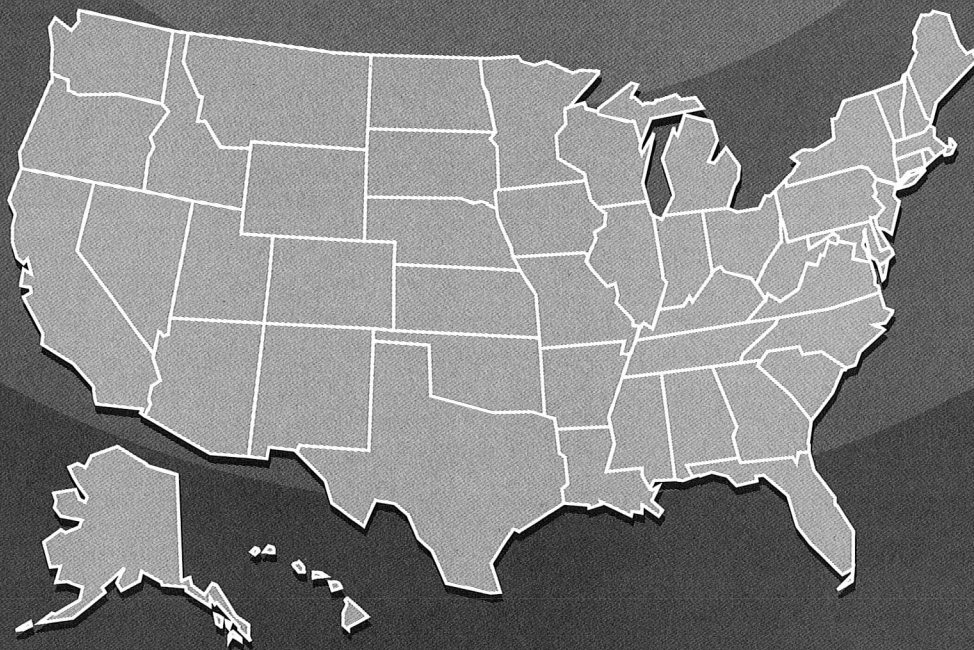


The Status of Women in the States

POLITICS • ECONOMICS • HEALTH • DEMOGRAPHICS



INSTITUTE FOR WOMEN'S POLICY RESEARCH



About this Report

The Status of Women in the States, 2nd Edition 1998-99 is part of an ongoing research project conducted by the Institute for Women's Policy Research (IWPR) to establish baseline measures of the status of women in all 50 states and the District of Columbia. The effort is part of a larger IWPR Economic Policy Education Program, funded by the Ford Foundation, intended to improve the ability of advocates and policymakers at the state level to address women's economic issues. The first series of reports were released in 1996 and included a summary national report and 14 state reports. The second series of reports includes this updated and revised national summary for all fifty states and the District of Columbia, as well as in-depth reports for ten additional states. These state reports are Connecticut, Florida, Kentucky, Louisiana, Mississippi, Nebraska, Ohio, Oregon, Pennsylvania, and Vermont.

The data used in each report come from a variety of sources, primarily government agencies, although other organizations also provided data where relevant. Many individuals and organizations assisted in locating data and reviewing this report. While every effort has been made to check the accuracy and completeness of the information presented, any errors are the responsibility of the authors and IWPR. Please do not hesitate to contact the Institute with any questions or comments.

About the Institute for Women's Policy Research

The Institute for Women's Policy Research (IWPR) is a public policy research organization dedicated to informing and stimulating the debate on public policy issues of critical importance to women and their families. IWPR focuses on issues of poverty and welfare, affirmative action and pay equity, employment and earnings, work and family issues, and the economic and social aspects of health care and domestic violence. The Institute works with policymakers, scholars, and public interest groups around the country to design, execute, and disseminate research that illuminates economic and social policy issues affecting women and families, and to build a network of individuals and organizations that conduct and use women-oriented policy research. IWPR, an independent, nonprofit organization, also works in affiliation with the graduate programs in public policy and women's studies at the George Washington University.

About the Women's Studies Program, George Washington University

The Women's Studies Program, George Washington University unites faculty and students whose areas of concern are feminist scholarship and the role of women in society. The Program offers a Master of Arts in Women's Studies and a Master of Arts in Public Policy with a concentration in Women's Studies, thus providing options for students whose interests are more generally in the humanities and social sciences as well as for those primarily interested in public policy.

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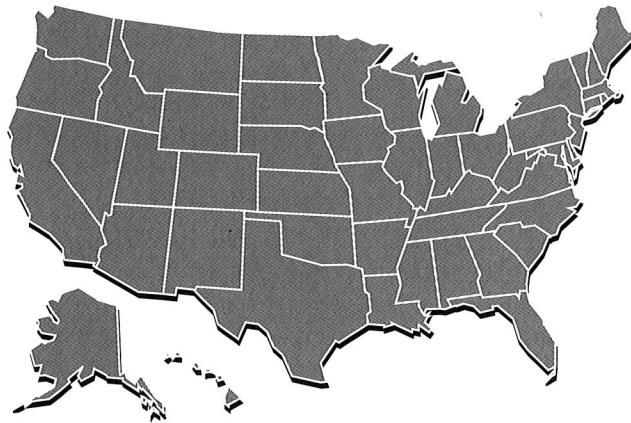
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The Status of Women in the States

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INSTITUTE FOR WOMEN'S POLICY RESEARCH



Second Edition, 1998-99

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A project of the size and complexity of *The Status of Women in the States* report series can only be carried out with the commitment and cooperation of many individuals and organizations. The Institute gratefully acknowledges the many individuals who contributed their time, knowledge, and expertise to this project, particularly the members of the state and national advisory committees. Many organizations also contributed data and information that was essential to the successful completion of the project.

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In addition to those mentioned above, authors of the 1998 report series include: Katherine Allen, Study Director; Ellen Feder, Research Associate (former); Heidi Hartmann, Director; Sara Kickliter, Intern; Lois Shaw, Senior Consulting Economist; Kristine Witkowski, Study Director; and Chava Zibman, Intern. Other research team members who contributed to the study include: Katie Burns, Intern; Holly Mead, Research Fellow; Nancy Reinhardt, Intern; Monica Schneider, Intern; Linda Shade, Consultant; Zohar Siwek, Intern; and Stefanie Stern, Intern. Barbara Gault, Associate Director for Research, provided technical expertise throughout the project, as did Diana Zuckerman, Senior Consulting Scientist (and former Director of Research and Policy Analysis at IWPR).

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Introduction

During the twentieth century, women have made significant economic, political and social advances that fundamentally challenge their traditional roles. They are still, however, far from achieving gender equality. To accomplish this goal, policymakers need reliable and relevant data about the issues affecting women's lives.

Recognizing this need, the Institute for Women's Policy Research (IWPR) issued a series of *Status of Women in the States* reports in 1996. As many policymaking responsibilities shift to the states, advocates, researchers and policymakers need state-level data about women. IWPR designed its new project to provide them with relevant information.

This year, IWPR staff produced a second series of state reports. This report on *The Status of Women in the States* summarizes key 1998 research findings for the 50 states and the District of Columbia as well as for the nation as a whole. In addition, a series of ten reports joins the original fourteen to provide additional information on women's status in Connecticut, Florida, Kentucky, Louisiana, Mississippi, Nebraska, Ohio, Oregon, Pennsylvania, and Vermont. Each report ranks its state relative to other states in its Census Bureau geographic region as well as to all fifty states and the District of Columbia.

Goals of *The Status of Women in the States* Reports

The staff of IWPR prepared its reports on *The Status of Women in the States* to inform residents of each of the states about the progress of their state's women relative to women in different states, to men and to the nation as a whole. Some aspects of the reports have changed since 1996, but the essence and goals of the reports are the same: (1) analyzing and disseminating information about women's progress in achieving rights and opportunities, (2) identifying and measuring the remaining barriers to equality, and (3) providing a continuing monitor of women's progress.

In each report, indicators describe women's status in political participation and representation, employment and earnings, economic autonomy, and reproductive rights. In addition, the reports provide basic demographics and health information about women in each state. For the four major issue areas addressed in this report, IWPR compiled composite indices based on the indicators presented to provide an overall assessment of the status of women in each area. Because the amount of data on health care issues is vast, IWPR did not attempt to develop and summarize one index to measure women's health status.

The series of ten state reports also produced by IWPR in 1998 highlights states from a variety of geographic regions, some states that are primarily urban and others that are primarily rural, and states with relatively large populations and others with small populations. Comparing these diverse states to each other raises many questions about why the states differ on the indicators that were examined. These unanswered questions deserve further research by all those interested in the status of women in the nation. IWPR intends to continue research-

ing women's status on the state level and producing reports to disseminate the findings.

Although state-by-state rankings provide important insights into women's rights throughout the country, indicating where progress is greater or less, in no state (including those ranked relatively highly on the indices compiled in this report) do women have adequate policies ensuring their equal rights. In no state have women achieved equity with men. All women continue to face important obstacles to achieving equity with men.

About the Indicators and the Data

IWPR looked at several sources for guidelines on what information to include in these reports. Many of the economic indicators chosen, such as median earnings or the wage gap, are standard indicators of women's status. The same is true of voter participation and women's electoral representation. In addition, IWPR used the Beijing Declaration and Platform for Action from the U.N. Fourth World Conference on Women to guide its choices of indicators.

Ultimately the IWPR research team made decisions based upon several principles and constraints: parsimony, representativeness and reliability, and comparability of data across all the states and the District of Columbia.

To facilitate comparisons among states, IWPR used data collected in the same way for each state. While most of the data are from federal government agencies, other organizations also provided data where relevant. Many figures rely on the U.S. Census Bureau's Current Population Survey (CPS), a monthly survey of a nationally representative sample of households. To ensure sufficiently large sample sizes for cross state comparisons, several years of data were combined and then tabulated

by IWPR researchers, since few state breakdowns by gender are available in published form. One of the major changes to the state reports involved incorporating new data from the years 1994-1997. Some data could not be updated and some figures necessarily rely on older data from the 1990 Census; historical data from 1980 or earlier are presented on some topics. When data were not available, this is indicated in the tables with 'N/A.'

The decennial census provides the most comprehensive data for states and local areas, but since it is conducted only every ten years, census data are often out-of-date. CPS data are therefore used to provide more timely information, even though the smaller sample sizes require omitting much detail (for information on sample sizes, see Appendix I).

In some cases, differences reported between two states or between a state and the nation for a given indicator are statistically significant (unlikely to have occurred by chance) and in other cases they are not (likely to have occurred by chance). Although IWPR did not calculate or report measures of statistical significance, the larger the difference relative to the base-value (for any given sample size), the more likely the difference is to be statistically significant.

In comparing indicators based on data from different years, the reader should keep in mind that the 1990 to 1997 period encompassed a major economic recession at the start of the decade, followed by a slow and gradual recovery with strong economic growth (in most states) in the last few years.

The general decision to use more recent data despite the smaller sample sizes is in no way meant to minimize how profoundly differences among women—for example, by race, ethnicity, age, sexuality, and family structure—affect their status or how important it is to design policies that speak to these differences. Identifying and reporting on areas within the states (cities, counties, urban and rural areas) were also beyond the scope of this project. The lack of disaggregated data generally masks differences among women within the states. Pockets of poverty are not identified and groups with lower (or higher) status may be overlooked.

A lack of reliable and comparable data at the state level also necessarily limits the treatment of several important topics: domestic violence, older women's issues, pension coverage, lesbian rights legislation, and issues concerning women with disabilities. The report

also does not analyze women's unpaid labor or women in nontraditional occupations. In addition, income and poverty data across states are limited in their comparability by the lack of good indicators of differences in the cost of living by states—thus poor states may look worse than they really are and rich states may look better than they really are. IWPR firmly believes all of these topics are of utmost concern to women in the United States and continues to search for data that can address them. However, many of them do not receive sufficient treatment in national polls or other data collection efforts.

This highlights the sometimes problematic politics of data collection: researchers do not know enough about many of the serious issues affecting women's lives because women do not yet have sufficient political or economic power to demand the necessary data. As a research institute concerned with women, IWPR presses for changes in the way data are collected and analyzed in order to compile a more complete understanding of women's status. Currently IWPR is leading a Working Group on Social Indicators of Women's Status designed to assess current measurement of women's status in the United States, determine how better indicators could be developed using existing data sets, make recommendations about gathering or improving data, and develop short- and long-term research agendas for developing policy-relevant research on evaluating women's well-being and status.

About IWPR

IWPR is an independent, nonprofit research institute dedicated to conducting and disseminating research that informs public policy debates affecting women. IWPR focuses on the issues that affect women's daily lives, including family/work policies, employment and job training, pay equity and the glass ceiling, poverty and welfare reform, violence against women, women's political participation, and access to health care. The Institute also works in affiliation with the graduate programs in public policy and women's studies at the George Washington University.

IWPR's *Status of Women in the States* series of reports establishes baseline measures for the status of women in the fifty states and the District of Columbia. In accordance with IWPR's purpose—to meet the need for women-centered, policy-relevant research—these reports describe women's lives and provide the tools to analyze the policies that can and do affect them.

Overview of the Status of Women in the States

Women's progress over the past century has involved both great achievements and significant shortcomings. Many U.S. women are witnessing real improvements in their economic, political, and social status. Not all women, however, enjoy equal access to the country's political and economic resources, nor are they sharing equally in the fruits of progress. This report describes how selected measures of women's rights and equality vary among the states. Women by no means enjoy equality with men, and they still lack many of the legal guarantees that would allow them to achieve it.

The report presents data for each state on 20 component indicators as well as on four composite indices that summarize the states' rankings in each of four domains. Some indicators of women's status, such as the wage gap, vary substantially among the 50 states. Others, such as the percentage of women with health insurance, vary less. Moreover, some states and regions fare consistently well or poorly on all four composite indices calculated by IWPR. In general, women in most of the Southeast and some of the Midwest fare poorly in employment and earnings, have little economic autonomy, participate less often politically, and enjoy fewer reproductive rights than women in the West or Northeast.

Maps 1 through 4 show which states ranked in the top, middle, and bottom third of the nation on the composite indicators. Within each composite index, some states have similar rankings on all the component indicators, while others rank well on some components and poorly on others (these differences can be seen in Maps 5-16, located throughout the report).

Political Participation and Representation

The political participation and representation composite index combines four aspects of women's political status: voter registration, voter turnout, representation in elected office, and women's institutional resources. The states vary widely on these indicators. A single state's rankings on each of the components often vary widely as well.

Although women in the United States are more likely to register to vote than men, a gap of 35 percentage points divides the state with the highest registration rate for women (North Dakota, 92.4 percent) and the state with the lowest (Nevada, 57.1 percent). In a few states, including Alabama, Kentucky, Minnesota, and Rhode Island, men register to vote at a higher rate than women. Women are also more likely to vote than men, but the state with the highest rate of women's voter participation (Montana, 68.5 percent) and that with the lowest rate (Hawaii, 42.4 percent) differ by more than 26 points.

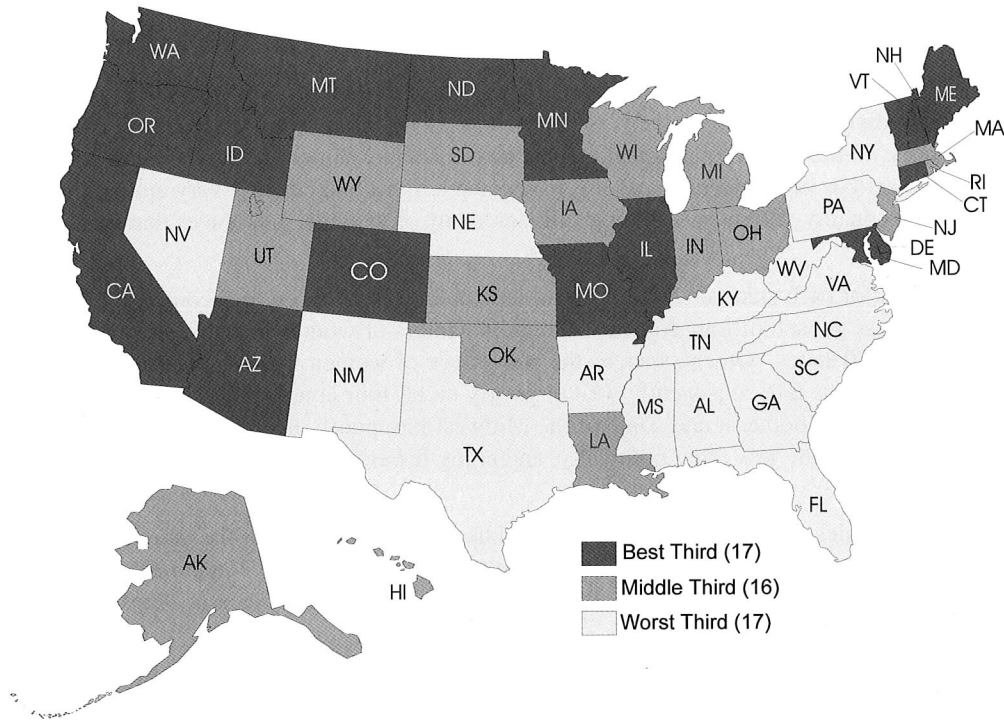
Beginning in 1992, an influx of women into national elected office began to change the composition of Congress, but variation among the states is significant on this indicator as well. While in three states—California, Kansas, and Maine—women have filled both Senate seats, as of October 1998, seven other states—Alaska, Delaware, Iowa, Mississippi, New Hampshire, Vermont, and Wisconsin—have never sent a woman to Congress (Center for the American Woman in Politics [CAWP], 1998b). In state legislatures, the proportion of female representatives ranges from 4.3 in Alabama to 39.5 percent in Washington.

Registration and voting rates are generally highest in the northern states, especially those west of the Mississippi, while women hold the most elected offices in the western states and the least in the Southeast. The southeastern states do, however, have high rates of institutional resources. All of these components are important to making women's voices heard in government, and women in all states could benefit from more representation in the political process.

Employment and Earnings

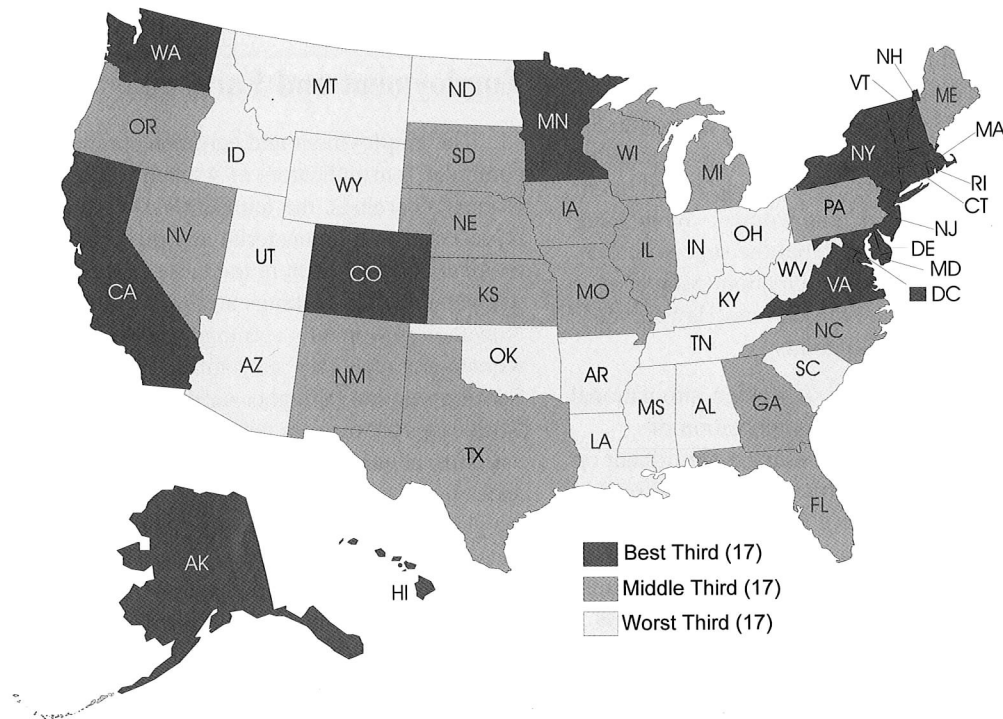
The employment and earnings composite index combines four indicators of women's economic status: women's earnings, the female/male wage ratio, women's representation in managerial and professional jobs, and women's participation in the labor force. In every state, women's median earnings are less than those of men. Nonetheless women's earnings and the wage gap between women and men vary substantially from state to state. Earnings tend to be higher on the west coast and in the Northeast and lower in the Southeast. While some of this variation in earnings levels results from regional differences in the cost of living, which are difficult to measure, the gap between men's and women's earnings within each state cannot be explained by cost of living differences. Women's earnings are highest and the wage gap smallest in the District of Columbia, where women earn 87.5 percent of men's earnings. The wage gap is widest in Oklahoma and Alabama, where women earn only 63.3 percent of men's wages.

Map 1. Political Participation Composite Index



Note: For methodology and sources, see Appendix I.

Map 2. Employment and Earnings Composite Index



Note: For methodology and sources, see Appendix I.

While women have historically been less likely than men to be employed in professional and managerial occupations, their presence has increased dramatically in these fields so that today they are more likely than men to have occupations that are classified as professional or managerial. In some states the change is more pronounced than in others. More than 22 percentage points differentiate the District of Columbia, with the highest percentage of all women in the labor force working in these fields (47.4 percent), from Alabama, with the lowest (24.6 percent). Favorable scores are fairly closely related among the wage gap, the absolute level of female earnings, and women's representation in professional and managerial occupations, probably because these occupations are among those with the highest average earnings. The District of Columbia, California, and much of New England score well on all three indicators. This finding suggests that policies encouraging women to gain the necessary education for these jobs and strengthening anti-discrimination and pay equity laws can help narrow the wage gap.

The fourth component of this index, women's labor force participation, exhibits slightly different trends, with the percentage of women in the labor force high in many mountain and southwestern states. Labor force participation does not guarantee that female workers will be treated fairly or paid well. But as more and more women work, they increase their access to economic resources.

Economic Autonomy

The economic autonomy composite index combines four indicators of women's ability to exercise control over their economic lives: college education, health insurance, business ownership, and income above poverty. Overall, more women are earning college degrees and starting their own businesses than in years past. Some states, such as Hawaii and Vermont, have high percentages of college-educated women, women with health insurance, and women business owners, and low percentages of women in poverty.

