in Eastern Kentucky it declined 2.2 percent. For comparison purposes, Kentucky’s overall population increased 4.0 percent and the U.S. increased 6.7 percent over the same time period.

Population Change in Kentucky Regions,
Peak of the Last Economic Expansion to the Present
(percent change, 2007 to 2015)

Source: Author’s calculations using data from the U.S. Census Bureau. See glossary for map of Kentucky regions by county.
Population Changes

From the peak of the last economic expansion in 2007 to the present (2015), there have been some significant county-level population changes in Kentucky. As illustrated in the map below, the population in several counties was lower in 2015 compared to 2007. Overall, in fact, 60 counties, largely in Eastern Kentucky, but several in the western part of the state, lost population during this time period. The six largest declines were in Lee (-14.0%), Fulton (-9.1%), Harlan (-7.6%), Leslie (-7.5%), Martin (-6.9%), and Hickman (-6.9%) Counties; there were another 16 counties that experienced declines ranging from 4 to 6.5 percent, mainly in the traditional coal producing counties of both Western and Eastern Kentucky. On the other hand, population growth in much of Northern and Central Kentucky has been strong. The fastest growing counties were Scott (20.5%), Warren (14.4%), Boone (13.7%), Shelby (13.1%), and Jessamine (12.9%). By comparison, Kentucky’s population increased by 4.0 percent and the U.S. increased by 6.7 percent.

Kentucky County Population Change, 2007 to 2015

Source: U.S. Census Bureau
MINORITY POPULATION

In today’s global economy, diversity is increasingly important and recognized as a community asset. In 2015, racial minorities comprised 27 percent of U.S. and competitor state populations, and only 13 percent of the Kentucky population. Kentucky’s racial composition breaks down like this: white not Hispanic (87.4%), black (8%), Asian (1.3%), and other (3.3%). Kentucky’s minority population is more concentrated in the state’s metropolitan areas; in 2010, four of every five persons of color in Kentucky lived in metropolitan areas. While not depicted in the chart below, those who identify as Hispanic or Latino is significantly lower in Kentucky (3%) compared to the U.S. (17%) and competitor states (8%).

Source: American Community Survey, 2015 1-year estimate
WHITE, NON-HISPANIC POPULATION

An estimated 62.3 percent of the U.S. population and 85.6 percent of the Kentucky population is white (alone), non-Hispanic. Using this as a measure of diversity, Christian County—where Ft. Campbell is located—is the state’s most diverse county at 67 percent. Jefferson, Fulton, and Fayette Counties are second, third, and fourth at 70, 71, and 72 percent, respectively. The state’s least diverse counties are clustered mainly in the east, with several counties at or above 95 percent comprised of white (alone), non-Hispanic. As we indicated on the previous page, diversity is increasingly viewed as a necessary community characteristic for creating a vibrant and robust local economy.

White Alone (not Hispanic or Latino), 2011-2015
(percentage of total population)

Source: U.S. Census Bureau, 2011-2015 5-Year American Community Survey
Population by Age Group

Kentucky’s population is aging, evidenced by the median age increasing from 35.9 years in 2000 to 38.1 in 2010—and on to 38.7 in 2015. The U.S. median age, by comparison, is slightly lower, evidenced by 37.2 in 2010 and 37.8 in 2015. The number of persons in Kentucky aged 65 and above increased by 94,500, or by 16.3 percent, from 2000 to 2015; by comparison, this age group increased by 18.6 percent in the U.S. and 18.1 percent in the competitor states. However, at 15.2 percent of Kentucky’s total population, it represents about the same proportion as in the U.S. (14.9%) and competitor states (14.9%). The same is true for the other age groups—the distribution of age groups in Kentucky is more or less consistent with the U.S. and competitor state percentages. For example, the prime working age group, 25 to 54, comprises 39.1 percent of Kentucky’s total population, compared to 39.8 percent in the U.S. and 39.5 percent in the competitor states.

Kentucky Population Distribution, by Age Group, 2015

Source: U.S. Census Bureau
The county-level median age in Kentucky ranges from a low of 28.5 in Christian County to a high of 49 in Lyon County. The median is the middle point in a distribution; it is the point where half the population is above and half is below. The median ages for the U.S. and Kentucky are 37.6 and 38.5, respectively. In general, counties with military installations or college campuses will have lower median ages. In addition to Christian, seven other counties have median ages below 36: Rowan, Warren, Calloway, Madison, Fayette, Hardin, and Scott. On the other hand, in addition to Lyon County, four other counties have median ages 45 or older: Trigg, Livingston, Robertson, and Hickman.
While Kentucky has become increasingly urban over the years, a significant portion of Kentucky’s population live in rural areas—especially compared to its competitor states and the U.S. In the 2010 Census, nearly 42 percent of Kentucky’s population resided in rural areas (the balance of 58 percent live in urban areas), compared to about 28 percent in the competitor states and around 19 percent in the U.S. Rural communities can have many unique and appealing assets that provide a foundation for economic development activities. For example, natural amenities such as mountains, lakes, streams, forests, and wildlife can be used to leverage economic development and attract individuals hoping to find more idyllic surroundings. At the same time, there are many development challenges associated with building diverse economies and providing an adequate infrastructure in rural areas.

Source: U.S. Census Bureau
Kentucky’s General Fund receipts have been growing at a robust pace, evidenced by a 6 percent year-over-year increase from October 2015 to October 2016. Moreover, fiscal year (FY) 2016 General Fund receipts were higher than expected, yielding a $49 million revenue surplus. Similarly, the other major category of funds—the Road Fund—experienced a $36.6 million revenue surplus in FY 2016.

Despite these revenue surpluses, there are budgetary challenges on the horizon. Indeed, as the FY 2016 General Fund and Road Fund revenue surpluses accrued, the financial outlook for Kentucky’s public pension systems deteriorated. In November 2016, it was reported that Kentucky’s unfunded public pension liability had grown from $30.5 billion to $32.6 billion. These pressures have resulted in a growing percentage of the state’s General Fund spending going to the pension programs, increasing from 5.4 percent in FY 2008 to 13.8 percent in FY 2017.

