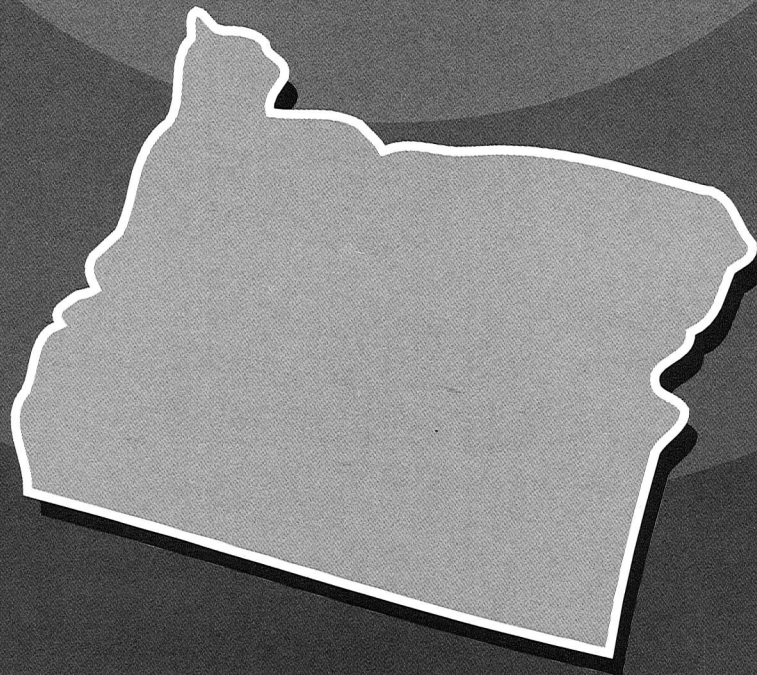


The Status of Women in Oregon

POLITICS • ECONOMICS • HEALTH • DEMOGRAPHICS



INSTITUTE FOR WOMEN'S POLICY RESEARCH



About this Report

The Status of Women in Oregon 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. This report is part of the second series, which includes nine other states (Connecticut, Florida, Kentucky, Louisiana, Mississippi, Nebraska, Ohio, Pennsylvania, and Vermont), as well as an update of the national report.

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 in Oregon assisted in locating data and reviewing this report, and one organization has joined in co-publishing the report.

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 IWPR's Partners in this Project

In producing these reports, IWPR called upon many individuals and organizations in the states. Sandra Morgen, Center for the Study of Women in Society, served as Chair of Oregon's Advisory Committee. This position involved coordinating the various individuals on the Committee, who represented organizations from all over the state. The Committee reviewed the draft report for accuracy and applicability and made suggestions for ensuring that the data contained in the report would be useful. They also help to disseminate the report across the state.

About The Center for the Study of Women in Society

The Center for the Study of Women in Society (CSWS) at the University of Oregon was instrumental in advising on this report. CSWS is a multi-disciplinary center that generates, supports and disseminates research on gender and all aspects of women's lives. CSWS also creates links and facilitates collaboration between researchers, policy makers and advocates. CSWS currently supports three major research initiatives: the Women in the Northwest Initiative, the Feminist Humanities Project, and the Women's Health and Aging Initiative. This year, CSWS will initiate a new publications series, *Policy Matters*, that will serve as a forum for continuing discussion and debate about how to better the lives of women, families and communities in Oregon and the Northwest.

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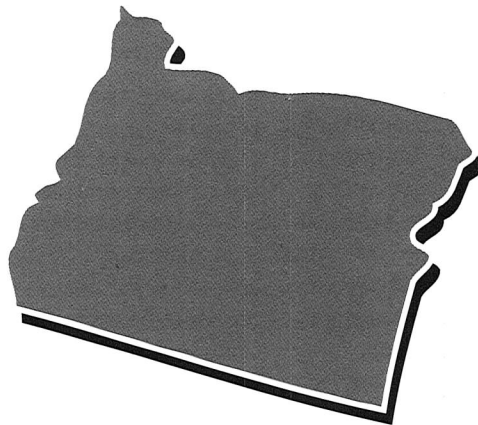
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Affiliations are for identification purposes only; the views expressed in this report are those of the authors and do not necessarily reflect the views of the Advisory Committee.

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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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IWPR owes a special debt of gratitude to Amy Caiazza and Daphne Nesbitt, Co-Coordinator of the 1998 Status of Women in the States Project, who worked effectively, cheerfully, and tirelessly to produce the 11 reports in the 1998 series. Daphne Nesbitt had the primary responsibility for collecting, updating, and analyzing much of the data used in the reports, including calculating the indicators. She also ensured the accuracy of the information in all the reports and supervised several IWPR interns who assisted in the data collection and data checking tasks, as well as in presenting the information in tables and charts. Ms. Nesbitt succeeded Dr. Julie Whittaker, the initial Study Director of the 1998 States Project, as the leader of the data collection and analysis effort. Dr. Whittaker, no longer with IWPR, conducted research on the reliability of the indicators, tabulated data from the Census Bureau's public use data sets, and, based upon the 1996 reports, updated the text of the 1998 reports. Amy Caiazza, Project Co-Coordinator, and State Issues Coordinator at IWPR, had the primary responsibility for working with IWPR's state partners. She worked with hundreds of individuals to form, organize, and coordinate the work of ten State Advisory Committees from around the country. Her enthusiasm for the project and her diplomacy in dealing with

many different viewpoints have been noted by many who worked with her throughout this process. Ms. Caiazza, a political scientist, also contributed to the data collection and analysis effort, particularly in the areas of political participation and representation and reproductive rights.

Special thanks are also due Shannon Garrett, Research Program Coordinator, for her able organizational skills, hard work, and dedication. In addition to assisting in data collection efforts and report writing, she also coordinated the manuscript preparation of all the final drafts.

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).

Finally, many individuals participated in the major effort of publishing eleven reports simultaneously. IWPR is grateful to Anna Rockett, Publications Editor, for her design expertise and patience in coordinating the production process, including layout, copy editing, proofreading, and preparation of the final copy. Other IWPR staff who assisted in the production and dissemination process include Liz Schiller, Associate Director of Development, Amanda Gordon, Communications and Outreach Assistant, Laura Nichols, Research Fellow, and Nancy Bennett, public relations consultant. Jill Braunstein, Associate Executive Director and Director of Communications, directed the entire production and dissemination effort. Her experience, expertise, and vision assured the timely completion of this complex project. The project was carried out under the general direction of Heidi Hartmann, Director and President of the Institute for Women's Policy Research.

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Contents

Preface	1
Introduction	3
Goals of <i>The Status of Women in the States</i> Reports	3
About the Indicators and the Data	3
About IWPR	4
Overview of the Status of Women in Oregon	5
Political Participation and Representation	9
Voter Registration and Turnout	9
Elected Officials	11
Institutional Resources	11
Employment and Earnings	13
Women's Earnings	13
The Wage Gap	14
Labor Force Participation	17
Occupation and Industry	20
Economic Autonomy	23
Access to Health Insurance	23
Education	24
Women Business Owners and Self-Employment	26
Women's Economic Security and Poverty	26
Reproductive Rights	31
Health and Vital Statistics	33
Basic Demographics	37
Conclusion	41
Appendices:	43
Appendix I: Methodology, Terms, and Sources for Chart I (the Composite Indices)	43
Appendix II: Terms and Sources for Chart II (Women's Rights Checklist)	47
Appendix III: State-by-State Rankings on the Composite Indices and their Components	51
Appendix IV: State and National Resources	55
Appendix V: List of Census Bureau Regions	60
References	61

Index of Charts, Tables and Figures

Charts

Page

I. How Oregon Ranks on Key Indicators	5
II. Women's Rights Checklist	7
III. Political Participation and Representation: National and Regional Ranks	9
IV. Employment and Earnings: National and Regional Ranks	13
V. Economic Autonomy: National and Regional Ranks	23
VI. Panel A, Reproductive Rights: National and Regional Ranks	31
VI. Panel B, Components of the Reproductive Rights Composite Index	32

Tables

1. Voter Registration for Women and Men in Oregon and the United States	10
2. Women's and Men's Voter Turnout in Oregon and the United States	10
3. Women in Elected Office in Oregon and the United States, 1998	11
4. Institutional Resources for Women in Oregon	12
5. Women's Earnings and the Earnings Ratio in Oregon by Educational Attainment, 1979 and 1995 (1997 Dollars)	16
6. Personal Income Per Capita for Both Men and Women in Oregon and the United States, 1996	18
7. Full-Time, Part-Time and Unemployment Rates for Women and Men in Oregon and the United States, 1995	18
8. Labor Force Participation of Women in Oregon and the United States by Race/Ethnicity, 1995	19
9. Labor Force Participation of Women in Oregon and the United States by Age, 1995	19
10. Labor Force Participation of Women with Children in Oregon and the United States, 1995	20
11. Percent of Women and Men without Health Insurance and with Different Sources of Health Insurance in Oregon and the United States, 1994-95	24
12. Women-Owned Firms in Oregon and the United States, 1992	25
13. Health and Vital Statistics for Oregon and the United States, 1996	34
14. Percent of Total Population, Medicare and Medicaid Recipients Enrolled in Health Maintenance Organizations (HMOs) in Oregon and the United States, 1996	35
15. Basic Demographic Statistics for Oregon and the United States	37