Among these components, directions of causation are unclear. A wealthier state may be more likely to send its women to college, or an educated female population may be more likely to hold good jobs and avoid poverty. In addition, high proportions of women-owned businesses are generally clustered in the western United States, while high scores on other components of the economic autonomy index are not, suggesting that additional factors influence the business ownership indicator. In any case, education is clearly related to economic success. States should keep this in mind when developing and implementing welfare policies, which often encourage or

require recipients to leave welfare in favor of employment without receiving adequate training or education.

Reproductive Rights

The reproductive rights composite index incorporates each state's scores on eight component indicators. The states' scores on this composite also vary widely. Some states, such as Hawaii, rank well on all the components of the index, while others, such as North Dakota, rank poorly on all the components. Other states show a more mixed commitment to reproductive rights, ranking well on some components and poorly on others, such as Florida, Iowa and Maine. In all states, however, reproductive rights remain controversial, and women need to continue to defend and expand their access to reproductive choice.

Examining the Rankings as a Whole

Together, all four indices show that women's status is highest in Connecticut, the District of Columbia, Maryland, and New Hampshire. Each ranks in the top ten on all four composite indices (while the District of Columbia is unranked for political participation, if its elected officials were treated as state officials, it would also rank quite high on this indicator). Vermont ranked in the top ten on three of four indices. Women also do well in Alaska, California, Hawaii, Massachusetts, New Jersey, Oregon, and Washington, each of which scored in the top ten on two of the four composites.

In contrast, women's status is lowest in Mississippi, which ranks in the bottom ten on all four composite indices. Women's status is also low in Alabama, Arkansas, Kentucky, South Carolina, Tennessee, and West Virginia, states that rank in the bottom ten on three of the four composites, and in Louisiana, North Dakota, Oklahoma, and South Dakota, which rank in the bottom ten on two of the four indices.

The sections that follow discuss the states' rankings on each of the four composite indices and their components in greater detail. The report also provides basic health statistics and information on age, race, marital status, and other demographic information for women in the United States as a whole. Appendices to the report provide information on the methodology and sources used to develop the indices, the scores and ranks on all the component indicators and composite indices for all 50 states and the District of Columbia, a list of national organizations that can provide further information on the topics addressed in this report, and a list of references cited in this report.

Political Participation and Representation

Participating in the political process is one way women can seek representation of their interests and influence policies affecting their lives. This section describes several aspects of political participation important to women. Voter registration and turnout, female state and federal elected representation, and women's state institutional resources are all crucial to making women's political concerns visible.

In recent years a growing gender gap in voter preferences—the tendency for women and men to vote differently—suggests that women's interests may differ from men's in important ways (Delli Carpini and Fuchs, 1993; Mueller, 1988; Sapiro, 1983; Tolleson Rinehart, 1992). Women, for example, tend to support policies that encourage child care provision and combat violence against women, and they vote for candidates supporting these positions. Many women also give issues like education, health care, and reproductive rights a high priority. Because women often fill the role of primary care provider in families, these issues often affect women's lives more profoundly than men's, and voting is one way for women to express their political priorities.

Women's representation in political institutions can also help highlight their concerns in the public sphere. Regardless of party affiliation, female officeholders are more likely than male ones to support women's agendas (e.g., CAWP, 1991; Carroll, 1994; Thomas, 1994), and support for female candidates is growing among both male and female voters. Research shows that legislatures with larger proportions of female elected officials tend to address women's issues more than those with fewer female representatives (Dodson, 1991; Thomas, 1994). In addition, representation by means of permanent institutions, such as women's commissions, can provide regular procedural channels for expressing women's concerns (Stetson and Mazur, 1995). These institutions can also make government more accessible to women. Women need to be in both the executive and legislative branches to ensure that their perspectives are part of political debate.

The Political Participation Composite Index

- The state with the highest composite political participation index is Maine. Maine ranks second in voter registration and voter turnout among women and third on the women in elected office component.
- Kansas, which ranked first in the 1996 rankings, dropped to 19th in 1998. The change stems primarily from a drop in women in elected office: the state had two female Senators in 1996, neither of whom ran for reelection in 1996 (one retired and one was defeated in the primary).
- Overall, political involvement for women tends to be high in the western United States, New England, and some midwestern and plains states.
- In the southeastern states, from West Virginia to Tennessee to Florida, women have the least influence and involvement in political matters overall. They do, however, have good numbers of women's institutional resources, a first step perhaps to greater political involvement in other ways in the future.
- Pennsylvania, in a generally politically active geographic area for women, ranks a surprising 48th overall. The state scores in the lowest fifth on two components (women in elected office and voter

registration), and in the bottom third for voter turnout. Nebraska and Nevada also rank surprisingly low given the scores of surrounding states.

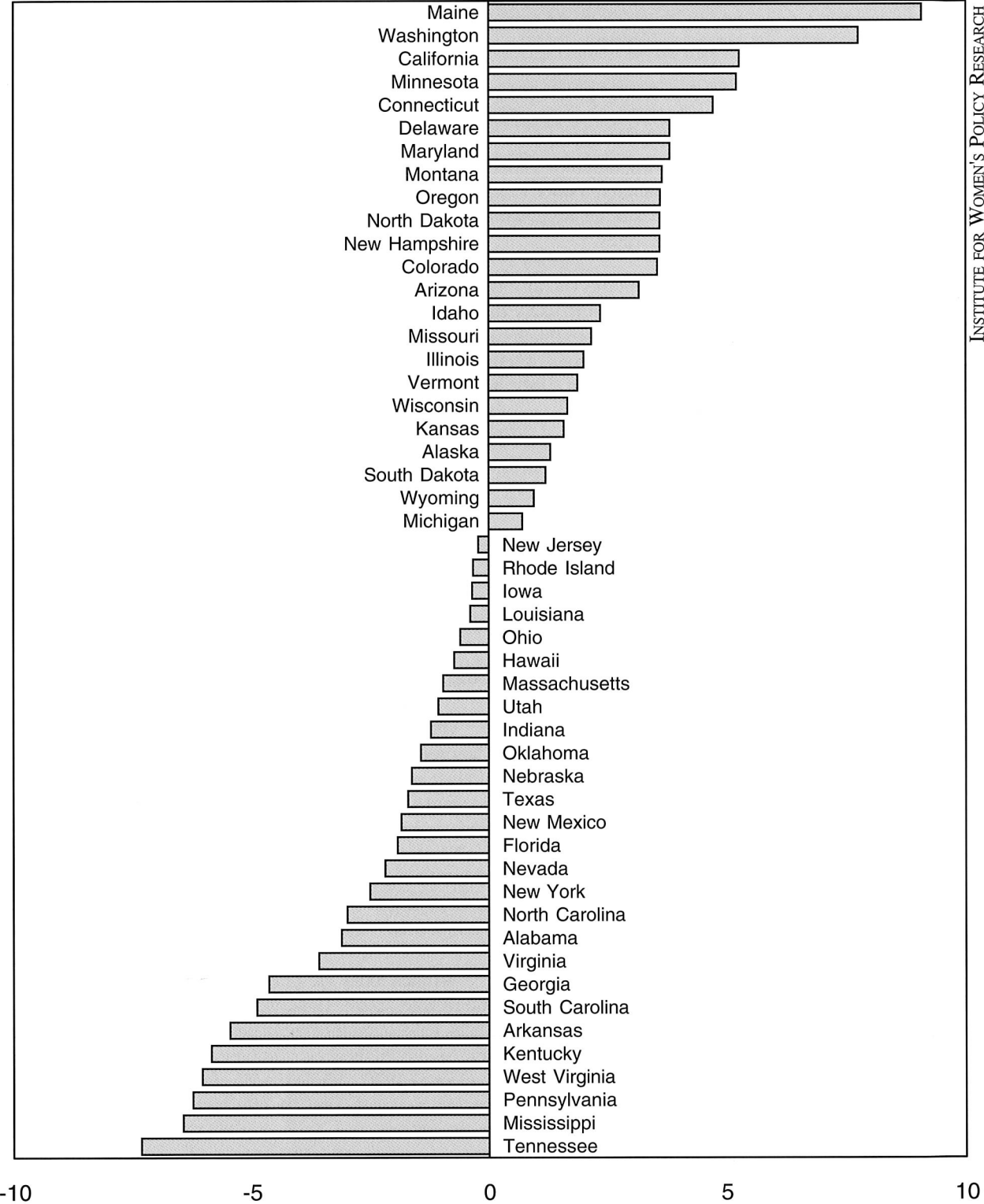
Voter Registration and Voter Turnout

One of the basic democratic rights is the right to vote. The principle "one person one vote" helps different kinds of citizens have an equal voice in the democratic process. Recognizing this value, many early women's movements made suffrage one of their first goals. Ratified in 1920, the Nineteenth Amendment gave women in the United States the right to vote, and in November of that year, about eight million out of 51.8 million women voted for the first time (National Women's Political Caucus, 1995).

Women today are more likely than men to register and to vote. Since 1964, women voters in the United States have outnumbered male voters. They have reported consistently higher registration and voter turnout rates than men since 1980, although voter turnout is relatively low (by international standards) for both sexes (U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, 1993). By 1994, more than 63 million women, or 63.7 percent of those eligible, reported being registered to vote, compared with nearly 56 million or 61.2 percent of eligible men. In addition, although 49 percent of both male and female registered voters voted in 1996, in 1992, 57.3 percent of

Chart 1.

Political Participation Composite Scores



women and 53.0 percent of men voted. These numbers are typical of recent trends.

- Survey data show that voter registration is generally highest in the East and West North Central states (the prairie states and parts of the Midwest), New England, and parts of the Southeast. The highest voter registration rate was in North Dakota, where an average of 92.4 percent of women eligible to vote reported they were registered in the 1992 and 1994 elections. However, unlike other states, North Dakota has a system of automatic registration: registration occurs when an eligible resident votes.
- Nevada had the lowest reported women's voter registration, with only 57.1 percent of eligible women registered. Some southern states and mid-Atlantic states also had low female voter registration rates in 1992 and 1994.
- Women voters in Montana had the highest turnout rate in the country, with 68.5 percent of registered women estimated to have voted in 1992 and 1996. Estimated women's voter turnout was generally high across most of the northern states from Wisconsin west to Oregon, as well as in Alaska.
- Voter turnout is lowest in some southeastern and western states. In Hawaii, only 42.4 percent of registered women were estimated to have voted, on average, in the 1992 and 1996 elections, making it the lowest ranked state in the country. Georgia (44.3 percent) and South Carolina (45.4 percent) ranked next lowest.
- A surprisingly high proportion of women in Louisiana voted compared to women in most surrounding states. At 61.4 percent, their turnout rate ranked 11th. This represents a substantial jump from IWPR's 1996 rankings, when Louisiana ranked 35th, with only a 52 percent female voter turnout. Women's increased participation may be attributable to the Senate race of Mary Landrieu, whom many more women than men supported.
- Interestingly, those states with higher percentages of women registered to vote and voting are not always the states with higher numbers of female elected officials. California and Nevada, for example, rank in the top third for numbers of women in elected office but are in the bottom third of the nation for both women's registration and women's turnout. However, most New England states and some northern

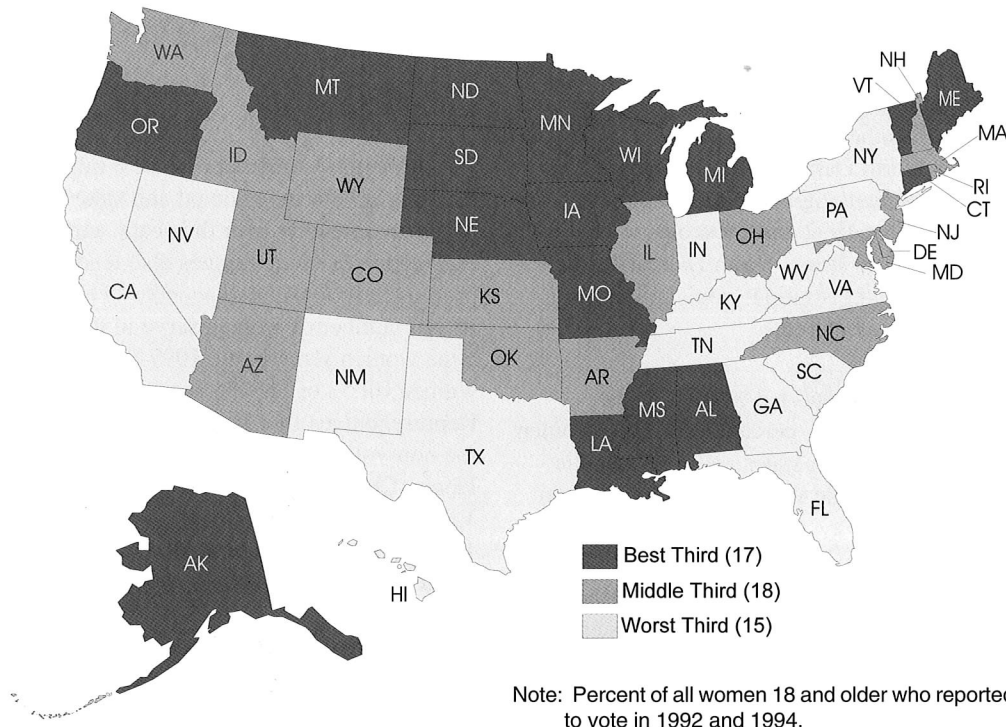
states (Minnesota, Idaho, Wyoming, and Oregon) rank well on both components, and many southern states rank poorly on both.

Elected Officials

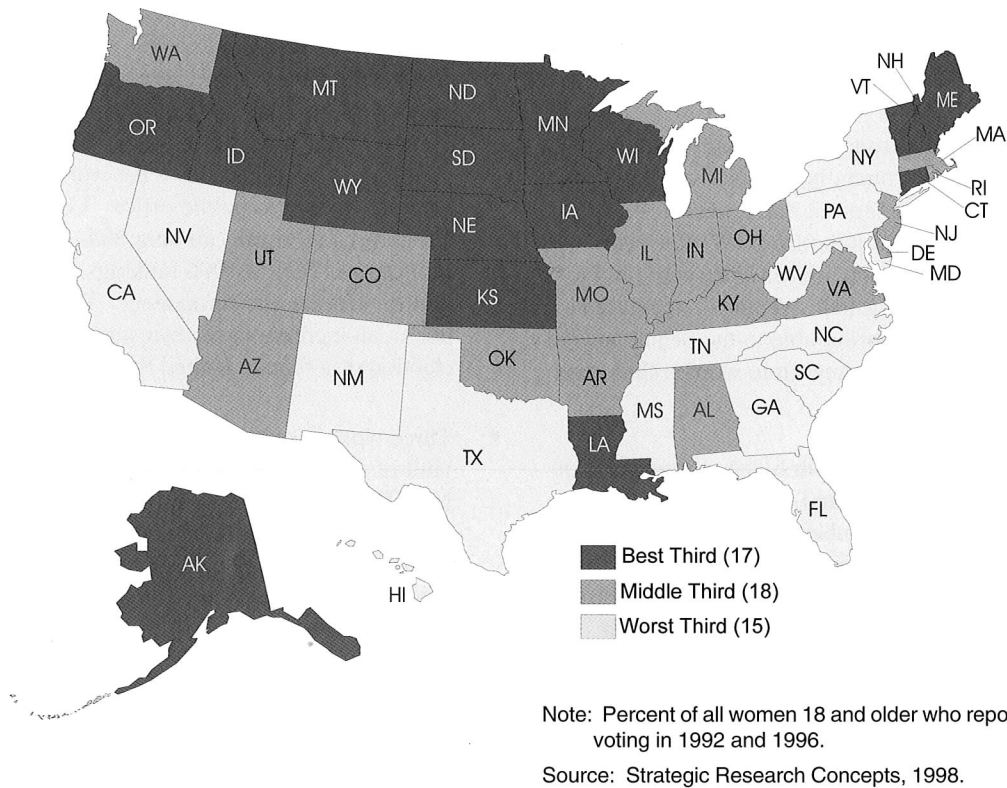
Although women constitute a minority of elected officials at both the national and state levels, their presence has grown steadily over the years, and as more women hold office, women's issues also tend to become more prominent in legislative agendas (Thomas, 1994). A record number of women serve in the 105th Congress. Nine women serve in the 1997-98 U.S. Senate, and women fill 53 of the 435 seats in the U.S. House of Representatives (not including Eleanor Holmes Norton, the non-voting delegate from the District of Columbia, and Donna Christian-Green, the non-voting delegate from the Virgin Islands). In contrast, in the 96th Congress (1979-1980), only one Senator and 16 members of the House of Representatives were women (CAWP, 1996).

- In general, women are more likely to hold elected office in the West. Washington had the highest score on the women elected officials indicator. The top ten states on this indicator also include California (2nd), Arizona (4th), and Colorado (6th). A few northeastern states also rank in the top ten: Maine (3rd), Delaware (5th), New Hampshire (8th), and Connecticut (10th).
- In two states in 1998—California and Maine—women filled both U.S. Senate seats.
- Nearly all of the southeastern states rank in the bottom third on the women in elected office indicator. West Virginia (47th), Alabama (48th), Kentucky (49th), and Mississippi (50th) have the worst records of electing women to public office. Louisiana, however, did surprisingly well, ranking 28th—a tremendous jump from IWPR's 1996 rankings, when the state ranked 47th on this component. This jump is largely due to an increase in women state legislators and the election of a female United States Senator.
- Three women serve as governors in 1998: Jane Dee Hull of Arizona (Republican), Jeanne Shaheen of New Hampshire (Democrat), and Christine Todd Whitman of New Jersey (Republican). Whitman served as the only female governor as of 1996. To date, only 15 women have ever served as governors (CAWP, 1998a).

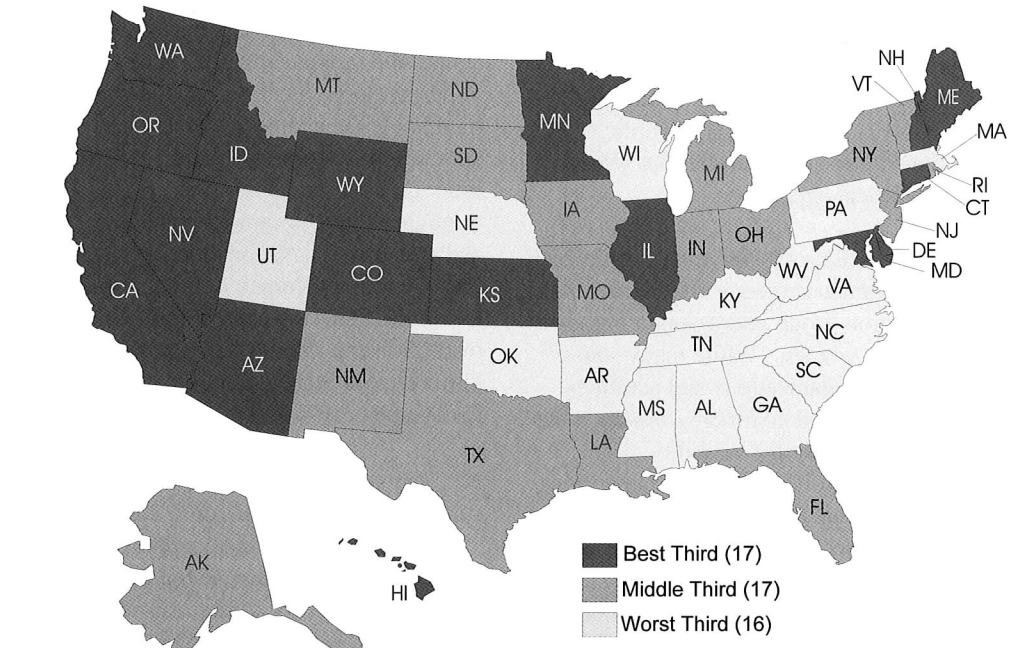
Map 5. Women's Voter Registration



Map 6. Women's Voter Turnout



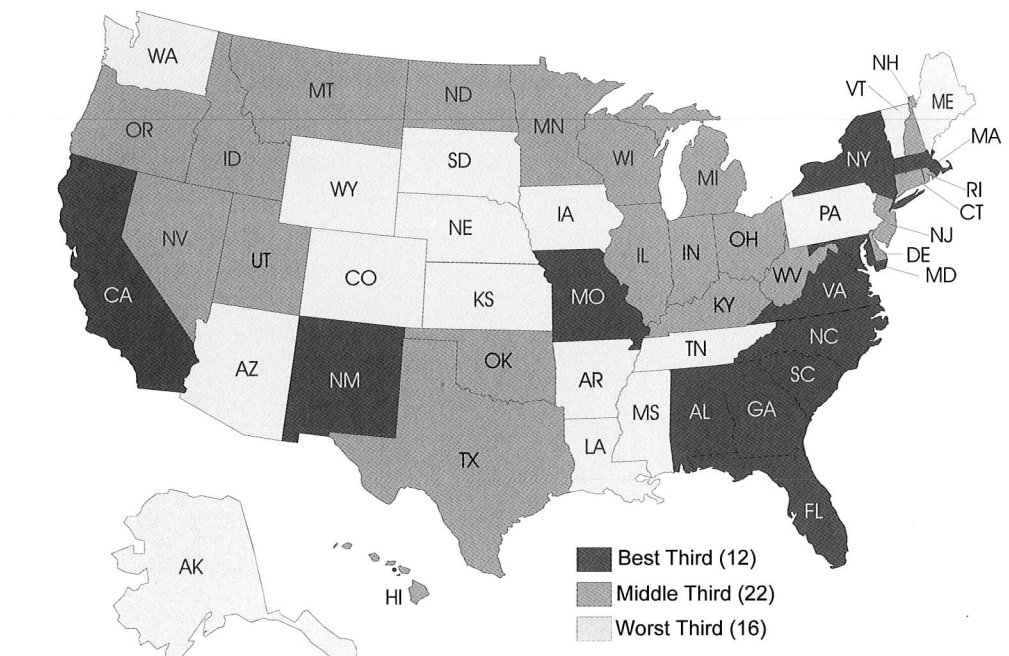
Map 7. Women in Elected Office



Note: Percent of state and national elected officeholders who are women, 1998.

Source: CAWP, 1998a, 1998b, 1998c, and 1998d; compiled by IWPR, based on Center for Policy Alternatives, 1995.

Map 8. Women's Resources



Note: Number of institutional resources for women in the state, 1998.

Source: Center for Policy Alternatives, 1995; National Association of Commissions for Women, 1997; CAWP, 1989e; compiled by IWPR, based on Center for Policy Alternatives, 1995.