As a growing percentage of state funds are used to fund the pension programs, it will create budgetary pressure on other vital government services and programs, from education to social programs to infrastructure projects. Moreover, the pension system is not the only source of budgetary pressure. Because Kentucky’s economy and demographic mix are changing, the revenue system needs to change with it. Over four years ago we completed a report for the Governor’s Blue Ribbon Commission on Tax Reform in which we concluded that the state was facing a $1 billion structural deficit by 2020 if current trends continued. We have updated our analysis to 2023, which is presented here, and the long-term outlook has not changed. As further evidence of the need for revenue modernization, our analysis also shows that Kentucky’s revenue system has not rebounded from the Great Recession and does not show revenue elasticity ratios similar to pre-recession levels, while the opposite holds true across the 50 states, including the competitor states. The ratio between tax growth and income growth should be, on average, about 1.0, with values below this integer indicating a decrease in growth and values above showing an increase. From the start of the current economic expansion in 2009 to 2015, the ratio has been 0.85 in Kentucky, 1.04 for the competitor states, and 1.01 for the 50-state U.S. average. The bottom line is this—Kentucky’s tax system needs to change—a broader tax base would help ensure that revenue keeps pace with future economic growth.
Two sources of revenue—the individual income tax and the sales and use tax—account for 73.6 percent of Kentucky general fund revenue (FY2015). This figure illustrates how Kentucky’s revenue system has fundamentally changed since 1970. Forty years ago the sales and use tax comprised 51 percent of Kentucky’s general fund receipts, while income tax collections accounted for 23 percent. However, by the mid-1980s, the income tax accounted for more general fund revenue than the sales and use tax. The changing distribution of tax receipts reflects more basic changes in the economy—the gradual shift away from making products and toward providing services. Most states, including Kentucky, tend to apply a *broad-base* sales tax to goods but not services. Consequently, the state’s tax base is gradually becoming narrower and losing elasticity—a measure of whether revenue is keeping pace with the economy.

**Kentucky’s General Fund Receipts by Major Sources, FY70 to FY15**

(percentage of general fund receipts)

*Source: Authors’ calculations based on data from the Kentucky Finance and Administration Cabinet and the Kentucky Revenue Cabinet*
Kentucky receives a significant amount of its total revenue from federal intergovernmental transfers. In 2014, this amounted to 24.8 percent of Kentucky’s total revenue. The competitor state average was about 17.7 percent and the U.S. average was about 16.6 percent. These transfers are mainly for health care (Medicaid), education, transportation, and public safety. On per capita basis, Kentucky received about $2,608 in revenue from federal transfers, compared to $1,900 and $1,889 for the competitor states and U.S., respectively. Alaska had the highest amount at $3,973 and Nevada the lowest at $1,212. These dollars have been adjusted to reflect state-level cost-of-living differences using regional price parity estimates from the U.S. Bureau of Economic Analysis.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>State</th>
<th>Revenue From Federal Transfers, Per Capita, 2014</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>VA</td>
<td>$1,889</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IL</td>
<td>$1,900</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GA</td>
<td>$1,900</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SC</td>
<td>$2,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IN</td>
<td>$2,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>US</td>
<td>$2,608</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CS</td>
<td>$2,608</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TN</td>
<td>$2,608</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NC</td>
<td>$2,608</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MO</td>
<td>$2,608</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AL</td>
<td>$2,608</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OH</td>
<td>$2,608</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>KY</td>
<td>$2,608</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>WV</td>
<td>$2,608</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MS</td>
<td>$2,608</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: U.S. Census Bureau, 2014 Annual Surveys of State and Local Government Finances
Kentucky’s recurring budgetary problems are due, in part, to the long-term decline in revenue elasticity. There are several economic, demographic, and political factors contributing to the gradual reduction in elasticity. Regardless of how we assess the adequacy of the revenue structure, Kentucky’s main revenue sources are growing slower than its economy. This point is illustrated by examining Kentucky’s total tax collections as a percentage of personal income, which has declined steadily from its peak of 8.4 percent in 1995 to 6.8 percent in 2015. If these trends continue, we estimate that tax revenue as a percentage of the economy will decline to below 6.5 percent by 2020—a level not seen in Kentucky since 1968.

---

**Kentucky Total State-Level Tax Collections as a Percentage of Total Personal Income, 1970-2015**

Source: Author’s calculations based on data from the U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of Economic Analysis and U.S. Census Bureau, State Government Tax Collections, various years
While the work of the Governor’s Blue Ribbon Commission on Tax Reform was conducted over three years ago, there have not been significant changes to the state’s tax and revenue system. We concluded then that the state had a substantial structural deficit and there is no evidence to suggest the outlook has changed. Our analysis in 2012 showed that revenue elasticity is projected to be about 0.81 without fundamental tax modernization, which reflects a structural deficit. Our updated analysis a year ago based on data from 2009 to 2014 suggests a similar elasticity of about 0.76. Ideally, revenue elasticity would be 1.0, indicating that, on average, state revenue was changing at the same rate as the state’s economy. Without fundamental tax reforms, Kentucky could face a $1 billion structural deficit by the 2020-2022 biennial state budget. Consequently, the state could find itself at a competitive disadvantage to neighboring states for business growth, retention, and recruitment.

Source: Estimated by the author
GROWTH RATES, TAXES AND INCOME

Since 2009, Kentucky’s revenue growth has not kept pace with the economy. Revenue growth rates are affected by both changes in the revenue base and tax rates. Most states’ revenue systems failed to keep pace with overall economic growth during the decade from 2000 to 2009 due to one or both of these factors. The Great Recession had a significant impact on both taxes and income during this period. Using the ratio between the compound annual growth rates (CAGR) of revenue and personal income, we compare Kentucky to the competitor states and the U.S. during four time periods. We use 2009 as the end point in one period and the beginning of the next since it marks the end of the economic contraction and the beginning of the current expansion. A ratio of 1.0 indicates that the revenue is growing at the same rate as the economy—a desirable outcome. In Kentucky, as well as in many of the competitor states, the growth in total tax revenue slowed relative to the economy in the 2000s. As shown in the graph, the ratio between Kentucky’s total tax CAGR and personal income CAGR declined to 0.73 with the competitor states declining to 0.76 and the U.S. to 0.83. During the economic recovery beginning in 2009, the ratio has increased to around 1.0 in the U.S. and among the competitor states, but is well below 1.0 in Kentucky.

**Ratio Between Compound Annual Growth Rates of Total Taxes and Personal Income, Various Periods, Kentucky, Competitor States, and the U.S.**

![Graph showing the ratio between compound annual growth rates of total taxes and personal income for Kentucky, competitor states, and the U.S. for different periods. The graph indicates that Kentucky's ratio declined to 0.73 compared to 0.76 for the competitor states and 0.83 for the U.S. during the 2000s. During the economic recovery, the ratios have increased to around 1.0 in the U.S. and among the competitor states, but remain well below 1.0 in Kentucky.]

Source: U.S. Census Bureau, Bureau of Economic Analysis & State Government Tax Collections
Note: Total taxes are not adjusted for sales tax increases. Adjustments will produce slightly different results.
Kentucky’s public pension programs are in dire financial shape, evidenced by a $32.6 billion unfunded liability. By multiple measures, Kentucky’s public pension system ranks as one of the most financially troubled among the 50 states. There are six public pension programs: Employees’ Retirement System (Hazardous & Non-Hazardous); State Police Retirement System; Judicial Retirement Fund; Legislators’ Retirement Fund; and the Teachers’ Retirement System. In 2014, these pension funds were funded at approximately 41 percent of the level needed to be fully funded—placing Kentucky in the bottom quartile of states. The map below, which is produced from 2014 data published in the PEW Charitable Trusts, The State Pensions Funding Gap: 2014 (August 2016), shows Kentucky’s position relative to other states. Unfortunately, since 2014 Kentucky’s pension programs have lost additional financial ground and unfunded liabilities are continuing to grow. The state’s ability to improve the finances supporting these public pension programs is tightly linked to the state’s overall financial health, as discussed on the preceding pages.