Figures

1. Median Annual Earnings of Women and Men Employed Full-Time/Year-Round in Oregon and the United States, 1995 (1997 Dollars)	14
2. Ratio of Women's to Men's Full-Time/Year-Round Median Annual Earnings in States in the Pacific West Region and the United States, 1995	15
3. Change in the Wage Ratio Between 1979 and 1995 in Oregon and the United States	15
4. Percent of Women and Men in the Labor Force in Oregon and the United States, 1995	17
5. Unemployment Rates for Women and Men in Oregon and the United States, 1995	17
6a. Distribution of Women Across Occupations in Oregon and the United States, 1995	21
6b. Distribution of Women Across Industries in Oregon and the United States	21
7. Educational Attainment of Women Aged 25 and Older in Oregon and the United States, 1990	24
8. Distribution of Women-Owned Firms Across Industries in Oregon and the United States, 1992	25
9. Median Annual Income for Selected Family Types and Single Women and Men in Oregon and the United States, 1995	27
10. Percent of Women in Poverty and Percent Receiving AFDC, Aged 18 and Older in Oregon and the United States	27
11. Poverty Rates for Selected Family Types and Single Men and Women in Oregon and the United States, 1995	28
12. Percent of Unemployed Women and Men with Unemployment Insurance in the Pacific West Region and the United States, 1996	28
13. Distribution of Women by Marital Status in Oregon and the United States, 1990	38
14. Percent of Households with Children Under Age 18 Headed by Women in Oregon and the United States, 1990	38

Preface

This report is a valuable tool for those who share the goal of expanding social equality and the well-being of women and families in Oregon. It uses facts and figures as well as regional and national rankings to compare women's status in Oregon and other states. Those of us who live the realities represented here, or who work to improve the lives of girls and women, might question the wisdom of condensing the complexity of women's lives to statistics which stand in for the diverse voices and varying conditions of Oregon's women. Remind yourself that real women face the challenges and opportunities this report reveals. And keep in mind that even when the rankings are relatively high, many women do not share in the good news because they face discrimination and marginalization resulting from their race, ethnicity, first language, sexual orientation or disability.

Oregonians can take pride in the fact that some enlightened public policies have led to measurable gains for women. But *we have a long way to go!* Among the report's troubling findings are that:

- poverty rates are too high, especially for women raising families on their own;
- there is growing income inequality in the state;
- women and families of color are much more likely to be poor and have lower than average per capita income than white women and
- some policies most crucial to improving women's status have been under assault.

Compared to the United States as a whole, Oregon women have higher rates of voter turnout, health insurance coverage, college experience, unemployment insurance coverage and a higher rate of growth of women owned businesses. These successes can be traced to public policies that make a difference! Policies such as raising the minimum wage, the Oregon Health Plan, support of public education (especially K-12) and fostering voter registration and vote-by-mail are examples of specific policies that have helped Oregon women. We have made some progress for women in Oregon. Now, to build on this momentum, what do we need to do?

Economic Vitality of Oregon Women and Families

Oregon women rank relatively well on indicators of political participation and reproductive rankings, but we fall—precipitously—to the middle of the nation on indicators of economic well-being. Middle and low-income families have seen their share of total state income drop over the past two decades, an eleven percent drop for the middle income group and a 21 percent drop among the poorest families. The wage gap between men and women is higher in Oregon than in the country as a whole. Wage gaps

between racial and ethnic groups translate into median incomes for families of color that are only 75 percent (in the case of Native Americans) and 67 percent (for African Americans and Hispanics) of those of white families. More than one in ten women in this state is poor, including 42 percent of female headed households. This translates into children's poverty: 15 percent of Oregon children under 18 and 20 percent of children under five live in poverty.

Recently, welfare reform has been touted as the key policy focus for alleviating poverty. While welfare is an important aspect of the state's response to poverty, real progress requires a concerted, integrated effort encompassing many state agencies and the business community. At a *minimum* we need:

- more affordable housing and affordable high quality child care;
- more family wage jobs and rewards for employers who pay living wages and offer benefits;
- tax reform to more evenly distribute taxes between corporations and individuals;
- reform of the state Earned Income Tax Credit, so that poor and working families do not pay disproportionately high state taxes and
- mandated resources for agencies that work with poor women and families to assist families to move out of poverty.

While this report addresses the need for child care, this is an area that needs creative, effective policy development in this state. Child care costs in Oregon are prohibitive for many working families. As a result, many children are in low quality child care situations, and their parents want better for them. Oregon is one of only five states that does not require licensing of family day care providers.

We must do better by our children, using licensing requirements, education opportunities for providers, and economic assistance to low income families to ensure the safety and well-being of our most vulnerable residents.

Education and Health Care

Oregon women benefit from more post-secondary education than women in many other states. But those who do not finish high school or get a GED and those who do not go to college saw their median annual earnings decline significantly over the last decade. The cost of post-secondary education in Oregon has skyrocketed. College is increasingly out of reach for the state's lower income families. While Oregon's education and welfare policies support teen parents to finish high school or get a GED, those on welfare cannot pursue further training or higher education while receiving cash benefits. This policy may

have the unintended consequence of channeling these young parents into precisely that sector of the labor force which has experienced earnings decreases over an extended period of time, and which rarely offers employer-related health insurance coverage. Given what we know about the long term economic benefits of post-secondary education:

- the state must do more to ensure and foster access to college and
- we need to reconsider the wisdom of policies that deny our most vulnerable families educational opportunities which are their best hope for long term self-sufficiency.

One of the most innovative policy initiatives of the past decade is the Oregon Health Plan (OHP), surely the reason for Oregon's higher than average state health insurance coverage rate.

We must build on gains in this area, expanding OHP coverage to all medically indigent residents of the state, and ensuring access to quality health care for those covered by the plan, including those who speak a first language other than English, or who live in a medically under-served area.

In the last two legislative sessions, the Women's Health and Wellness coalition has introduced legislation to expand preventive and other health services to women through insurance mandates. Despite the unarguable fact that these initiatives are good for women's health, the legislature has been unwilling to mandate expanded insurance coverage (e.g. for birth control, mammograms, reconstructive surgery).

Oregon should continue to be a leader in health care policy and not shy away from insurance mandates when they are critical for improved health.

Oregon women are not subject to some of the most problematic assaults that have been waged against reproductive freedoms over the past two decades. But that is not because such legislation has not been introduced. It is because Oregonians keep electing more pro-choice than anti-choice legislators that we have such a high ranking in the area of reproductive rights. We cannot take this for granted!

Making Good Policy: Knowledge, Dialogue and Will

Our "can do" political ethos in Oregon has been good for women and good for the state. Having the Oregon Benchmarks and collecting information to assess progress in meeting goals means we have better data than many states to inform policy development. But in examining this report, it became clear that we have far less information than we need about women who are racial or ethnic minorities,

lesbians, non-English-speaking, disabled or living in small towns and rural areas.

We need to collect better information about these groups so we can develop policies that help all Oregonians.

The state commissions on women and on each of the state's major racial and ethnic are groups are one important source of such information. However, these commissions are sorely under-funded, and recently, attempts (almost successful!) have been made to defund them.

We need these commissions and must ensure that they continue to exist and have the resources necessary to collect the information and envision the policies that will ensure equal opportunity for all Oregonians.

Many more of us lose when women, children, communities of color, gays and lesbians, the disabled or the non-English speaking do not share equally in the opportunities this great state has to offer.

While enhancing women's status is important to women, many men share the vision that equality—between men and women and among racial and ethnic groups—is good public policy. We need to elect more women and men who bring that vision to public office. While Oregon ranks high on the number of female elected officials, we are nowhere near equity in political representation. Only 27 percent of the members of the 1999 Oregon legislature will be women. And it is not enough to elect good representatives. We all have a role to play in advocating for progressive public policies.

We who served on the advisory board for this report did our best to fulfill the mandate we were given—to apply what we know about our state to ensure that the report is accurate and reflects the real and varying conditions of women in Oregon. We regret that the report's reliance on national data sets, which were necessary to rank Oregon's women relative to women in other states, did not allow for greater analysis of differences among Oregon's women—by race, ethnicity, sexual orientation, region of the state and disability. ***As a group, we believe that while Oregon women fare better in some ways than women in other states, we have a long way to go to achieve equality and to build the strong and healthy families and communities we want for our state.*** Oregon has long been a standard-bearer for innovative social policy. Now is the time to build on the momentum we have worked so hard to achieve. Let's use this report to educate ourselves and our communities about what we have to be proud of *and* what we still need to do, so that all Oregonians, including those most disadvantaged today, have a bright future.

Oregon State Advisory Committee,
The Status of Women in Oregon

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 *The 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, and IWPR designed its new project to provide them with relevant information. This year, IWPR staff produced a second series of state reports as well as a national report summarizing key 1998 findings for all 50 states and the District of Columbia.

Goals of The Status of Women in the States Reports

The staff of the Institute for Women's Policy Research prepared this report on *The Status of Women in Oregon* to inform residents in Oregon concerned about the progress of Oregon's women relative to women in other 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 remain 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.

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 1994-97. 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 censuses provide the most comprehensive data for states and local areas, but since they are 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 1990-97 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 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 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 Status of Women in the States reports seek to provide important insights into women's lives and to serve as useful tools to advocates, researchers and policymakers at the state and national levels. The demand for relevant and reliable data at the state level is growing. This report is designed to fill this need.

Overview of the Status of Women in Oregon

Women in Oregon exemplify both the achievements and shortcomings of women's progress over the past century. Many Oregon women are witnessing real improvements in their economic, political and social status, and these advances are evident in relatively high rankings on some of the composite indices calculated by IWPR. Of the 50 states and the District of Columbia, Oregon scores ninth in political participation and representation, 14th in economic autonomy and fifth in reproductive rights (see Chart I). On the final index, employment and earnings, Oregon scores at about the middle of all states at 22nd. Despite improvements and the high rank of some states, however, in no state do women do as well as men, and even those states with better policies for women do not ensure equal rights for

women. Oregon's better rankings speak only to the status of its women relative to other states: they do not necessarily indicate that women have achieved high levels of equality with men. Women in Oregon still face significant problems demanding attention from policymakers, women's advocates and researchers concerned with women's status.