Institutional Resources

Women's institutional resources can play an important role in providing information about women's issues and attracting the attention of policymakers and the public. They can also serve as an access point for women and women's groups to express their interests to public officials. Thus such institutions can ensure that women's issues remain on the political agenda.

Several types of institutions can serve women in each state. A women's state agenda project is a non-governmental, state-based coalition group addressing a broad range of issues concerning women. While many states have a variety of women's organizations and activities around women's issues, as broad coalitions, women's state agenda projects can help increase the visibility of women's activism and provide resources like networking and support. Women members of the state legislature also often join together in caucuses in the Senate and/or the House; they can be formal or informal, partisan or nonpartisan. Finally, in many states, the governor or members of the legislature appoint a state commission on the status of women.

State commissions for women and commissions on the status of women are modeled on the first President's Commission on the Status of Women, established by John F. Kennedy on December 14, 1961. President Kennedy appointed Eleanor Roosevelt as chair of the first Commission on the Status of Women. The first state commission for women was appointed in February of 1963 in

Washington state (Harrison, 1998). Today, although there is no presidential commission, the Clinton Administration maintains the White House Office for Women's Initiatives and Outreach, which serves as a liaison between the White House and women's organizations, advocates for issues important to women and families, and conducts roundtables to enable women to discuss their priorities with administration officials. In addition, a federal Interagency Council on Women is charged with following through on U.S. commitments to the Beijing Declaration and Platform for Action from the U.N. Fourth World Conference on Women (White House Office for Women's Initiatives and Outreach, 1996). Currently, there are also over 250 state, county and local commissions for women in the United States (National Association of Commissions for Women, 1996).

- Ten states—California, Florida, Georgia, Maryland, Massachusetts, Missouri, New York, North Carolina, South Carolina, and Virginia—have all three types of institutional resources for women at the state level. This represents a jump from five states with all three types of resources in 1996. Institutional resources for women tend to be concentrated in the South Atlantic region.
- Only two states—Kansas and Tennessee—have none of these institutional resources for women at the state level. Since 1996, Arizona, which had no institutional resources in that year, gained a women's state agenda project, and Tennessee lost its women's caucus in the state assembly.

Employment and Earnings

Earnings are the largest component of income for most families. Thus, earnings and economic well-being are closely linked. The topics addressed in this section include women's earnings; the female/male earnings ratio; women's earnings by educational attainment; labor force participation; unemployment rates; and the industries and occupations in which women work.

Families must often rely on women's earnings to remain out of poverty (Cancian, Danziger, and Gottschalk, 1993; Spalter-Roth, et al., 1990). Women's employment status and earnings have grown in importance for the overall well-being of women and their families as demographic and economic changes have occurred: men experienced stagnant or negative real wage growth during the 1980s and the early portion of the 1990s, more married-couple families now rely on both the husband's and wife's earnings to survive, more women head their own households, and more women are in the labor force.

The Employment and Earnings Composite Index

- In general, women in the West, New England, and parts of the mid-Atlantic fare best on the employment and earnings composite index.
- The District of Columbia has the highest composite employment and earnings index. The District ranks first on the wage ratio and the percentage of women in professional and managerial occupations and second on women's earnings. It ranks in the middle third of the nation on the proportion of women in the labor force.
- Women in the Southeast, in parts of the Mountain West, and in some midwestern states tend to score poorly on the composite employment and earnings index.
- Alabama ranks the worst in the nation on the composite employment and earnings index. This southeastern state ranks in the worst ten on all four components of the index.

Women's Earnings

In 1995, women in the United States working full-time, year-round earned a median salary of \$24,909 (IWPR, 1998b). Women's earnings have been growing faster than men's since 1975. A large part of this growth is due to their rapid accumulation of human capital, both in the form of formal education and in the form of labor market experience. Better paying jobs and educational opportunities have been opened to women as a result of equal opportunity laws. Women's pay has also been raised as a result of the enforcement of the 1963 Equal Pay Act, an increase in union representation in traditional women's occupations (for example teaching and nursing),

and, recently, a substantial increase in the federal minimum wage.

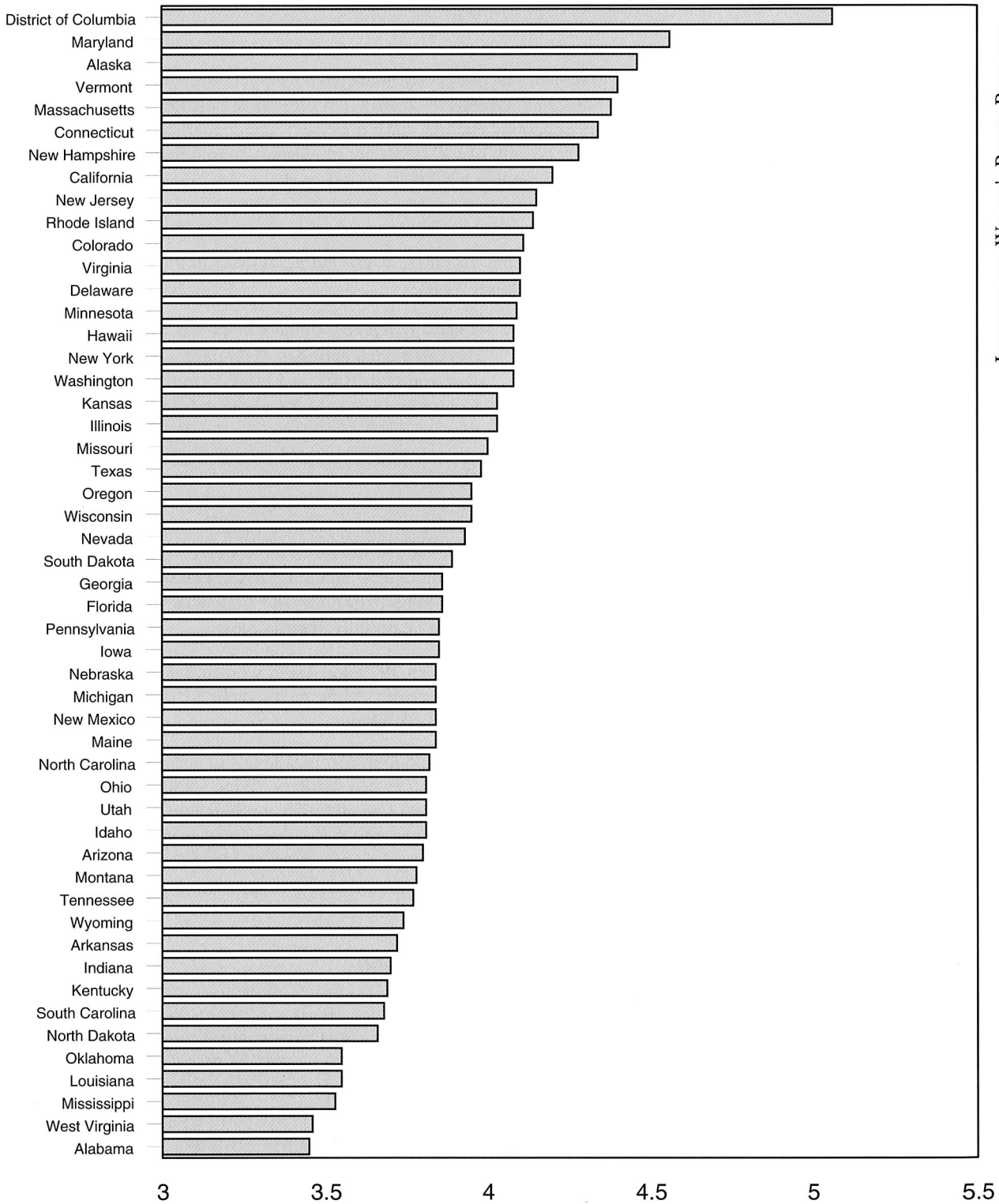
- Alaska ranked the highest in the nation in terms of the median annual earnings of women working full-time, year-round in 1995, at \$31,380. In the District of Columbia (\$30,865), Connecticut (\$30,541), and Maryland (\$29,241), women also had much higher earnings than average for women in the United States (\$24,909).
- In Mississippi, women's median earnings were \$19,494, the lowest in the country. In other low ranking states, including North Dakota (\$19,548), Oklahoma (\$19,852), and Louisiana (\$20,235), women earn only slightly more.
- Between 1979 and 1996, women's wages increased 10.2 percent, while men's dropped 10.9 percent (IWPR, 1998a).

Low and high earnings levels in states may overstate differences between workers' living standards among the states because low and high earnings may be partially offset by lower and higher costs of living, respectively. Cost-of-living data are not available by state, however, so no adjustments were made to state earnings data.

The Wage Gap

Throughout the 1960s and 1970s, the ratio of women's to men's median annual earnings (for full-time, year-round workers) in the United States remained fairly constant at around 60 percent. During the 1980s, however, women made progress in narrowing the gap between men's earnings and their own. By 1995, the ratio of the median earnings of women to those of men in the United States for full-time, year-round workers aged 18 to 65 was 72.3 percent. Women increased their educational attainment and their time in the labor market and entered better

Chart 2. Employment and Earnings Composite Scores



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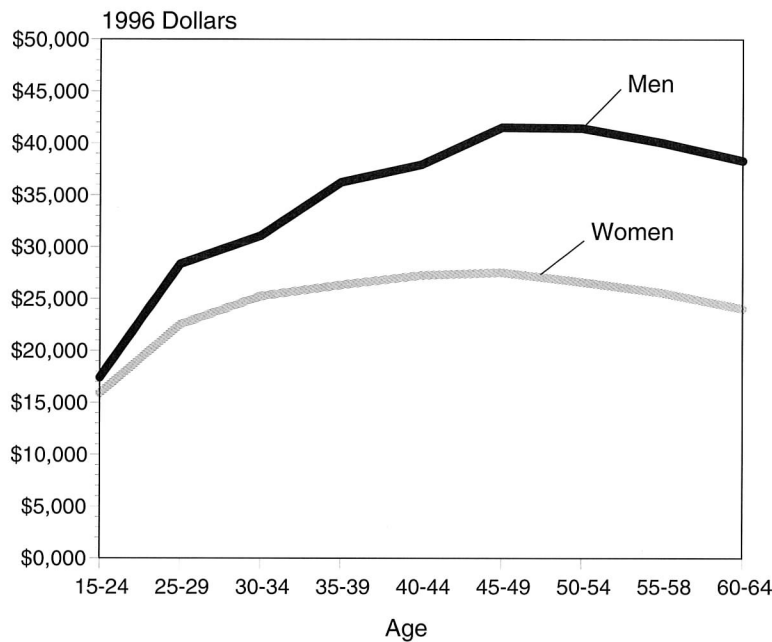
paying occupations in large numbers, partly because of equal opportunity laws. At the same time, however, adverse economic trends such as declining wages in the low-wage sector of the labor market began to make it more difficult to close the gap, since women still tend to be concentrated at the low end of the earnings distribution. Had women not increased their relative skill levels and work experience as much as they did during the 1980s, those adverse trends might have led to a widening of the gap rather than the significant narrowing that did occur (Blau and Kahn, 1994).

One factor that most likely also helped to narrow the earnings gap between women and men is unionization. Women have increased their share of union membership, and being unionized tends to raise women's wages relatively more than men's; the wages of women of color relatively more than the wages of non-Hispanic white women; and the wages of low earners relatively more than the wages of high earners (Spalter-Roth et al., 1993a).

The gender-based wage gap in the United States narrowed by 11.9 percentage points between 1979 and 1997. Unfortunately, part of the narrowing that occurred was due to a fall in men's real wages. According to research done by IWPR, only about one-third (36 percent) of the narrowing of the national earnings gap between 1979 and 1997 is due to women's rising real wages, while about two-thirds (64 percent) is due to men's falling real wages. More disturbing is the slowdown in real wage growth for women during the later portion of this period. From 1989 to 1997 almost all of the narrowing of the gap was due to the fall in men's real wages (IWPR, 1998a).

Despite the fall in men's earnings in real terms, they still outearn women both overall and at every age (on average). In fact, the wage gap grows as men and women age, as Figure 1 shows. The gap is relatively small for young men and women, but thereafter men's wages increase sharply while women's do not. The average woman in her working prime (that is, in her early forties)

Figure 1.
The Female-Male Wage Gap Over the Life Cycle
(1996 Median Annual Earnings by Age)

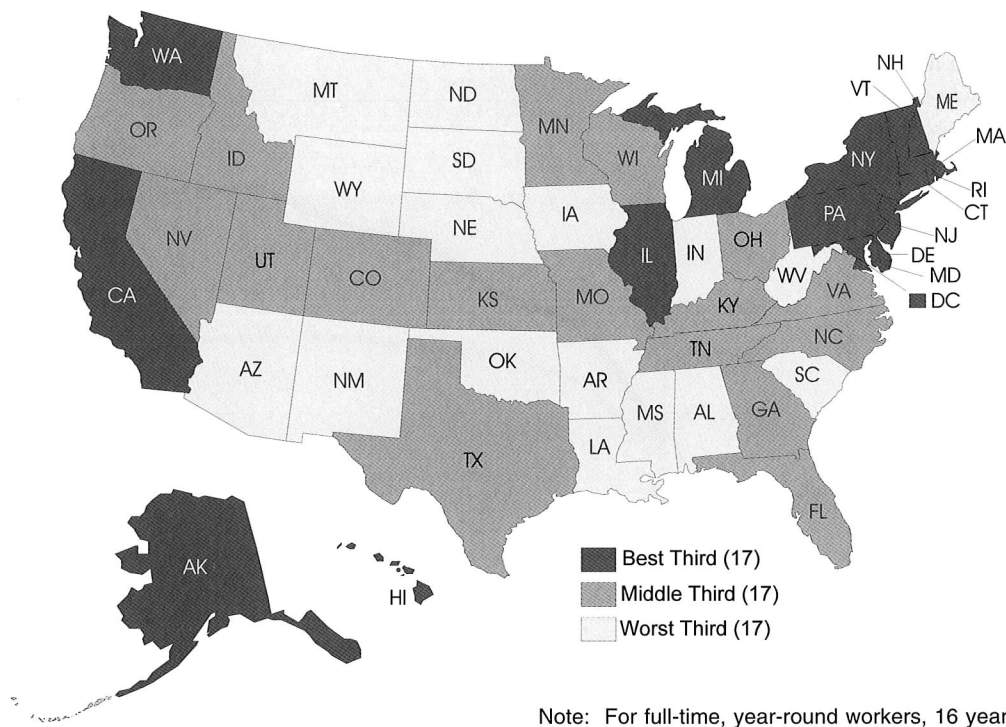


Source: U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, 1998a.

makes only about the same as a man in his late twenties (U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, 1995).

- The District of Columbia has the best earnings ratio in the nation. There, women earn 87.5 percent of what men earn. In Vermont (81.9 percent), South Dakota (76.9 percent), and Arkansas (76.7 percent) women also rank well on the wage-ratio indicator. Arkansas' ranking jumped up 11 states from IWPR's 1996 rankings (based on 1990 census data). Both men and women in Arkansas experienced substantial real wage growth during this period, but women's earnings growth was far greater than men's.
- Oklahoma and Alabama have the worst earnings ratio in the nation, at 63.3 percent. North Dakota (64.0 percent), Louisiana (64.4 percent), and West Virginia (64.8 percent) are the states with the next lowest earnings ratios. North Dakota dropped a surprising 34 states from IWPR's 1996 rankings (based on 1990 census data) to 49th (based on 1995 data). While both men and women in North Dakota experienced real wage growth during this time period, men's wages grew at a much faster rate than women's.

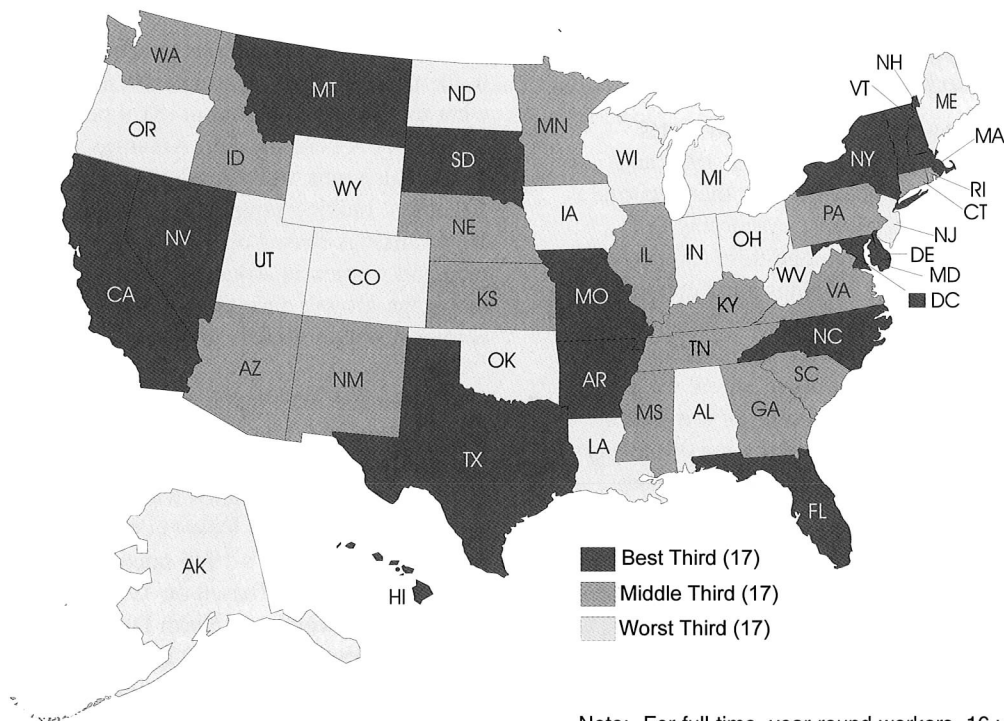
Map 9. Women's Median Annual Earnings



Note: For full-time, year-round workers, 16 years and older, 1994-1996.

Source: IWPR, 1998b.

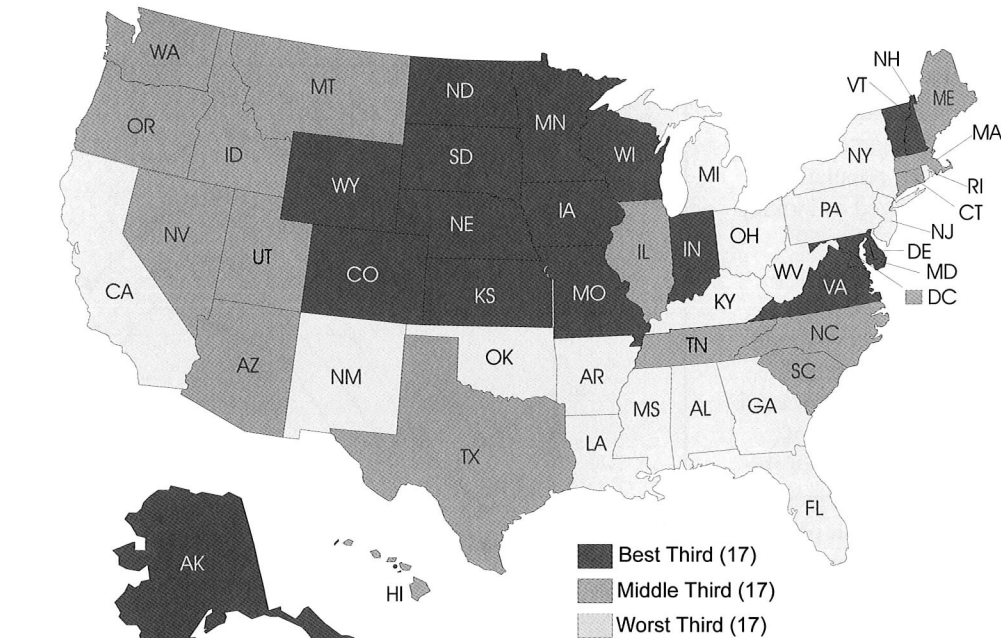
Map 10. Ratio of Women's to Men's Earnings



Note: For full-time, year-round workers, 16 years and older, 1994-1996.

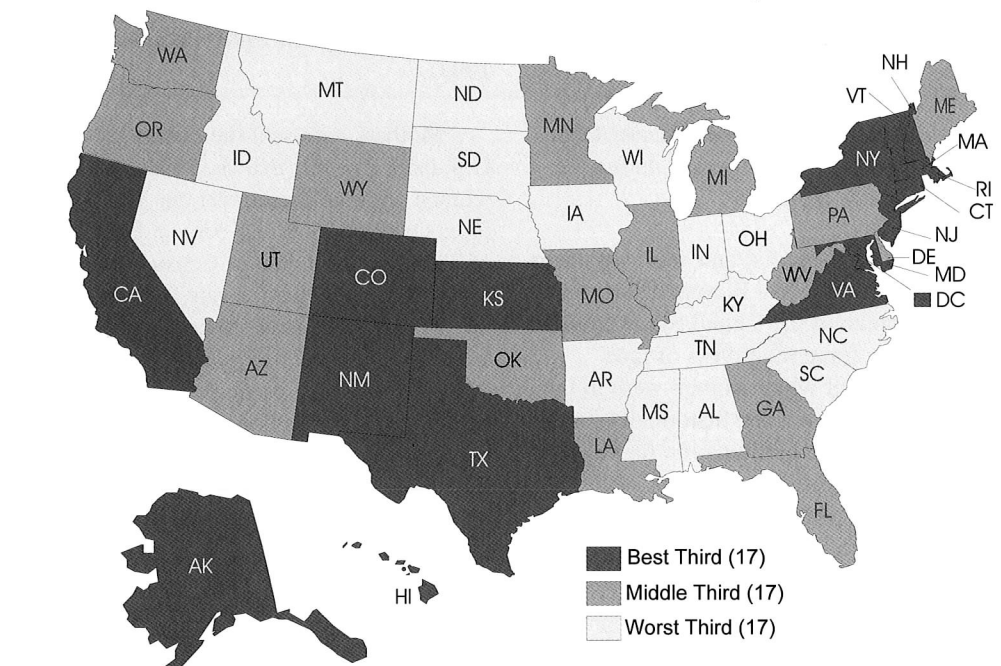
Source: IWPR, 1998b.

Map 11. Women's Labor Force Participation



Note: Percent of all women, aged 16 and older, in the civilian non-institutionalized population who are either employed or looking for work, 1995.
 Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1997.

Map 12. Women in Managerial and Professional Occupations



Note: Percent of all employed women, aged 16 and older, in managerial or professional specialty occupations, 1995.
 Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1997.