Source: The PEW Charitable Trusts
This figure shows the percentage of revenue collected by each reported tax source for Kentucky and a weighted-average of its competitor states and the U.S. Kentucky is significantly less reliant on property taxes than its competitors (and the U.S.), who raise a much larger share of local tax revenue from the property tax, and particularly those states to the north of Kentucky. Kentucky has no general sales tax option for any local governments, something a number of its competitor states (and 38 states in the U.S.) allow. Unlike many of its competitors, Kentucky allows local individual income (occupation license) taxation (only 13 states and DC permit local income taxation). Not surprisingly, then, Kentucky collects a smaller share of combined state and local tax revenues from sales taxation and more from income taxation.

Source: U.S. Census Bureau, 2014 Annual Surveys of State and Local Government Finances
State and Local Own Source Revenue

Since states differ in the relative distribution of tax burdens between state and local governments, any comparison of revenue burdens among states requires a consideration of combined state and local revenue burdens. Here we report state and local own revenue burdens for Kentucky and its competitor states in 2014. On a per capita basis, Kentucky’s per capita own-source state and local revenue was $5,867 in 2014, lower than the competitor state average of $6,292 as well as the U.S. average of $6,761. Alaska had the highest amount at $14,348 and Arizona the lowest at $5,114. These dollars have been adjusted to reflect state-level cost-of-living differences using regional price parity estimates from the U.S. Bureau of Economic Analysis.
State government in Kentucky collects 67.5 percent of state and local own-source revenues (2014); only West Virginia, which collects 71.1 percent through the state, is more centralized (among the competitor states). All of the other competitor states collect 60 percent or less through state sources. Conversely, Georgia collects over 50 percent from local revenue sources. The competitor states and U.S. averages are both about 55 percent, indicating substantially less centralization at the state level compared to Kentucky. Nationally, Vermont is the most centralized at 82.1 percent, while New York is the lowest at 45.4 percent.

State Portion of Total Revenue, 2014, Kentucky, Competitor States, and the U.S.
(percentage of state and local own source revenue)

Source: U.S. Census Bureau, 2014 Annual Surveys of State and Local Government Finances
STATE AND LOCAL EXPENDITURES

Here we present data that illustrate Kentucky’s state and local spending by selected functional categories: *Education*, which includes elementary and secondary education and higher education; *Public Protection*, which includes police, fire, and corrections; *Social Services*, which includes public welfare, public assistance, and Medicaid; *Community Development*, which includes libraries, natural resources, parks and recreation, and housing and community development; and *Infrastructure*, which includes highways, water, sewers, utilities, and solid waste. For Kentucky, the competitor states, and the U.S., these five categories account for around 80 percent of state and local government expenditures (2014). As a percentage of total state and local government expenditures, Kentucky spends about the same on education and infrastructure, more on social services, and less on public protection and community development compared to the U.S. average. The Other category includes government administration, interest paid on debt, and insurance. However, as the figures on the following pages show (pages 184-193), when comparing per capita expenditures, a slightly different picture emerges. On a per capita basis, Kentucky expenditures are lower than the U.S. for every category except social services, where they are about the same.

Distribution of Selected State and Local Expenditures, 2014, Kentucky, Competitor States, and the U.S. (percent of total state and local expenditures)

Source: U.S. Census Bureau, 2014 Annual Surveys of State and Local Government Finances
Education expenditures include elementary and secondary education, higher education, and other education such as adult, technical, or vocational education equal to or less than two years of college. State and local expenditures for education steadily increased on a per capita basis (in constant 2015 dollars) from 1995 until 2009-2010. These expenditures have been declining slightly since 2010 for Kentucky, the competitor states, and the U.S. When viewed over the 20-year period from 1995 to 2014, Kentucky has a slightly higher percentage increase (40%) than the competitor states (29%) or the U.S. overall (30%). Kentucky has expended more of its cumulative gross domestic product on education during this time period (5.5%) than either the competitor states (5.1%) or the U.S. (5.0%). These investments have enabled the state to improve its educational standing relative to the other states. Research shows that investments in human capital—education—are vital for a state’s economic success. A highly educated population can create new enterprises with innovative and entrepreneurial activities, and a skilled labor force can attract new plants and factories. The “availability of skilled labor” ranks as the most important factor for respondents to the most recent Annual Survey of Corporate Executive and Consultants on Site Selection, with 93 percent ranking it as either “important” or “very important.

State and Local Education Expenditures, Per Capita, 1995-2014, Kentucky, Competitor States, and the U.S.

Source: U.S. Census Bureau, Annual Survey of State and Local Government Finance
Note: KY and CS data for 2001 and 2003 are interpolated.
One way to reasonably assess a state’s position relative to other states is by ranking the states and placing them into four more or less equal groups, or quartiles. Kentucky’s per capita state and local expenditures for education in 2014 are in the third quartile of states. Wyoming is the highest at $4,660 and Florida is the lowest at $1,980. Kentucky’s per capita spending is $2,948. These dollars have been adjusted to reflect state-level cost-of-living differences using regional price parity estimates from the U.S. Bureau of Economic Analysis.

**Education Expenditures, 2014**

(Adjusted dollars using 2014 Regional Price Parities)

Source: U.S. Census Bureau, Annual Survey of State and Local Government Finance, 2014
COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT EXPENDITURES

We combine four broad areas—libraries, natural resources, parks & recreation, and housing & community development—into a single category called community development. State and local expenditures for community development in Kentucky steadily increased on a per capita basis (in constant 2015 dollars) from 1995 until 2005-06, but have been flat or declining slightly for the last ten years. When viewed over the 20-year period from 1995 to 2014, Kentucky has a lower percentage increase (13%) than the competitor states (22%) or the U.S. overall (21%). Kentucky has expended less of its cumulative gross domestic product on community development during this time period (0.59%) than either the competitor states (0.68%) or the U.S. (0.75%). Quality of life factors, which can include social amenities like libraries, parks, and natural open spaces, ranks as the third most important factor for respondents to the most recent Annual Survey of Corporate Executive and Consultants on Site Selection, evidenced by 87.6 percent ranking it as either “important” or “very important.” Availability of skilled labor and highway accessibility ranked first and second, respectively.