Any conclusions about women in Oregon also require some context concerning the state as a whole. As a member of the Pacific West region, Oregon joins Alaska, California, Hawaii and Washington. This region is economically, politically and demographically diverse, encompassing states with substantial variance in their living standards, ethnic and racial composition, rural and urban population distributions and economic structures. These

**Chart I.
How Oregon Ranks on Key Indicators**

Indicators	National Rank*	Regional Rank*
Composite Political Participation and Representation Index	9	3
• Women's Voter Registration, 1992-94	6	1
• Women's Voter Turnout, 1992-96	13	2
• Women in Elected Office Composite, 1998	15	4
• Women's Institutional Resources, 1998	13	2
Composite Employment and Earnings Index	22	5
• Women's Median Annual Earnings, 1995	18	5
• Ratio of Women's to Men's Earnings, 1995	35	4
• Women's Labor Force Participation, 1995	23	3
• Women in Managerial and Professional Occupations, 1995	20	4
Composite Economic Autonomy Index	14	4
• Percent with Health Insurance Among Nonelderly Women, 1994-95	22	3
• Educational Attainment: Percent of Women with Four or More Years of College, 1990	19	5
• Women's Business Ownership, 1992	8	2
• Percent of Women Above the Poverty Level, 1995	19	3
Composite Reproductive Rights Index	5	2

See Appendix I for a detailed description of the methodology and sources used for the indices presented here.

* The national rankings are of a possible 51, referring to the 50 states and the District of Columbia except for the Political Participation and Representation indicators, which do not include the District of Columbia. The regional rankings are of a maximum of five and refer to the states in the Pacific West Region (AK, CA, HI, OR, WA). See Appendix V.

Calculated by the Institute for Women's Policy Research.

types of differences are not adequately controlled for in these measures of women's status.

In addition, Oregon is much less ethnically diverse than the rest of the United States with minorities making up less than eleven percent of the population, compared with 27 percent for the nation as a whole. In some areas of the country, factors such as discrimination against minority women substantially lower a state's indicators, such as women's median income. A greater percentage of Oregon women, however, do not face these obstacles. Thus, some indicators here may both be higher than in other states with more diverse populations and, simultaneously, mask some of the real problems facing minority women in Oregon. Differences among women—by race and ethnicity, age, sexuality and urban and rural disparities—are such that some groups of women remain extremely disadvantaged even when the aggregate picture is more positive.

Finally, Oregon confronts serious problems of inequality: from the late 1970s to the mid 1990s, the gap between the richest and poorest families with children grew. Incomes of the bottom fifth of families dropped by 21 percent, while those of the top fifth grew by 15 percent (Larin and McNichol, 1997). Earnings differ tremendously by race (Hallock, Morgen and Seidel, 1993). Finally, IWPR finds substantial variance in women's earnings growth by education level. Not all women, then, enjoy equal access to Oregon's political and economic resources nor are they gaining equally in the fruits of progress.

Political Participation and Representation

Oregon women register and vote more than women in the rest of the country and, as a result, the state ranks among the top ten states for political participation and representation at ninth. Women in Oregon also have relatively high levels of women in elected office and institutional resources such as a commission on the status of women (the Oregon Commission for Women). However, recently the proportion of women in the state legislatures has decreased to 25.6 percent, and the commission on the status of women is continuously caught in battles for funding and for its existence. Women in Oregon would benefit from using their collective voices to strengthen their presence in government and demand women-friendly policies.

Employment and Earnings

Oregon's lowest ranking among the composite indices calculated by IWPR is in the area of employment and earnings where the state ranks 22nd in the nation. Most

Oregon women now participate in the workforce, and many work as professionals or managers. Nonetheless, Oregon women earn substantially less relative to men than women in the rest of the country. This ranking is surprising given Oregon's generally high ranking on other economic indicators and on levels of educational attainment; it points to the need for stronger enforcement of equal-opportunity and pay-equity provisions.

As labor force participation for all Oregon women rises, high numbers of Oregon women with young children now work as well. Oregon's parents thus increasingly need adequate child care, a policy demand not yet adequately addressed in Oregon or the United States as a whole. In an economic era when all able or available parents must work for pay to support their children, public policies lag far behind reality.

Economic Autonomy

While Oregon ranked 14th on the composite index of economic autonomy, the state's women still face serious obstacles in this category as well. Women's share of business ownership is relatively high. Fewer Oregon women have attained four or more years of a college education, however, and the state ranks near the average for the nation as a whole on this indicator. In addition, over eleven percent of adult women live below the poverty level, indicating that thousands of Oregon women lack the basic necessities of life.

Reproductive Rights

Oregon women have many of the reproductive rights identified as important and, as a result, the state ranked fifth of 51 on this measure. Oregon women need to use their political voices to protect these rights, which are often the subject of controversy. In addition, because many women live in rural areas, access to legal abortion is limited by the fact that only 25 percent of counties have abortion providers. Many women may have to travel extensively to reach a provider.

Women's Rights Checklist

The Fourth World Conference on Women, held in Beijing in September 1995, heightened awareness of women's status around the world and pointed to the importance of government action and public policy for the well-being of women. At the conference, representatives from 189 countries including the United States, unanimously adopted the Beijing Declaration and Platform for Action, pledging their governments to action on behalf of

Chart II. Women's Rights Checklist

	Yes	No	Other
Reproductive Rights			
• Does Oregon allow access to abortion services without mandatory parental consent laws?	✓		
• Does Oregon allow access to abortion services without a waiting period?	✓		
• Does Oregon provide public funding for abortions under any or most circumstances if a woman is eligible?	✓		
• Does Oregon require health insurers to provide coverage for contraceptives?		✓	
• Does Oregon offer public funding for infertility treatments?	✓		
• Does Oregon allow the non-biological parent in a gay/lesbian couple to adopt his/her partner's biological child?	✓		Lower Court Ruling
Domestic Violence Legislation			
• Does Oregon require law-enforcement officials to arrest under all or some circumstances?*	✓		
Child Support			
• Percent of single-mother households receiving child support or alimony			45.0%
• Percent of child support cases with orders for collection in which child support has actually been collected.			35.7%
Welfare (as of July 1998)[†]			
• Child Exclusion/Family Caps: Does Oregon extend TANF benefits to children who are born or conceived while the mother was on welfare?	✓		
• Time Limits: How many consecutive months does Oregon allow TANF recipients to receive benefits? ^{††}			24 out of 84 lifetime total
• Work Requirements: When are welfare recipients required to work according to Oregon's TANF plan? ^{††}			Immediately
• Has Oregon made provision for victims of family violence in its state TANF plan?	✓		
Employment/Unemployment Benefits			
• Is Oregon's minimum wage higher than the federal minimum wage as of January 1998? ^{†††}	✓		
• Does Oregon have mandatory temporary disability insurance?		✓	
• Does Oregon provide unemployment insurance benefits for low-wage earners?	✓		
• Has Oregon implemented adjustments to achieve pay equity in its civil service?	✓		
Institutional Resources			
• Does Oregon have a Commission on the Status of Women?	✓		

See Appendix II for a detailed description and sources for the items on this checklist.

* This indicator is only one of many potential measures of anti-domestic violence policies, but data are more difficult to find for other measures.

† Under federal law, Temporary Assistance for Needy Families (TANF) benefits are restricted to a five-year (60 month) lifetime limit and are contingent on work participation after 24 months; as allowed by the law, some states set more stringent time limits or work requirements or exempt victims of domestic violence from certain requirements.

†† Under the Oregon Options waiver program, enrollment in the Job Opportunities and Basic Skills Training (JOBS) program is considered a work activity; clients who comply with the JOBS program do not accrue time against time limits on benefits.

††† As of September 1, 1997, the federal minimum hourly wage was increased to \$5.15. Oregon's minimum wage is \$5.50.

Compiled by the Institute for Women's Policy Research.

women. The Platform for Action outlines critical issues of concern to women and remaining obstacles to women's advancement.

In the United States, the President's Interagency Council on Women continues to follow up on U.S. commitments made at the Fourth World Conference on Women. According to the Council (1996), many of the laws, policies and programs that already exist in the United States meet the goals of the Platform for Action and establish the rights of women identified in it. In other areas, however, the United States and many individual states have an opportunity to improve women's rights.

Chart II, the Women's Rights Checklist, shows how Oregon rates on selected indicators of women's rights, some of which derive from the Platform for Action. They fall under several categories: reproductive rights, protection from domestic violence, access to income support (through welfare and child support collection), women-friendly employment protections and institutional representation of women's concerns. Many of these indicators result directly from state policy decisions (see Appendix II for detailed explanations of the indicators).

As the chart shows, women in Oregon have many of the rights identified with women's well-being but they

lack many others. Access to abortion is unencumbered by parental consent or waiting periods. Oregon extends Temporary Assistance for Needy Families (TANF, the new welfare program) benefits to children born or conceived while the mother receives welfare. Although the TANF program requires welfare recipients to begin work immediately, Oregon counts enrollment in the Job Opportunities and Basic Skills Training (JOBS) program as work activities and as long as clients comply with the plan, they do not accrue time against time limits on benefit receipt. Finally, Oregon has adopted a domestic violence provision in its TANF plan and has a mandatory arrest policy in cases of domestic violence.

Oregon currently falls short on several rights included in the checklist. Oregon women do not have guaranteed health coverage for contraception. Failure to require temporary disability insurance for workers leaves many women, especially single mothers, vulnerable in case of injury or illness.

