FISCAL RESEARCH CENTER

ANALYSIS OF GEORGIA'S UNEMPLOYMENT INSURANCE TRUST FUND RESERVES

Edward Sennoga

Fiscal Research Center Andrew Young School of Policy Studies Georgia State University Atlanta, GA

FRC Report No. 123 March 2006



Acknowledgments

I would like to thank Kenneth Heaghney, Sally Wallace, and David Sjoquist for helpful comments and suggestions. I am also grateful to Mr. John Lawrence of the Georgia Department of Labor for providing us with the Unemployment Insurance Trust Fund data used in this report. All errors remain my own.

Table of Contents

| Ackn | nowledgments | ii |
|------|---|----|
| Exec | cutive Summary | iv |
| I. | Introduction | |
| II. | Institution Background | 2 |
| | 1. Purpose of the Trust Fund | |
| | 2. Financing the UI Trust Fund | |
| | 3. UI Benefits | |
| | 4. Georgia's Trust Fund Size and UI Tax Rates | |
| III. | Structure of Georgia's Trust Fund | 9 |
| | 1. History of Trust Fund Balance | |
| | 2. Surcharges and Rate Reductions | |
| | 3. Solvency Measures | |
| IV. | Trust Fund and the Business Cycle | 16 |
| | 1. Trust Fund Performance over the Business Cycle | 16 |
| | 2. Stress Testing of Alternative Measures of Solvency | 18 |
| V. | Unemployment Insurance Tax Cuts | 21 |
| VI. | Conclusions | 23 |
| Refe | rences | 24 |

Executive Summary

Purpose of the Trust Fund

The uneven distribution of the risk of unemployment implies that a market for Unemployment Insurance (UI) would not form naturally in the private sector, since workers with a lower risk of becoming temporarily unemployed would form their own pool so as to pay lower insurance premiums. Therefore, if UI was voluntary, workers facing a higher risk of temporary unemployment, especially in volatile industries like manufacturing and construction, would face prohibitively high premiums.

This implies therefore that federal and state governments need to partially subsidize the premiums of high-risk workers. A payroll tax collected from employers ensures coverage of both high and relatively low-risk employees.

The federal-state system of UI in the United States was established by the provisions of the Social Security Act of 1935 to provide partial wage replacement for involuntarily unemployed workers, to reduce the dispersal of skilled workers when employers make temporary layoffs, to help maintain aggregate purchasing power during economic downturns, and to prevent the breakdown of general labor standards during such periods.

Financing the UI Trust Fund

Georgia's UI is financed entirely by payroll taxes statutorily levied on employers. Unlike in the states of Alaska, New Jersey, and Pennsylvania which collect employee contributions, employees in Georgia do not contribute to the Trust Fund.

UI taxes have both a federal and state component. Since Georgia's unemployment compensation program has been approved by the federal government and continues to adhere to federal guidelines, the federal tax is, in effect, 0.8 percent of the first \$7,000 of wages, or an equivalent of \$56 per covered worker each year.

Proceeds from the federal government UI tax are used to pay administrative costs of the program at both the federal and state levels, to partially cover the cost of

extended benefits, and to maintain a federal unemployment Trust Fund which a state may borrow from should it exhaust its own Trust Fund. Federal government UI taxes are typically not used to pay benefits.

Federal loans come at a cost to employers as additional federal UI taxes are imposed on employers whose states have borrowed from the federal UI Trust Fund. Federal rules dictate that interest payments on federal loans can only be financed by UI surcharges or general revenues and not paid out of Trust Fund balances.

Georgia's UI taxable wage base is the first \$8,500 of earnings for each employee each year, paid by all liable employers or employers subject to the Employment Security Law. Wages over \$8,500 are considered non-taxable for UI purposes in the state of Georgia.

Tax rates are based on the "experience rating principle." This principle considers the history of an employer's UI benefits paid to former workers, the growth of an employer's payroll, and the overall unemployment conditions for the state. The experience rating principle requires that an employer's tax rate vary positively with its propensity to lay off workers, suggesting that each employer is subject to a different rate.

The minimum and maximum UI rates in Georgia for 2005 were 0.03 percent and 6.48 percent, respectively. The maximum UI tax rate for 2006 is 6.21 percent while the minimum rate is unchanged at 0.03 percent.

Revenues from the state UI taxes are deposited in the UI Trust Fund managed by the U.S. Treasury. The U.S. Treasury pays approximately 7 percent in interest on the accounts and states draw down the Trust Fund to pay benefits and refund overpayments to employers.

The UI Trust Fund is used exclusively to finance the payment of regular benefits which comprise the biggest proportion of total UI costs. Federal loans to the state must eventually be repaid with interest, and as such, Georgia's UI system is essentially self-financed by its employers.

UI Benefits

UI provides unemployment benefits to eligible workers who are unemployed through no fault of their own and who are either looking for another job, have definite recall to their jobs within 6 weeks of the last day worked, or are in approved training. Eligibility for benefits is determined based on past wages, reason for job separation, and availability and job search requirements.

The weekly benefit amount (WBA) of benefits a claimant may receive is the whole dollar amount which is computed by dividing the two highest base period quarters (or the first four of the last five completed calendar quarters at the time of filing) by 46.

The number of weeks of entitlement ranges from a minimum of nine weeks to a maximum of 26 weeks. The total maximum benefits to which a claimant is entitled during the benefit year (365 days forward from the date the claim is filed) is one-fourth of the total base period wages or 26 times the weekly benefit amount, whichever is less.

The extended benefit program provides up to 13 weeks of additional benefits or "extended benefits" to workers who have exhausted their regular UI benefits especially in times of high unemployment.

The state of Georgia is reimbursed by the federal government for 50 percent of all but the first week of extended benefits, implying that there is a charge of 100 percent to Georgia employers for the first week of these benefits. Governmental agencies are charged 100 percent of all weeks paid with extended benefits.

Structure of Georgia's UI Trust Fund

Georgia's Trust Fund balance has grown steadily over the past 30 years (1970-1999), with only minor drawdown cycles during the periods 1974-1976, 1981-1982, and 1990-1992. The onset of the new millennium saw a marked drawdown in Georgia's Trust Fund reserves which lasted for four years starting in 2000 through 2003.

The duration and percentage decrease of the early 2000 drawdown cycle far exceeds any other drawdown cycle in the 35 year history (1970-2004). The drawdown during the period 2000-2004, is among other things, considered to be a result of a 1999 moratorium by the state's legislature providing for the temporary suspension of employer contributions to the Trust Fund.

Georgia's UI structure is designed to ensure solvency of the Trust Fund while minimizing the UI payroll tax burden on the state's employers via surcharges on covered employers when the reserve ratio falls below 1 percent and rate reductions when the reserve ratio gains by over 2.44 percent. According to this criterion, it appears that the rate reduction provision only applied prior to 1975 when the reserve ratio exceeded the 2.44 percent mark, while surcharges should have been imposed after 2002 when the reserve ratio fell short of the 1 percent threshold.