Source: U.S. Census Bureau, Annual Survey of State and Local Government Finance
Note: KY and CS data for 2001 and 2003 are interpolated.
Here we place the states into four approximately equal groups called quartiles. With per capita spending of $296, Kentucky’s state and local expenditures for community development in 2014 are in the bottom quartile. Alaska is the highest at $1,182 and Texas is the lowest at $247. These dollars have been adjusted to reflect state-level cost-of-living differences using regional price parity estimates from the U.S. Bureau of Economic Analysis.
Social Services Expenditures

We combine five categories—public welfare, hospitals, health, social insurance, and veteran’s services—into a single category called social services; this covers expenditures associated with three Federal programs—Supplemental Security Income (SSI), Temporary Assistance for Needy Families (TANF), and Medicaid. State and local expenditures for social services increased steadily on a per capita basis (in constant 2015 dollars) from 1995 to 2014 in Kentucky, among the competitor states, and in the U.S. overall. When viewed over this 20-year period, Kentucky has a higher percentage increase (67%) than the competitor states or the U.S. overall, both of which increased 43 percent. Also, Kentucky expended more of its cumulative gross domestic product on social services during this time period (4.8%) than either the competitor states (4.0%) or the U.S. (3.9%).

Source: U.S. Census Bureau, Annual Survey of State and Local Government Finance
Note: KY and CS data for 2001 and 2003 are interpolated.
Here we place the states into four approximately equal groups called quartiles. With per capita spending of $2,813, Kentucky's state and local expenditures for social services in 2014 are in the third quartile. Wyoming is the highest at $3,762 and New Hampshire is the lowest at $1,514. These dollars have been adjusted to reflect state-level cost-of-living differences using regional price parity estimates from the U.S. Bureau of Economic Analysis.

Source: U.S. Census Bureau, Annual Survey of State and Local Government Finance, 2014
We combine four categories—police protection, fire protection, corrections (e.g., prisons and jails), and protective inspection (e.g., building & construction inspections and licensing)—into a single category called public protection. State and local expenditures for public protection increased moderately on a per capita basis (in constant 2015 dollars) from 1995 to 2014 in Kentucky, among the competitor states, and in the U.S. overall. When viewed over this 20-year period, Kentucky (29%) and the competitor states (28%) have increased at a slightly higher rate than the U.S. overall (23%). Also, Kentucky expended about the same percentage of its cumulative gross domestic product on public protection during this time period (1.1%) as the competitor states (1.2%) and the U.S. (1.3%).

Source: U.S. Census Bureau, Annual Survey of State and Local Government Finance
Note: KY and CS data for 2001 and 2003 are interpolated.
Here we place the states into four approximately equal groups called quartiles. With per capita spending of $503, Kentucky’s state and local expenditures for public protection in 2014 are in the bottom quartile. In fact, Kentucky has the lowest value of any state. Alaska is the highest at $1,194. These dollars have been adjusted to reflect state-level cost-of-living differences using regional price parity estimates from the U.S. Bureau of Economic Analysis.
We combine several expenditure categories into a single catchall to estimate infrastructure expenditures; this includes highways, air transportation, sea & inland ports, parking facilities, sewerage, solid waste management, and utilities like water supply, electric power, gas supply & transit. State and local expenditures for infrastructure have steadily increased on a per capita basis (in constant 2015 dollars). When viewed over the 20-year period from 1995 to 2014, Kentucky has a higher percentage increase (34%) than the competitor states (12%) or the U.S. (18%). Kentucky has expended slightly more of its cumulative gross domestic product on infrastructure (2.8%) than the competitor states (2.6%)—but about the same as the U.S. (2.7%). Numerous infrastructure factors are ranked high in the most recent Annual Survey of Corporate Executive and Consultants on Site Selection, led by “highway accessibility,” which listed as the second most important factor with 88 percent indicating it is either “important” or “very important.”

State and Local Infrastructure Expenditures, Per Capita, 1995-2014, Kentucky, Competitor States, and the U.S.

Source: U.S. Census Bureau, Annual Survey of State and Local Government Finance
Note: KY and CS data for 2001 and 2003 are interpolated.
Here we place the states into four approximately equal groups called quartiles. With per capita spending of $1,454, Kentucky’s state and local expenditures for infrastructure in 2014 are in the third quartile. Alaska is the highest at $4,064 and New Hampshire is the lowest at $934. These dollars have been adjusted to reflect state-level cost-of-living differences using regional price parity estimates from the U.S. Bureau of Economic Analysis.

Source: U.S. Census Bureau, Annual Survey of State and Local Government Finance, 2014
DEBT

State and local government debt is defined as “all interest-bearing short-term credit obligations and all long-term obligations incurred in the name of the government and all its dependent agencies, whether used for public or private purposes.” Governments issue bonds and incur debt for big-ticket items like roads or large construction projects. In several states, including Kentucky, there has even been discussion about issuing bonds to get public employees retirement systems on firmer financial ground. Nationally, state and local governments had almost $3 trillion in outstanding debt in 2014, with 61.4 percent at the local government level and 38.6 percent at the state government level. The figure shows combined state and local debt per capita, with Kentucky second among the competitor states at $10,269, 37 percent of which is held by state government. The U.S. per capita debt for state and local governments is $9,328. These dollars have been adjusted to reflect state-level cost-of-living differences using regional price parity estimates from the U.S. Bureau of Economic Analysis.

Source: U.S. Census Bureau, 2014 Annual Surveys of State and Local Government Finances
Here we provide additional information on the sources of the data used to create the tables and figures in the 2017 Kentucky Annual Economic Report. In virtually all instances the source of the data is a federal agency. However, in some cases the data presented is only for Kentucky and frequently the source is Kentucky state government.


**Agriculture and GDP**—U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of Economic Analysis, Gross domestic product (GDP) by state (millions of current dollars).

**Air Quality (part 1)**—Kentucky Energy and Environment Cabinet, Department for Environmental Protection, Division for Air Quality, *Fiscal Year 2016 Annual Report* <air.ky.gov/>. The data on air quality trends were obtained via email from the Jennifer Miller, Division for Air Quality on November 23, 2016. Notes about specific pollutants: \( \text{O}_3 \)—Based upon annual statewide averages of all fourth highest daily maximum 8-hour concentrations [29 sites used for 2015 average (ppm)]; \( \text{NO}_2 \)—Based upon annual statewide averages of all 98th percentile daily concentrations 1-hour averages [7 sites used for 2015 average (ppm)]; and \( \text{SO}_2 \)—Based upon annual statewide averages of all 99th percentile daily maximum 1-hour concentrations [12 sites used for 2015 average (ppm)].

**Air Quality (part 2)**—See the endnote above for detailed information on the source. Notes about specific pollutants: \( \text{CO} \)—Based upon annual statewide averages of all second highest daily maximum 1-hour concentrations [3 sites used for 2015 average (ppm)]; \( \text{PM}_{2.5} \)—Based upon annual statewide averages of all 98th percentile 24-hour concentrations [16 sites used for 2015 average (µ/m3)]; and \( \text{PM}_{10} \)—Based upon annual statewide averages of all maximum 24-hour concentrations [8 sites used for 2015 average (µ/m3)].