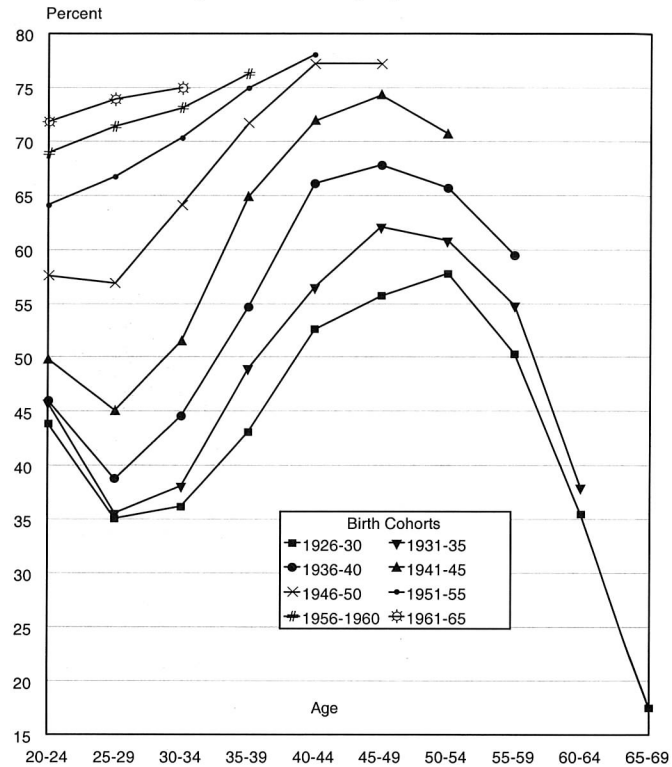
Labor Force Participation

One of the most notable changes in the U.S. economy over the past decades has been the rapid rise in women's participation in the labor force. Between 1965 and 1995, women's labor force participation (the proportion of the civilian non-institutional population aged 16 and older employed or looking for work) increased from 39 to 59 percent (U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1997). Women now make up nearly half (46 percent) of the U.S. labor force (full-time and part-time combined). According to projections by the Bureau of Labor Statistics, women's share of the labor force will continue to increase, growing from 46 to 48 percent between 1995 and 2005 (U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1995a).

Figure 2 illustrates the historic growth of women's labor force participation. Each younger cohort (age group) of women has worked more than the one before. For example, approximately 44 percent of women born between 1926 and 1930 worked between the ages of 20 and 24. However, 72 percent of women born between 1961 and 1965 worked during this same stage of life. In addition, women have generally worked more as they have aged (until nearing retirement age), and now fewer women drop out of the labor force when they have children. Consequently labor force participation rates do not drop on average during the childbearing years (Hartmann, 1995).

Working women reflect the racial and ethnic makeup of the country. According to Census Bureau data from 1995, 58.9 percent of women in the United States aged 16 and older were in the labor force regardless of race. Approximately 59.0 percent of white women were in the labor force. African American women historically have had a higher average labor force participation rate than white and Hispanic women and did so in 1995, when 59.5 percent of African American women participated in the labor force. Hispanic women traditionally have the lowest participation rates among women; in the United States as a whole, only 52.6 percent of Hispanic women were in the labor force in 1995. Data for Asian American women were not available for 1995; however, in 1990, Asian American women had the highest participation rate, 60.2 percent, of women in the United States. The national labor force participation rate for Native American women

Figure 2.
Trends in Labor Force Participation Rates for Women, 1950-1995, by Birth Cohort



Source: Social Security Administration, 1993; U.S. Department of Labor, 1996.

was 54.9 percent in 1990 (Population Reference Bureau, 1993).

Mothers represent the fastest growing group in the U.S. labor market (Brown, 1994). In 1995, 55 percent of women with children under age one were in the labor force compared with 31 percent in 1976 (U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of Census, 1997f). In general, the labor force participation rate for women with children in the United States tends to be higher than the rate for all women. This is partially explained by the fact that the overall labor force participation rate measures the participation of all women aged 16 and older; thus, both teenagers and retirement age women are included in the statistics even though they have much lower labor force participation. Mothers of young children, in contrast, tend to be in the age groups with higher labor force participation. At 61.5 percent, even the labor force participation rate for women who have children under age six is higher than the average participation rate for all women. Mothers have especially high rates of labor force participation in Iowa (81.7 percent); South Dakota (79.9 percent); North Dakota (79.1 percent); Wisconsin (78.6 percent); and Minnesota (78.3 percent; IWPR, 1998b).

The high and growing rates of labor force participation of women with children suggest that the demand for child care is also growing. Many women report a variety of problems finding suitable child care (affordable, good quality, and conveniently located) and women use a wide variety of types of child care (U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of Census, 1996c). Child care costs are a significant barrier to employment for many women, and child care expenditures use up a large percentage of earnings, especially for lower-income mothers. For example, among single mothers with family incomes within 200 percent of the poverty level, child care costs for those who paid for child care amounted to 19 percent of the mother's earnings on average; among married mothers at the same income level, child care costs amounted to 30 percent of the mother's earnings on average (IWPR, 1996). Thus, as more and more low income women are encouraged or required (through welfare reform) to enter the labor market, the growing need for affordable child care must be addressed. Child care subsidies for low income mothers are essential to enable them to purchase good quality child care without sacrificing their families' economic well-being.

- In Minnesota, 69.6 percent of women are in the labor force, making it the state with the highest labor force participation for women. Women in the West and Midwest tend to have high rates of labor force participation. The top five states also include Nebraska (68.4 percent), Wisconsin (68.2 percent), Colorado (67.2 percent), and Iowa (66.6 percent).
- West Virginia has the lowest percentage of women in the labor force, at 46.3 percent. Pennsylvania, a neighboring state, also has a low percentage of women in the labor force (55.0 percent), as does nearby New York (52.8 percent). Most states with low labor force participation are among the southernmost states, such as Louisiana (53.6 percent), Florida (54.5 percent), and Alabama (55.3 percent).

Women's Representation by Occupation and Industry

Figure 3 shows that women and men are distributed differently across occupations. Women workers are most likely to be in technical, sales, and administrative support occupations. In the United States as a whole, 41.4 percent of women workers work in these occupations; women's next most likely occupational group is managers and professionals (30.3 percent of working women). About 17.5 percent of working women work in service occupations, and very small percentages work in skilled and unskilled blue collar jobs or in agricultural jobs. Men are more evenly spread across the six broad occupational categories. Their largest occupational group is managers and professionals (27.5 percent of working men). Operators, fabricators, and laborers follow closely at 20.2 percent, as do technical, sales and administrative support occupations at 19.8 percent, and precision, production, craft, and repair occupations at 18.1 percent. Smaller percentages work in service jobs and as agricultural workers.

Women's growing participation in managerial and professional jobs is an important component of women's employment and earnings as it reflects employers' willingness to promote women to positions of responsibility and authority and challenges to the "glass ceiling." These types of jobs allow women more control over their work lives, pay well, and are regarded with more prestige.

- The District of Columbia has the highest percentage of employed women working in professional and

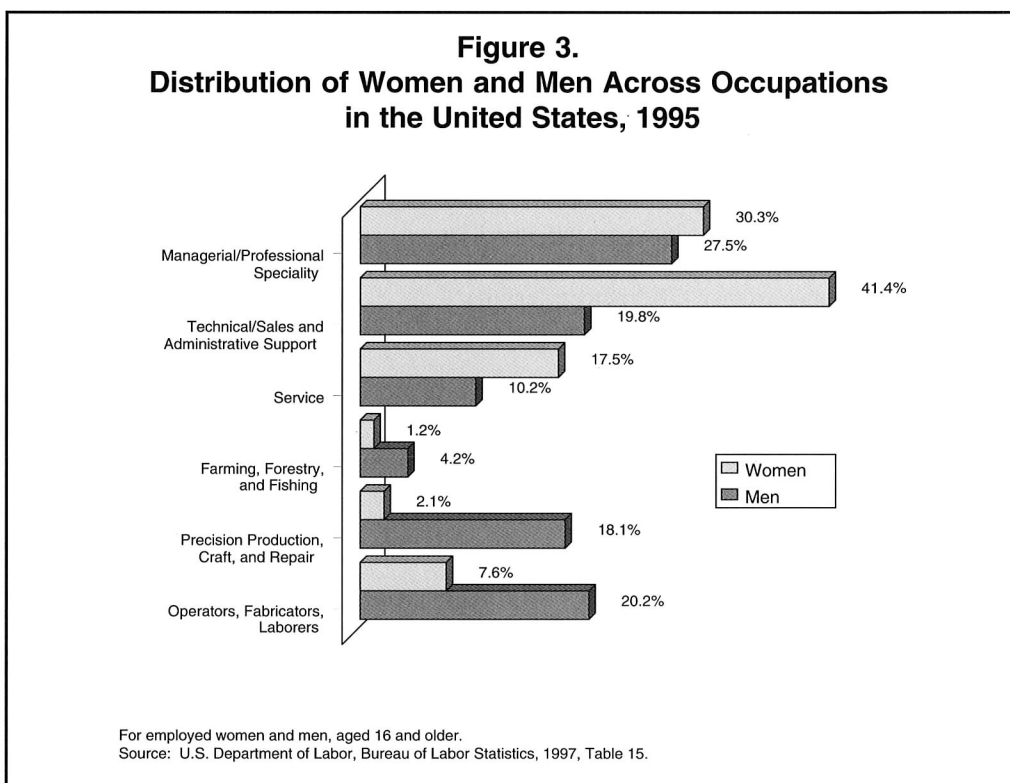
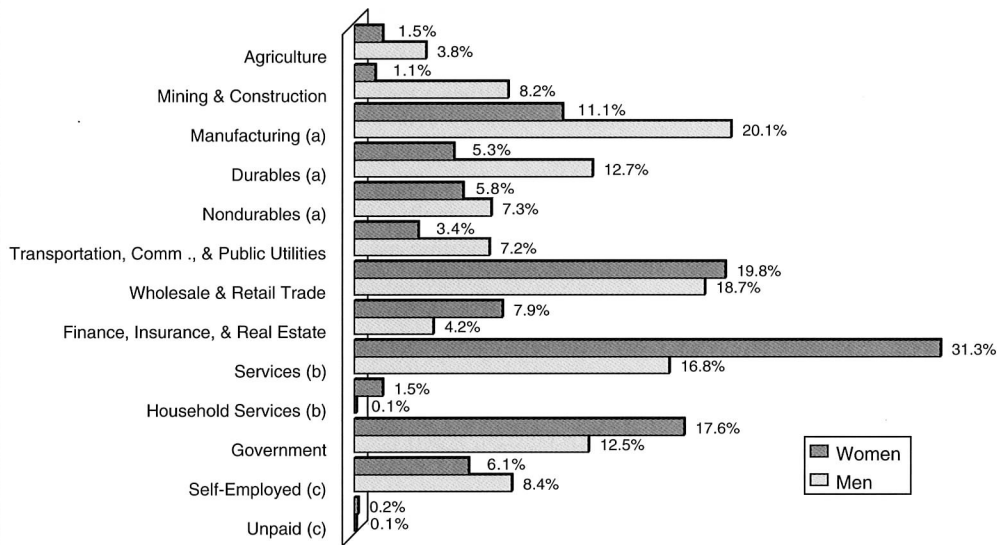


Figure 4.
Distribution of Women and Men Across Industries
in the United States, 1994



(a) Durables and Non-Durables included in manufacturing.
 (b) Private household workers are included in services.
 (c) Self-Employed and Unpaid workers could also be distributed among these industries. The industrial breakdown shown here is for wage and salary workers only.

For employed women and men, aged 16 and older.
 Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1995b; based on data from the 1995 Current Population Survey.

Women are most likely to be employed in the service industries. Almost one-third of all working women are employed in the service industries, including business, professional, and personal services. About one-fifth of employed women work in the wholesale and retail trade industries. A slightly smaller portion of working women work for the government. The next largest industries for women are manufacturing (11.1 percent) and the finance, insurance, and real estate industries (7.9 percent). Men are most likely to be employed in the

managerial jobs (47.4 percent). A high percentage of women in Maryland (37.9 percent), Massachusetts (35.4 percent), Alaska (34.9 percent) and Vermont (34.6 percent) also hold professional and managerial jobs.

- In general, women are least likely to hold professional and managerial jobs in the Southeast. For example, Alabama (24.6 percent), South Carolina (25.1 percent), Mississippi (25.1 percent), Tennessee (25.4 percent), Arkansas (25.6 percent), and Kentucky (26.2 percent) all score poorly in comparison with the national average (30.3 percent) on the component measuring women holding professional and managerial positions.

Figure 4 shows that women and men are distributed differently across industries, and, as with occupations, men are distributed across the industries more evenly.

manufacturing industries (20.1 percent), and they are almost as likely to be employed in the services (16.8 percent). Of employed men, 8.2 percent work in mining and construction and approximately 4.2 percent work in the finance, insurance, and real estate industries.

Because of their close proximity to the nation's capital, high proportions of women working in Virginia (23.2 percent), in Maryland (26.8 percent), and in the District of Columbia itself, work in government (35.5). Government employment especially benefits women as it tends to provide employment opportunities, pay, and benefits that are more equal to those of men than is often the case in private industries, as well as good access to health insurance and a high rate of representation by labor unions and professional associations. Large proportions of all women managers and professionals, especially among women of color, work in the public sector.

Economic Autonomy

The economic autonomy composite index measures the factors that, in addition to employment and earnings, relate to women's ability to act independently, exercise choice, and control their lives. Components of the index include access to health insurance, educational attainment, women's business ownership, self-employment, and women living in poverty. Access to health insurance plays a role in determining the overall quality of health care for women in a state and governs the extent of choice women have in selecting health care services. Educational attainment relates to economic autonomy in many ways: through labor force participation, hours of work, earnings, child-bearing decisions, and career advancement. Women who own their own businesses control many aspects of their working lives. Women in poverty unfortunately have limited choices: if they receive public income support, they must answer to their caseworkers; they do not have the economic means to travel freely; and they often do not have the skills and tools necessary to improve their economic situation.

The Economic Autonomy Composite Index

- Women on the west coast, in most of New England, and in some of the mid-Atlantic region rank well on the composite economic autonomy index.
- The District of Columbia ranks first on the composite index due to high proportions of college educated women (first) and women-owned businesses (first). However, the District scores in the worst fifth of the nation in terms of women above poverty (48th) and women with health insurance (42nd).
- In general, women in the southeastern United States score in the bottom ten states on the composite economic autonomy index. The lowest scoring states include Mississippi (51st), Arkansas (50th), West Virginia (49th), Kentucky (48th), Louisiana (47th), Alabama (46th), and Tennessee (45th).

Access to Health Insurance

In the United States, 13.8 percent of women under age 65, including those under 18, are uninsured (Liska et al., 1998). Approximately 66.0 percent of women are insured through employers, either their own or their spouse's. Medicaid provides health insurance for 14.2 percent of women and 10.3 percent of men in the United States. Other forms of health insurance cover 6.0 percent of American women.

- Women in the southwestern and southeastern United States are the least likely to have health insurance. New Mexico (24.1 percent), Texas (21.9 percent), and Arkansas (19.9 percent) have the highest percentages of women who lack health insurance.
- Women in the North Central states and New England are most likely to have health insurance. Women in Hawaii, Tennessee, and Wisconsin are very likely

to have health insurance. Only 6.7, 7.8, and 7.9 percent, respectively, of women in these states are not insured.

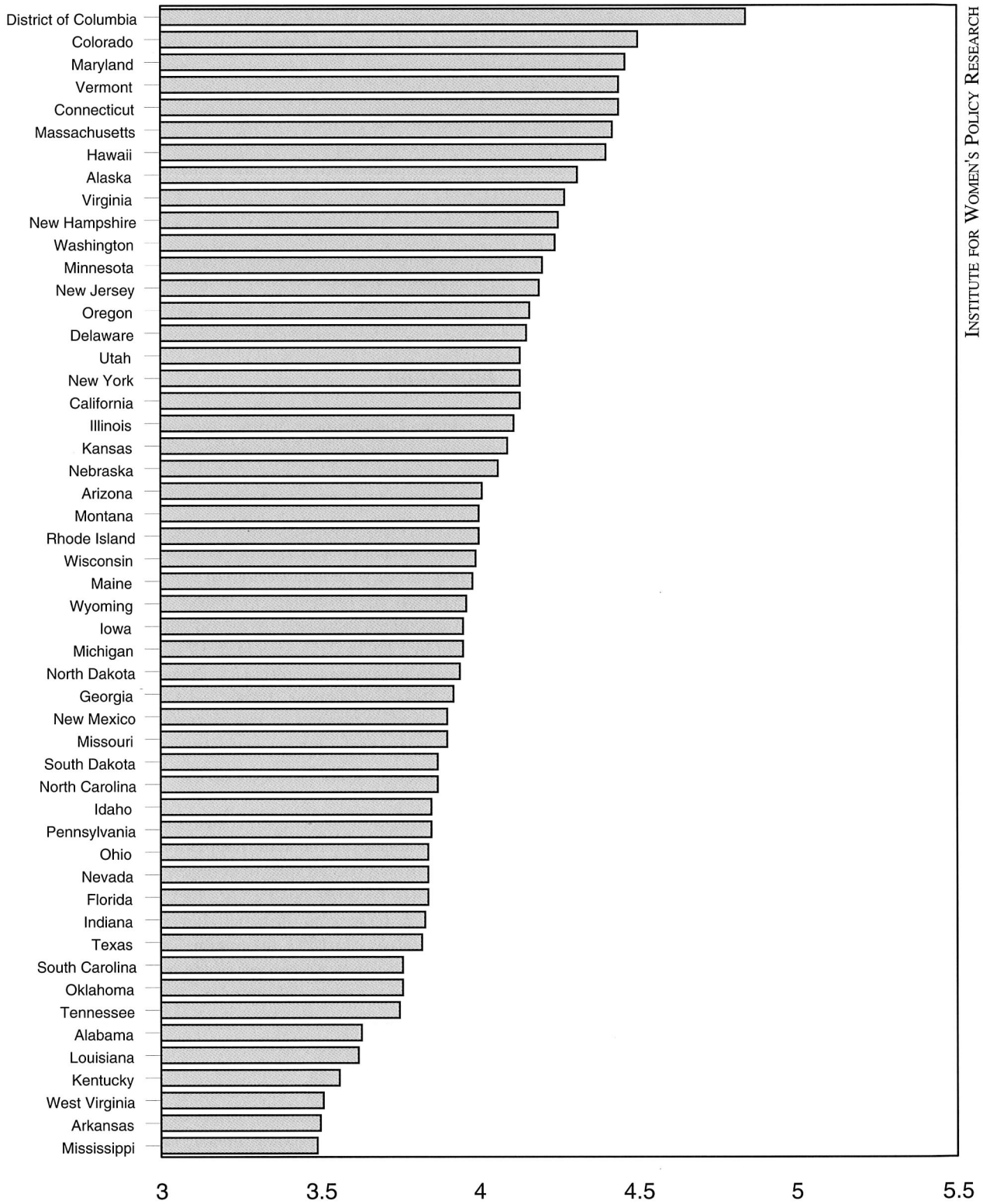
Education

In the United States, women have made steady progress in achieving higher levels of education. Between 1980 and 1997, the percentage of women in the United States with a high school education or more increased by about one-fifth, with comparable percentages of women and men having completed high school (82.2 percent of women and 82.0 percent of men in 1997). During the same period, the percentage of women with four or more years of college increased by three-fifths, from 13.6 percent in 1980 to 21.7 percent in 1997 (compared with 26.2 percent of men in 1997; U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of Census, 1998b and 1998c). As of 1994, young women earned more than half of the bachelor's degrees in the United States (U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, 1997b).

Looking at the stock, rather than the annual flow, of college graduates in the adult population reveals that women still lag behind men in college education. In 1960, the number of women aged 25 or older who held college degrees was 65 percent of the number of men who held college degrees. In 1993, the number of women with college degrees was 84 percent of the number of men with college degrees—the catch-up of the stock of women with degrees occurs gradually (U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, 1993).

Women are increasingly pursuing courses of study more like those men pursue, earning degrees in business, law, medicine, and computer science. Today women comprise almost 40 percent of medical students and are approaching equality in law programs. The proportion of women in most of the sciences and in engineering still lags behind that of men, however (U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of Commerce, 1997e).

Chart 3. Economic Autonomy Composite Scores



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Although women continue to increase their levels of education, there is still room for improvement. Only 43 percent of women in the United States have more than a high school education (Population Reference Bureau, 1993). The proportion of women over 25 without high school diplomas in the United States is still high at 25.2 percent. The proportion of women with four or more years of college is only 18 percent, compared with 24 percent of men. Finally, there is room for improvement in graduate education. Less than ten percent of engineering Ph.D. recipients in 1992 were women, and psychology is the only broad science field in which women receive the majority share of doctorates earned. Minority women comprised only five percent of Ph.D. degrees earned by U.S. citizens in 1992 (National Science Foundation, 1994).

- Women are more highly educated in the District of Columbia than elsewhere in the nation. Almost 31 percent of women in the District of Columbia have at least a college degree. There is a large gap between the District of Columbia and the state with the next highest percentage of college-educated women, Massachusetts (24.1 percent).
- Women in the Northeast tend to be among the most educated in the country. The proportions of women with four or more years of college in Massachusetts (24.1 percent), Connecticut (23.8 percent), Vermont (23.2 percent), New Hampshire (21.1 percent), and New Jersey (21.0 percent) rank in the top ten states.
- West Virginia women, on average, are the least educated in the nation. Only 10.9 percent of women there have at least a college degree. In general, women in the Southeast and parts of the Midwest tend to be less well educated than in other parts of the country.

Women Business Owners and Self-Employment

Between 1987 and 1992, the number of women-owned businesses in the United States grew at a rate of 44 percent (for purposes of comparability over time, these data exclude type C corporations; for a definition of type C corporations, see Appendix I). By 1992, women-owned 5,888,833 firms in the United States. Of these firms, 53.6 percent were in the service industries and the next highest proportion, 18.6 percent, were in retail trade. Moreover, the business receipts of women-owned businesses in the United States rose by 87 percent (in constant dollars) between 1987 and 1992. This is compared with an increase of 35 percent for all firms in the United States during this time period (U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, 1996a).