Oregon truly illustrates both the advances and limited progress achieved by women in the United States. While Oregon women and U.S. women as a whole are seeing important changes in their lives and their access to political, economic and social rights, they by no means enjoy equality with men, and they still lack many of the legal guarantees that would allow them to achieve it.

Political Participation and Representation

This section describes several aspects of political life 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.

Political participation is the foundation of democratic citizenship: it allows citizens to define their own political interests and influence public policy. 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 (Delli Carpini and Fuchs, 1993; Mueller, 1988; Sapiro, 1983; Tolleson Rinehart, 1992). Women, for example, tend to support policies which promote accessible and affordable child care and measures combating violence against women, and they vote for candidates supporting these positions. Many women also give concerns like education, health care, children's issues 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 also helps 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., Center for the American Woman and Politics [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 do, in fact, 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 also make government more accessible to women. Thus women need to be in both the executive and legislative branches to ensure that their perspectives are part of political debate.

Oregon ranks in the top ten states (ninth) on the political participation and representation index. Its ranking on individual indicators range from sixth on women's voter registration to 15th on women in elected office (see Chart III).

Voter Registration and Turnout

One of the basic democratic rights is the right to vote. The principle "one person, one vote" helps different kinds

Chart III. Political Participation and Representation: National and Regional Ranks			
Indicators	National Rank* (of 50)	Regional Rank* (of 5)	
Composite Political Participation and Representation Index	9	3	
• Women's Voter Registration (percent of women 18 and older who reported registering to vote in 1992 and 1994) ^a	6	1	
• Women's Voter Turnout (percent of women 18 and older estimated to have voted in 1992 and 1996) ^b	13	2	
• Women in Elected Office Composite Index (percent of state and national elected officeholders who are women, 1998) ^{c,e}	15	4	
• Women's Institutional Resources (number of institutional resources for women in Oregon, 1998) ^{d,e}	13	2	

See Appendix I for methodology.

* The national rank is of a possible 50, because the District of Columbia is not included in this ranking. The regional rankings are of a maximum of five and refer to the states in the Pacific West Region (AK, CA, HI, OR, WA). See Appendix V.

Source: ^a U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, 1993, 1996d; ^b Strategic Research Concepts, 1998; ^c CAWP, 1998a, 1998b, 1998c and 1998d; ^d Center for Policy Alternatives, 1995, National Association of Women's Commissions, 1997, CAWP, 1998e; ^e Compiled by IWPR, based on the Center for Policy Alternatives, 1995.

Calculated by the Institute for Women's Policy Research.

Table 1.
Voter Registration for Women and Men
in Oregon and the United States

	Oregon		United States	
	Percent	Number	Percent	Number
1994 Voter Registration^a				
Women	76.4	883,000	63.7	63,257,000
Men	69.8	805,000	61.2	55,737,000
1992 Voter Registration^a				
Women	78.0	881,000	69.8	67,324,000
Men	71.4	768,000	66.9	69,254,000
Number of Unregistered Women Eligible to Vote, 1996^b				
	N/A	180,050	N/A	23,775,050
Percent and Number of Eligible Public Assistance Recipients Who Are Registered, 1996^b				
	16.6	18,873	14.1	1,311,848

* Percent of all women and men aged 18 and older who reported registering, based on data from the 1993 and 1995 November Supplements of the Current Population Survey. These data are self-reports and tend to overstate actual voter registration.

Source: ^a U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, 1993, 1996d; ^b HumanSERVE, 1996.

Compiled by the Institute for Women's Policy Research.

of citizens have an equal voice in the democratic process. Recognizing this value, many early Western 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 (NWPC, 1995). Nonetheless, many candidates (and political researchers) did not take women voters seriously. Instead, they assumed women would disregard politics and vote like their fathers or husbands (Carroll and Zerrilli, 1993; Evans, 1989). Neither assumption proved valid. Research shows women do not always vote like men.

Table 2.
Women's and Men's Voter Turnout
in Oregon and the United States

	Oregon		United States	
	Percent	Number	Percent	Number
1996 Voter Turnout^a				
Women	58.6	730,200	49.0	50,062,800
Men	56.4	647,500	49.0	46,211,800
1992 Voter Turnout^a				
Women	63.8	731,300	57.3	56,391,300
Men	67.7	731,300	53.0	48,037,100
Percent of Registered Women Who Did Not Vote in Any of the Presidential Elections in 1984, 1988 and 1992^b				
	7.8	N/A	12.1	N/A

* Percent of all women and men aged 18 and older estimated to have voted based on certified presidential election returns from the Federal Election Commission, Census projections of the voting age population from the 1993 and 1997 November Supplements of the Current Population Survey, and Voter News Service nationwide exit polls. These data likely tend to understate actual voter turnout.

Source: ^a Strategic Research Concepts, 1998; ^b Women's Vote Project, National Council of Women's Organizations, 1996.

Compiled by the Institute for Women's Policy Research.

Women now register and vote slightly more often than men. By 1994, over 63 million women (63.7 percent of those eligible) reported being registered to vote compared with nearly 56 million or 61.2 percent of eligible men (see Table 1). Oregon's voter registration rates are generally considerably higher for both men and women than national ones. In Oregon, 76.4 percent of women reported themselves registered to vote in the November 1994 elections, while 69.8 percent of men did.

Women voters have been an actual majority of U.S. voters since 1964. In 1996, 52 percent of voters were women, while 54 percent were in 1992. Nationwide, both the number of voters and the

proportion of the population who voted (voter turnout) fell between 1992 and 1996. Still, compared with other Western democracies, voter turnout is relatively low for both genders for a variety of reasons (Dalton and Wattenberg, 1993). Oregon has substantially higher voter turnout than the nation as a whole. In 1992, 63.8 percent of Oregon women are estimated to have voted as are 58.6 percent in 1996 (see Table 2). As a result, Oregon ranked 13th among states for women's voter turnout in the 1992 and 1996 elections combined. Voter turnout dropped for both genders in Oregon and the nation in 1996. Although Oregon women's turnout fell in 1996, it remained slightly higher than the rate for men in Oregon and substantially higher than for men and women in the United States as a whole. It should be noted that Oregon's vote-by-mail system, which allows people to vote over the course of several weeks and is expected to increase voting rates, was implemented after the years that data for this study were collected and thus, this new procedure is not responsible for Oregon's relatively higher voting turnout rates in the years presented here.

Over the years, most states in the United States have developed relatively complicated systems of voter registration. Voting typically requires advance registration in a few specified locations. This system is one main cause of low voting rates, and two groups typically underserved by it are the poor and persons with disabilities (Wolfinger and Rosenstone, 1980). In addition, voting itself is more difficult for people with disabilities because of problems such as inadequate transportation to the polls. Effective January 1995, however, the National Voter Registration Act (NVRA) required states to allow citizens to register to vote when receiving or renewing a driver's license or applying for Aid to Families with Dependent Children (AFDC), Food Stamps, Medicaid, Special Supplemental Nutrition Program for Women, Infants and

Children (WIC), and disability services. By 1996, the NVRA successfully enrolled or updated voting addresses for over eleven million people, including 1.3 million through public assistance agencies (HumanSERVE, 1996). Under the new welfare system, applicants for TANF and related programs will continue to have the opportunity to register to vote when seeking welfare benefits. Still, nearly 24 million eligible women remain unregistered in the United States and about 180,050 of them live in Oregon. Finally, states need to recognize that without transportation and expanded numbers of accessible places for both registration and voting, people with disabilities will continue to be unable to exercise their right to vote.

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 are also becoming more prominent in legislative agendas (Thomas, 1994). Nine women serve in the 1997-98 U.S. Senate (105th Congress). Women also fill 53 of the 435 seats in the 105th 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). While women from Oregon fill two of a possible five state seats in the U.S. House (a much higher than average ratio), Oregon has no female senators in Washington, DC (see Table 3). In the Oregon state legislature, women fill 25.6 percent of seats, more than the U.S. average of 21.6 percent. However, this number represents a drop from 1996, when women filled 28.9 percent of seats (Center for the American Woman and Politics [CAWP], 1996). The downturn is disturbing since women already have a disproportionately small

presence in elected office relative to their presence in the population. Oregon is one of eleven states with a woman serving as the chief state official for education. Women also constitute 38.6 percent of public appointees in Oregon (data not shown; Center for Women in Government, 1997).

Institutional Resources

Women's institutional resources can play an important role in providing information about women's

Table 3.
Women in Elected Office in Oregon and the United States, 1998

	Oregon	United States
Number of Women in Statewide Executive Elected Office	1*	82
Number of Women in the U.S. Congress		
U.S. Senate	0 of 2	9 of 100
U.S. House	2 of 5	53 of 435 [†]
Percent of State Legislators Who Are Women	25.6%	21.6%

* Chief State Education Official.

† Does not include delegates from the District of Columbia or the Virgin Islands.

Source: CAWP, 1998a, 1998b, 1998c, 1998d.

Compiled by the Institute for Women's Policy Research.

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. Oregon has a government-appointed commission on the status of women, the Oregon Commission for Women. The Commission for Women, however, is often the subject of political controversy and has only limited funding. Oregon also has a women's state agenda project, the Oregon Women's Rights Coalition, a non-governmental, state-based coalition group addressing a broad range of issues concerning

Table 4. Institutional Resources for Women in Oregon		
	Yes	No
Does Oregon Have a . . .		
• Commission on the Status of Women? ^a	✓	
• Women's State Agenda Project? ^b	✓	
• Legislative Caucus in the State Legislature? ^c House? Senate?	Partisan	
<i>Source: ^a National Association of Women's Commissions, 1997; ^b Center for Policy Alternatives, 1995; ^c CAWP, 1998e.</i> <i>Compiled by the Institute for Women's Policy Research.</i>		

women (see Table 4). It helps to increase the visibility of women's activism and provides opportunities for networking. In the state legislature, Democratic women members have organized a party-based women's caucus.