**Associate’s Degrees**—American Community Survey, 2015 1-Year Estimate.

**Average Weekly Wages**—U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics, Quarterly Census of Employment and Wages, total, all industries, total covered, all establishment sizes, all employees <www.bls.gov/cew/>. The CPI data are for all urban consumers.

**Banking Status**—FDIC *National Survey of Unbanked and Underbanked Households, 2015*.

**Bridges**—U.S. Department of Transportation, Federal Highway Administration, Bridges and Structures <www.fhwa.dot.gov/bridge/deficient.cfm>.

**Broadband Access & Use by County**—Refer to Michael T. Childress, “The Internet in Kentucky: Life in the Slow Lane,” CBER Issue Brief 9, September 2012 <cber.uky.edu/>. The analysis presented here is an updated version of the work published in 2012; here we use 2014 ACS PUMS to estimate county-level household broadband access and broadband data from the National Broadband Map, June 2014.

**Broadband**—National Telecommunications and Information Administration (NTIA), National Broadband Map <www.broadbandmap.gov>.


Chronic Disease by County (Number & Percent)—Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (CDC). Behavioral Risk Factor Surveillance System Survey Data. Atlanta, Georgia: U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, Centers for Disease Control and Prevention, 2011-2015. To estimate county-level percentages and numbers we use a special grouping of counties developed by the University of Kentucky Markey Cancer Control Program and College of Public Health under the direction of the Kentucky Department for Public Health.


Coal Production—Kentucky Energy and Environment Cabinet, Kentucky Quarterly Coal Reports <energy.ky.gov/Pages/CoalFacts.aspx>.


College Readiness—The Condition of College & Career Readiness, 2016, various state reports, ACT, Inc. The Competitor States values reflect a weighted average of the 12 states.

Community Development Expenditures (in the U.S.)—U.S. Census Bureau, 2014 Annual Surveys of State and Local Government Finances <www.census.gov/govs/estimate/>. We use the following Census Bureau Item Codes to create this category: E52, F52, G52, E55, F55, G55, E56, F56, G56, E59, F59, G59, E61, F61, G61, E50, F50, and G50.


County Population Changes—Census data obtained from the Kentucky State Data Center <ksdc.louisville.edu/> and the U.S. Census Bureau.

County-Level Innovation Index—Innovations in America’s Regions, a project funded in part by the U.S. Commerce Department’s Economic Development Administration. Work was conducted by the Purdue Center for Regional Development, the Indiana Business Research Center at Indiana University’s Kelley School of Business, and other research partners. Data are available online at <www.statsamerica.org/innovation/index.html>.

Notes & Sources


Disconnected Young Adults—Percentages are estimated from 2014 1-year PUMS data. In addition to the age variable (AGEP), there are three variables used to create this recoded variable: ESR—Employment Status Recode (where ESR=3 or 6); SCHL—Educational Attainment (where SCHL<=19); and SCH—School Enrollment (where SCH=1).

Earned Income per Capita (by County)—U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of Economic Analysis.

Education Expenditures (in the U.S.)—U.S. Census Bureau, 2014 Annual Surveys of State and Local Government Finances <www.census.gov/govs/estimate/>. We use the following Census Bureau Item Codes to create this category: E12, F12, G12, E16, E18, F16, F18, G16, G18, E21, F21, G21, and J19.

Education Index—Refer to Michael T. Childress, “Kentucky’s Educational Performance & Points of Leverage,” CBER Issue Brief, December 2015 <cber.uky.edu/>.


Educational Spending ROI—See Educational Index above.


Employment by Education—Refer to Christopher R. Bollinger, “Want a Job? Get a College Degree,” CBER Issue Brief, October 2015 <cber.uky.edu/>.


Family Income by Education—Refer to Christopher R. Bollinger, “Education Pays Everywhere!” CBER Issue Brief, October 2015 <cber.uky.edu/>.


Farms—These data come from various sources, including the Kentucky Department of Agriculture’s annual report, Kentucky Agricultural Statistics and the United States Department of Agriculture, Farms and Land in Farms, various years.


Food Stamp Participation—U.S. Department of Agriculture, Food and Nutrition Service.

Foreclosures—Mortgage Bankers Association, National Delinquency Survey.

Notes & Sources

General Fund Receipts by Source—Kentucky Finance and Administration Cabinet and the Kentucky Revenue Cabinet, Annual Reports, various years.

Gini Index (by State and County)—U.S. Census Bureau, American Community Survey, various years.

Growth Rates, Taxes and Income—U.S. Census Bureau, Bureau of Economic Analysis & State Government Tax Collections.

Health by Education—Refer to Christopher R. Bollinger, “Education for Your Health!,” CBER Issue Brief, October 2015 <cber.uky.edu/>.


High-Speed Internet—American Community Survey, 2015 1-Year estimate.

High-Technology Establishments—Using the National Science Foundation and Milken Institute designations of 4-digit NAICS codes and County Business Patterns data on number of establishments, we calculation the percentage that are considered high-tech establishments. Here are the 50 NAICS codes used: 1131, 1132, 2111, 2211, 3241, 3251, 3252, 3253, 3254, 3255, 3259, 3332, 3333, 3336, 3339, 3341, 3342, 3343, 3344, 3345, 3346, 3353, 3364, 3369, 4234, 4861, 4862, 4869, 5112, 5161, 5171, 5172, 5173, 5174, 5179, 5181, 5182, 5211, 5232, 5413, 5415, 5416, 5417, 5511, 5612, 8112, 3391, 5121, 5191, 6215.

Household Income Growth—These data are from the Current Population Survey (CPS), March supplements, which, since 2005, is called the Annual Social and Economic Supplement. The survey asks about income in the previous year, so, for example, the March 2015 supplement provides income data for 2014. The data used in this analysis were downloaded from IPUMS-CPS, courtesy of Miriam King, Steven Ruggles, J. Trent Alexander, Sarah Flood, Katie Genadek, Matthew B. Schroeder, Brandon Trampe, and Rebecca Vick. Integrated Public Use Microdata Series, Current Population Survey: Version 3.0. [Machine-readable database]. Minneapolis: University of Minnesota, 2010.

Household Income Ratio—See Household Income Growth above for data source information.

Household Income—U.S. Census Bureau, State Median Income, Annual Social and Economic Supplement, Table H-8. Median Household Income by State, 1984 to 2015, and the Annual Social and Economic Supplement. The competitor state average is not a weighted average; instead, it is a simple average of the median house hold incomes of the 12 competitor states. Household income includes income of the householder and all other people 15 years and older in the household,
whether or not they are related to the householder. The median is the point that divides the household income distribution into halves, one half with income above the median and the other with income below the median. The median is based on the income distribution of all households, including those with no income. The distributional data is a one-year (2015) estimate from the American Community Survey.

**Housing Starts**—U.S. Census Bureau.


**Income Tax Revenue by Education**—Refer to Christopher R. Bollinger, “How to Raise State Revenue without Raising Taxes,” CBER Issue Brief, October 2015 <cber.uky.edu/>.