Solvency of Georgia's UI Trust Fund

The solvency of Georgia's UI Trust Fund is evaluated by three widely used measures of assessing UI Trust Fund adequacy: the average high cost multiple (AHCM), high cost multiple (HCM), and the reserve ratio. We compute the second highest cost multiple or 2HCM for comparison purposes.

The AHCM, computes adequate reserves to finance at least 12 months of benefits paid out at the average of the state's three highest "cost rates" (statewide ratio of benefits paid out of total wages of UI eligible employees in any calendar year) over the previous 20 years. For comparison purposes, we also compute the AHCM over the past 35 years.

Our findings reveal that Georgia's AHCM is 119 which falls short of the U.S. Labor Department (U.S. DOL) endorsed AHCM of 150. The U.S. DOL standard requires Trust Fund reserves sufficient to finance 18 months of benefits paid out at the average of the three highest cost rates recorded during the past 20 years.

Georgia's AHCM reveals that the state has sufficient reserves to finance 14 months of benefits paid out at the average of the three highest cost rates recorded during the past 20 years. When the period of analysis is extend to 35 years, our results indicate that Georgia's Trust Fund reserves are only sufficient to finance 11

months of benefits paid out at the average of the three highest cost rates recorded during the past 35 years.

The high cost multiple (HCM) measure computes Trust Fund reserves sufficient to finance 12 months of benefits paid out at the highest cost rate recorded during the previous 20 years. According to the HCM standard, Georgia Trust Fund reserves are sufficient to finance approximately 9 months of benefits paid out at the highest cost rate recorded during the past 20 years.

A variant of the HCM measure, the second highest cost multiple or 2HCM, calculates adequate Trust Fund reserves to finance 12 months of benefits paid out at the second highest cost rate recorded during the previous 20 years. Georgia's 2HCM of 118 indicates that the state has sufficient reserves to finance 14 months of benefits paid out at the average of the second highest cost rate recorded during the past 20 years.

The reserve ratio measure on the other hand is a ratio of Trust Fund balances to total wages and is the highest possible threshold of solvency. The reserve ratio assesses Trust Fund reserves relative to full wage insurance. Our findings show that Georgia's reserve ratio was 0.6 percent by the end of 2004, indicating that the state's Trust Fund reserves could replace 0.6 percent of all wages. Most UI solvency experts feel that a pre-recession reserve ratio of at least 2.0 is ideal.

Major Conclusions

The structure of Georgia's Trust Fund is similar to other states in some aspects including the determination of UI tax rates using the experience rating principle while differences encompass the financial health of Georgia's Trust Fund and the liability of employers and employees in the financing of the Trust Fund.

Georgia's UI tax structure is designed to both maintain solvency of the Trust Fund and to minimize the UI tax burden on the states' over 200,000 employers.

The experience rating principle used to compute Georgia's UI tax rates promotes allocative efficiency by imposing a price on each employer that reflects the social costs of the unemployment generated by the employer.

The biggest disadvantage associated with the experience rating principle is the prospect of promoting bankruptcy since it requires higher tax payments from employers at a time when they can least afford them.

Georgia's current Trust Fund is underfunded for two of the four solvency measures examined in addition to the reserve ratio standard. However, Georgia's Trust Fund has not approached insolvency during the historical period examined.

The current Trust Fund structure yields a reasonably stable reserve ratio over the extended period of time (35 years), with the balance remaining above the lower bound of 1 percent throughout the historical period until the year 2000.

I. Introduction

This report explores several aspects of Georgia's Unemployment Insurance (UI) Trust Fund, including the structure and the solvency of the Trust Fund. The main focus of this report is on the appropriate target level for the Trust Fund balance for the state of Georgia. This report is divided into six sections. Section II discusses the institutional background of the UI Trust Fund, Section III analyzes the structure of the Trust Fund while Section IV discusses the performance of Georgia's Trust Fund during previous business cycles. Section V looks at the UI payroll tax rate cuts and Section VI concludes.

II. Institutional Background

The UI program was created over 70 years ago and is designed to assist the short-term unemployed blue-collar worker by providing funds with which to purchase necessities. It lessens the fear of joblessness, while allowing the out-of-work individual an opportunity to make a deliberate search for employment reflective of skills and prior earning power. Stated differently, the unemployment compensation program helps people bridge the gap between jobs. Employers benefit in that unemployment insurance helps to sustain a labor force involuntarily laid off for a temporary period. Unemployment compensation also helps to slow the downward spiral of business activity at the onset of a downturn in the economy.

The unemployment compensation program in Georgia is administered by the Georgia Department of Labor¹ (GDOL), Division of Unemployment Insurance, in accordance with the provisions of the Official Code of Georgia (O.C.G.A.) Title 34, Chapter 8, Sections 1 through 280 also referred to as the Employment Security Law of Georgia. The UI Division is responsible for processing unemployment insurance claims and appeals; determining employer tax rates and liability; and, for processing employers' quarterly reports and tax payments (GDOL, 2005).

1. Purpose of the Trust Fund

The federal-state system of UI in the United States was established by the provisions of the Social Security Act of 1935 to primarily provide partial wage replacement for involuntarily unemployed workers. The original UI provisions aimed to partially reduce lost income for involuntarily unemployed workers, to reduce the dispersal of skilled workers when employers make temporary layoffs, to help maintain aggregate purchasing power during economic downturns, and to prevent the breakdown of general labor standards during such periods (O'Leary, 2000).

Due to the uneven distribution of the risk of unemployment, a market for UI would not form naturally in the private sector, since workers with a lower risk of becoming temporarily unemployed would form their own pool in order to pay lower

-

¹ The Georgia Department of Labor is an affiliate of the U.S. Department of Labor.

insurance premiums. Consequently, if UI was voluntary, workers facing a higher risk of temporary unemployment, especially in volatile industries like manufacturing and construction, would face prohibitively high premiums. To ensure coverage of both high and relatively low-risk employees, the federal and state governments partially subsidize the premiums of high-risk workers through a payroll tax collected from employers.

2. Financing the UI Trust Fund

Who Pays into the Fund: Role of State versus Federal Government

UI in Georgia is financed entirely by payroll taxes levied (statutorily) on employers. Employees in Georgia do not contribute to the Trust Fund unlike in the states of Alaska, New Jersey and Pennsylvania which collect employee contributions as well. Unemployment taxes have both a federal and state component. The federal component is nominally 6.2 percent of the first \$7,000 of the wages of covered employees. However, the federal government grants a credit to employers against all but 0.8 percentage points of the tax, provided that they pay their state taxes in a timely manner and the state's unemployment compensation program adheres to federal guidelines (Tannenwald and O'Leary, 1997). Thus, since Georgia's unemployment compensation program has been approved by the federal government, the federal tax is, in effect, 0.8 percent of the first \$7,000 of wages, or an equivalent of \$56 per covered worker each year (Tannenwald and O'Leary, 1997).