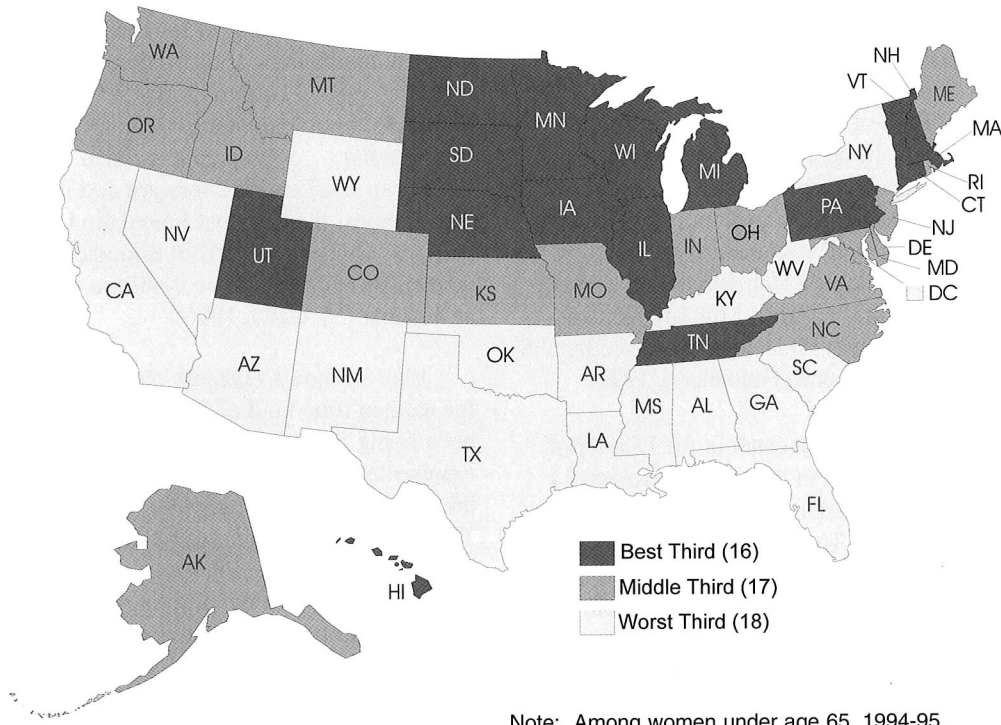
In January 1996, the U.S. Department of Commerce announced that as of 1992 women owned over 6.4 million firms in the United States, employing over 13 million persons and generating \$1.6 trillion in business revenues (these numbers include all women-owned businesses, including type C corporations; IWPR's state-by-state rankings do not include type C corporations; see Appendix I for details). Projecting women's business growth rates from 1987 to 1992 forward and including type C corporations, the National Foundation for Women Business Owners (NFWBO) estimates the 1996 number of women-owned firms to be 8 million for the United States as a whole (NFWBO, 1996).

Like women's business ownership, self-employment for women (one kind of business ownership) has also been rising over recent decades. In 1975, women represented one in every four self-employed workers in the United States, and in 1990, they were one in three. The decision to become self-employed is influenced by many factors. An IWPR study shows that self-employed women tend to be older and married, have no young children, and have higher levels of education than the average. They are also more likely to be covered by another person's health insurance (Spalter-Roth et al., 1993b). Self-employed women are more likely to work part-time, with 42 percent of married self-employed women and 34 percent of non-married self-employed women working part-time (Devine, 1994).

Unfortunately, most self-employment is not especially well-paying for women and about half of self-employed women combine self-employment with another job, either a wage and salary job or a second type of self-employment (for example, babysitting and catering). In 1986-87 in the United States as a whole, women who worked full-time, year-round at only one type of self-employment had the lowest median hourly earnings of all full-time, year-round workers (\$3.75); those with two or more types of self-employment with full-time schedules earned somewhat more (\$4.41 per hour). In contrast, those who held only one full-time, year-round wage or salaried job earned the most (\$8.08 per hour at the median). Those who combined wage and salaried work with self-employment had median earnings that ranged between these extremes (Spalter-Roth, et al., 1993b). Many low-income women package earnings from many sources in an effort to raise their family incomes (Spalter-Roth and Hartmann, 1993).

Some self-employed workers are independent contractors; independent contracting is often viewed as a form of contingent work—temporary or on-call work that does not provide job security, fringe benefits or opportunity for advancement. Even when they work primarily for one client, independent contractors may be denied the fringe benefits (such as health insurance and employer-paid pension contributions) that wage and salaried workers

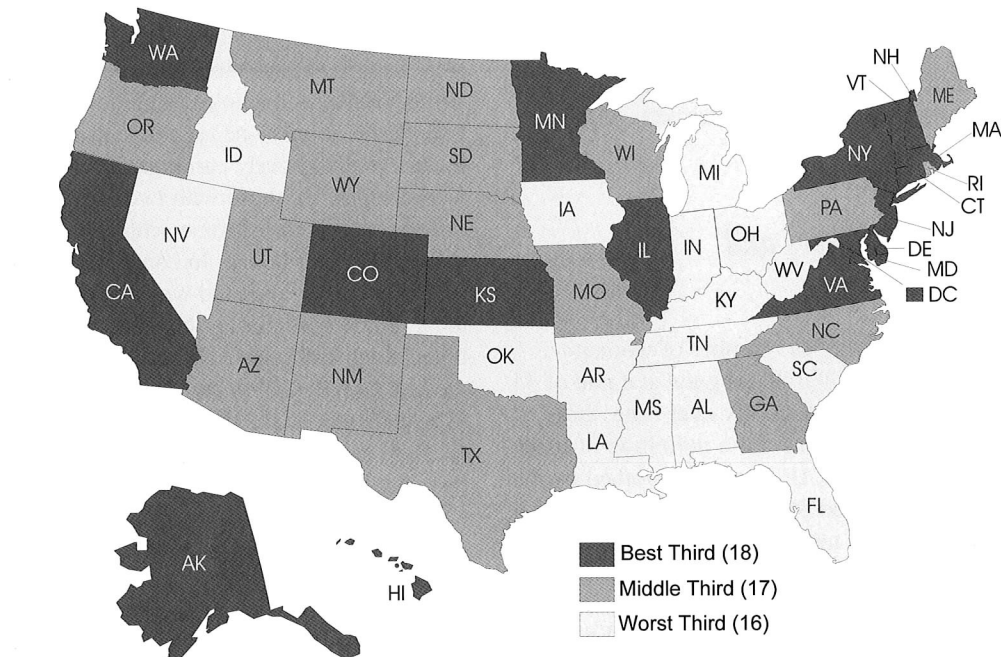
Map 13. Percent of Women with Health Insurance



Note: Among women under age 65, 1994-95.

Source: Liska, et al., 1998.

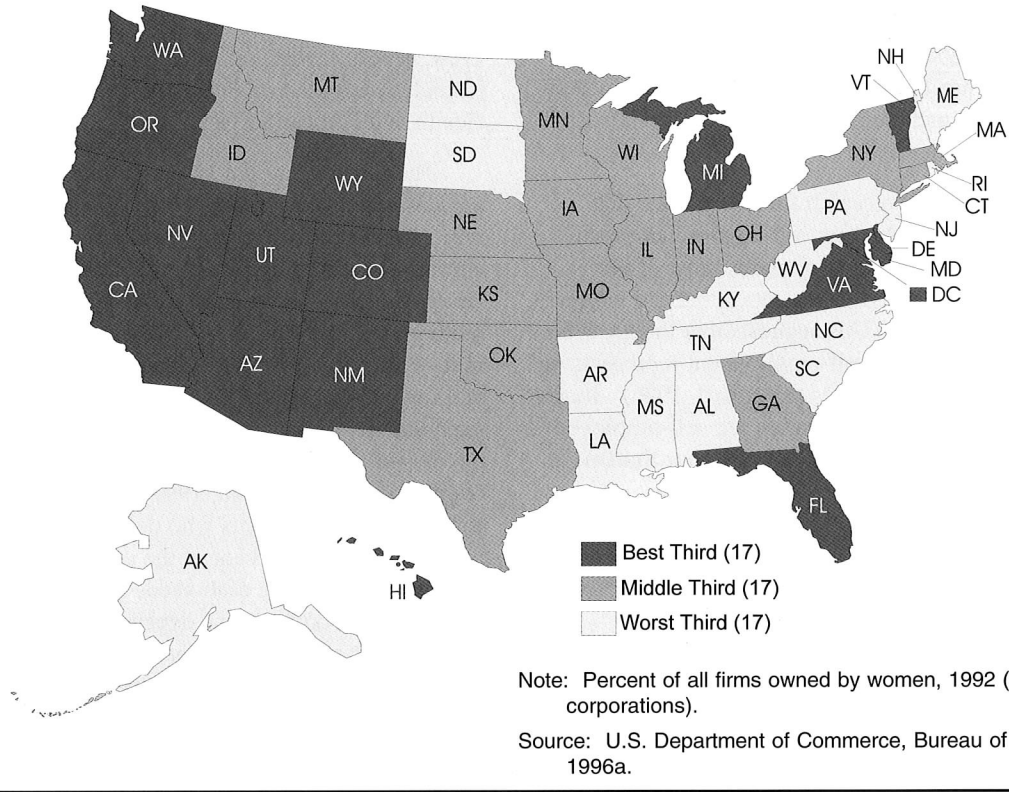
Map 14. Percent of College Educated Women



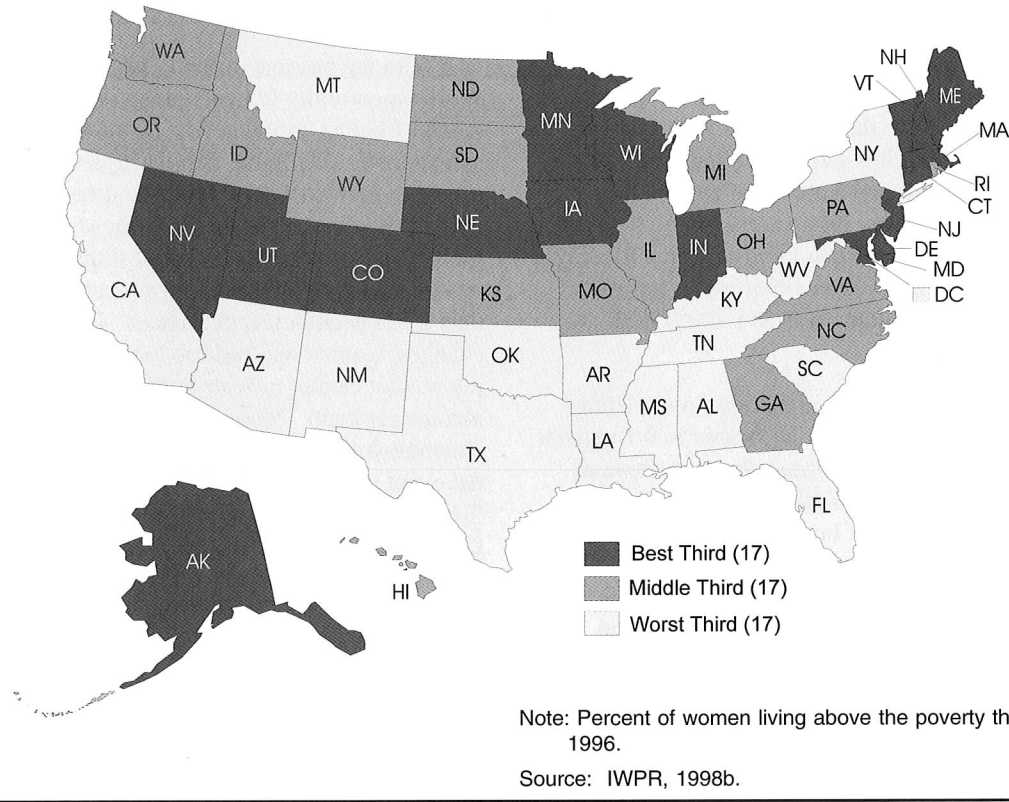
Note: Percent of women aged 25 and older with four or more years of college, 1990.

Source: Population Reference Bureau, 1993.

Map 15. Women's Business Ownership



Map 16. Percent of Women Above Poverty



employed by that same client firm receive. Indeed, the average self-employed woman who works full-time, year-round at just one type of self-employment has health insurance an average of only 1.7 months out of 12, while full-time wage and salaried women average 9.6 months (those who lack health insurance entirely are assigned a value of 0 and are included in the averages; Spalter-Roth et al., 1993b).

Fortunately, recent research finds that the rising earnings potential of women in self-employment compared to wage and salary work explains most of the upward trend in the self-employment of married women between 1970 and 1990. This suggests that the growing movement of women into self-employment represents an expansion in their opportunities (Lombard, 1996). In the United States, 6.1 percent of women are self-employed (U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1995b).

- The District of Columbia has the highest percentage (41.3 percent) of businesses that are women-owned, and Mississippi has the lowest (30.2 percent).
- The western and southwestern regions of the country have high percentages of women-owned businesses, as do some states in the mid-Atlantic region. The Midwest and many of the prairie states have moderate numbers of women-owned businesses.
- There are fewer women-owned businesses in the Southeast and in parts of New England.

Women's Poverty

As women's responsibility for their families' economic well-being grows, the continuing wage gap and women's prevalence in low-paid, female-dominated occupations impede women's ability to ensure their families' financial security, particularly for single mothers. In the United States, the median family income for single-mother families was \$16,600 in 1995, while that for married couples with children was \$51,700 (IWPR, 1998b).

The proportion of women in poverty in the United States was 13.7 percent in 1995, compared to 9.1 percent of men (IWPR, 1998b). In contrast, the proportion of adult women receiving AFDC (the form of welfare in place in 1995), a measure of how effective the state and national safety nets for poor women are, was only 3.3 percent. Obviously, the poverty of many women is not alleviated by welfare alone; many also receive food stamps or other forms of noncash benefits, but research shows that even counting the value of these noncash benefits, many women remain poor (U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of Census, 1997d). In the United States in 1996, the average welfare (Aid to Families with

Dependent Children or AFDC) benefit for a family of three was \$422 per month (U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, 1997). Combined AFDC and Food Stamps benefits equaled 61.5 percent of the poverty line in 1994, benefit levels that leave many families in poverty (calculations based on data from U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, 1997).

The poverty rate for single mother families is 41.5 percent nationwide, much higher than for any other family type. It is likely that even these high rates of poverty among single mother families understate the degree of hardship among these families, especially among working mother families. While counting noncash benefits would reduce their poverty rates, adding the cost of child care for working mothers (which was not included in family expenditures when the federal poverty thresholds were developed) would increase the calculated poverty rates (Renwick and Bergmann, 1993). Renwick and Bergmann found that single parents who do not work have basic cash needs at about 64 percent of the poverty line, while those who work have basic cash needs ranging from 113 to 186 percent of the poverty line depending on the number and ages of their children. The net effect of the under- and over-estimation of poverty for the different types of single parent families as measured by the official poverty lines for the nation was a significant underestimation. Renwick and Bergmann estimated a national poverty rate of 47 percent compared to an official estimate of 39 percent in 1989 (Renwick and Bergmann, 1993). Low-income married-couple families with working mothers would also be measured as experiencing higher poverty rates if child care costs were included (Renwick, 1993).

With the passage of the Personal Responsibility and Work Opportunity Reconciliation Act of 1996, welfare has moved from an entitlement program that guaranteed assistance to all eligible families to a transitional employment program with time limits, and responsibility for implementation has devolved to the state level. The time limits and budget cutbacks suggest that welfare will be a much less steady source of income to low-income families than it has been in recent decades. In light of these changes, women will need to look to other programs if the job market cannot provide sufficient employment and income for them. More women workers will look to Unemployment Insurance (UI) as a source of income in the event of unemployment. Fewer unemployed women (31.8 percent) than unemployed men (37.8 percent) in the United States collect unemployment insurance benefits (U.S. Department of Labor, Employment and Training Administration, Unemployment Insurance Service, 1997).

According to an IWPR study, there may be a need to reexamine the UI system in light of women's work patterns. Women are more likely to work on a temporary or part-time basis and to leave the workforce for family or personal reasons. Such UI eligibility requirements as

minimum earnings, minimum number of weeks worked, and the need for “good cause” for unemployment have been stumbling blocks to women workers in receiving UI (especially because family obligations and lack of child care are not considered “good causes” in most states). Other factors, such as the decline of the manufacturing sector and the growth of part-time work, also appear to have contributed to a growing inadequacy of UI (Yoon, et al., 1995).

- Women are most likely to be poor in many southeastern and most of the southwestern states. In the worst-ranking state, New Mexico, 21.6 percent of women

have family incomes below the poverty level for their family size. In Mississippi (21.4), Louisiana (21.3), and the District of Columbia (20.1), women are also much more likely to be poor than the national average (13.7 percent).

- Women are least likely to be poor in the Northeast and parts of the Midwest and West. New Hampshire (7.6 percent), Alaska (8.1 percent), Utah (8.2 percent) and New Jersey (9 percent) have the lowest poverty rates among women. Utah’s ranking of third represents a substantial jump from its 1996 ranking based on 1990 data, when it ranked 24th.

Reproductive Rights

The reproductive rights composite index measures a woman's ability to determine her reproductive choices. Several components relate to women's legal right to abortion and ease of access to abortion, including access to legal abortion, public funding for abortion, and the position of the governors and state legislatures on reproductive choice. Public funding for the treatment of infertility, laws that require health insurers to cover contraception, and the right of gay and lesbian couples to adopt children are among other factors related to reproductive rights.

While issues pertaining to reproductive rights and health can be controversial, national and international human rights documents identify them as integral to women's physical and mental well-being. The Platform for Action from the U.N. Fourth World Conference on Women, which was adopted by consensus by 189 countries including the United States, stresses that reproductive health includes the ability to have a safe, satisfying sex life, to reproduce, and to decide if, when, and how often to do so (U.N. Fourth World Conference on Women, 1995). The document also stresses that adolescent girls in particular need information and access to relevant services.

In the United States, reproductive rights as defined for federal law in the 1973 Supreme Court case *Roe v. Wade* include the legal right to abortion and also the ability to exercise that right. Legal issues relating to access to abortion include parental notification and mandatory waiting periods as well as the availability of providers in each county in each state. The stances of the governors and state legislative bodies are also important, considering the serious efforts to overturn federal law. Economic issues relating to abortion include public funding for women who qualify. Moreover, abortion is not the only reproductive issue. Laws requiring health insurers to cover contraception, the right of gay and lesbian couples to adopt children, and public funding for infertility treatments all affect women's reproductive lives.

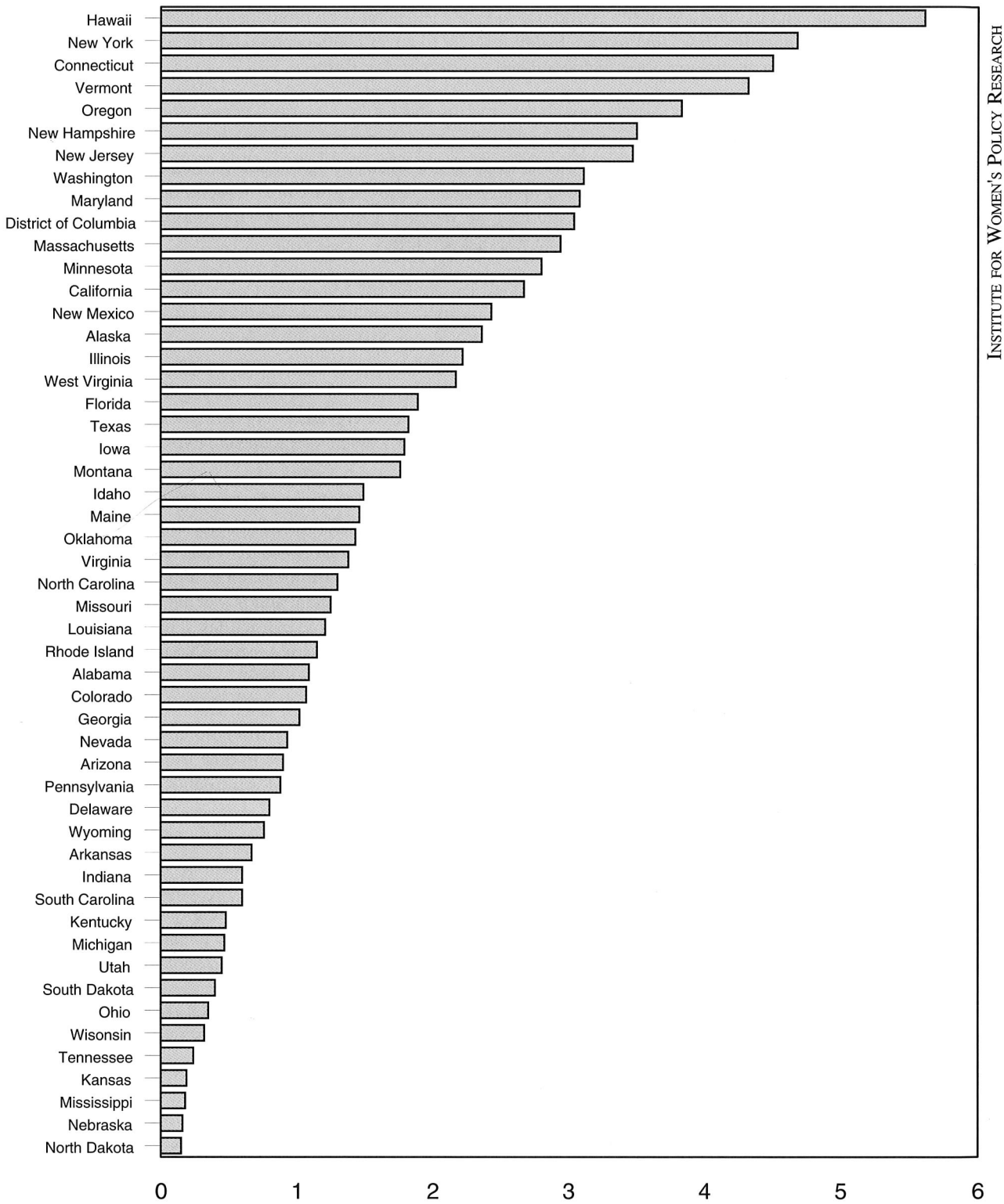
The Reproductive Rights Composite Index

- Reproductive rights are strongest in the northeastern section of the United States and in the Pacific West region. The highest ranking state, Hawaii, provides public funding for abortions and infertility treatments, requires insurance companies to cover contraception, has a high number of abortion providers and a pro-choice state government, and does not require parental consent or waiting periods for abortion.
- The worst ranking states for reproductive rights are North Dakota (51st), Nebraska (50th), and Mississippi (49th). These states rank poorly on all components of the index. Many of the other prairie states and a few of the Mountain West states also rank near the bottom, as does a band of states stretching from north to south, from Wisconsin and Michigan to Mississippi.