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 stay out of poverty (Cancian, Danziger and Gottschalk, 1993; Spalter-Roth et. al., 1990). Women's employment status and earnings have grown in importance to women and their families as demographic and economic changes have occurred—men have 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.

Women in Oregon ranked above the middle of all states in their median annual earnings, their labor force participation and the percent of women employed in managerial or professional occupations. However, when their earnings are compared with those of Oregon men, women did not do nearly as well, ranking only 35th (see

Chart IV). At the regional level, Oregon women ranked in the middle on labor force participation but below most or all of the other states on all other employment and earnings indicators.

Women's Earnings

Oregon women working full-time, year-round have virtually the same median annual earnings as women in the United States as a whole—\$24,900 (see Figure 1; see Appendix I for the methodology used by IWPR to develop the earnings data). However, median annual earnings for men in Oregon are higher than for the United States as a whole (\$35,800 and \$34,400, respectively). The median annual earnings for women in Oregon ranked 18th highest in the nation, tied with Nevada. Alaska's women ranked the highest at \$31,400. Oregon ranked fifth of five in its region for women's median annual earnings. Between 1989 and 1994-96, women in Oregon saw their median annual earnings increase by 6.9 percent, a rate of growth that was the highest in the Pacific West region, slightly ahead of Washington at 6.3 percent (data not shown; all growth rates are calculated for earnings that have been adjusted to remove the effects of inflation).

**Chart IV.
Employment and Earnings: National and Regional Ranks**

Indicators	National Rank* (of 51)	Regional Rank* (of 5)
Composite Employment and Earnings Index	22	5
• Women's Median Annual Earnings (for full-time, year-round workers aged 16 and older, 1995) ^a	18	5
• Ratio of Women's to Men's Earnings (median yearly earnings of full-time, year-round women and men workers aged 16 and older, 1995) ^a	35	4
• Women's Labor Force Participation (percent of all women aged 16 and older in the civilian non-institutional population who are either employed or looking for work, 1995) ^b	23	3
• Women in Managerial and Professional Occupations (percent of all employed women aged 16 and older in managerial or professional specialty occupations, 1995) ^b	20	4

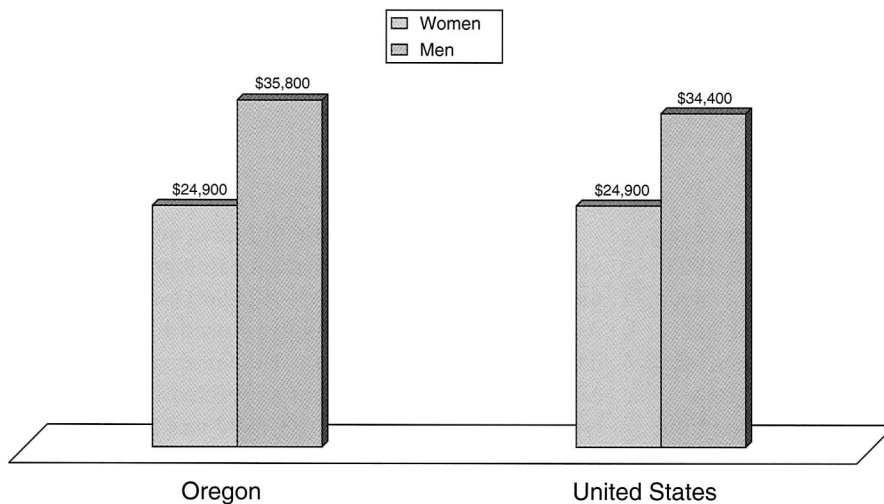
See Appendix I for methodology.

* The national rank is out of a possible 51 including the 50 states and the District of Columbia. The regional rankings are of a maximum of five and refer to the states in the Pacific West Region (AK, CA, HI, OR, WA). See Appendix V.

Source: ^a IWPR, 1998b; ^b U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1997a.

Calculated by the Institute for Women's Policy Research.

Figure 1.
Median Annual Earnings of Women and Men
Employed Full-Time/Year-Round in Oregon
and the United States, 1995 (1997 Dollars)



For women and men aged 16 and older. See Appendix I for methodology.

Source: IWPR, 1998b.

Calculated by the Institute for Women's Policy Research.

created by 15 percent, both after inflation. Further, the share of total income going to low- and middle-income groups also fell during this period while the richest fifth gained in its share of income. The top 20 percent earn 44 percent of the total income in Oregon. Thus, the growth of the past decade has not been equally shared as poverty and inequality are on the rise (Larin and McNichol, 1997).

The Wage Gap

The Wage Gap and Women's Relative Earnings

The ratio of the earnings of women to those of men in the United States for full-time, year-round workers in 1995 was 72.3

Unfortunately, the data set on which these state-level women's earnings estimates are based does not provide enough cases to reliably estimate earnings separately for women of different races and ethnicities. National data show, however, that in 1996, the median annual earnings of African American women were \$21,470 and of Hispanic women were \$18,670, substantially below that of non-Hispanic white women who earn \$24,890. The earnings of Asian American women were the highest of all groups at \$25,560 (median earnings of full-time, year-round women workers aged 15 years and older; U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, 1998c). Earnings data for Native American women are not available between decennial census years, but in 1989, earnings for year-round, full-time workers were only 84 percent of white women's earnings (U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, 1991). In addition, in a 1994-95 national survey by the Census Bureau, data show that the median monthly income of women with disabilities is \$1,400 compared with \$1,750 for women with no disability (data for female full-time workers 21 to 64 years of age; U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, 1995a).

For Oregon's families with children, inequity in the distribution of income between the richest fifth and the poorest fifth is growing. In Oregon, incomes of the poorest fifth fell by 21 percent between the late 1970s and the mid 1990s but the incomes of the richest fifth in-

percent. In other words, women were earning about 72 cents for every dollar earned by their male counterparts. At the same time, women in Oregon were earning 69.6 percent of what men in Oregon were earning. Therefore, compared with the earnings ratio for the nation as whole, Oregon women have slightly less earnings equality with men (see Figure 2). Oregon ranks 35th in the nation just behind Arizona and Kentucky in terms of the earnings ratio between women and men for full-time, year-round workers. The District of Columbia has the highest earnings ratio at 87.5 percent. Compared with the other states in the Pacific West region, Oregon ranks fourth. California ranks first (76.4 percent wage ratio) and Alaska ranks fifth (66.3 percent wage ratio). The wage gap remains large in Oregon and elsewhere in the nation.

Narrowing the Wage Gap

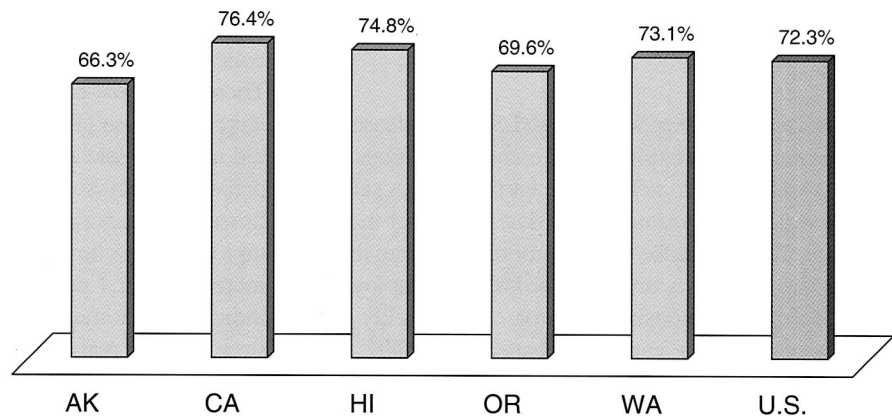
Throughout the 1960s and 1970s, the ratio of women's earnings to men's in the United States remained fairly constant at around 60 percent. During the 1980s, however, women made progress in narrowing the gap between men's earnings and their own. Women increased their educational attainment and their time in the labor market and entered better 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).

Unfortunately, part of the narrowing that did occur was due to a fall in men's real wages. According to research done by the Institute for Women's Policy Research, only about one-third (36 percent) of the narrowing of the national female/male 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. Between 1989 and 1997, almost all of the narrowing of the gap was due to a fall in men's real wages (in constant dollar

Figure 2.
Ratio of Women's to Men's Full-Time/Year-Round Median Annual Earnings in States in the Pacific West Region and the United States, 1995

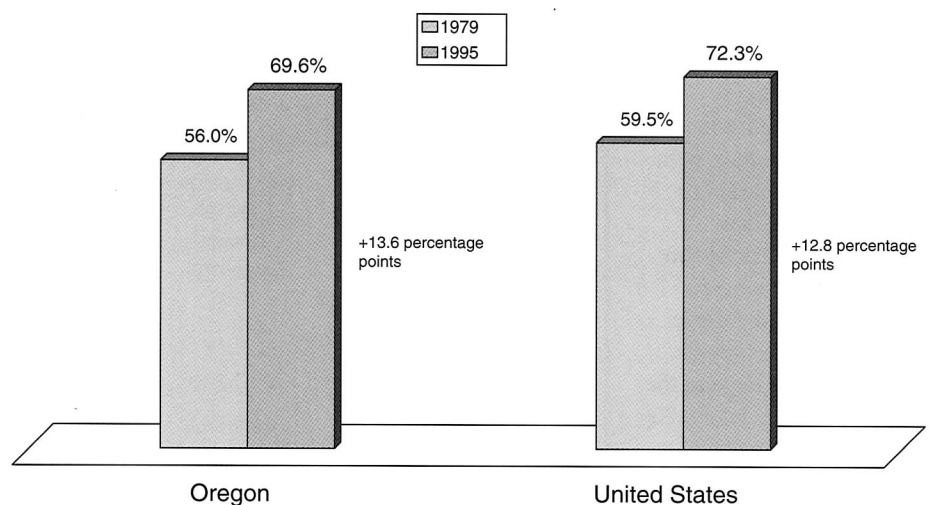


For women and men aged 16 and older. See Appendix I for methodology.