The federal government uses the proceeds from this tax to pay for administration of the program at both the federal and state levels, assume partial responsibility for the cost of extended benefits, and maintain a federal unemployment Trust Fund which a state may borrow from should it exhaust its own Trust Fund. Thus, federal government UI taxes are typically not used to pay benefits. Federal loans come at a cost to employers as additional federal UI taxes are imposed on employers whose states have borrowed from the federal UI Trust Fund. Federal rules

3

² The GDOL defines total covered wages as the all wages paid to an employee during his or her employment by a contributory employer which were covered under the Employment Security Law.

dictate that interest payments on federal loans can only be financed by UI surtaxes or general revenues and not paid out of Trust Fund balances.

The taxable wage base for the state of Georgia is the first \$8,500 of earnings for each employee each year, paid by all liable employers. Wages over \$8,500 are considered non-taxable for the state of Georgia. Tax rates are based on the "experience rating principle" with newly liable employers³, usually employers with less than three year's employment history, being assigned a beginning rate of 2.70 percent. The minimum and maximum UI tax rates are set by the legislature and vary from year to year (GDOL, 2005). The minimum and maximum rates for 2005 were 0.03 percent and 6.48 percent, respectively. The maximum UI tax rate for 2006 is 6.21 percent while the minimum rate is unchanged at 0.03 percent.

Revenues from the state UI taxes are deposited in the UI Trust Fund. The UI Trust Fund is used exclusively to finance the regular benefit payments which comprise the biggest proportion of total UI costs. The state's UI system is essentially self-financed by its employers, especially since any federal loans to the state must eventually be repaid with interest.

Determining UI Tax Rates

As with other states, Georgia's UI tax structure is based on the experience rating principle. This principle considers the history of an employer's UI benefits paid to former workers, growth of an employer's payroll and the overall unemployment conditions for the state. Specifically, this principle requires that an employer's tax rate vary positively with its propensity to lay off workers, and thus each employer is subject to a different rate. The UI tax rate also reflects the extent to which the employer's former employees have drawn UI benefits. Lower UI rates are earned by employers whose unemployment experience costs are less, and higher rates are assigned to employers whose experience indicates greater costs.

4

³ A liable employer refers to an employing unit that is subject to the Employment Security Law.

Georgia's UI tax rates are determined using the "reserve ratio" approach. Under this approach, the GDOL keeps track of each firm's cumulative tax payments to the state Trust Fund since the firm's inception, and the cumulative benefits paid to the firm's laid off workers. For a given computation date, usually three years ending shortly before the beginning of the taxable year, the GDOL determines the firm's "total tax reserve"—difference between its cumulative contributions and benefit charges. The "total tax reserve" is then divided by the average annual payroll, to yield the percent applied. The resulting percentage is then applied to base rate tables provided in the Employment Security Law. The computed rate applies to taxable wages paid during the calendar year immediately following the computation date.

To illustrate the effect of the experience rating principle on UI tax rates, let us consider two firms: Tann Inc. and Wolt Inc. both of which have been in existence for 8 years. Assume that both firms have a 3-year taxable payroll of \$750 million and an average annual payroll of \$250 million during the "computational" period. During its existence, Tann Inc. has paid \$50 million in UI taxes and due to large and frequent layoffs of its employees, \$100 million has been charged to its UI account. Wolt Inc. on the other hand has experienced better fortunes, paying \$30 million in UI taxes with only \$10 million in benefits charged to its account. This implies that Tann Inc. has a total tax reserve of -\$50 million (\$50 million - \$100 million) while Wolt Inc. has a total tax reserve of \$20 million (\$30 million - \$10 million). Given this information, Tann Inc. and Wolt Inc. have a reserve ratio or percent applied of -20 percent (-\$50/\$250) and 8 percent (\$20/\$250), respectively. These reserve ratios indicate that Tann Inc. would be subject to a higher UI tax rate compared to Wolt Inc. since the latter has a better experience rating than the former.

The experience rating principle implies that the employer's UI tax rate should vary with the employer's account, since changes in an employer's experience history lead to an assignment of a new rate. This therefore suggests that an employer can be assigned a different UI tax rate each computation period.

The experience rating principle divides employers into separate risk pools, with firms whose employees face a higher risk of incurring involuntary unemployment being subject to a higher tax rate. Such a rate structure is intended to

promote allocative efficiency by imposing a price on each employer that reflects the social costs of the unemployment that the employer generates. Tannenwald and O'Leary (1997) argue that the experience rating principle has the potential disadvantage of promoting bankruptcy during recessions since it requires higher tax payments from firms when they can least afford them.

3. UI Benefits

According to the GDOL, UI provides unemployment benefits to eligible workers who are unemployed through no fault of their own and who are either looking for another job, have definite recall to their jobs within 6 weeks of the last day worked, or are in approved training. Eligibility for benefits is determined based on past wages, reason for job separation, and availability and job search requirements.⁴

The weekly benefit amount (WBA) of benefits a claimant may receive is the whole dollar amount computed by dividing the two highest base period quarters by 46.5 Alternatively, the highest base period quarter is divided by 23 to establish the WBA up to the allowed maximum set by the legislature. The established WBA is based on the individual's earnings and may range from a legislatively established minimum amount to a maximum amount. The number of weeks of entitlement ranges from a minimum of nine weeks to a maximum of 26 weeks. The total maximum benefits to which a claimant is entitled during the benefit year (365 days forward from the date the claim is filed) is one-fourth of the total base period wages or 26 times the weekly benefit amount, whichever is less (GDOL, 2005). The extended benefit program provides up to 13 weeks of additional benefits or "extended benefits" to workers who have exhausted their regular UI benefits in times of high unemployment.

The state of Georgia is reimbursed by the federal government for 50 percent of all but the first week of extended benefits. Therefore, there is a charge of 100 percent to Georgia employers for the first week of these benefits. Governmental

⁴ See the GDOL (2005) for details on eligibility requirements.

⁵ The base period is the first four of the last five completed calendar quarters at the time of filing.

agencies on the other hand are charged 100 percent of all weeks paid with extended benefits (GDOL, 2005).

4. Georgia's Trust Fund Size and UI Tax Rates

The Employment Security Law requires that the UI Trust Fund be maintained at a reasonably adequate level. The "Statewide Reserve Ratio" (SRR) compares Georgia's Trust Fund balance to the state's total covered wages and is used as a measurement tool to gauge the adequacy of the state's Trust Fund. Conventionally, a SRR greater or equal to one, indicates a moderately solvent UI Trust Fund. Computation of the SRR and other measures of Trust Fund adequacy are explored in Section III below.