State-by-State Variation in the Components of Reproductive Rights

- Of the 39 states with mandatory parental consent and notification laws on the books as of January 1998, 31 enforced their laws. Of these 31 states, 27 allow for a judicial bypass of notification if the minor appears
- before a judge and provides a reason that parental notification would place an undue burden on the decision to have an abortion. Four states provide for physician bypass of notification, and three states allow for both judicial and physician bypass. Of the 31 states that enforce consent laws, only Idaho and Utah have no bypass procedure (NARAL and NARAL Foundation, 1998).
- Of the twelve states that still enforce waiting periods, the waiting periods range in time from one to 72 hours (NARAL and NARAL Foundation, 1998).
- Twenty-eight states restrict public funding for abortions to federally mandated circumstances—that is, in cases of rape, incest, or life endangerment to the woman. Three states do not comply with federal law and permit public funding only in cases of life endangerment. Five states fund abortions only in federally mandated circumstances or limited health circumstances. Fifteen states fund abortions in nearly all circumstances (NARAL and NARAL Foundation, 1998).
- Only nine states allow for infertility treatments under publicly funded health plans such as Medicaid (King and Meyer, 1996).

Chart 4. Reproductive Rights Composite Scores



- In many states, courts or legislatures have supported or limited the right of gay and lesbian couples to second-parent adoption. As of April 1998, lower courts approved second-parent adoption petitions in 19 states, intermediate appellate courts have done so in three states and the District of Columbia, and state supreme courts have explicitly permitted lesbians and gay men to adopt the children of their partners in three states. Legislation prohibits or substantially restricts such adoption in four states (National Center for Lesbian Rights, 1998).
- In 18 states, legislators have introduced bills that would require health insurers to cover contraception (Planned Parenthood, 1998). Maryland recently became the first state to pass a law requiring contraception coverage. Six states have provisions requiring each insurance company to offer at least one insurance package that covers some or all birth control prescription methods. The U.S. Congress also had a similar bill pending in July 1998.

Health and Vital Statistics

This section profiles the quality of health of women in the United States. These data on fertility and infant health, the consumption of preventive health services, environmental and cancer risks (see Table 1), and Health Maintenance Organization (HMO) enrollment (see Table 2) describe dimensions of the health of women in the United States. Health is an important aspect of the economic status of women and a critical indicator of women's overall well-being. Illness can be costly and painful and can interrupt daily tasks people take for granted. The healthier the inhabitants of an area are, the better is their quality of life and the more productive those inhabitants are likely to be.

As stated in the 1994 Policy Report of the Commonwealth Fund Commission on Women's Health, women and men face different health problems, even outside of reproductive differences. Women tend to see physicians more routinely, and they use preventive services at twice the rate men do. Women also suffer more from chronic illness and disabilities, are more likely to suffer from depression, and are prescribed more drugs by their physicians, but they live longer than men do (Commonwealth Fund, 1994).

As women, particularly mothers, have entered the labor force in record numbers, their health care needs have changed. Many studies have focused on the link between women's work and their health, and many have found a positive relationship between women's employment and better health. This research suggests the link may result both because work provides health benefits to women and because healthier women "self-select" to work (Hartmann et al., 1996). For some women, such as those with difficult health problems or with disabilities, work presents more difficult challenges. As women's employment rates continue to rise, studies have increasingly looked at the extent and type of access women have to health insurance coverage. IWPR has found that about 12 million women (13.8 percent) of working age lack health insurance of any kind (Yoon et al., 1994).

The infant mortality rate in the United States is 7.6 deaths under one year of age per 1,000 births. The fertility rate in the United States is 65.6 babies born each year per 1,000 women of childbearing age. In the United States, births to teenage mothers as a percent of all births fell from 15.6 percent in 1980 to 13.2 in 1995, while

births to unmarried mothers rose from 18.4 percent of all births in 1980 to 32.2 percent in 1995, indicating that, increasingly, unwed motherhood extends across all age groups.

Preventive health measures are an important indicator of the country's concern for health. Of women over age forty, 81.8 percent have had a mammogram. In addition, 93.6 percent of adult women have had a pap smear. Finally, 75 percent of all young children in the United States have been vaccinated.

In recent years, the trend toward HMOs has grown, with national enrollment rising from 9.1 million in 1980 to 58.4 million at the end of 1996 (U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, 1997e; McCloskey et al., 1996). This major trend requires monitoring from the point of view of how well the new arrangements meet women's health care needs. In addition, concerns have been raised about how well HMOs meet the needs of the medically needy, such as the disabled or those with severe or long-term illnesses. Similarly, there has been an increasing trend toward HMOs among Medicaid and Medicare beneficiaries, although the impact of managed-care systems on cost-effectiveness and quality of service for Medicare and Medicaid programs is still in question (Urban Institute, 1996; Jacobs Institute of Women's Health, 1996).

HMO membership varies widely across states. HMOs tend to play a more important role in the states of California, Massachusetts, Minnesota, and Oregon and are much less prevalent throughout the South (Liska et al., 1998).

Table 1.
Health and Vital Statistics for the United States, 1998

	United States
Fertility and Infant Health	
• Fertility Rate in 1995 (live births per 1,000 women aged 15-44) ^a	65.6
• Infant Mortality Rate in 1995 (deaths of infants under age one per 1,000 live births) ^b	7.6
• Percent of Counties with at Least One Abortion Provider, 1992 ^c	16.0%
• Percent of Low Birth Weight Babies (less than 5 lbs., 8 oz.), 1995 ^d	
Among Whites	6.2%
Among African Americans	13.1%
• Births to Teenage Women as a Percent of All Births, 1995 ^e	13.2%
• Births to Unmarried Women as a Percent of All Births, 1995 ^d	32.2%
Preventive Health Care	
• Percent of Women Who Have Ever Had a:	
Mammogram (Aged 40 and Older), 1995 ^f	81.8%*
Pap Test (Aged 18 and Older), 1995 ^g	93.6%*
• Percent of Women Aged 45-54 Who Have Been Screened for Blood Pressure in the Previous Two Years, 1993 ^h	95.5%
• Percent of Women Aged 45-54 Who Have Been Screened for Cholesterol in the Previous Two Years, 1993 ^h	97.1%
• Percent of Women Aged 45-54 Who Have Ever Had a Proctoscopy, 1993 ⁱ	25.6%
• Vaccination Coverage of Children Aged 19-35 Months (estimated percentage of those receiving four doses of diphtheria and tetanus toxoids and pertussis vaccine, three doses of polio virus vaccine and one dose of measles-mumps-rubella vaccine), 1995 ^j	75.0%
Environmental and Cancer Risks	
• Percent of Women Aged 45-54 Who Smoke, 1993 ^k	21.6%
• Toxic Chemicals that Could Cause Birth Defects (pounds per person), 1992 ^l	36.0 lbs
• Average Annual Mortality Rate (per 100,000) Due to:	
Female Breast Cancer, 1990-94 ^m	26.4
Cervical and Uterine Cancer, 1990-94 ^m	2.9
Ovarian Cancer, 1990-94 ^m	7.8
• Estimated Number of New Cases of Female Breast, Cervical and Uterine Cancers, 1997 ⁿ	229,600

* Median rate for the 50 states and the District of Columbia.

Source: ^a Centers for Disease Control and Prevention, 1997b, Table 8; ^b Centers for Disease Control and Prevention, 1997a, Table 30; ^c Henshaw and Van Vort, 1994; ^d Centers for Disease Control and Prevention, 1997b, Table 16; ^e U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, 1997e, Table 98; ^f American Cancer Society, 1997b, Table III-B; ^g Centers for Disease Control and Prevention, 1997c, Table 13; ^h Costello et al., 1998, Table A-6; ⁱ Costello et al., 1998, Table A-9; ^j McCloskey, et al., 1996, p.226; ^k Costello et al., 1998, Table A-3; ^l McCloskey, et al., 1995, p.222; ^m National Cancer Institute, National Institutes of Health, 1997, Tables IV-10, V-7, XX-7; ⁿ American Cancer Society 1997a, p.5.

Compiled by the Institute for Women's Policy Research.

Table 2.
Percent of Total Population, Medicare and Medicaid Recipients
Enrolled in Health Maintenance Organizations (HMOs)
in the United States, 1996

	United States
Total Population^a	265,284,000
Percent of Total Population Enrolled in HMOs ^b	22.0
Percent of Total Population Receiving Medicare ^c	14.0
Percent of Medicare Recipients Enrolled in HMOs ^c	13.0
Percent of Total Population Receiving Medicaid ^c	13.4
Percent of Medicaid Recipients Enrolled in HMOs ^d	40.1

Source: ^a U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, 1997a; ^b McCloskey et al., 1996; ^c U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, Health Care Financing Administration, 1997, pp 110-113; ^d Lamphere et al., 1997.

Compiled by the Institute for Women's Policy Research.

Basic Demographics

This section provides statistics on the number, age, race, family status, and other demographic characteristics of women in the United States (see Table 3). These data present an image of the nation's female population and can be used to provide insight on the topics covered in this report.

Between 1990 and 1996, the population of the United States grew by 6.7 percent (U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, 1997a). In 1996, there were 135.5 million women in the United States. The median age of women in the United States is 35.8 years. Women

over age 65 comprise 14.7 percent and women of color (including African Americans, Asian Americans, Native Americans, and Hispanics—who may be of any race) comprise about 27.0 percent of the national female population. The two largest minority groups are African

Table 3.
Basic Demographic Statistics for the United States

	United States
Total Population, 1996^a	265,283,783
• Number of Women, All Ages ^b	135,473,568
• Sex Ratio (women to men aged 18 and older) ^b	1.08:1
• Median Age of All Women ^b	35.8
• Proportion of Women Over Age 65 ^b	14.7%
Distribution of Women by Race and Ethnicity, 1995, All Ages^c	
• White*	73.0%
• African American*	12.8%
• Hispanic [†]	9.8%
• Asian American*	3.6%
• Native American*	0.8%
Distribution of Households by Type, 1990^d	
• Total Number of Family and Non-family Households	91,770,958
• Married-Couple Families (with and without their own children)	56.2%
• Female-Headed Families (with and without their own children)	11.3%
• Male-Headed Families (with and without their own children)	3.2%
• Nonfamily Households: Single-Person Households	24.4%
• Nonfamily Households: Other	4.9%
Proportion of Women Living in Metropolitan Areas, All Ages, 1990^e	83.1%
Proportion of Women Who Are Foreign-Born, All Ages, 1990^f	7.9%
Percent of Federal and State Prison Population Who Are Women, 1996^g	6.3%
* Non-Hispanic.	
† Hispanics may be of any race.	
Source: ^a U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, 1997a; ^b U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, 1997b, Tables 5 and 6; ^c U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, 1997c; ^d Population Reference Bureau, 1993, Table 7; ^e Population Reference Bureau, 1993, Table 6; ^f Population Reference Bureau, 1993, Table 3; ^g U.S. Department of Justice, Bureau of Justice Statistics, 1997, Table 7.	
Calculated by the Institute for Women's Policy Research.	

Americans (approximately 12.8 percent of women in the United States) and Hispanics (approximately 9.8 percent of women). Asian Americans are the fastest growing group of minority women. Foreign-born women make up 7.9 percent of the female population. Most (83.1 percent) American women live in metropolitan areas. Approximately 6.3 percent of prisoners in the United States are women.

Twenty-three percent of women in the United States are single, an additional 9.4 percent are divorced, and 11.9 percent are widowed. Fifty-six percent of women in the United States are married. The proportion of single person households is approximately 24.4 percent and other non-family households make up 4.9 percent of households.

Among married couples with children, dual earner couples have grown from about 1/3 of all families with children in 1975 to nearly half in 1994, while traditional couples (those with a working father and a non-working mother) have fallen from nearly 45 percent in 1975 to 20 percent in 1994. The proportion of families supported by working mothers alone has nearly doubled from about one-tenth to nearly one-fifth (Hayghe, 1990; Hartmann, 1995).

Demographic Variations among the States

- All women in Connecticut, the District of Columbia, New Jersey, and Rhode Island live in metropolitan areas. In Alaska, Idaho, Mississippi, Montana, New Mexico, South Dakota, and Vermont, at least 50 percent of women live in non-metropolitan areas.
- The median age of women is low in Utah (27.6) and Alaska (31.6). In contrast, the median age of women is high in Pennsylvania (38.4), Florida (39.1), and West Virginia (39.1).
- The District of Columbia (73.6 percent), Hawaii (73.3 percent), and New Mexico (50.9 percent) have the highest proportions of women of color. In the District, most women of color are African American (64.2 percent of women), in Hawaii, most are Native Hawaiian and Asian American (63.6 percent of women), and in New Mexico, most are Hispanic and Native American (38.3 and 9.0 percent of women, respectively).
- California (21.3 percent), Hawaii (16.8 percent) and New York (16.0 percent) have the highest percentages of foreign-born women.

Conclusion

Women in the United States have made a great deal of progress in recent decades. Women are more educated, they are more active in the workforce, and they have made important strides in narrowing the wage gap. In other areas, however, women face substantial and persistent obstacles to attaining equality. Women are far from achieving political representation in proportion to their share of the population, and the need to defend and expand their reproductive rights endures. Moreover, many improvements in women's status are complicated by larger economic and political factors. For example, while women are approaching parity with men in labor force participation, women's added earnings are in many cases simply compensating for earnings losses among married men in the last two decades. And since women's median earnings still lag behind men's, they cannot contribute equally to supporting their families, much less achieve economic autonomy.

Clearly many of the factors affecting women's status are interrelated. Educational attainment often directly relates to earnings; full time work often correlates with health insurance coverage. Studies show that greater female political representation can result in women-friendly policies. But today's costly campaign process presents another barrier to women, who often have less access to the economic resources required to make them more competitive candidates. Thus in many cases the issues covered by this report are interdependent and mutually reinforcing.

Women's status varies significantly across states and regions, and the reasons for these differences are not well understood. Very little research has been done on the causes of the diversity revealed in this report or the factors associated with it. Different local and regional economic structures—whether based on manufacturing, commerce, or government—undoubtedly affect women's employment and earnings opportunities, while cultural and historical factors may better explain variations in educational attainment, reproductive rights, and women's political behavior and opportunities. Variance in specific public policies undoubtedly accounts for some of the contrasts in indicators among the states. Indicators such as those presented here can be used to monitor women's progress and evaluate the effects of policy changes on a state-by-state basis.

In a time when the federal government is transferring many responsibilities to the state and local level, women need state-based public policies to adequately address these complex issues:

- Women's wages need to be raised by policies such as stronger enforcement of equal employment opportunity laws, improved educational opportunities, higher minimum wages, and the implementation of pay equity in the state civil service.
 - Rates of women's business ownership and business success could be increased by ensuring that state and local government contracts are accessible to women-owned businesses.
 - Women workers would benefit from the greater provision of adequate and affordable child care and from mandatory temporary disability insurance and paid parental and dependent care leave policies.
 - Women's physical security can be enhanced by increasing public safety generally and by better protecting women from domestic violence, via anti-stalking and other legislation and better police and judicial training.
 - Women's economic security can be improved by greater state emphasis on child support collections and by implementing welfare reform programs that maximize women's educational and earning opportunities, while still providing a basic safety net for those who cannot work.
- National policies also remain important in improving women's status in the states and in the country as a whole:
- The federal minimum wage, federal equal employment opportunity legislation, and federal health and safety standards are all critical in ensuring minimum levels of decency and fairness for women workers.
 - Because union representation correlates strongly with higher wages for women and improved pay equity, benefits, and working conditions, federal laws that protect and encourage unionization efforts would assist women workers.

- A policy such as paid family leave could be legislated nationally as well as at the state level through, for example, mandatory insurance.
- Because most income redistribution occurs at the national level, federal legislation on taxes, entitlements, and income security programs (such as the Earned Income Tax Credit, Social Security, Medicaid, Medicare, food stamps, and welfare) will continue to profoundly affect women's lives.

In most cases, both state and national policies lag far behind the changing realities of women's lives. If high levels of economic growth are to continue in the United States, policy makers will need to address these changing realities. Women leaders, both inside and outside government, are well-placed to understand these changes and guide public policies in new directions.

Appendix I: Methodology, Terms, and Sources for Chart I (the Composite Indices)

Composite Political Participation and Representation Index. This composite index reflects four areas of political participation and representation: voter registration; voter turnout; women in elective office, including state legislatures, state-wide elective office and positions in the U.S. Congress; and institutional resources available for women (such as a state agenda project, a commission on the status of women or a legislative caucus).

To construct this composite index, each of the component indicators was standardized to remove the effects of different units of measurement for each state's score on the resulting composite index. Each component was standardized by subtracting the mean value (for all 50 states) from the observed value and dividing by the standard deviation. The standardized scores were then given different weights. Voter registration and voter turnout were each given a weight of 1.0. The component indicator for women in elected office is itself a composite reflecting different levels of office holding and was given a weight of 3.0. The last component indicator, women's institutional resources, is also a composite of scores indicating the presence or absence of each of three resources: a women's agenda project, a commission on the status of women and a women's legislative caucus. It received a weight of 1.0. The resulting weighted, standardized values for each of the four component indicators were summed for each state to create the composite political participation index.

Women's Voter Registration: This component indicator is the average percent (for the elections of 1992 and 1994) of all women aged 18 and older (in the civilian noninstitutionalized population) who reported registering. Source: U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census (1993, 1996b) based on the Current Population Survey. More recent data are not available from this source.

Women's Voter Turnout: This component indicator is the average estimated percent turnout (for the presidential elections of 1992 and 1996) of all women aged 18 and older. Turnout figures are calculated by first multiplying the total number of votes from the Federal Election Commission by the percentage of female voters provided by the Voter News Service exit polls in order to determine the number of female voters. The number of female voters is then divided by the projected female voting age population from the U.S. Bureau of the Census, resulting in the overall turnout rate for women. IWPR recognizes that these data on voter turnout (based on data produced

by Strategic Research Concepts) vary from government data collected by the Bureau of the Census. According to the Bureau of the Census, national voter turnout is higher than indicated by the numbers IWPR cites in this report. While national data are available from the Bureau of the Census, state level data on turnout in 1996 were not available at the time of production of this report and thus data from Strategic Research Concepts was used instead. In general, the data from Strategic Research Concepts tends to underestimate voter turnout while data from the Bureau of the Census tends to overestimate it. Source: Strategic Research Concepts (1998) based on certified presidential election returns from the Federal Election Commission, Census projections of the voting age population from the Current Population Survey (in 1992 and 1996) and Voter News Service nationwide exit polls.

Women in Elected Office: This composite indicator is based on a methodology developed by the Center for Policy Alternatives (1995).

This composite indicator has four components and reflects office-holding at the state and national levels as of April 1998. For each state, the proportion of office holders who are women was computed for four levels: state representatives; state senators; state-wide elected executive officials and U.S. Representatives; and U.S. Senators and governors. The percentages were then converted to scores that ranged from 0 to 1 by dividing the observed value for each state by the highest value for all states. The scores were then weighted according to the degree of political influence of the position—state representatives were given a weight of 1.0, state senators were given a weight of 1.25, statewide executive elected officials and U.S. Representatives were each given a weight of 1.5 and U.S. Senators and state governors were each given a weight of 1.75. The resulting weighted scores for the four components were added to yield the total score on this composite for each state. The highest score of any state for this composite office-holding indicator is 3.74. These scores were then used to rank the states on the indicator for women in elected office. Source: Data were compiled by the Institute for Women's Policy Research (IWPR) from several sources including the Center for the American Woman and Politics (1998a, 1998b, 1998c, 1998d, and 1998e).

Women's Institutional Resources: This indicator measures the number of institutional resources for women available in the state from a maximum of three, including commissions on the status of women (which are estab-

lished by legislation or executive order), women's state agenda projects (usually a voluntary, nongovernmental, state-based coalition group addressing a broad range of issues concerning women) and legislative caucuses for women (organized by women legislators in either or both houses of the state legislature). States receive 1.0 point for each institutional resource present in their state except that partial credit is given if a bipartisan legislative caucus does not exist in both houses. States receive a score of 0.25 if informal or partisan meetings are held by women legislators in either house, 0.5 if a formal legislative caucus exists in one house but not the other and 1.0 if a formal legislative caucus is present in both houses or is bicameral. Source: Center for Policy Alternatives, 1995, updated in 1998 by IWPR and Center for the American Woman and Politics, 1998e.

Composite Employment and Earnings Index. This composite index consists of four component indicators: median annual earnings for women, the ratio of the earnings of women to the earnings of men, women's labor force participation and the percent of employed women in managerial and professional specialty occupations.

To construct this composite index, each of the four component indicators was "standardized"—i.e., for each of the four indicators, the observed value for the state was divided by the comparable value for the entire United States. The resulting ratios were summed for each state to create the composite index; thus, each of the four component indicators has equal weight in the composite.

Women's Median Annual Earnings: Median yearly earnings (in 1997 dollars) of noninstitutionalized women aged 16 and older who worked full-time, year-round (more than 49 weeks during the year and more than 34 hours per week) in 1994, 1995 and 1996. Earnings were converted to constant 1997 dollars using the Consumer Price Index and the median was selected from the merged file for all three years. Three years of data were used in order to ensure a sufficiently large sample for each state. The sample size for women ranges from 431 in New Hampshire to 4,039 in California; for men, the sample size for men ranges from 564 in the District of Columbia to 4,521 in New York. These earnings data have not been adjusted for cost of living differences between the states because the federal government does not produce an index of such differences. Source: IWPR calculations of the 1995-97 Annual Demographic Files (March) from the Current Population Survey, for the 1994-96 calendar years; IWPR, 1998b.

Ratio of Women's to Men's Earnings: Median yearly earnings (in 1997 dollars) of noninstitutionalized women aged 16 and older who worked full-time, year-round

(more than 49 weeks during the year and more than 34 hours per week) in 1994-96 divided by the median yearly earnings (in 1997 dollars) of noninstitutionalized men aged 16 and older who worked full-time, year-round (more than 49 weeks during the year and more than 34 hours per week) in 1994-96. Earnings were converted to constant 1997 dollars using the Consumer Price Index and the medians were selected from the merged file for all three years. Three years of data were used in order to ensure a sufficiently large sample for each state. The sample size for women ranges from 431 in New Hampshire to 4,039 in California; for men, the sample size ranges from 564 in the District of Columbia to 4,521 in New York. Source: IWPR calculations of the 1995-97 Annual Demographic Files (March) from the Current Population Survey; IWPR 1998b.

Women's Labor Force Participation (proportion of the adult female population that is in the labor force): Percent of civilian noninstitutionalized women aged 16 and older who were employed or looking for work (in 1995). This includes those employed full-time, part-time voluntarily or part-time involuntarily and those who are unemployed. Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1997 (based on the Current Population Survey).