**Industrial Research & Development**—National Science Foundation, Business and Industrial R&D, various years <www.nsf.gov/statistics/industry/>.

**Infrastructure Expenditures (in the U.S.)**—U.S. Census Bureau, 2014 Annual Surveys of State and Local Government Finances <www.census.gov/govs/estimate/>. We use the following Census Bureau Item Codes to create this category: E44, F44, G44, E45, F45, G45, E94, F94, G94, I94, E01, F01, G01, E87, F87, G87, E91, F91, G91, I91, E80, F80, G80, E60, F60, G60, E92, F92, G92, I92, E93, F93, G93, I93, E81, F81, and G81.

**Infrastructure Expenditures (in the U.S.)**—U.S. Census Bureau, 2014 Annual Surveys of State and Local Government Finances <www.census.gov/govs/estimate/>.


**Labor Force Participation**—American Community Survey, U.S. Census Bureau, 2015 1-year estimate.

**Land Use**—U.S. Department of Agriculture, National Resource Inventory.

**Lead Risk**—The methodology used in producing the county-level lead exposure risk levels is based on data from the 2014 American Community Survey 5-Year estimates. Specifically, we used census tract-level housing age and poverty data; each of these is responsible for a different component of lead exposure risk. This data enumerates the number of households in each stratum of building age and poverty level, so to yield county-level data, we simply summed along the first five digits of GeoID2: the county portion of the unique census tract identifier. Proceeding, we used coefficients produced by a team at the Washington State Department of Health and Vox media to produce two regressions: 1) lead exposure risk due to housing; and, 2) lead exposure risk due to poverty. Then each of those were normalized and these z-scores were summed, with 58% weight on housing risk and 42% on poverty. Finally, this “raw score” was sorted into deciles, yielding the lead exposure risk estimates. More information is available at <www.vox.com/a/lead-exposure-risk-map>.

**Local Food Suppliers**—U.S. Department of Agriculture, 2012 *Census of Agriculture* (Table 43:
Selected Practices).

**Median Age**—U.S. Census Bureau.

**Medicaid Beneficiaries**—Kaiser Family Foundation, <www.statehealthfacts.org> and Centers for Medicare & Medicaid Services, State/County Penetration File, (various years).

**Mining and Coal**—These data are from the Bureau of Economic Analysis and the Energy Information Administration, Annual Coal Report, various years.

**Minority Population**—U.S. Census Bureau.

**Motor Gasoline Expenditures**—U.S. Energy Information Administration, State Energy Data System.


**Natural Gas Supplanting Coal**—U.S. Energy Information Administration, Table 8.2a Electricity Net Generation Total (All Sectors) 1949-2011 <www.eia.gov/totalenergy/data/annual/showtext.cfm?t=ptb0802a>, and the EIA Short-Term Energy Outlook 2016, Figure 25 <www.eia.gov/forecasts/steo/report/>.

**Neighborhood Quality**—2011 National Survey of Children’s Health <childhealthdata.org>.


**Patents (by County)**—U.S. Patent and Trademark Office, Utility Patents <www.uspto.gov/web/offices/ac/ido/oeip/taf/cst_utlh.htm>. Population data are from the U.S. Census Bureau <www.census.gov>. The competitor states is a weighted average of AL, GA, IL, IN, MS, MO, NC, OH, SC, TN, VA, and WV.

**Per Capita Personal Income**—U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of Economic Analysis, SA1-3 Personal income summary.

**Performance on Standardized Tests**—U.S. Department of Education, Institute of Education Sciences, National Center for Education Statistics, National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP), various assessments, <nces.ed.gov/nationsreportcard/naepdata/>.


**Population Change**—U.S. Census Bureau, Decennial Census, 2000 and the American Community
Survey 2015 1-year estimate.

Population Totals—U.S. Census Bureau, Urban and Rural Population: 1900 to 1990 <www.census.gov/population/www/censusdata/files/urpop0090.txt>. The 2000 and 2010 population totals were obtained from the Census totals available at <www.census.gov>. The competitor state average of 41 per-cent increase is a weighted average of the 12 competitor states.


Problem Bridges by County—U.S. Department of Transportation, Federal Highway Administration, Bridges and Structures.

Public Assistance by Education—U.S. Census Bureau, Public Use Microdata Sample (PUMS), ACS 2015.


Public Protection Expenditures (in the U.S.)—U.S. Census Bureau, 2014 Annual Surveys of State and Local Government Finances <www.census.gov/govs/estimate/>. We use the following Census Bureau Item Codes to create this category: E04, F04, G04, E05, F05, G05, E62, F62, G62, E24, F24, G24, E66, F66, and G66.


Regional Population Change—U.S. Census Bureau.


Revenue from Federal Transfers—U.S. Census Bureau, 2014 Annual Surveys of State and Local Government Finances <www.census.gov/govs/estimate/>. These per capita estimates have been adjusted to reflect cost-of-living differences across the states using the 2014 regional price parity
estimates from the Bureau of Economic Analysis.


**Rural Population**—U.S. Census Bureau, Urban and Rural Population: 1900 to 1990 <www.census.gov/population/www/censusdata/files/urpop0090.txt>. The 2000 and 2010 population totals were obtained from the Census totals available at <factfinder2.census.gov/faces/nav/jsf/pages/index.xhtml>. The competitor state average is a weighted average of the 12 competitor states.

**SBIR/STTR Awards by County**—Small Business Innovation Research, Small Business Technology Transfer <www.sbir.gov/past-awards>.

**Science & Technology Index**—Milken Institute, 2016 State Technology and Science Index <www.milkeninstitute.org>.

**Science and Engineering Graduates**—Calculated from the Integrated Postsecondary Education Data System (IPEDS) using 2013 STEM-designed CIP codes.

**Selected Educational Indicators**—Refer to Michael T. Childress, “Kentucky’s Educational Performance & Points of Leverage,” CBER Issue Brief, December 2015 <cber.uky.edu/>.

**Selected Obstacles to Education**—Refer to Michael T. Childress, “Kentucky’s Educational Performance & Points of Leverage,” CBER Issue Brief, December 2015 <cber.uky.edu/>.