The reserve ratio approach used to compute UI tax rates in Georgia symbolizes the concept of "precautionary" balances, where each firm has an account that builds up a surplus of contributions over benefit charges during periods of economic expansion. This surplus is then drawn down during downturns and/ or recessions. Following a surge in benefit payouts, a firm's tax liability rises gradually, but remains at a higher level for a substantial period of time and then falls steadily in response to improving economic conditions.⁶ This implies that everything else equal, Georgia's UI tax system is less procyclical compared to UI tax systems based on the "benefit ratio" approach.⁷

In the computation of annual tax rates, the status of an employer's account-total tax contributions relative to benefit charges-affects the assignment of a new rate. An increase in taxable payroll may cause an increase in the tax rate even though no claims have been paid out. Employers with positive balances (tax collections exceed benefit charges) are assigned lower rates compared to employers with deficit balances (benefit charges exceed tax collections).

⁷ The benefit ratio method is similar to a "pay as you go" approach in which payments for benefit charges are made with a lag. A surge in benefits is paid for relatively rapidly, followed by a steep fall in payments once the benefit charges have been "paid off" (Tannenwald and O'Leary, 1997).

⁶ Tax rates respond gradually because experience ratings are based on cumulative contributions relative to benefits, implying that the "weight" of each firm's prior history creates inertia in experience ratings with respect to changes in the incidence of layoffs (Tannenwald and O'Leary, 1997).

Georgia like other states constrains the range of employer UI tax rates. An employer's tax rate stops rising at some point regardless of how much its experience rating has worsened and stops falling irrespective of how much the experience rating has improved. The minimum and maximum rates assignable for each type of employer account in Georgia are set by the legislature and vary from year to year.⁸

⁸ Many employers are given the option to make a voluntary contribution to lower their tax rate for the year. Tax accounts are reviewed each year to determine employers eligible for this option. Employers are not eligible for a voluntary contribution if they (1) have the lowest possible tax rate, (2) have not filed all Quarterly Tax and Wage Reports, or (3) because of insufficient experience history, they are not otherwise eligible for a rate computation (GDOL, 2005).

III. Structure of Georgia's Trust Fund

This section evaluates the financial status of Georgia's UI Trust Fund using three widely used standards of Trust Fund adequacy. Before analyzing the solvency of Georgia's UI Trust Fund, we briefly examine the history of the UI Trust Fund balances.

1. History of Trust Fund Balance

Overall, the Trust Fund balance has grown steadily over the past 30 years (1970-1999), with only minor drawdown cycles during the periods 1974-1976, 1981-1982, and 1990-1992. The onset of the new millennium saw a marked drawdown in Georgia's Trust Fund reserves which lasted for four years starting in 2000 through 2003. The duration and percentage decrease of the early 2000 drawdown cycle far exceeds any other drawdown cycle in the 35 year history considered here. The drawdown during the period 2000-2004, is among other things, considered to be a result of a 1999 moratorium by the state's legislature providing for the temporary suspension of employer contributions to the Trust Fund. Figure 1 below shows the trend of Trust Fund balances over the period 1970-2004.

9

⁹ See Section V for details on Georgia's UI tax cuts.

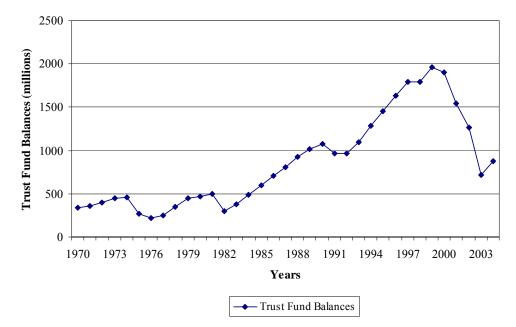


FIGURE 1: TRENDS IN TRUST FUND BALANCES (1970-2004)

2. Surcharges and Rate Reductions

To ensure solvency of the Trust Fund while minimizing the UI payroll tax burden on the state's employers, Georgia's UI Trust Fund structure provides for surcharges on covered employers when the reserve ratio falls below 1 percent and rate reductions when the reserve ratio gains by over 2.44 percent. Figure 2 below shows that the rate reduction provision would only apply prior to 1975 when the reserve ratio exceeded the 2.44 percent mark and after 2002 when it fell short of the 1 percent threshold.



FIGURE 2. RESERVE RATIO, SURCHARGES AND RATE REDUCTIONS

3. Solvency Measures

The adequacy of the unemployment insurance (UI) Trust Fund across the nation has been the subject of much debate in recent years. Most attention has been directed toward what constitutes an adequate amount of Trust Fund reserves and whether there is a single most consistent measure of solvency that can be applied to UI. In addition to the reserve ratio standard which is a ratio of Trust Fund balances to total wages as mentioned earlier, there are two other measures used to assess UI Trust Fund solvency:

- Average High Cost Multiple, Trust Funds are compared to recent benefit history;
- High Cost Multiple, Trust Funds compared to long term benefit history.

Average High Cost Multiple

The Advisory Council on Unemployment Compensation (ACUC) recommends the "average high cost" standard for Trust Fund solvency. According to this guideline, a state should have enough reserves to finance at least 12 months of benefits paid out at the average of its three highest "cost rates" over the previous 20

years. The cost rate is the statewide ratio of benefits paid out of total wages of unemployment insurance eligible employees in any calendar year. According to this standard, adequacy requires that a state's average high cost multiple (AHCM) should equal at least 100 percent. (Tannenwald, O'Leary, and Huang, 1999).

[1] AHCM = 100*((Trust Fund balances as a percentage of total wages in covered employment)/ (the average high cost rate)).

The average high cost rate is the average of the three highest calendar year benefit cost rates in the last 20 years. Benefit cost rates are benefits paid (excluding reimbursement benefits) as a percent of total wages in taxable employment. For comparison purposes, we also compute the AHCM over the past 35 years.

The U.S. Labor Department has endorsed an AHCM of 150 as a solvency guideline. In effect, the standard requires Trust Fund reserves sufficient to finance 18 months of benefits paid out at the average of the three highest cost rates recorded during the past 20 years. (Tannenwald and O'Leary, 1997). Table 1 reveals that the state of Georgia does not meet this remarkably stringent solvency requirement.

High Cost Multiple

The High Cost Multiple (HCM) goes back further in time to compare reserves to benefit outlays. In this case, the denominator of [1] will be the highest cost rate rather than the average of the three highest cost rates in a state's benefit history. Stated differently, the HCM measure computes the Trust Fund reserves sufficient to finance 12 months of benefits paid out at the highest cost rate recorded during the previous 20 years. We also include a measure (Second Highest Cost Multiple or 2HCM) that calculates adequate Trust Fund reserves to finance 12 months of benefits paid out at the second highest cost rate recorded during the previous 20 years. The findings are presented in Table 1 below. Like in the AHCM case, the U.S. DOL has endorsed an HCM and 2HCM of 150 as a solvency guideline. The ACUC on the other hand contends that a multiple of at least 100 for both the HCM and 2HCM is sufficient.