Source: IWPR, 1998b.

Calculated by the Institute for Women's Policy Research.

Figure 3.
Change in the Wage Ratio Between 1979 and 1995 in Oregon and the United States



For women and men aged 16 and older. See Appendix I for methodology.

Source: IWPR, 1995a, 1998b.

Calculated by the Institute for Women's Policy Research.

terms adjusting for inflation; Institute for Women's Policy Research, 1998a).

Oregon slightly outpaced the United States as a whole in increasing women's annual earnings relative to men's between 1979 and 1995 (see Figure 3). In Oregon, the annual earnings ratio increased by 13.6 percentage points compared with an increase of 12.8 percentage points in the United States.

The Bureau of Labor Statistics (BLS) also releases weekly earnings information. Unlike annual earnings data, the weekly data do not include earnings from self-employed workers—approximately five percent of the labor force. Thus, because they are more complete, the annual earnings statistics are used for IWPR's employment and earnings composite indicator. Still, weekly earnings provide an interesting comparison. In 1997, the BLS reports that women in Oregon earned 75.2 percent of men's weekly earnings for full-time work. Women in Oregon ranked considerably better (20th in the nation) on this ratio of female-male median earnings than they ranked on annual earnings (35th). The major difference appears to be that whereas men's yearly earnings were somewhat higher than the national median, their weekly earnings were slightly below the median. This means that women's weekly earnings were being compared with relatively lower men's earnings than in the yearly comparison. According to this weekly data series (Council of Economic Advisors, 1998), the District of Columbia ranked first in the ratio of women's to men's weekly earnings at 97.1 percent.

Earnings and Earnings Ratios by Educational Levels

Between 1979 and 1995, women in Oregon experienced quite different changes in earnings depending on their educational levels. Women with a high school diploma or less saw their median annual earnings decline in real terms while women who had attended college saw increases, the largest going to women beyond the bachelor's degree level. As Table 5 shows, changes ranged from a 26 percent decrease (in constant dollars) for women who had not completed high school to a 19.4 percent increase for those with post-college education.

The increase in women's relative earnings (as measured by the female/male earnings ratio) was also much higher for the post-college group (87.9 percent) compared with 73.8 percent for college graduates and 62.3-66.2 percent for all other groups.

Women's relative earnings increased for all groups. At all educational levels, except for those with some college, the increases were within the 10-15 percent range. Those with post-college education again showed the largest increase (14.7 percent) while those who started but did not complete college showed an increase of only 6.4 percent. What is striking about the data in Table 5, however, is that those women with less than a high school diploma—despite enormous earnings losses—saw an increase of 12.1 percent in the earnings ratio with men, indicating that men's earnings at the educational level fell even more in real terms.

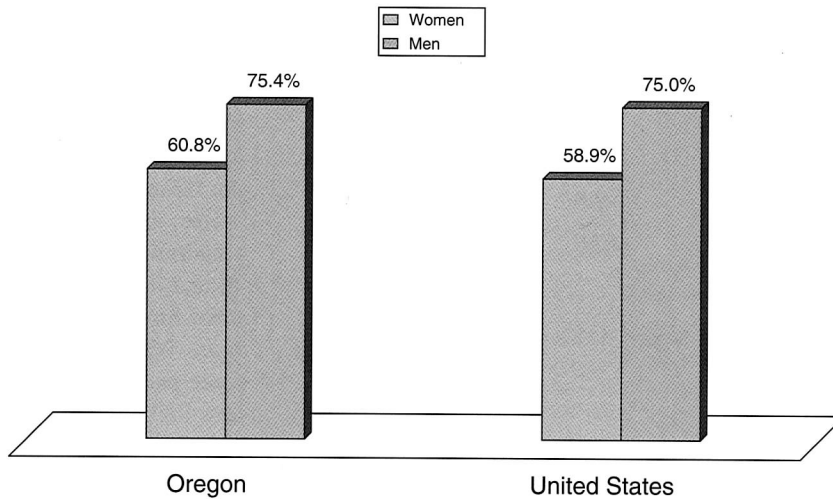
The low and falling earnings of women with less education make it especially important that all women have the opportunity to increase their education. For example, many welfare recipients lack a high school diploma or education beyond high school yet in many cases they are being encouraged or required to leave the welfare rolls in favor of employment. These single mothers may be consigned to a lifetime of low earnings if they are not allowed the opportunity to complete high school and acquire a few years of education beyond high school (Institute for Women's Policy Research, 1997). As Table 5 shows, women with some college and who have completed college or have postgraduate training have much higher earnings than those without and their earnings have generally been growing.

Table 5.
Women's Earnings and the Earnings Ratio in Oregon
by Educational Attainment, 1979 and 1995 (1997 Dollars)

Educational Attainment	Women's Median Annual Earnings, 1995^a	Percent Growth in Real Earnings, 1979^b and 1995^a	Female/Male Earnings Ratio, 1995^a	Percent Change in Earnings Ratio, 1979^b and 1995^a
Less than 12th Grade	\$15,797	-26.0	62.3%	+12.1
High School Only	\$20,448	-8.2	66.2%	+11.2
Some College	\$25,721	+9.7	64.1%	+6.4
College	\$30,541	+7.9	73.8%	+12.7
College Plus	\$41,154	+19.4	87.9%	+14.7

For women and men working full-time year-round.
Source: ^a IWPR, 1998b; ^b IWPR, 1995a.
Calculated by the Institute for Women's Policy Research.

Figure 4.
Percent of Women and Men in the Labor Force
in Oregon and the United States, 1995



For women and men in the civilian non-institutional population, aged 16 and older.

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1997a, Table 12.

Compiled by the Institute for Women's Policy Research.

in the United States. Men's labor force participation rate in Oregon was also slightly higher than the rate for men in the United States as a whole (see Figure 4).

Unemployment and Personal Income Per Capita

In Oregon, a smaller percentage of workers is unemployed than in the nation as a whole. In 1995, the unemployment rate for women in Oregon was 4.4 percent compared with the nation's 5.6 percent female unemployment rate (see Figure 5). Oregon's unemployment rate for men was also slightly below the national average.

Labor Force Participation

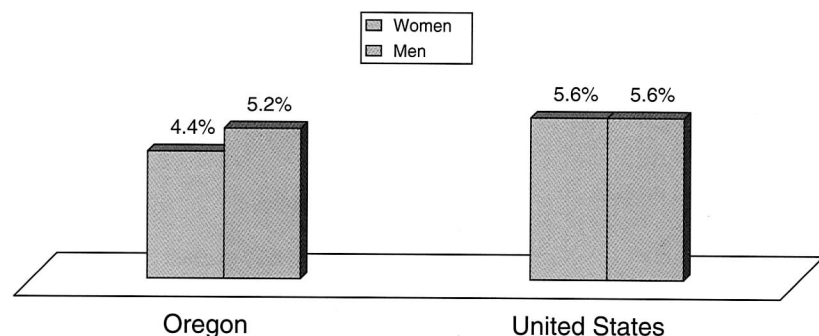
One of the most notable changes in the U.S. economy over the past several decades has been the rapid rise in women's participation in the labor force. Between 1965 and 1997, women's labor force participation (the proportion of the civilian, non-institutional population aged 16 and older employed or looking for work) increased from 39 to 59 percent (U.S.

Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1997a). 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).

In 1995, 60.8 percent of women in Oregon were in the labor force compared with 58.9 percent of women

While Oregon experienced lower than average unemployment rates in 1995, during the 1980s, Oregon's unemployment rates were above the national average (*Statistical Abstract of the United States: 1985*; U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, 1984). Personal income per capita in Oregon also grew more slowly in the 1980s than it did for the nation as a whole (9.6 percent versus 16.9 percent; see Table 6). However, personal income per capita grew at a rate of 7.7

Figure 5.
Unemployment Rates for Women and Men
in Oregon and the United States, 1995



For women and men in the civilian non-institutional population aged 16 and older.

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1997a.

Compiled by the Institute for Women's Policy Research.

percent and 68.5 percent full-time, respectively).

	\$23,188	\$24,787
Between 1990 and 1996	+7.7	+5.2
Between 1980 and 1990	+9.6	+16.9
Between 1980 and 1996	+16.5	+21.2

* In constant dollars.

Source: U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, 1997e, Table 706.

In 1995, women in Oregon were slightly more likely to participate in the labor force than women in the United States as a whole; in 1995, over six of ten women in Oregon aged 16 and over were in the labor force regardless of race. White women's labor force participation closely mirrored the total workforce and is again

percent from 1990 to 1996, 2.5 percentage points faster than the growth of the nation. Low unemployment and high growth in personal income per capita are two indicators of a strong economy.

higher than in the United States (61.0 percent compared with 59.0 percent; see Table 8). African American women historically have had a higher labor force participation rate than white and Hispanic women and did so in 1995 in the United States as a whole. Hispanic women traditionally have the lowest average participation rate among women; in the United States only 52.6 percent of Hispanic women were in the labor force in 1995. Data for Asian American

Along with lower levels of unemployment in Oregon, the percentage of women in the labor force who are "involuntary" part-time employees—that is, they would prefer full-time work were it available—is slightly lower in Oregon than in the United States (2.7 percent and 3.0 percent, respectively; see Table 7).¹ This finding fits with other research showing involuntary part-time work to be highly correlated with unemployment rates (Blank, 1990). However, compared with the United States as a whole, a considerably larger proportion of the female labor force in Oregon work part-time voluntarily, and because most part-time employment is voluntary, a greater percentage of the female labor force in Oregon works part-time and a smaller percentage works full-time compared with the national average (64.4

	751,000	899,000	60,944,000	71,360,000
Percent Employed Full-Time	64.4	84.3	68.5	84.0
Percent Employed Part-Time*	31.2	10.5	25.9	10.4
Percent Voluntary Part-Time	26.5	8.2	21.0	7.9
Percent Involuntary Part-Time	2.7	1.6	3.0	2.0
Percent Unemployed	4.4	5.2	5.6	5.6

For men and women aged 16 and older.