Women in Managerial and Professional Occupations: Percent of civilian noninstitutionalized women aged 16 and older who were employed in executive, administrative, managerial or professional specialty occupations (in 1995). Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1997 (based on the Current Population Survey).

Composite Economic Autonomy Index. This composite index reflects four aspects of women's economic well-being: access to health insurance, educational attainment, business ownership and percent of women above the poverty level.

To construct this composite index, each of the four component indicators was "standardized"—i.e., for each indicator, the observed value for the state was divided by the comparable value for the United States as a whole. The resulting ratios were summed for each state to create the composite index; thus, each of the four components has equal weight in the composite.

Percent with Health Insurance: Percent of civilian noninstitutionalized women under age 65 who are insured. The state-by-state percentages are based on the averages of two years of pooled data from the 1994 and 1995 Current Population Survey from the Bureau of the Census. Source: Liska et al., 1998.

Educational Attainment: In 1989, the percent of women aged 25 and older with four or more years of college. Source: Population Reference Bureau, 1993, based on the Public Use Microdata Sample of the 1990 Census of Population.

Women's Business Ownership: In 1992, the percent of all firms (legal entities engaged in economic activity during any part of 1992 that filed an IRS form 1040, Schedule C; 1065 or 1120S) that were owned by women. This indicator excludes type C corporations; the Census Bureau estimates that there were approximately 517,000 type C corporations in 1992. The Bureau of the Census was required to provide data on women's ownership of type C corporations by the Women's Business Ownership Act of 1988. The Bureau's methodology for doing so differs from the methods used for other forms of business ownership—individual proprietorships and self employment, partnerships and Subchapter S corporations (those with fewer than 35 shareholders who can elect to be taxed as individuals). Type C corporations are non-subchapter S corporations. The Bureau of the Census determines the sex of business owners by matching the social security numbers of individuals who file business tax returns (Form 1040, Schedule C; 1065; or 1120S) with Social Security Administration records that provide the sex codes indicated by individuals on their original applications for social security numbers. For partnerships and corporations, a business is classified as women-owned based on the sex of the majority of the owners. Data for type C corporations do not come from tax returns and because of the limitations of the sample are apparently considered less reliable. Source: U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census 1996a based on the 1992 Economic Census. (Please note that results of the 1997 Economic Census were not available at the time of production of this report.)

Percent of Women Above Poverty: In 1994-96, the percent of women living above the official poverty threshold, which varies by family size and composition. The average percent of women above the poverty level for the three years is used; three years of data ensure a sufficiently large sample for each state. In 1995, the poverty level for a family of four was \$15,569. Source: IWPR calculations of the 1995-97 Annual Demographic Files (March) from the Current Population Survey for the calendar years 1994-96; IWPR, 1998b.

Composite Reproductive Rights Index. This composite index reflects a variety of indicators of women's reproductive well-being and autonomy. These include access to abortion services without mandatory parental consent laws for minors, access to abortion services without a waiting period, public funding for abortions under any circumstances if a woman is eligible, percent of counties that have at least one abortion provider, whether the governor or state legislature is pro-choice, public funding of infertility treatments, existence of state laws requiring health insurers to provide coverage of contraceptives and whether second parent adoption is legal for gay/lesbian couples. For more complete definitions of the components of this index and sources, see Appendix II.

To construct this composite index, each component indicator was rated on a scale of 0 to 1 and assigned a weight. The notification and waiting-period indicators were each given a weight of 0.5. The indicator of public funding for abortions was given a weight of 1.0. For the indicator of the percent of counties with abortion providers, states were given a scaled score ranging from 0 to 1. For the indicator of whether the Governor, upper house or lower house is pro-choice, each state receives 0.33 points per governmental body (up to a maximum of 1.0 point). The indicator for public funding for infertility treatments was given a weight of 1.0. For the health insurance coverage of contraceptives law, the state received a score of 0.5 if legislation had been proposed and a score of 1.0 if it had a contraceptive coverage law or provision. For the indicator of whether the nonbiological partner in a gay/lesbian couple can adopt the partner's child, states were given 1.0 point if the state supreme court has prohibited discrimination against these couples in adoption, 0.75 point if an appellate court has, 0.5 if a lower court has approved a petition for second parent adoption, 0.25 if a state has no official position on the subject, and no points if the state has banned second parent adoption. The contraceptive coverage law and gay/lesbian adoption law were each given a weight of 0.5. The weighted scores for each component indicator were summed to arrive at the value of the composite index score for each state. The states and the District of Columbia were then ranked according to those values.

Appendix II: Terms and Sources for Reproductive Rights Components

Mandatory Consent

Mandatory consent laws require that minors notify one or both parents of the decision to have an abortion or gain the consent of one or both parents before a physician can perform the procedure. Of the 39 states with such laws on the books as of January 1998, 31 enforce their laws. Of the 31, 27 allow for a judicial bypass of notification if the minor appears before a judge and provides a reason that notification would place an undue burden on the decision to have an abortion. Four states provide for physician bypass of notification; only Idaho and Utah had no bypass procedure as of January 1998 (NARAL and NARAL Foundation, 1998).

Waiting Period

Waiting-period legislation mandates that a physician cannot perform an abortion until a certain number of hours after the woman has been notified of her options in dealing with a pregnancy. The waiting periods range from one to 72 hours. Of the 19 states with mandatory waiting periods as of January 1998, twelve (with waiting periods ranging from one to 24 hours) enforced their laws (NARAL and NARAL Foundation, 1998).

Restrictions on Public Funding

In some states, public funding for abortions is available only under specific circumstances, such as rape or incest, endangerment to the mother's life, or limited health circumstances of the fetus. As of January 1998, 15 states funded abortions in all or most circumstances (NARAL and NARAL Foundation, 1998).

Contraceptive Coverage Laws

Contraceptive coverage laws require that health insurers who provide coverage for prescription drugs extend coverage for FDA-approved contraceptives (e.g., drugs and devices) and related medical services, including exams and insertion/removal treatments. As of June 1998, 18 states had proposed to enact legislation requiring health insurers to provide coverage of contraceptives. Six states had some provisions for the insurance coverage of contraceptives; Maryland was the only state to have a contraceptive coverage law as of June 1998 (Planned Parenthood, 1998).

Percentage of Counties with Abortion Providers

This measure includes all counties with at least one abortion provider, as of 1992. The proportion ranges from two to 100 percent across the states (Henshaw and Van Vort, 1994).

Fertility Treatments and Public Funding

While increasing numbers of private health insurance plans cover infertility treatments, few states in the United States allow for infertility treatments under publicly funded health plans such as Medicaid (King and Meyer, 1996).

Pro-choice Government

The National Abortion and Reproductive Rights Action League (NARAL) polled governors and members of state legislatures to determine whether they would support a criminal ban on abortion or restrictions making it more difficult for women to obtain abortions. These restrictions included (but were not limited to) provisions concerning parental consent, mandatory waiting periods, prohibitions on Medicaid funding for abortion, and bans on certain abortion procedures. NARAL also gathered official comments from Governors' offices to determine their positions on abortion (NARAL and NARAL Foundation, 1997). For this study, governors and legislators who supported restrictions on abortion rights are considered anti-choice, and those who would oppose them are considered pro-choice.

Same-Sex Couples and Adoption

Second parent adoption allows the non-biological parent in a gay or lesbian couple to adopt the biological child of his or her partner. At the state level, courts and/or legislatures have both upheld and limited the right to second parent adoption. As of April 1998, a lower court has approved second parent adoption petitions in 19 states, intermediate appellate courts have done so in three states and the District of Columbia, and state supreme courts have explicitly permitted lesbians and gay men to adopt the children of their partners in three states. Legislation prohibits or substantially restricts such adoption in four states, including Florida (National Center for Lesbian Rights, 1998).

Appendix III: State-by-State Rankings on the Composite Indices and their Components

POLITICAL PARTICIPATION AND REPRESENTATION			Women in Elected Office		Percent of Women Registered to Vote in 1992 and 1994		Percent of Women Who Voted in 1992 and 1994		Number of Institutional Resources Available to Women in the State	
State	Composite Index Score	Rank	Composite Index Score	Rank	Percent	Rank	Percent	Rank	Score	Rank
Alabama	-3.10	41	0.66	48	73.2%	17	54.0%	28	2.5	11
Alaska	1.30	20	1.81	20	73.8%	16	64.0%	4	1	41
Arizona	3.16	13	3.07	4	65.0%	34	51.7%	34	1	41
Arkansas	-5.45	45	1.03	40	65.2%	33	51.7%	34	0.5	47
California	5.27	3	3.37	2	58.1%	48	48.4%	42	3	1
Colorado	3.55	12	2.55	6	72.4%	19	59.0%	18	1.25	38
Connecticut	4.72	5	2.38	10	74.9%	12	61.0%	15	2.25	13
Delaware	3.81	6	2.90	5	65.0%	34	52.6%	31	2	21
District of Columbia	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	73.9%	N/A	50.6%	N/A	2	N/A
Florida	-1.92	37	1.47	30	61.3%	45	47.7%	44	3	1
Georgia	-4.63	43	0.93	42	60.9%	46	44.3%	49	3	1
Hawaii	-0.73	29	2.40	9	57.8%	49	42.4%	50	2	21
Idaho	2.35	14	1.93	16	70.2%	25	61.5%	10	2.25	13
Illinois	2.00	16	2.24	12	69.2%	26	54.0%	28	2	21
Indiana	-1.22	32	1.63	24	63.3%	42	53.9%	30	2	21
Iowa	-0.35	26	1.31	33	76.8%	7	61.7%	9	1.25	38
Kansas	1.58	19	2.33	11	72.6%	18	61.3%	12	0	50
Kentucky	-5.84	46	0.54	49	62.9%	43	52.3%	33	2	21
Louisiana	-0.39	27	1.48	28	74.0%	15	61.4%	11	1	41
Maine	9.10	1	3.27	3	83.8%	2	68.1%	2	1	41
Maryland	3.81	6	2.52	7	68.9%	27	50.9%	37	3	1
Massachusetts	-0.96	30	1.03	40	70.3%	24	57.1%	22	3	1
Michigan	0.71	23	1.45	31	75.4%	10	58.4%	21	2.25	13
Minnesota	5.21	4	2.08	14	83.3%	3	64.3%	3	2.25	13
Mississippi	-6.43	49	0.51	50	76.6%	9	50.5%	38	0.25	48
Missouri	2.16	15	1.59	26	75.2%	11	58.6%	20	3	1
Montana	3.65	8	1.83	18	76.7%	8	68.5%	1	2	21
Nebraska	-1.62	34	1.05	39	74.4%	14	60.2%	16	1.5	35
Nevada	-2.18	38	1.84	17	57.1%	50	48.0%	43	2	21
New Hampshire	3.60	10	2.47	8	68.0%	30	59.5%	17	2	21
New Jersey	-0.22	24	1.76	22	65.8%	32	54.8%	27	2	21
New Mexico	-1.84	36	1.48	28	63.4%	39	49.8%	40	2.5	11
New York	-2.50	39	1.29	34	60.9%	46	48.8%	41	3	1
North Carolina	-2.98	40	1.08	38	66.1%	31	46.4%	46	3	1
North Dakota	3.60	10	1.39	32	92.4%	1	63.5%	7	2.25	13
Ohio	-0.60	28	1.51	27	68.1%	29	56.8%	24	2	21
Oklahoma	-1.43	33	1.10	37	72.1%	20	56.4%	25	2.25	13
Oregon	3.61	9	2.01	15	77.2%	6	61.2%	13	2.25	13
Pennsylvania	-6.23	48	0.69	46	62.2%	44	50.4%	39	1.5	35
Rhode Island	-0.33	25	1.61	25	68.6%	28	55.6%	26	2	21
South Carolina	-4.88	44	0.70	45	64.4%	36	45.4%	48	3	1
South Dakota	1.20	21	1.71	23	79.3%	5	61.1%	14	1	41
Tennessee	-7.31	50	0.78	44	64.0%	37	51.1%	36	0	50
Texas	-1.70	35	1.83	18	63.4%	39	45.7%	47	2	21
Utah	-1.06	31	1.23	36	70.7%	23	58.8%	19	2	21
Vermont	1.87	17	1.80	21	74.7%	13	63.2%	8	1.5	35
Virginia	-3.58	42	0.79	43	63.4%	39	52.5%	32	3	1
Washington	7.77	2	3.74	1	70.8%	21	57.1%	22	1.25	38
West Virginia	-6.03	47	0.68	47	63.6%	38	46.8%	45	2	21
Wisconsin	1.66	18	1.24	35	82.2%	4	63.9%	5	2.25	13
Wyoming	0.95	22	2.17	13	70.8%	21	63.6%	6	1	41
United States			1.65		66.5%		53.2%		2.0	(Median)

Appendix III: State-by-State Rankings on the Composite Indices and their Components (continued)

EMPLOYMENT AND EARNINGS Composite Index			Median Annual Earnings Full-Time, Year-Round for Employed Women		Earnings Ratio Between Full-Time, Year-Round Employed Women and Men		Percent of Women in the Labor Force		Percent of Employed Women in Managerial or Professional Occupations	
State	Score	Rank	Dollars	Rank	Percent	Rank	Percent	Rank	Percent	Rank
Alabama	3.45	51	\$20,577	45	63.3%	50	55.3%	46	24.6%	51
Alaska	4.46	3	\$31,380	1	66.3%	44	66.4%	6	34.9%	4
Arizona	3.80	38	\$21,906	35	69.7%	33	59.6%	33	28.5%	26
Arkansas	3.72	42	\$20,577	45	76.7%	4	58.4%	37	25.6%	46
California	4.20	8	\$28,158	7	76.4%	5	56.5%	41	32.0%	10
Colorado	4.11	11	\$24,749	21	66.8%	42	67.2%	4	31.8%	13
Connecticut	4.34	6	\$30,541	3	70.7%	29	60.7%	25	33.4%	7
Delaware	4.10	12	\$25,721	13	75.8%	7	62.9%	17	28.9%	21
District of Columbia	5.06	1	\$30,865	2	87.5%	1	61.4%	20	47.4%	1
Florida	3.86	26	\$23,169	28	75.9%	6	54.5%	48	28.9%	21
Georgia	3.86	26	\$23,169	28	71.0%	27	59.2%	35	28.6%	24
Hawaii	4.08	15	\$25,276	16	74.8%	10	61.2%	21	30.0%	17
Idaho	3.81	35	\$22,223	33	70.3%	30	62.1%	18	27.0%	36
Illinois	4.03	18	\$26,329	11	70.8%	28	60.3%	28	29.3%	19
Indiana	3.70	43	\$21,606	37	66.5%	43	64.2%	13	24.8%	50
Iowa	3.85	28	\$21,606	37	68.3%	37	66.6%	5	27.4%	35
Kansas	4.03	18	\$23,581	26	72.6%	19	63.4%	15	30.5%	15
Kentucky	3.69	44	\$22,635	31	69.7%	33	56.0%	42	26.2%	44
Louisiana	3.55	47	\$20,235	48	64.4%	48	53.6%	49	28.4%	27
Maine	3.84	30	\$21,906	35	67.5%	41	61.6%	19	29.6%	1
Maryland	4.56	2	\$29,241	4	75.0%	9	64.5%	12	37.9%	2
Massachusetts	4.38	5	\$28,808	5	73.7%	15	60.8%	23	35.4%	3
Michigan	3.84	30	\$25,721	13	66.0%	45	57.9%	40	27.7%	31
Minnesota	4.09	14	\$24,909	18	71.2%	25	69.6%	1	27.9%	30
Mississippi	3.53	49	\$19,494	51	70.2%	31	55.8%	43	25.1%	48
Missouri	4.00	20	\$23,663	25	74.6%	11	65.0%	10	27.7%	31
Montana	3.78	39	\$21,606	37	73.3%	17	59.6%	33	26.8%	37
Nebraska	3.84	30	\$20,577	45	71.4%	23	68.4%	2	26.3%	42
Nevada	3.93	24	\$24,909	18	73.9%	14	60.5%	27	26.8%	37
New Hampshire	4.28	7	\$25,992	12	73.6%	16	65.3%	8	33.6%	6
New Jersey	4.15	9	\$28,435	6	67.9%	40	58.7%	36	32.6%	8
New Mexico	3.84	30	\$21,606	37	72.5%	21	55.6%	45	31.0%	14
New York	4.08	15	\$27,400	8	74.4%	12	52.8%	50	31.9%	12
North Carolina	3.82	34	\$22,635	31	74.1%	13	59.8%	32	26.3%	42
North Dakota	3.66	46	\$19,548	50	64.0%	49	64.9%	11	26.8%	37
Ohio	3.81	35	\$24,692	22	69.1%	36	58.3%	39	26.6%	40
Oklahoma	3.55	47	\$19,852	49	63.3%	50	55.7%	44	28.4%	27
Oregon	3.95	22	\$24,909	18	69.6%	35	60.8%	23	29.1%	20
Pennsylvania	3.85	28	\$25,450	15	71.2%	25	55.0%	47	27.6%	33
Rhode Island	4.14	10	\$26,750	10	72.6%	19	58.4%	37	32.3%	9
South Carolina	3.68	45	\$21,606	37	70.0%	32	59.9%	31	25.1%	48
South Dakota	3.89	25	\$21,063	42	76.9%	3	65.8%	7	26.2%	44
Tennessee	3.77	40	\$22,743	30	72.0%	22	60.3%	28	25.4%	47
Texas	3.98	21	\$23,196	27	75.2%	8	60.0%	30	30.1%	16
Utah	3.81	35	\$22,116	34	68.1%	39	61.2%	21	28.6%	24
Vermont	4.40	4	\$25,276	16	81.9%	2	65.3%	8	34.6%	5
Virginia	4.10	12	\$24,692	22	71.3%	24	63.0%	16	32.0%	11
Washington	4.08	15	\$27,075	9	73.1%	18	60.6%	26	28.8%	23
West Virginia	3.46	50	\$21,063	42	64.8%	46	46.3%	51	28.3%	29
Wisconsin	3.95	22	\$24,201	24	68.3%	37	68.2%	3	26.6%	40
Wyoming	3.74	41	\$21,063	42	64.8%	46	64.1%	14	27.6%	33
United States			\$24,909		72.3%		58.9%		30.3%	

Appendix III: State-by-State Rankings on the Composite Indices and their Components (continued)

ECONOMIC AUTONOMY			Percent of Women with Four or More Years of College		Percent of Women without Health Insurance		Percent of Women in Poverty		Percent of Businesses that are Women-Owned	
State	Composite Index Score	Rank	Percent	Rank	Percent	Rank	Percent	Rank	Percent	Rank
Alabama	3.63	46	13.5%	45	15.6%	40	16.9%	45	31.5%	47
Alaska	4.31	8	22.2%	7	12.1%	27	8.1%	2	32.9%	35
Arizona	4.01	22	17.2%	25	17.2%	44	15.5%	38	37.6%	3
Arkansas	3.50	50	11.9%	50	19.9%	49	16.8%	44	31.6%	45
California	4.13	16	20.1%	13	16.9%	43	15.1%	37	35.8%	12
Colorado	4.50	2	23.5%	4	12.4%	29	9.4%	6	37.6%	3
Connecticut	4.44	4	23.8%	3	8.6%	5	9.5%	7	33.6%	28
Delaware	4.15	15	18.7%	16	13.2%	32	9.8%	9	35.3%	14
District of Columbia	4.84	1	30.6%	1	16.1%	42	20.1%	48	41.3%	1
Florida	3.84	38	15.1%	36	17.3%	45	14.8%	35	35.2%	16
Georgia	3.92	31	16.8%	27	14.9%	37	14.0%	33	33.6%	28
Hawaii	4.40	7	20.9%	11	6.7%	1	11.1%	18	37.6%	3
Idaho	3.85	36	14.6%	41	12.1%	27	12.1%	25	33.8%	25
Illinois	4.11	19	18.4%	17	10.2%	14	12.2%	26	34.5%	21
Indiana	3.83	41	13.4%	46	11.1%	17	10.9%	15	34.4%	22
Iowa	3.95	28	15.0%	38	8.8%	7	10.7%	14	34.3%	23
Kansas	4.09	20	18.4%	17	12.0%	25	13.4%	31	34.7%	19
Kentucky	3.56	48	12.2%	49	15.0%	38	16.9%	45	31.4%	48
Louisiana	3.62	47	14.5%	42	19.2%	48	21.3%	49	32.5%	37
Maine	3.98	26	17.2%	25	11.4%	20	10.9%	15	32.2%	40
Maryland	4.46	3	23.1%	6	12.5%	30	9.7%	8	37.1%	6
Massachusetts	4.42	6	24.1%	2	10.8%	16	10.2%	11	33.3%	31
Michigan	3.95	28	15.1%	36	9.6%	10	12.6%	29	35.2%	16
Minnesota	4.20	12	19.2%	15	8.0%	4	10.9%	15	34.6%	20
Mississippi	3.49	51	13.3%	47	18.4%	47	21.4%	50	30.2%	51
Missouri	3.90	32	15.2%	35	11.9%	23	11.6%	20	33.8%	25
Montana	4.00	23	18.0%	20	12.0%	25	14.8%	35	33.2%	32
Nebraska	4.06	21	16.7%	28	9.4%	9	10.6%	13	35.1%	18
Nevada	3.84	38	12.8%	48	15.1%	39	10.1%	10	36.9%	7
New Hampshire	4.25	10	21.1%	9	10.7%	15	7.6%	1	32.2%	40
New Jersey	4.19	13	21.0%	10	12.8%	31	9.0%	4	31.9%	42
New Mexico	3.90	32	17.8%	22	24.1%	51	21.6%	51	37.8%	2
New York	4.13	16	20.7%	12	14.5%	36	16.6%	42	34.1%	24
North Carolina	3.87	34	15.7%	32	11.9%	23	13.4%	31	32.4%	38
North Dakota	3.94	30	16.7%	28	8.6%	5	13.1%	30	31.7%	44
Ohio	3.84	38	14.4%	43	11.6%	21	12.4%	28	33.7%	27
Oklahoma	3.76	43	15.0%	38	17.4%	46	16.3%	40	33.6%	28
Oregon	4.16	14	18.1%	19	11.8%	22	11.3%	19	36.8%	8
Pennsylvania	3.85	36	15.3%	34	9.7%	11	11.9%	23	31.2%	49
Rhode Island	4.00	23	18.0%	20	11.1%	17	12.3%	27	31.6%	45
South Carolina	3.76	43	14.7%	40	13.9%	34	16.3%	40	32.8%	36
South Dakota	3.87	34	15.5%	33	8.8%	7	14.1%	34	31.9%	42
Tennessee	3.75	45	14.0%	44	7.8%	2	15.9%	39	31.1%	50
Texas	3.82	42	17.4%	24	21.9%	50	16.7%	43	33.0%	34
Utah	4.13	16	17.5%	23	10.1%	12	8.2%	3	35.3%	14
Vermont	4.44	4	23.2%	5	10.1%	12	10.2%	11	35.7%	11
Virginia	4.27	9	21.3%	8	13.4%	33	11.8%	21	35.4%	13
Washington	4.24	11	19.7%	14	11.1%	17	12.0%	24	36.5%	9
West Virginia	3.51	49	10.9%	51	14.3%	35	18.1%	47	32.3%	39
Wisconsin	3.99	25	16.0%	31	7.9%	3	9.3%	5	33.1%	33
Wyoming	3.96	27	16.1%	30	15.8%	41	11.8%	21	35.9%	10
United States			17.6%		13.8%		13.7%		34.1%	