TABLE 1. MEASURES OF SOLVENCY: ALTERNATIVE STANDARDS

| | | Sufficient Res | erves to Finance | |
|---|--|--|--|--|
| | 12 Months of Benefits/ Highest Cost Rate in 20 years (HCM) | 12 Months of Benefits/2nd Highest Cost Rate in 20 years (2HCM) | 12 Months of Benefits/Avg. of 3 Highest Cost Rates in 20 years (AHCM over 20 years) | 12 Months of Benefits/Avg. of 3 Highest Cost Rates in 35 years (AHCM over 35 years) |
| Highest Cost Multiple | 73 | 118 | 119 | 92 |
| Current Reserves (2004) | \$874,339,726 | \$874,339,726 | \$874,339,726 | \$874,339,726 |
| Adequate Reserves | \$1,197,725,652 | \$740,965,869 | \$734,739,266 | \$950,369,267 |
| (12 months) Adequate Reserves (12 months) | \$1,796,588,478 | \$1,111,448,804 | \$1,102,108,899 | \$1,425,553,901 |

Table 1 reveals that using the U.S. Labor Department's most preferred solvency measure (column 4), Georgia has sufficient Trust Fund reserves (\$874,339,726) to finance 14 months of benefits paid out at the average of the three highest cost rates recorded during the last 20 years. Therefore, the adequate amount of Trust Fund reserves needed to finance 12 months of benefits paid out at the average of the three highest cost rates recorded during the most recent 20 years is \$734,739,266. Further, the sufficient amount of reserves to fund 18 months of benefits paid out at a similar average cost rate is \$1,102,108,899.

The more stringent measure of solvency (column 2 of Table 1) shows that Georgia requires \$1,197,725,652 in Trust Fund reserves. This is the amount of Trust Fund reserves that is sufficient to finance 12 months of benefits paid out at highest cost rate recorded during the past 20 years.

Table 1 therefore indicates that Georgia has a moderately healthy Trust Fund reserve as two of the solvency measures (columns 3 and 4) indicate that the state has more than the required amount of Trust Fund reserves to finance at least 12 months of benefits, but falls short of the U.S. DOL's recommended standards. The solvency standard adopted by a given state depends in part on the state's previous economic history. For instance, a state may adopt a more stringent solvency standard (see columns 2 and 5 in Table 1) if it was severely affected by a past recession, which led to a marked drawdown in the state's Trust Fund balance. A more stringent solvency

standard will in such a case be adopted with the goal of rebuilding the Trust Fund balance and to ensure solvency if the state ever experienced such a severe downturn.

Reserve Ratio

Another indicator of Trust Fund solvency is the ratio of Trust Fund balances to total wages, also known as the reserve ratio. It is expressed as a percentage. This is the highest possible threshold of solvency and in effect, it assesses Trust Fund reserves relative to full wage insurance. The rationale for this measure of Trust Fund solvency is that covered salaries and wages serve as a proxy for the size of a state's economy and roughly account for economic growth and increased wages and salaries.

By the end of 2004, Georgia's reserve ratio was 0.6, indicating that the state's Trust Fund reserves could replace 0.6 percent of all wages. Though there is no consensus among UI solvency experts regarding an acceptable reserve ratio standard, most feel that a pre-recession reserve ratio of at least 2.0 is ideal (National Employment Law Project Publications, 1999).

Figure 3 below compares the trend of Trust Fund balances to the reserve ratio over the period 1970-2004. As seen from Figure 3, the reserve ratio has been very stable since the late 1970s through 2000.

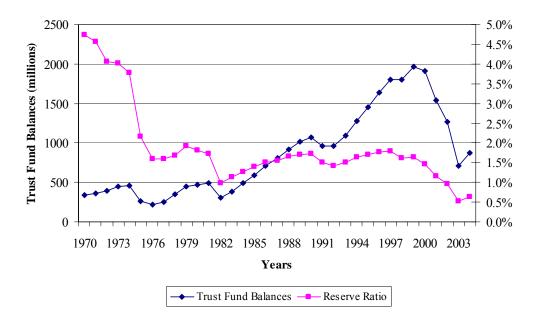


FIGURE 3: TRENDS IN TRUST FUND BALANCES AND RESERVE RATIO (1970-2004)

To summarize, our analysis shows that as of 2004, the Trust Fund is underfunded for two of the four solvency measures (HCM and AHCM computed over 35 years, see Table 1) examined in addition to the reserve ratio standard. The Trust Fund is adequately funded according to the other two less stringent measures: 2HCM and AHCM computed over 20 years (See Table 1). The current Trust Fund structure yields a reasonably stable reserve ratio over the extended period of time (35 years), with the balance remaining above the lower bound of 1 percent throughout the historical period until the year 2000. Further, the fund has not approached insolvency during the historical period examined.

IV. Trust Fund and the Business Cycle

1. Trust Fund Performance over the Business Cycle

We examine the performance of the Trust Fund over four cycles during the period 1974-2000: 1974-1981, 1981-1990, 1990-1999, and 1999-2004. Figure 4 shows the drawdown and build-up of the Trust Fund over these cycles. For each cycle, we compare the level of the Trust Fund balance in any given year to the level of the Trust Fund balance in the succeeding year. This ratio is always 100 percent in year one because the focus of this particular comparison is to measure fluctuations in the Trust Fund balance over the duration of the cycle relative to the onset of the cycle. Higher Trust Fund balances in upcoming years result in an upward trend or build-up while lower Trust Fund balances in subsequent years lead to a downward trend or drawdown. Figure 4 indicates that during the period examined, the shortest drawdown lasted only one year and was experienced during the 1974-1981 cycle while the longest drawdown lasted four years and occurred during the 1999-2004 cycle. Further, the longest build-up in the level of Trust Fund balances was experienced during 1990-1999 cycle and lasted eight years. The build-up in all cycles lasted over four years except during the 1999-2004 business cycle, a feature that can be attributed to fact that we have data only through 2004, and thus the 1999-2004 cycle is not yet complete.