* Percent part-time includes workers normally employed part-time who were temporarily absent from work the week of the survey. Those who were absent that week are not included in the numbers for voluntary and involuntary part-time. Thus, these two categories do not add to the total percent working part-time.

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1997a, Tables 12 and 13.

Table 8.
Labor Force Participation of Women in Oregon
and the United States by Race/Ethnicity, 1995

Race/Ethnicity	Oregon		United States	
	Number of Women in Labor Force	Percent in Labor Force	Number of Women in Labor Force	Percent in Labor Force
All Races	751,000	60.8	60,944,000	58.9
White*	715,000	61.0	50,804,000	59.0
African American*	N/A	N/A	7,634,000	59.5
Hispanic†	N/A	N/A	4,891,000	52.6
Asian American/ Other**	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A

For women aged 16 and older.

* Non-Hispanic.

† Hispanics may be of any race.

** Data are unavailable for 1995; however, in 1990, Asian American women had the highest participation rate (60.2 percent) of women in the United States (Population Reference Bureau, 1993).

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1997a, Table 12.

Compiled by the Institute for Women's Policy Research.

labor force participation generally occurring between the ages of 25 and 44, also generally considered the prime earning years. Table 9 shows the changing relationship between labor force participation and age for women. Women in Oregon generally have higher labor force participation in all age groups than their U.S. counterparts. For the United States as a whole, the highest labor force participation of women occurs between the ages of 35 and 44 with 77.2 percent of women in this age group working. In Oregon, however, the highest level of labor force participation occurs between the ages of 45 and 54, with 78.0 percent in the labor force.

women were not available for 1995; however, in 1990, Asian American women had the highest participation rate, 60.2 percent, in the United States. The national labor force participation rate for Native American women was 55.4 percent in 1990 (Population Reference Bureau, 1993). Because of small sample sizes, data for minority women could not be calculated for Oregon in 1995 using IWPR's merged CPS data. However, data from the 1990 Census show that women of color in Oregon had relatively high rates of participation in the labor force. While 56 percent of white women worked in 1990, about 60 percent of women in all other groups worked (Hallock, Morgen and Seidel, 1993).

Labor Force Participation of Women by Age

Labor force participation varies over the life cycle, with the highest

25-34 and 35-44 are close behind with just over 77 percent each (comparable to or higher than the U.S. rates). Young women in their teens (16-19) are much less likely to participate in the labor market than any other age group except the pre-retirement and retired cohorts. In Oregon,

Women in the age cohorts

Table 9.
Labor Force Participation of Women in Oregon
and the United States by Age, 1995

Age Groups	Oregon		United States	
	Number of Women in Labor Force	Percent in Labor Force	Number of Women in Labor Force	Percent in Labor Force
All Ages	751,000	60.8	60,944,000	58.9
Ages 16-19	46,000	58.0	3,729,000	52.2
Ages 20-24	79,000	72.9	6,349,000	70.3
Ages 25-34	180,000	77.5	15,528,000	74.9
Ages 35-44	198,000	77.2	16,562,000	77.2
Ages 45-54	163,000	78.0	11,801,000	74.4
Ages 55-64	67,000	54.9	5,356,000	48.2
Over 65	N/A	N/A	1,618,000	8.8

For women aged 16 and older.

Source: IWPR, 1998b

Calculated by the Institute for Women's Policy Research.

58.0 percent of teenage women reported being in the labor force, considerably higher than the reported 52.2 percent of female teens in United States. As women near retirement age, they are much less likely to work than younger women. This is reflected in the participation rates of women aged 55 to 64 where in Oregon 54.9 percent (and in the United States 48.2 percent) of these women reported being in the labor force. (Data for women aged 65 and older are not available for Oregon, but for the United States as a whole, fewer than nine percent are working or looking for work.)

Labor Force Participation of Women with Children

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 the 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 includes all women aged 16 and older; thus, both teenagers and retirement age women are included. Mothers with small children, on the other hand, tend to be in the age groups with higher labor force participation. This is also true in Oregon with 68.4 percent of women with children under age 18 in the labor force compared with 60.8 percent of all women in Oregon. However, women with children under the age of six are slightly less likely to engage in labor market activity than are mothers of young children in the United States as a whole (see Table 10) perhaps because of greater difficulties of finding suitable child care. The workforce patterns of mothers with children in Oregon are similar among different racial and ethnic groups. For most groups, about 60 percent of women with children under six are in the labor force. Among mothers with children between six and 17 years of age, over three quarters of women are in the labor force (Hallock, Morgen and Seidel, 1993).

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 solutions. These include doing shift work to allow both parents to provide the care, having the

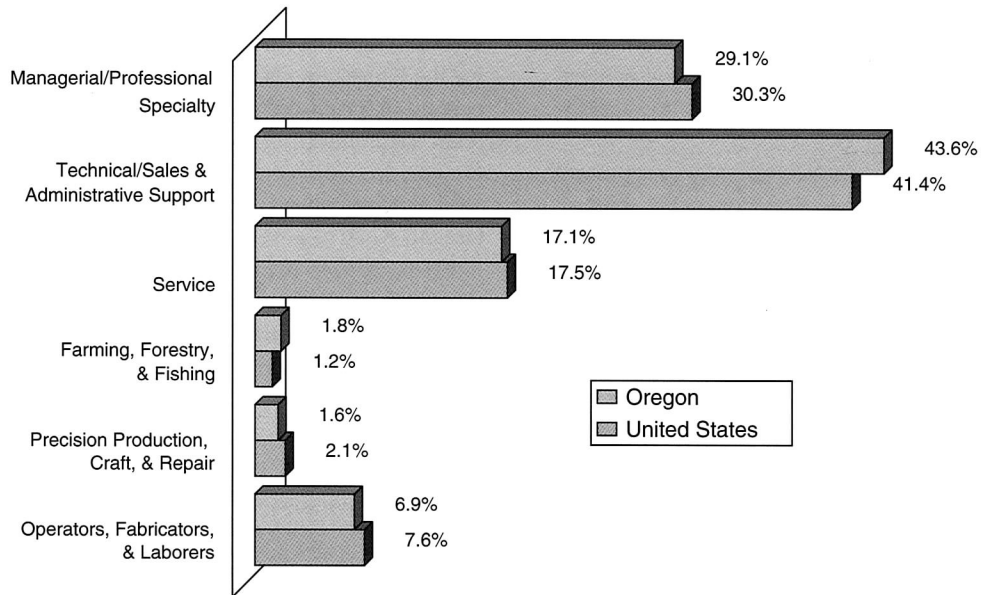
child accompany the parent to work, working at home, using another family member (usually a sibling or grandparent) to provide care, using a babysitter in one's own home or in the babysitter's home, using a group child care center or leaving the child unattended (U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, 1996e). As full-time work among women has grown, so has the use of formal child care centers. 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 (Institute for Women's Policy Research, 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.

Occupation and Industry

The distribution of women in Oregon across occupations generally mirrors the distribution found the United States. In both cases, technical, sales and administrative support occupations provide over 40 percent of all jobs held by women (see Figure 6a). Women workers in Oregon are more likely to be in technical, sales and administrative support occupations than the United States as a whole (43.6 percent and 41.4 percent, respectively). Except for the small group of women employed in farming, forestry and fishing, women in Oregon have

	Oregon Percent in Labor Force	United States Percent in Labor Force
Women with Children		
Under Age 18*	68.4	67.3
Under Age Six*	60.5	61.5
<i>For women aged 16 and older.</i>		
<i>* Children under age 6 are also included in children under 18.</i>		
<i>Source: IWPR, 1998b.</i>		
<i>Calculated by the Institute for Women's Policy Research.</i>		

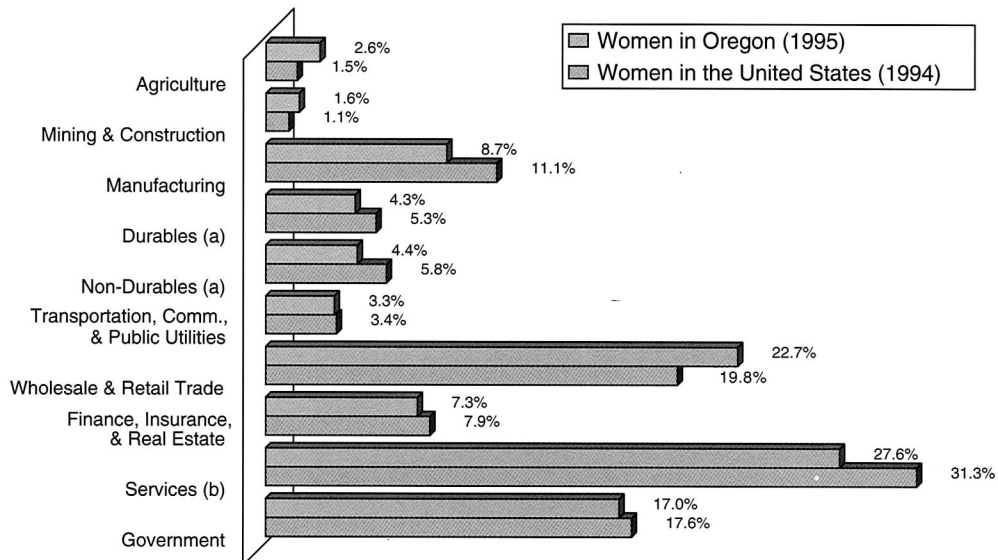
Figure 6a.
Distribution of Women Across Occupations
in Oregon and the United States, 1995



For employed women aged 16 and older.