**Social Determinants of Health**—We use 24 variables organized around five broad thematic areas used in the U.S. Department for Health and Human Services, Healthy People 2020 framework: HEALTH (using data from County Health Rankings and the Area Resource File, we use the Population to Dentists ratio, Population to Mental Health Providers ratio, Population to Primary Care Physicians ratio, other Primary Care Providers ratio, and percentage of the population with health insurance); EDUCATION (high school graduation is obtained from the adjusted cohort graduation rate data and, where necessary, weighted estimates are produced at the county-level where there are multiple high schools in a county, successful transition to adulthood using higher education, work, and military, language and literacy data from EXPLORE benchmark, and early childhood education and development data on kindergarten readiness); ECONOMIC STABILITY (poverty rate from the U.S.
Census ACS, unemployment rate from BLS, food insecurity from County Health Rankings, housing stability using foreclosure data from HUD, and Gini Index values from the Census ACS; SOCIAL (associational density data from 2013 County Business Patterns (NAICS 713910, 713940, 713950, 713990, 813110, 813410, 813910, 813920, 813930, and 813940), voter turnout for the 2014 general election data from the Kentucky State Board of Elections, the county-level response rate to the 2010 U.S. decennial census (U.S. Census Bureau), and the number of tax-exempt non-profit organizations (Business Master File, March 2016) from the National Center for Charitable Statistics.); NEIGHBORHOOD & BUILT ENVIRONMENT (ESHE Index on the availability of health food, severe housing problems using data from County Health Rankings, specified as the number of households experiencing overcrowding, high housing costs, or lack of kitchen or plumbing facilities. These data come from the Census Bureau and HUD’s Comprehensive Housing Affordability Strategy, crime rate data from the Kentucky State Police, a lead risk index generated from housing age and poverty, air pollution data from EPA, and water quality data from County Health Rankings which uses EPA data on health-based violations). We perform a principal component analysis on each of the five thematic areas and average the results at the county-level to generate a county score. All data are transformed and ordered so that a high positive number is considered “good” for health outcomes.


Sources of Personal Income—U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of Economic Analysis, SA04 State income and employment summary.

State and Local Expenditures—U.S. Census Bureau, 2014 Annual Surveys of State and Local Government Finances <www.census.gov/govs/estimate/>.


State and Local Revenue by Source—U.S. Census Bureau, 2014 Annual Surveys of State and Local Government Finances <www.census.gov/govs/estimate/>.

State Portion of Total Revenue—U.S. Census Bureau, 2014 Annual Surveys of State and Local Government Finances <www.census.gov/govs/estimate/>.

Structural Deficit—William Hoyt, William Fox, Michael Childress, and James Saunoris, Final Report to the Governor’s Blue Ribbon Commission on Tax Reform, September 2012, University of Kentucky, Center for Business and Economic Research <cber.uky.edu>.

Supplemental Security Income (SSI)—Social Security Administration, Master Beneficiary Record and Supplemental Security Record, 100 percent data.

Technology Use by Education—Estimated using Current Population Survey Computer and Internet Use Supplement, July 2015. This is a measure of Internet use from any location and is constructed using these variables, where PEINHOME=1 OR PEINWORK=1 OR PEINSCHL=1 OR PEINCAFE=1 OR PEINTRAV=1 OR PEINLICO=1 OR PEINELHO=1 OR PEINOTHR=1. More information available at the U.S. Department of Commerce, NTIA, Digital Nation Data Explorer <www.ntia.doc.gov/other-publication/2016/digital-nation-data-explorer>.


Toxic Releases—U.S. Environmental Protection Agency, Toxics Release Inventory, TRI Explorer <iaspub.epa.gov/triexplorer/tri_release.chemical>. These data are TRI On-site and Off-site Reported Disposed of or Otherwise Released (in pounds), for All industries, for All chemicals, 2015.

Transfer Payments by County—Bureau of Economic Analysis.

Transition from Goods to Services—U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of Economic Analysis <www.bea.gov/itable/>. Using the NAICS and SIC classifications, we categorize these industries as “goods producing”: agriculture, forestry, fishing, and hunting; mining; construction; and manufacturing. The rest of the industries are considered “service providing.” Government includes federal, state and local.


Value-Added Food Production—U.S. Census Bureau, Annual Survey of Manufactures, various years.


Volunteer Hours—These data are from the 2015 Current Population Survey (CPS) September Volunteer Supplement results, based on adults aged 15 and older.

Volunteer Rate by Education—These data are from the 2015 Current Population Survey (CPS) September Volunteer Supplement results, based on adults aged 25 and older.

Volunteer Rate—These data are from the 2015 Current Population Survey (CPS) September Volunteer Supplement results, based on adults aged 15 and older. Volunteers are considered individuals who performed unpaid volunteer activities through or for an organization at any point during the 12-month period, from September 1 of the prior year through the survey week in September of the survey year.


**Water Quality**—United States, Environmental Protection Agency, Drinking Water and Ground Water Statistics (various years).

**White, Non-Hispanic Population**—U.S. Census Bureau.

**Women, Infants, and Children (WIC)**—U.S. Department of Agriculture, Food and Nutrition Service.

**Youth Alcohol and Drug Abuse**—Centers for Disease Control and Prevention, Youth Risk Behavior Surveillance System (YRBSS), <www.cdc.gov/healthyyouth/yrbs/index.htm>.
In this glossary we provide brief definitions of key concepts and terms used throughout the 2017 Kentucky Annual Economic Report. This glossary is not an exhaustive compilation of key concepts and terms, but should nevertheless be a useful guide for the lay audience interested in economic trends and public policy issues.

**Bankruptcy**—A legal proceeding involving a person or business that is unable to repay outstanding debts.

**Commodity**—A product, either raw or manufactured, that can be purchased or traded.

**Competitor States**—States that are similar to Kentucky in terms of economic and demographic characteristics which are viewed as the main competitors to Kentucky for industrial development. There are twelve states: Alabama, Georgia, Illinois, Indiana, Mississippi, Missouri, North Carolina, Ohio, South Carolina, Tennessee, Virginia, West Virginia.

**Compound Annual Growth Rate (CAGR)**—The rate of increase in the value of a quantity that is compounded over several years.

**Constant dollars**—Nominal or current dollar amounts that are adjusted to remove the effect of inflation.

**Consumer Price Index (CPI)**—The U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics, defines the CPI as a “measure of the average change over time in the prices paid by urban consumers for a market basket of consumer goods and services.”

**Current dollars**—Also called nominal dollars, these dollar amounts are not adjusted to remove the effect of inflation and represent the current value of the dollar during a given year.

**Dividends**—The portion of the profits generated by a corporation that is dispersed to its shareholders.
Eastern Kentucky—Counties in Kentucky located in the eastern most Area Development Districts (ADDs), including Bath, Bell, Boyd, Bracken, Breathitt, Carter, Clay, Elliott, Fleming, Floyd, Greenup, Harlan, Jackson, Johnson, Knott, Knox, Laurel, Lawrence, Lee, Leslie, Letcher, Lewis, Magoffin, Martin, Mason, Menifee, Montgomery, Morgan, Owsley, Perry, Pike, Robertson, Rockcastle, Rowan, Whitley, and Wolfe Counties.

Export—Goods and/or services generated in one country and sold in another.

Functionally Obsolete (FO) (Bridges) —“A bridge is considered ‘functionally obsolete’ when it does not meet current design standards (for criteria such as lane width), either because the volume of traffic carried by the bridge exceeds the level anticipated when the bridge was constructed and/or the relevant design standards have been revised.” See “2010 Status of the Nation’s Highways, Bridges, and Transit: Conditions and Performance.”