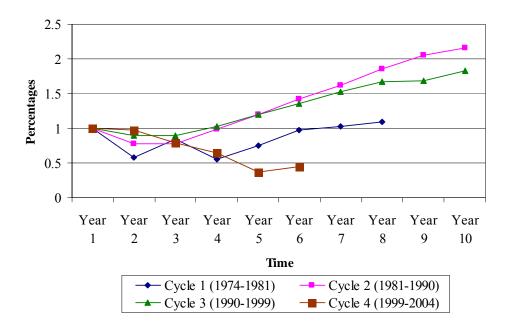


FIGURE 4. TRENDS IN TRUST FUND BALANCES: 1974-2004

Table 2 shows the duration from peak to trough of the business cycle and the resulting percentage decline in the Trust Fund balance. The longest peak-trough duration was four years and was experienced during the 1999-2004 cycle. The resulting percentage decline during this cycle was 63.7 percent and was also the highest percentage decline in all of the four cycles considered. Table 2 also shows the duration of the build up from trough to peak together with the resulting increase in Trust Fund balance compared to the previous peak. The longest build-up lasted eight years and occurred during the 1990-1999 cycle. The percent change for trough to peak in Table 2 measures the percent change over the previous peak and therefore it measures the extent to which the fund is fully replenished before the next drawdown cycle begins. The 1981-1990 cycle had the highest trough-peak percentage gain in Trust Fund balances at 116.4 percent followed by the 1990-1999 cycle at 83.2 percent.

TABLE 2. PERFORMANCE STATISTICS

| | | -Peak to Trou | gh | | Frough to Pea %Change | ak |
|-----------|----------|---------------|---------------------|----------|--------------------------|---------------------|
| Cuelo | Danadian | 0/Change | Reserve Ratio at | Dunation | vs. Previous | Reserve Ratio at |
| Cycle | Duration | %Change | Peak | Duration | Peak | New Peak |
| 1974-1981 | 2 Years | -51.2% | 3.8% | 5 Years | 8.7% | 1.7% |
| 1981-1990 | 2 Years | -22.8% | 1.7% | 7 Years | 116.4% | 1.7% |
| 1990-1999 | 1 Year | -10.2% | 1.7% | 8 Years | 83.2% | 1.6% |
| 1999-2004 | 4 Years | 63.7% | 1.6% | NA | NA | NA |

2. Stress Testing of Alternative Measures of Solvency

This section evaluates each of the solvency standards over the four cycles discussed earlier. Specifically, we examine whether the Trust Fund balance becomes negative at the end of the cycle, which would indicate insolvency, and whether the end of cycle peak equals or even exceeds the standard against which it is being compared. We assume that the balance at the initial peak is the target balance based on the standard and actual wage base. We then examine the draw downs and build-up based on actual dollar values of the fund balance for that cycle.

Tables 3-6 indicate that for all four solvency standards used, the end of cycle peak Trust Fund balance becomes negative during the 1999-2004 cycle. Further, end of cycle peak balance only exceeds any given standard during the 1990-1999 cycle. This suggests that the Trust Fund experienced a substantial build-up during the economic expansion of the 1990's while the economic slowdown that characterized the onset of the new millennium led to a marked drawdown of the Trust Fund balance.

| Target | Target | | | | | New Peak | |
|-----------|---------------|-------------------|---------------|-------------|---------------|-----------|-----------|
| | Balance at | | Balance at | | Balance at | Meets | Reserve R |
| Cycle | Peak (\$) | S Drawdown | Trough | S Build-Up | Peak (\$) | Standard? | at New P |
| 1974-1981 | 238,572,190 | 233,200,220 | 5,371,970 | 272,921,417 | 278,293,387 | No | %26.0 |
| 1981-1990 | 423,413,744 | 113,024,575 | 310,389,169 | 689,745,047 | 1,000,134,216 | % N | 1.61% |
| 1990-1999 | 1,454,916,837 | 109,790,898 | 1,345,125,939 | 943,965,135 | 2,289,091,074 | Yes | 1.91% |
| 1999-2004 | 872,950,102 | 1,251,622,389 | (378,672,287) | 161,824,385 | (216,847,902) | No | -0.15% |

| IABLE 4. STA | IABLE 4. STANDARD—12 MON | IONIHS OF BENEFILS AT SECOND HIGHEST COST MATE IN 20 TEAKS | SAI SECOND HI | GHEST COST K | ILE IN ZU LEAKS | | |
|--------------|--------------------------|--|---------------|--------------|-----------------|-----------|--------------|
| | Target | | | | | New Peak | |
| | Balance at | | Balance at | | Balance at | Meets | Reserve Rati |
| Cycle | Peak (S) | \$ Drawdown | Trough | \$ Build-Up | Peak (\$) | Standard? | at New Peal |
| 1974-1981 | 171.952.031 | 233,200,220 | (61,248,189) | 272,921,417 | 211,673,228 | Yes | 0.74% |
| 1981-1990 | 188,362,768 | 113,024,575 | 75,338,193 | 689,745,047 | 765,083,240 | °N | 1.23% |
| 1990-1999 | 1,044,754,112 | 109,790,898 | 934,963,214 | 943,965,135 | 1,878,928,349 | Yes | 1.57% |
| 1999-2004 | 701,477,761 | 1,251,622,389 | (550,144,628) | 161,824,385 | (388,320,243) | No | -0.28% |
| | | | | | | | |

| TABLE 5. STA | ABLE 5. STANDARD—12 MON | THS OF BENEFIT | S AT THE AVERA | GE OF THE THR | THS OF BENEFITS AT THE AVERAGE OF THE THREE HIGHEST COST RATES IN 20 YEARS | T RATES IN 20 | YEARS |
|--------------|-------------------------|----------------|----------------|---------------|--|---------------|---------------|
| | Target | | | | | New Peak | |
| | Balance at | | Balance at | | Balance at | Meets | Reserve Ratio |
| Cycle | Peak (S) | \$ Drawdown | Trough | S Build-Up | Peak (S) | Standard? | at New Peak |
| 1974-1981 | 173,920,948 | 233,200,220 | (59,279,272) | 272,921,417 | 213,642,145 | No | 0.74% |
| 1981-1990 | 266,340,903 | 113,024,575 | 153,316,328 | 689,745,047 | 843,061,375 | No | 1.36% |
| 1990-1999 | 1,055,988,027 | 109,790,898 | 946,197,129 | 943,965,135 | 1,890,162,264 | Yes | 1.58% |
| 1999-2004 | 711,644,105 | 1,251,622,389 | (539,978,284) | 161,824,385 | (378,153,899) | No | -0.27% |
| | | | | | | | |

| TABLE 6. STA | ABLE 6. STANDARD—12 MON | THS OF BENEFIT | S AT THE AVERA | GE OF THE THR | THS OF BENEFITS AT THE AVERAGE OF THE THREE HIGHEST COST RATES IN 35 YEARS | T RATES IN 35 | YEARS |
|--------------|-------------------------|----------------|----------------|---------------|--|---------------|---------------|
| : | Target | | | | | New Peak | |
| | Balance at | | Balance at | | Balance at | Meets | Reserve Ratio |
| Cycle | Peak (\$) | \$ Drawdown | Trough | S Build-Up | Peak (\$) | Standard? | at New Peak |
| 1974-1981 | 173,920,948 | 233,200,220 | (59,279,272) | 272,921,417 | 213,642,145 | No | 0.74% |
| 1981-1990 | 266,340,903 | 113,024,575 | 153,316,328 | 689,745,047 | 843,061,375 | No | 1.36% |
| 1990-1999 | 1,055,988,027 | 109,790,898 | 946,197,129 | 943,965,135 | 1,890,162,264 | Yes | 1.58% |
| 1999-2004 | 930,870,962 | 1,251,622,389 | (320,751,427) | 161,824,385 | (158,927,042) | No | -0.11% |

V. Unemployment Insurance Tax Cuts

Georgia has embraced the fact that the best way to ensure the financial health of the UI Trust Fund is to constantly create jobs. Job growth simultaneously increases payments into the fund and lessens flows out of the fund. This realization has led to unemployment compensation and UI tax rate reforms.