Appendix III: State-by-State Rankings on the Composite Indices and their Components (continued)

REPRODUCTIVE RIGHTS		Composite Index	Notification	Waiting Period	Public Funding	Providers	Contraceptive Coverage	Pro-Choice Government	Infertility	Adoption
State	Score	Rank	Score	Score	Score	Score	Score	Score	Score	Score
Alabama	1.09	30	0	1	0	0.09	0.50	0.00	0	0.50
Alaska	2.36	15	0*	1	1	0.28	0.00	0.33	0	0.50
Arizona	0.90	34	0*	1	0	0.27	0.00	0.00	0	0.25
Arkansas	0.67	38	0	1	0	0.04	0.00	0.00	0	0.25
California	2.67	13	0*	1	1	0.67	0.50	0.00	0	0.50
Colorado	1.07	31	0*	1	0	0.24	0.00	0.33	0	0.00
Connecticut	4.50	3	1	1	1	0.88	0.50	1.00	0	0.75
Delaware	0.80	36	0	0*	0	0.67	0.00	0.00	0	0.25
District of Columbia	3.04	10	1	1	0	1.00	0.00	0.67	0	0.75
Florida	1.89	18	1	1	0	0.31	0.50	0.33	0	0.00
Georgia	1.02	32	0	1	0	0.14	0.50	0.00	0	0.25
Hawaii	5.62	1	1	1	1	1.00	1.00	1.00	1	0.25
Idaho	1.49	22	0	0	1	0.11	0.50	0.00	0	0.25
Illinois	2.22	16	0*	1	1	0.09	0.50	0.00	0	0.75
Indiana	0.60	39	0	0	0	0.10	0.50	0.00	0	0.50
Iowa	1.79	20	0	1	0	0.04	0.00	0.00	1	0.50
Kansas	0.19	48	0	0	0	0.06	0.00	0.00	0	0.25
Kentucky	0.48	41	0	0*	0	0.02	0.00	0.33	0	0.25
Louisiana	1.21	28	0	0	0	0.08	0.00	0.00	1	0.25
Maine	1.46	23	0	1	0	0.50	0.00	0.33	0	0.25
Maryland	3.08	9	0	1	0	0.50	1.00	0.33	1	0.50
Massachusetts	2.94	11	0	0*	1	0.86	0.50	0.33	0	1.00
Michigan	0.47	42	0	0*	0	0.22	0.00	0.00	0	0.50
Minnesota	2.80	12	0	1	1	0.05	0.00	0.00	1	0.50
Mississippi	0.18	49	0	0	0	0.05	0.00	0.00	0	0.25
Missouri	1.25	27	0	1	0	0.04	0.50	0.33	0	0.25
Montana	1.76	21	0*	0*	1	0.13	1.00	0.00	0	0.25
Nebraska	0.16	50	0	0	0	0.03	0.00	0.00	0	0.25
Nevada	0.93	33	0*	1	0	0.18	0.00	0.00	0	0.50
New Hampshire	3.50	6	1	1	0	0.50	0.00	1.00	1	0.00
New Jersey	3.47	7	1	1	1	0.76	0.00	0.33	0	0.75
New Mexico	2.43	14	0*	1	0	0.18	1.00	0.00	1	0.50
New York	4.68	2	1	1	1	0.60	0.50	0.33	1	1.00
North Carolina	1.30	26	0	1	0	0.34	0.00	0.33	0	0.25
North Dakota	0.15	51	0	0	0	0.02	0.00	0.00	0	0.25
Ohio	0.35	45	0	0	0	0.10	0.50	0.00	0	0.50
Oklahoma	1.43	24	1	1	0	0.05	0.50	0.00	0	0.25
Oregon	3.83	5	1	1	1	0.25	0.00	0.33	1	0.50
Pennsylvania	0.88	35	0	0	0	0.30	0.00	0.33	0	0.50
Rhode Island	1.15	29	0	1	0	0.40	0.00	0.00	0	0.50
South Carolina	0.60	39	0	0	0	0.22	0.50	0.00	0	0.25
South Dakota	0.40	44	0	0	0	0.02	0.50	0.00	0	0.25
Tennessee	0.24	47	0*	0*	0	0.11	0.00	0.00	0	0.25
Texas	1.82	19	1	1	0	0.07	1.00	0.00	0	0.50
Utah	0.45	43	0	0	0	0.07	0.50	0.00	0	0.25
Vermont	4.32	4	1	1	1	0.57	0.50	1.00	0	1.00
Virginia	1.38	25	0	1	0	0.25	1.00	0.00	0	0.25
Washington	3.11	8	1	1	1	0.28	0.50	0.33	0	0.50
West Virginia	2.17	17	1	1	1	0.04	1.00	0.00	0	0.25
Wisconsin	0.32	46	0	0*	0	0.07	0.50	0.00	0	0.00
Wyoming	0.76	37	0	1	0	0.13	0.00	0.00	0	0.25

* Indicates the legislation is not enforced but remains part of the statutory code.

Appendix IV: National Resources

AFL-CIO Department of Working Women
815 16th Street, NW
Washington, DC 20006
Tel: (202) 637-5064
Fax: (202) 637-6902
<http://www.aflcio.org>

African American Women's Association
PO Box 55122
Washington, DC 20011
Tel/Fax: (202) 882-8263

Alan Guttmacher Institute
1120 Connecticut Avenue, Suite 460
Washington, DC 20036
Tel: (202) 296-4012
Fax: (202) 223-5756
<http://www.agi-usa.org>

American Association of Retired Persons
601 E Street, NW
Washington, DC 20049
Tel: (202) 434-2277
Fax: (202) 434-6477
<http://www.aarp.org>

American Association of University
Women
1111 16th Street, NW
Washington, DC 20036
Tel: (202) 785-7700
Fax: (202) 872-1425
<http://www.aauw.org>

American Medical Women's Association
801 North Fairfax Street, #400
Alexandria, VA 22314
Tel: (703) 838-0500
Fax: (703) 549-3864
<http://www.amwa-doc.org>

American Nurses Association
600 Maryland Avenue, SW, Suite 100W
Washington, DC 20024-2571
Tel: (202) 651-7000
Fax: (202) 651-7001

American Women's Economic
Development Corporation
71 Vanderbilt Avenue, Suite 320
New York, NY 10169
Tel: (212) 692-9100
Fax: (212) 692-2718

The Annie E. Casey Foundation
701 St. Paul Street
Baltimore, MD 21202
Tel: (410) 547-6600
Fax: (410) 223-2927
<http://www.aecf.org>

Asian Women in Business/Asian
American Professional Women
One West 34th Street, Suite 1201
New York, NY 10001
Tel: (212) 868-1368
Fax: (212) 868-1373

Association of Black Women
Entrepreneurs, Inc.
PO Box 49368
Los Angeles, CA 90049
Tel/Fax: (213) 624-8639

Black Women United for Action
6551 Loisdale Court, Suite 222
Springfield, VA 22150
Tel: (703) 922-5757
Fax: (703) 971-5892

Business and Professional Women/USA
2012 Massachusetts Avenue, NW
Washington, DC 20036
Tel: (202) 293-1100
Fax: (202) 861-0298
<http://www.bpwusa.org>

Catalyst
250 Park Avenue South
New York, NY 10003-1459
Tel: (212) 777-8900

Center for Advancement of Public Policy,
Washington Feminist Faxnet
1735 S Street, NW
Washington, DC 20009
Tel: (202) 797-0606
Fax: (202) 265-6245
<http://www.essential.org/capp>

Center for the American Woman and
Politics
Eagleton Institute of Politics,
Rutgers University
191 Riders Lane
New Brunswick, NJ 08901
Tel: (732) 828-2210
Fax: (732) 932-6778

Center for the Child Care Workforce
733 15th Street, NW, Suite 1037
Washington, DC 20005-2112
Tel: (202) 737-7700 or
(800) U-R-WORTHY
Fax: (202) 737-0370
<http://www.ccw.org>

Centers for Disease Control and
Prevention, National Center for Health
Statistics
6525 Belcrest Road
Hyattsville, MD 20782
Tel: (301) 436-8500
<http://www.cdc.gov>

Center for Law and Social Policy
1616 P Street, NW, Suite 150
Washington, DC 20036
Tel: (202) 328-5140
Fax: (202) 328-5195
<http://www.clasp.org>

Center for Policy Alternatives
1875 Connecticut Ave., NW, Suite 710
Washington, DC 20009
Tel: (800) 935-0699
Fax: (202) 387-2539
<http://www.cfpa.org>

Center for Reproductive Law and Policy
120 Wall Street
New York, NY 10005
Tel: (212) 514-5534
Fax: (212) 514-5538
<http://www.crlp.org>

Center for Research on Women
University of Memphis
Clement Hall, Room 339
Memphis, TN 38152
Tel: (901) 678-2770
Fax: (901) 678-3652

Center for Women's Policy Studies
1211 Connecticut Avenue, NW, Suite 312
Washington, DC 20036
Tel: (202) 872-1770
Fax: (202) 296-8962

Center on Budget and Policy Priorities
820 First Street, NE, Suite 510
Washington, DC 20002
Tel: (202) 408-1080
Fax: (202) 408-1056
<http://www.cbpp.org>

Child Care Action Campaign
330 Seventh Avenue, 7th Floor
New York, NY 10001
Tel: (212) 239-0138
Fax: (212) 268-6515

Children's Defense Fund
25 E Street, NW
Washington, DC 20001
Tel: (202) 628-8787
or (800) CDF-1200
Fax: (202) 662-3540
<http://www.childrensdefense.org>

Church Women United
475 Riverside Drive, Suite 500
New York, NY 10115
Tel: (212) 870-2347
Fax: (212) 870-2338
<http://www.churchwomen.org>

Coalition of Labor Union Women
1126 16th Street, NW, Suite 104
Washington, DC 20036
Tel: (202) 466-4610
Fax: (202) 776-0537

Coalition on Human Needs
1000 Wisconsin Avenue, NW
Washington, DC 20007
Tel: (202) 342-0726
Fax: (202) 342-1856
<http://www.chn.org>

Economic Policy Institute
1660 L Street, NW, Suite 1200
Washington, DC 20036
Tel: (202) 775-8810
Fax: (202) 775-0819
<http://www.epinet.org>

Equal Rights Advocates
1663 Mission Street, Suite 550
San Francisco, CA 94103
Tel: (415) 621-0672
Fax: (415) 621-6744
<http://www.equalrights.org>

Family Violence Prevention Fund
383 Rhode Island Street, Suite 304
San Francisco, CA 94103-5133
Tel: (415) 252-8900
Fax: (415) 252-8991

The Feminist Majority Foundation
1600 Wilson Boulevard, Suite 801
Arlington, VA 22209
Tel: (703) 522-2214
Fax: (703) 522-2219
<http://www.feminist.org>

General Federation of Women's Clubs
1734 N Street, NW
Washington, DC 20036-2990
Tel: (202) 347-3168
Fax: (202) 835-0246

Hadassah
50 West 58th Street
New York, NY 10019
Tel: (212) 303-8136
Fax: (212) 303-4525
<http://www.hadassah>

Hispanic Women's Council
3509 West Beverly Boulevard
Montebello, CA 90640
Tel: (213) 728-9991
Fax: (213) 725-0939

HumanSERVE
Campaign for Universal Voter Registration
622 West 113th Street, Suite 410
New York, NY 10025
Tel: (212) 854-4053
Fax: (212) 854-8727
<http://www.igc.org/humanserve>

Institute for Women's Policy Research
1400 20th Street, NW, Suite 104
Washington, DC 20036
Tel: (202) 785-5100
Fax: (202) 833-4362
<http://www.iwpr.org>

Jacobs Institute of Women's Health
409 12th Street, SW
Washington, DC 20024-2188
Tel: (202) 863-4990
Fax: (202) 554-0453
<http://www.jiwh.org>

Joint Center for Political and
Economic Studies
1090 Vermont Avenue, NW, Suite 1100
Washington, DC 20005-4961
Tel: (202) 789-3500
Fax: (202) 789-6390
<http://www.jointctr.org>

League of Women Voters
1730 M Street, NW
Washington, DC 20036
Tel: (202) 429-1965
Fax: (202) 429-0854
<http://www.lwv.org>

MANA - A National Latina Organization
1725 K Street, NW, Suite 501
Washington, DC 20006
Tel: (202) 833-0060
Fax: (202) 496-0588
<http://www.hermana.org>

Ms. Foundation for Women
120 Wall Street, 33rd Floor
New York, NY 10005
Tel: (212) 742-2300
Fax: (212) 742-1653
<http://www.msfoundation.org>

National Abortion and Reproductive
Rights Action League
1156 15th Street, NW, Suite 700
Washington, DC 20005
Tel: (202) 973-3000
Fax: (202) 973-3097
<http://www.naral.org>

National Association of Women
Business Owners
1100 Wayne Avenue, Suite 830
Silver Spring, MD 20910
Tel: (301) 608-2590
Fax: (301) 608-2596
<http://www.nawbo.org>

National Association of Commissions
for Women
8630 Fenton Street, Suite 934
Silver Spring, MD 20910
Tel: (301) 585-8101
Fax: (301) 585-3445
<http://www.nacw.org>

National Association of Negro Business
and Professional Women's Clubs, Inc.
1806 New Hampshire Avenue, NW
Washington, DC 20009
Tel: (202) 483-4206
Fax: (202) 462-7253
<http://www.nanbpwc.org>

National Center for American Indian
Enterprise Development
953 East Juanita Avenue
Mesa, AZ 85204
Tel: (602) 545-1298
Fax: (602) 545-4208
<http://www.ncied.org>

National Committee on Pay Equity
1126 16th Street, NW, Suite 411
Washington, DC 20036
Tel: (202) 331-7343
Fax: (202) 331-7406
<http://www.feminist.com/fairpay.htm>

National Conference of
Puerto Rican Women
5 Thomas Circle, NW
Washington, DC 20005
Tel: (202) 387-4716

National Council for Research on Women
11 Hanover Square, 20th Floor
New York, NY 10005
Tel: (212) 785-7335
Fax: (212) 785-7350
<http://www.ncrw.org>

National Council of Negro Women
1001 G Street, NW, Suite 800
Washington, DC 20001
Tel: (202) 628-0015
Fax: (202) 628-0233

National Council of Women's
Organizations
c/o National Committee on Pay Equity
1126 16th Street, NW, Suite 411
Washington, DC 20036
Tel: (202) 331-7343
Fax: (202) 331-7406

National Education Association
1201 16th Street, NW
Washington, DC 20036
Tel: (202) 833-4000
Fax: (202) 822-7397
<http://www.nea.org>

National Employment Law Project, Inc.
55 John Street, 7th Floor
New York, NY 10038
Tel: (212) 285-3025
Fax: (212) 285-3044

National Foundation of Women
Business Owners
1180 Wayne Avenue, Suite 830
Silver Spring, MD 20910
Tel: (301) 495-4975
Fax: (301) 495-4979
<http://www.www.nfwbo.org>

National Gay and Lesbian Task Force
2520 17th Street, NW
Washington, DC 20009
Tel: (202) 332-6482
Fax: (202) 332-0207
<http://www.nglftf.org>

National Organization for Women
1000 16th Street, NW, Suite 700
Washington, DC 20036
Tel: (202) 331-0066
Fax: (202) 785-8576
<http://www.now.org>

NOW Legal Defense and Education Fund
99 Hudson Street, 12th Floor
New York, NY 10013
Tel: (212) 925-6635
Fax: (212) 226-1066
<http://www.nowldef.org>

National Partnership for Women
and Families
1875 Connecticut Avenue, NW, Suite 710
Washington, DC 20009
Tel: (202) 986-2600
Fax: (202) 986-2539
<http://www.nationalpartnership.org>

National Political Congress
of Black Women
8401 Colesville Road, Suite 400
Silver Spring, MD 20910
Tel: (301) 562-8000
Fax: (301) 562-8303
<http://www.natpolcongblackwomen.org>

National Resource Center on
Domestic Violence
6400 Flank Drive
Harrisburg, PA 17112-2778
Tel: (800) 932-4632
Fax: (717) 671-8149

National Women's Business Council
409 Third Street, SW, Suite 5850
Washington, DC 20024
Tel: (202) 205-3850
Fax: (202) 205-6825
<http://www.womenconnect.com>

National Women's Health Network
514 10th Street, NW, Suite 400
Washington, DC 20004
Tel: (202) 347-1140
Fax: (202) 347-1168

National Women's Law Center
11 Dupont Circle, NW, Suite 800
Washington, DC 20036
Tel: (202) 588-5180
Fax: (202) 588-5185

National Women's Political Caucus
1211 Connecticut Ave., NW, Suite 501
Washington, DC 20008
Tel: (202) 785-1100
Fax: (202) 785-3605
<http://www.nwpc.org>

National Women's Studies Association
7100 Baltimore Avenue, Suite 301
College Park, MD 20740
Tel: (301) 403-0525
Fax: (301) 403-4137
<http://www.nwsa.org>

9 to 5, National Association of
Working Women
231 Wisconsin Avenue, Suite 900
Milwaukee, WI 53203
Tel: (414) 274-0925
Fax: (414) 272-2870
<http://www.members.aol.com/nwsa925>

Older Women's League
666 11th Street, NW, Suite 700
Washington, DC 20001
Tel: (202) 783-6686
Fax: (202) 638-2356

Pension Rights Center
918 16th Street, NW, Suite 704
Washington, DC 20006
Tel: (202) 296-3776
Fax: (202) 833-2472

Planned Parenthood Federation of
America
810 Seventh Avenue
New York, NY 10019
Tel: (212) 347-8500
Fax: (212) 783-1007
<http://www.plannedparenthood.org>

Population Reference Bureau, Inc.
1875 Connecticut Avenue, NW, Suite 520
Washington, DC 20009-5728
Tel: (202) 483-1100
Fax: (202) 483-3937
<http://www.prb.org>

The Urban Institute
2100 M Street, NW
Washington, DC 20037
Tel: (202) 833-7200
Fax: (202) 659-8985
<http://www.urban.org>

U.N. Secretariat of the Fourth World
Conference on Women
Division for the Advancement of Women
Two United Nations Plaza
New York, NY 10017
Tel: (212) 963-8385
Fax: (212) 963-3463

U.S. Department of Commerce,
Bureau of the Census, Population Division
Washington, DC 20233
Tel: (301) 457-2422
Fax: (301) 457-2643
<http://www.census.gov>

U.S. Department of Education
600 Independence Avenue, SW
Washington, DC 20202
Tel: (202) 401-1576
Fax: (202) 401-0596
<http://www.ed.gov>

U.S. Department of Health and
Human Services
200 Independence Avenue, SW
Washington, DC 20201
Tel: (202) 690-7204
<http://www.os.dhhs.gov>

U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of
Labor Statistics
Washington, DC 20212
Tel: (202) 606-6392 for State Labor
Force Data
<http://stats.bls.gov>

Victim Services, Inc.
2 Lafayette Street, 3rd Floor
New York, NY 10007
Tel: (212) 577-7700
Fax: (212) 985-0331

White House Office for Women's
Initiatives and Outreach
Old Executive Office Building, Room 15
Washington, DC 20502
Tel: (202) 456-7300
Fax: (202) 456-7311
<http://www.whitehouse.gov>

Wider Opportunities for Women
815 15th Street, NW, Suite 916
Washington, DC 20005
Tel: (202) 638-3143
Fax: (202) 638-4885
<http://www.w-o-w.org>

Women Employed
22 West Monroe, Suite 1400
Chicago, IL 60603
Tel: (312) 782-3902
Fax: (312) 782-5249

Women Work!
1625 K Street, NW, Suite 300
Washington, DC 20006
Tel: (202) 467-6346
Fax: (202) 467-5366

Women's Bureau
U.S. Department of Labor
200 Constitution Avenue, NW
Washington, DC 20210
Tel: (800) 219-6611
Fax: (202) 219-5529
<http://www.dol.gov/dol/wb>

Women's Environmental and
Development Organization
845 Third Avenue, 15th Floor
New York, NY 10022
Tel: (212) 759-7982
Fax: (212) 759-8647

Women's Institute for a Secure
Retirement
1201 Pennsylvania Ave., NW, Suite 619
Washington, DC 20004
Tel: (202) 393-5452
Fax: (202) 638-1336

Women's Research and Education
Institute
1750 New York Avenue, NW, Suite 350
Washington, DC 20006
Tel: (202) 628-0444
Fax: (202) 628-0458

Young Women's Christian Association
of the USA (YWCA)
726 Broadway
New York, NY 10003
Tel: (212) 614-2700
Fax: (212) 667-9716

Young Women's Project
923 F Street, NW, 3rd Floor
Washington, DC 20004
Tel: (202) 393-0461
Fax: (202) 393-0065

Appendix V: List of Census Bureau Regions

East South Central

Alabama
Kentucky
Mississippi
Tennessee

East North Central

Illinois
Indiana
Michigan
Ohio
Wisconsin

New England

Connecticut
Maine
Massachusetts
New Hampshire
Rhode Island
Vermont

West South Central

Arkansas
Louisiana
Oklahoma
Texas

Pacific West

Alaska
California
Hawaii
Oregon
Washington

Middle Atlantic

New Jersey
New York
Pennsylvania

West North Central

Iowa
Kansas
Minnesota
Missouri
Nebraska
North Dakota
South Dakota

Mountain West

Arizona
Colorado
Idaho
Montana
New Mexico
Nevada
Utah
Wyoming

South Atlantic

Delaware
Florida
Georgia
Maryland
North Carolina
South Carolina
Virginia
West Virginia
District of Columbia

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