Gini (coefficient) Index—A measure of income dispersion, ranging from zero, which indicates perfect equality, to one, which indicates absolute inequality. A higher number indicates more concentration of income in fewer hands, with a value of one indicating that one person holds all the income.

Globalization—An adjective describing the interdependent relationship between national economies that has both positive and negative impacts on international markets.

Great Recession—The period of decline in annual real world gross domestic product per capita experienced in the U.S. from December of 2007 until June of 2009, leading to a decrease international trade, a notable rise in unemployment, and deflated commodity prices.

Gross Domestic Product (GDP)—The total value of a country’s goods and services. This includes private consumption, investment, government spending, and exports (subtracting imports from this value).
**Inflation**—The phenomenon where the price of goods and services increases, while the value of the currency used to purchase those items remains stagnant; getting less “bang for your buck.”

**Interest**—The rate lenders charge borrowers to compensate for risk attributed to making funds available to borrowers, also known as the cost of borrowing.

**Mean (syn Average)**—The sum of all values divided by the total number of values.

**Median**—The most central number in a data set; the number separating the upper half of the sample/population from the lower half.

**Middle-class**—In terms of income, those households ranging between $50,800 and $122,800 (for two-parent, two child families). See U.S. Census Bureau; “Middle Class in America,” (2010) U.S. Department of Commerce, Economics and Statistics Administration. However, there are many definitions of “middle class” and opinions on what should be included when categorizing households (e.g., income, net worth, government transfers, etc.).

**Nominal dollars**—An unadjusted dollar value that reflects the historical value; it has not been adjusted to remove the effect of inflation.

**Outsourcing**—Transferring business activities outside of a firm in order to reduce costs.

**Patent**—A property right granted by the government of the United States of America to an inventor “to exclude others from making, using, offering for sale, or selling the invention throughout the United States or importing the invention into the United States” for a limited time in exchange for public disclosure of the invention when the patent is granted.

**Per Capita**—An adjustment made to reflect the size of the population. For example, per capita income represents the level of income for every child, woman, and man in the base population.

**Personal Income**—Income received by persons from all sources. It includes income received from participation in production as well as from government and business transfer payments. It is the sum of compensation of employees (received), supplements to wages and salaries, proprietors’ income with inventory valuation adjustment (IVA) and capital consumption adjustment (CCAdj), rental income of persons with CCAdj, personal income receipts on assets, and personal current transfer receipts, less contributions for government social insurance.

**Poverty Rate**—The percentage of people (or families) living below the poverty line ($11,770 for individuals; $24,250 for a family of four).

**Poverty**—The Census Bureau uses a set of money income thresholds that vary by family size and composition to determine who is in poverty. If a family’s total income is less than the family’s threshold, then that family and every individual in it is considered in poverty. The official poverty thresholds do not vary geographically, but they are updated for inflation using Consumer Price Index (CPI-U). The official poverty definition uses money income before taxes and does not include capital gains or noncash benefits (such as public housing, Medicaid, and food stamps).
Property Crimes—In the FBI’s Uniform Crime Reporting (UCR) Program, property crime includes the offenses of burglary, larceny-theft, motor vehicle theft, and arson. The object of the theft-type offenses is the taking of money or property, but there is no force or threat of force against the victims.

Real dollars—Analogous to constant dollars, it reflects the nominal dollar that has been adjusted to remove, for example, the effect of inflation over a period of time.

Real Growth—Represents growth in real or constant dollars.

Recession—in general usage, the word recession connotes a marked slippage in economic activity. The National Bureau of Economic Research (NBER) is charged with officially marking the beginning and ending of a recession. The NBER recession is a monthly concept that takes account of a number of monthly indicators—such as employment, personal income, and industrial production—as well as quarterly GDP growth.

Return on Investment (ROI)—ROI measures the amount the return on an investment relative to the cost of the investment.

Rural—The 2013 Rural-Urban Continuum Codes form a classification scheme that distinguishes metropolitan counties by the population size of their metro area, and nonmetropolitan counties by degree of urbanization and adjacency to a metro area. The official Office of Management and Budget (OMB) metro and nonmetro categories have been subdivided into three metro and six nonmetro categories. Each county in the U.S. is assigned one of the 9 codes.

Social Capital—The networks of relationships among people who live and work in a particular society, enabling that society to function effectively.

South Central Kentucky—Counties in Kentucky located in the Area Development Districts (ADDs) to the south of the Bluegrass District (greater Fayette County), including Adair, Allen, Barren, Breckinridge, Butler, Casey, Clinton, Cumberland, Edmonson, Grayson, Green, Hardin, Hart, Larue, Logan, Marion, McCreary, Meade, Metcalfe, Monroe, Nelson, Pulaski, Russell, Simpson, Taylor, Warren, Washington, and Wayne Counties.

Structurally Deficient (SD) (Bridges)—A bridge that is characterized by deteriorated conditions of significant bridge elements and potentially reduced load-carrying capacity. See “2010 Status of the Nation’s Highways, Bridges, and Transit: Conditions and Performance.”

Urban (syn Metropolitan)—The 2013 Rural-Urban Continuum Codes form a classification scheme that distinguishes metropolitan counties by the population size of their metro area, and nonmetropolitan counties by degree of urbanization and adjacency to a metro area. The official Office of Management and Budget (OMB) metro and nonmetro categories have been subdivided into three metro and six nonmetro categories. Each county in the U.S. is assigned one of the 9 codes.

Urban Triangle—Counties in Kentucky located in the Area Development Districts (ADDs) encompassing Louisville, Lexington, and the Cincinnati area of Northern Kentucky, including Anderson, Boone, Bourbon, Boyle, Bullitt, Campbell, Carroll, Clark, Estill, Fayette, Franklin, Gallatin, Garrard, Grant, Harrison, Henry, Jefferson, Jessamine, Kenton, Lincoln,
Madison, Mercer, Nicholas, Oldham, Owen, Pendleton, Powell, Scott, Shelby, Spencer, Trimble, and Woodford Counties.

**Value Added**—The gross output of an industry or a sector less its intermediate inputs; the contribution of an industry or sector to gross domestic product (GDP). Value added by industry can also be measured as the sum of compensation of employees, taxes on production and imports less subsidies, and gross operating surplus.

**Venture Capital Investments**—Capital invested in a project in which there is a substantial element of risk, typically a new or expanding business.

**Violent Crimes**—In the FBI’s Uniform Crime Reporting (UCR) Program, violent crime is composed of four offenses: murder and nonnegligent manslaughter, rape, robbery, and aggravated assault. Violent crimes are defined in the UCR Program as those offenses which involve force or threat of force.

**Western Kentucky**—Counties in Kentucky located in the western most Area Development Districts (ADDs), including Ballard, Caldwell, Calloway, Carlisle, Christian, Crittenden, Daviess, Fulton, Graves, Hancock, Henderson, Hickman, Hopkins, Livingston, Lyon, Marshall, McCracken, McLean, Muhlenberg, Ohio, Todd, Trigg, Union, and Webster Counties.