According to the National Employment Law Project Publications (NELP) (1999) the state of Georgia reduced the UI tax rate by 6.25 percent in 1994, costing the Trust Fund an estimated \$45 million in UI tax revenues. A bill passed by the state's legislature in 1998 cut the UI payroll tax by another \$112 million, which provided for tax cuts of \$92.2 and 30.6 million in 1999 and 2000, respectively. This was followed by a moratorium that provided for a temporary suspension of employer payments. In February of 1999, the governor announced plans to slash UI payroll taxes by \$1 billion over the next four years. This four-year moratorium, ending at the start of 2004, saw many employers pay very little into the Trust Fund due to its previous hefty balance.

In light of the tremendous gains in the state's economy coupled with reduced pay-outs during the most recent recovery, the state announced a \$50 million UI tax cut toward the close of 2004. This tax cut which translates into a 7.3 percent tax break for employers is not expected to have a substantial effect on the financial health of the UI Trust Fund in 2005. The UI trust Fund is projected to collect well over \$650 million in UI taxes in spite of the 2005 UI payroll tax cut. Unlike the previous 1999 moratorium where almost all of the states' over 200,000 employers benefited from temporary suspension of employer payments, UI tax savings will this time round hinge on the employers' track record in layoffs and workforce force stability. ¹⁰

However, UI pundits at the NELP argue that in spite of being one of the 10 best-financed, Georgia's UI Trust Fund at its current level of almost \$875 million, would still have a tough time financing future payouts especially if the state suffered a fairly quick downturn in 2006 or 2007. Experts draw a close comparison with New

1

¹⁰ Atlanta Journal-Constitution (2004).

York, Texas, Illinois and other states whose UI Trust Funds are now insolvent following UI tax cuts during the celebrated economic times of the 1990's.

VI. Conclusions

This report discusses various aspects of Georgia's Trust Fund, pointing out several similarities and differences with UI tax systems in other states. Major similarities include the determination of UI tax rates using the experience rating principle while differences encompass the financial health of Georgia's Trust Fund and liability of employers and employees in the financing of the Trust Fund. Further, Georgia's UI tax structure is designed to both maintain solvency of the Trust Fund and to minimize the UI tax burden on the states' over 200,000 employers. The experience rating principle used to compute Georgia's UI tax rates promotes allocative efficiency by imposing a price on each employer that reflects the social costs of the unemployment generated by the employer. The disadvantage of this principle is the possibility of promoting bankruptcy since it requires higher tax payments from firms at a time when they can least afford them.

Our analysis on the solvency of Georgia's Trust Fund shows that the current Trust Fund is underfunded for two of the four solvency measures examined in addition to the reserve ratio standard. The current Trust Fund structure yields a reasonably stable reserve ratio over the extended period of time (35 years), with the balance remaining above the lower bound of 1 percent throughout the historical period until the year 2000. Further, the fund has not approached insolvency during the historical period examined.

Treating the alternative Trust Fund solvency measures as target ratios for the Trust Fund, the fund would have come extremely close to insolvency or even become insolvent at points during the historical period. Analysis of the business cycles reveals that the build-up cycle does not consistently reach the target ratio for these measures. Our analysis shows that Georgia's Trust Fund appears to have been severely affected by factors including the slowdown of the U.S. economy in 2001, past UI tax rate reductions, and the temporary suspension of employer UI tax payments into the Trust fund. Therefore, a cushion in addition to the target ratio is needed to manage the risk of insolvency.

References

- Atlanta Journal-Constitution (2004). "State Gives Firms \$50 Million Break on Jobless Tax." (http://www.ajc.com/news/content/business/1204/02fund.html.)
- Georgia Department of Labor (GDOL) (2005). *The Employer's Handbook*. DOL-224 (R-1/05).
- O' Leary, Christopher J. (2000). "U.S. Unemployment Insurance: Progress and Prospects." *Employment Research* 7(2). www.upjohninst.org/publications/newsletter/cjo_700.pdf
- National Employment Law Project Publications (1999). "Unemployment Insurance Tax Cuts on the Rise: A Summary of Recent State Experiences." July.
- Tannewald, Robert, and Christopher J. O'Leary (1997). "Unemployment Insurance Reform in New England: Options and Considerations." *New England Economic Review* May/June: 3-22.
- Tannenwald, Robert, Christopher J. O'Leary, and Wei-Jang Huang (1999). "New Ways of State Unemployment Insurance." *New England Economic Review* March/April: 15-40.

About the Author

Edward Sennoga is a research associate in the Fiscal Research Center and is currently finishing his Ph.D. in Economics at Georgia State University, writing on tax evasion and tax structure. He has received numerous academic and teaching awards in the Andrew Young School. Mr. Sennoga is from Uganda, and earned his B.A. in Economics from Makerere University in Kampala.

About The Fiscal Research Center

The Fiscal Research Center provides nonpartisan research, technical assistance, and education in the evaluation and design of state and local fiscal and economic policy, including both tax and expenditure issues. The Center's mission is to promote development of sound public policy and public understanding of issues of concern to state and local governments.

The Fiscal Research Center (FRC) was established in 1995 in order to provide a stronger research foundation for setting fiscal policy for state and local governments and for better-informed decision making. The FRC, one of several prominent policy research centers and academic departments housed in the School of Policy Studies, has a full-time staff and affiliated faculty from throughout Georgia State University and elsewhere who lead the research efforts in many organized projects.

The FRC maintains a position of neutrality on public policy issues in order to safeguard the academic freedom of authors. Thus, interpretations or conclusions in FRC publications should be understood to be solely those of the author(s).

FISCAL RESEARCH CENTER STAFF

David L. Sjoquist, Director and Professor of Economics

Peter Bluestone, Research Associate

Margo Doers, Administrative Coordinator

Jaiwan M. Harris, Business Manager

Kenneth J. Heaghney, State Fiscal Economist

John W. Matthews, Senior Research Associate

Lakshmi Pandey, Senior Research Associate

Edward Sennoga, Research Associate

William J. Smith, Senior Research Associate

Dorie Taylor, Assistant Director

Arthur D. Turner, Microcomputer Software Technical Specialist

Sally Wallace, Associate Director and Associate Professor of Economics

Laura A. Wheeler, Senior Research Associate

Tumika Williams, Staff Assistant

ASSOCIATED GSU FACULTY

James Alm, Chair and Professor of Economics

Roy W. Bahl, Dean and Professor of Economics

Carolyn Bourdeaux, Assistant Professor of Public Administration and Urban Studies

Robert Eger, Assistant Professor of Public Administration and Urban Studies

Martin F. Grace, Professor of Risk Management and Insurance

Shiferaw Gurmu, Associate Professor of Economics

Douglas Krupka, Assistant Professor of Economics

Gregory B. Lewis, Professor of Public Administration and Urban Studies

Jorge L. Martinez-Vazquez, Professor of Economics

Theodore H. Poister, Professor of Public Administration and Urban Studies

David P. Richardson, Professor of Risk Management and Insurance

Michael J. Rushton, Associate Professor of Public Administration and Urban Studies

Bruce A. Seaman, Associate Professor of Economics

Geoffrey K. Turnbull, Professor of Economics

Mary Beth Walker, Associate Professor of Economics

Katherine G. Willoughby, Professor of Public Administration and Urban Studies

PRINCIPAL ASSOCIATES

David Boldt, State University of West Georgia

Gary Cornia, Brigham Young University

Kelly D. Edmiston, Federal Reserve Bank of Kansas City

Alan Essig, Georgia Budget and Policy Institute

Dagney G. Faulk, Indiana University Southeast

Catherine Freeman, U.S. Department of Education

Richard R. Hawkins, University of West Florida

Julie Hotchkiss, Atlanta Federal Reserve Bank

Mary Mathewes Kassis, State University of West Georgia

Julia E. Melkers, University of Illinois-Chicago

Jack Morton, Morton Consulting Group

Ross H. Rubenstein, Syracuse University

Benjamin P. Scafidi, Georgia College and State University

Jeanie J. Thomas, Consultant

Kathleen Thomas, University of Mississippi

Thomas L. Weyandt, Atlanta Regional Commission

GRADUATE RESEARCH ASSISTANTS

Kailou Wang

Qian Xue

RECENT PUBLICATIONS

(All publications listed are available at http://frc.aysps.gsu.edu or call the Fiscal Research Center at 404/651-2782, or fax us at 404/651-2737.)

Analysis of Georgia's Unemployment Insurance Trust Fund Reserves (Edward Sennoga). This report analyses several aspects of Georgia's Unemployment Insurance Trust Fund, including the structure and the appropriate target level for the Trust Fund balance for the state of Georgia. FRC Report/Brief 123 (March 2006)

The Demographics of Georgia IV: Hispanic Immigration Economic Policy Issues (Felix Rioja, Neven Valev, and Amanda Wilsker). This report analyzes the economic policy issues in education, health care, the labor market, financial services and the fiscal impact arising from the large increase in Hispanic immigration in Georgia. FRC Report/Brief 122 (March 2006)

Georgia's Taxes Per Capita and Per \$1,000 of Income: Comparisons and Trends (Peter Bluestone). This report analyzes the trends in Georgia's taxes per capita and taxes per \$1,000 of personal income for the period 1981 – 2002. FRC Report/Brief 121 (February 2006)

The Demographics of Georgia I: Population in the State of Georgia: Trends and Projections to 2030 (Glenwood Ross). This report explores trends in Georgia population dynamics and projects population growth to the year 2030. FRC Report/Brief 120 (February 2006)

An Examination of Georgia's Premium Tax. (Martin F. Grace). This brief analyzes the effects of changing the structure the insurance premium tax on tax revenues in Georgia. FRC Brief 119 (February 2006)

The Fair Tax and Its Effect on Georgia. (Laura Wheeler, Sally Wallace and Lakshmi Pandey). This brief analyzes the impacts of a national retail sales tax on Georgians. FRC Brief 118 (December 2005)

A Tax Limitation for Georgia? (David L. Sjoquist). This brief examines the need for a tax limitation in Georgia and the issues of design of tax or expenditure limitations. FRC Brief 117 (December 2005)

Georgia's Aging Population: What to Expect and How to Cope (Glenn Landers, Clare S. Richie, David Sjoquist, Sally Wallace, and Angelino Viceisza). This report analyzes the impacts of Georgia's aging population on state finances. FRC Report/Brief 116 (December 2005)

Potential Effect of Eliminating the State Corporate Income Tax on State Economic Activity (Laura Wheeler). This report analyzes the effects to state employment and investment of eliminating the state corporate income tax. FRC Report/Brief 115 (October 2005)

Financing an Increased State Role in Funding K-12 Education: An Analysis of Issues and Options (Peter Bluestone, John Matthews, David L. Sjoquist, William J. Smith, Sally Wallace, and Laura Wheeler). This report presents an analysis of replacing school property tax with alternative state revenue sources FRC Report 114 (October 2005)

Neighborhood Dynamics and Price Effects of Superfund Site Clean-Up (Douglas Noonan, Douglas Krupka and Brett Baden). This report uses census data to analyze the price effects of superfund site clean-up, inclusive of both direct price effects and indirect effects through clean-up's effect on neighborhood demographic transitions and reinvestment in the housing stock. FRC Report/Brief 113 (October 2005)

Perfect Competition, Spatial Competition, and Tax Incidence in the Retail Gasoline Market (James Alm, Edward Sennoga and Mark Skidmore). This report uses monthly gas price data for all 50 U.S. states over the period 1984-1999 to examine the incidence of state gasoline excise taxes. FRC Report/Brief 112 (September 2005)

The Research and Development Tax Credit for Georgia (Laura Wheeler). This report describes the existing Georgia State R&D tax credit and explores the implications of modifying its current design. FRC Report/Brief 111 (September 2005)

Cooperation on Competition: The Multistate Tax Commission and State Corporate Tax Uniformity (W. Bartley Hildreth, Matthew N. Murray and David L. Sjoquist). This report explores how interstate uniformity of state corporate income taxes has varied over time, the role played by the MTC, and how likely it is that uniformity will be achieved. FRC Report 110 (August 2005)

Tax Revenue Volatility and a State-Wide Education Sales Tax (John Matthews). This brief examines issues of revenue source stability raised by proposals to shift K-12 education costs from local property taxes to a state-wide sales tax. <u>FRC Brief 109</u> (June 2005)

Accountability for Economic Development Incentives in Georgia (Jeanie Thomas). This report identifies Georgia's major economic development incentives and other forms of public finance support and calls for a comprehensive evaluation of public expenditures in this area. FRC Report/Brief 108 (July 2005)

Teen Childbearing and Public Assistance in Georgia (Lakshmi Pandey, Erdal Tekin and Sally Wallace). This brief examines the link between teen births and welfare. FRC Brief 107 (May 2005)

(All publications listed are available at http://frc.aysps.gsu.edu or call the Fiscal Research Center at 404/651-2782, or fax us at 404/651-2737.)