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1997a, Table 15.

Figure 6b.
Distribution of Women Across Industries
in Oregon and the United States



For employed women aged 16 and older.

Percentages do not add up to 100 percent because 'self-employed' and 'unpaid family workers' are excluded.

(a) Durables and non-durables are included in manufacturing.

(b) Private household workers are included in services.

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1997a, Table 17; 1995b, Table 17.

Compiled by the Institute for Women's Policy Research.

Compiled by the Institute for Women's Policy Research.

slightly smaller percentages employed in other occupational categories including managerial and professional occupations (for these occupations, women constitute 29.1 percent of workers in Oregon versus 30.3 percent in the United States). Oregon ranks 20th of the 50 states and the District of Columbia for the proportion of its female labor force employed in professional and managerial occupations and fourth of five states in the Pacific West region.

Unfortunately, despite the slightly higher representation of women in the higher wage occupations, such as managers, women in Oregon still earn substantially less than men in these occupations. For example, in 1995, for the United States as a whole, Bureau of Labor Statistics data show that weekly earnings for women managers were only 68.4 percent of the earnings of men managers, well below the average female/male earnings ratio for all occupations. An IWPR (1995b) study also shows that women managers are unlikely to be among the top earners. Only one percent of women managers had earnings that placed them in the top ten percent of all managers by earnings (had women had equal access to top earning jobs, ten percent of them would have earned in the top ten percent); only six percent had earnings that placed them in the top fifth. A Catalyst (1996) study shows that only 1.9 percent (just 47) of the 2500 highest earning high level executives in the Fortune 500 companies were women.

The distribution of women in Oregon across industries diverges more from the United States as a whole than the occupational distribution does (see Figure 6b). In Oregon, somewhat fewer women work in the service industries (including business, professional and personnel services), about 27.6 percent, as opposed to 31.3 percent for the United States as a whole. In the United States, 19.8 percent of employed women work in the wholesale and retail trade industries while 22.7 percent of women in Oregon do. Almost 18 percent of the nation's women work in government, and 17 percent of the women in Oregon work in government. Oregon women are less likely to work in the manufacturing industries and also slightly less likely to work in the finance, insurance and real estate industry than women in the United States as a whole.

1 Workers are considered involuntary part-time workers if they responded when interviewed that their reason for working part-time (fewer than 35 hours per week) was slack work (usually reduced hours at one's normally full-time job), unfavorable business conditions, reduced seasonal demand or inability to find full-time work. Reasons for part-time work such as lack of child care are not considered involuntary by the U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics (1997b), since workers must indicate they are available for full-time work to be considered involuntarily employed part-time. This definition therefore likely understates the extent to which women would prefer to work full-time.

Economic Autonomy

This section highlights the issues that allow women to act independently, exercise choice and control their lives. It excludes labor force participation and earnings since these are measured in the previous section and clearly merit separate analysis.

Health insurance coverage, educational attainment, women's business ownership and women living above poverty were selected to measure economic autonomy. 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.

Oregon ranks somewhat above the middle of the states in health insurance, educational attainment and women above poverty but its higher ranking in women's business ownership brings the composite economic

autonomy index up to 14th among the states, in the top third of all states (see Chart V).

Access to Health Insurance

Women in Oregon are somewhat more likely than women in the nation as a whole to have health insurance. In Oregon, 11.8 percent of women, compared with 13.8 percent in the United States, are uninsured (see Table 11). Among all the states, Oregon ranks just above the middle (22nd) in percent with health insurance. On average, women and men in Oregon rely on employer-based health insurance slightly more than women and men in the United States as a whole (69 percent and 66 percent, respectively, for women; 68 percent and 66 percent, respectively, for men).

Many Oregonians with lower incomes are eligible for the Oregon Health Plan, which provides basic insurance coverage to a wider range of low-income people than is available in most states. Almost everyone whose income is below 100 percent of the federal poverty line is eligible for basic health coverage. Also covered are children six and under and pregnant mothers with incomes up to 170 percent of the poverty line. Under a newer part of the program, 17,000 additional children up to age 19 have coverage. A second new program called the Family

**Chart V.
Economic Autonomy: National and Regional Ranks**

Indicators	National Rank* (of 51)	Regional Rank* (of 5)
Composite Economic Autonomy Index	14	4
• Percent with Health Insurance (among nonelderly women, 1994-95) ^a	22	3
• Educational Attainment (percent of women aged 25 and older with four or more years of college, 1990) ^b	19	5
• Women's Business Ownership (percent of all firms owned by women, 1992) ^c	8	2
• Percent of Women Above Poverty (percent of women living above the poverty threshold, 1995) ^d	19	3

See Appendix I for methodology.

* The national rank is of a possible 51 including the 50 states and the District of Columbia. The regional rankings are of a maximum of five and refer to the states in the Pacific West Region (AK, CA, HI, OR, WA). See Appendix V.

Source: ^a Liska et al., 1998; ^b Population Reference Bureau, 1993; ^c U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, 1996a; ^d IWPR, 1998b.

Calculated by the Institute for Women's Policy Research

Health Insurance Assistance Program provides subsidies to purchase private health insurance (Oregon Department of Human Resources, Office of Medical Assistance Programs, 1998).

Education

In the United States, women have made steady progress toward achieving higher levels of education. Between 1980 and 1990, the percentage of women in the United States with a high school education or more increased by about one-fifth with comparable percentages of men and women having completed high school (81.0 percent of men versus 80.5 percent of women in 1990). During the 1980s, the percentage of women with four or more years of college increased by 44 percent, from 13 percent to 18 percent, compared with 24 percent of men in 1990, bringing women closer to closing the education gap (U.S. Depart-

ment of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, 1998a and 1998d).

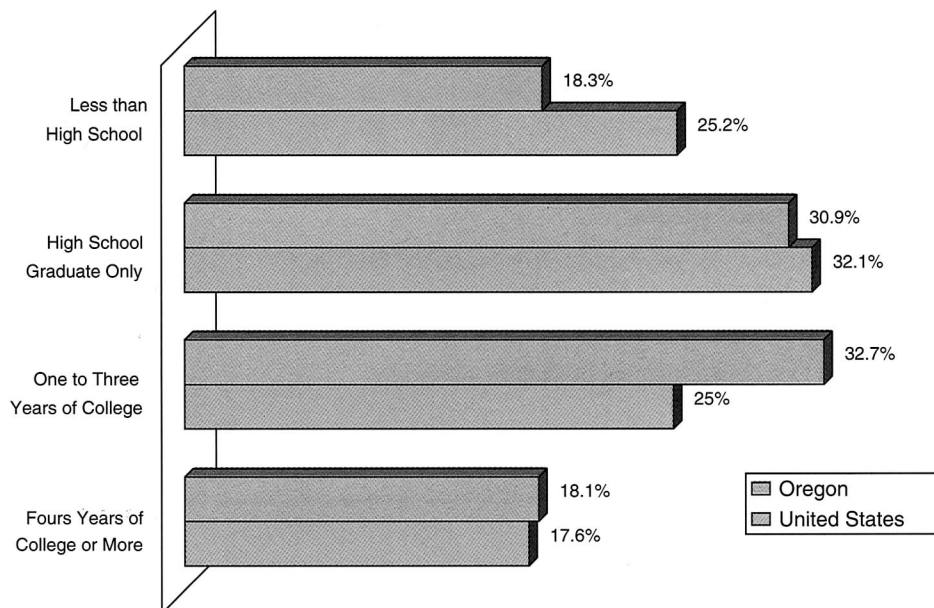
In general, women in Oregon tend to have slightly more college experience than women in the nation. In Oregon, 50.8 percent of women have more than a high school education compared with 42.6 percent of women in

Table 11.
Percent of Women and Men without Health Insurance and with Different Sources of Health Insurance in Oregon and the United States, 1994-95

	Oregon		United States	
	Women	Men	Women	Men
Number	1,406,000	1,419,000	114,857,000	113,867,000
Percent Uninsured	11.8	15.6	13.8	17.2
Percent with Employer-Based Health Insurance	69.4	68.2	66.0	66.2
Percent with Other Coverage	18.8	16.3	20.2	16.6

Women and men below age 65 (including those under 18).
Source: Liska et al., 1998.
Compiled by the Institute for Women's Policy Research.

Figure 7.
Educational Attainment of Women Aged 25 and older in Oregon and the United States, 1990



Source: Population Reference Bureau, 1993.

Compiled by the Institute for Women's Policy Research.

Table 12.
Women-Owned Firms in Oregon and the United States, 1992

	Oregon	United States
Number of Women-Owned Firms*	87,970	5,888,883
Percent of All Firms that Are Women-Owned	36.8%	34.1%
Percent Increase, 1987-92	49.3%	43.1%
Total Sales & Receipts (in billions, 1992 dollars)	\$9.3	\$642.5
Percent Increase (in constant dollars), 1987-92	76.5%	87.0%
Number Employed by Women-Owned Firms	90,623	6,252,029

* For reasons of comparability between 1987 and 1992, these statistics do not include data on type C corporations; see Appendix I.

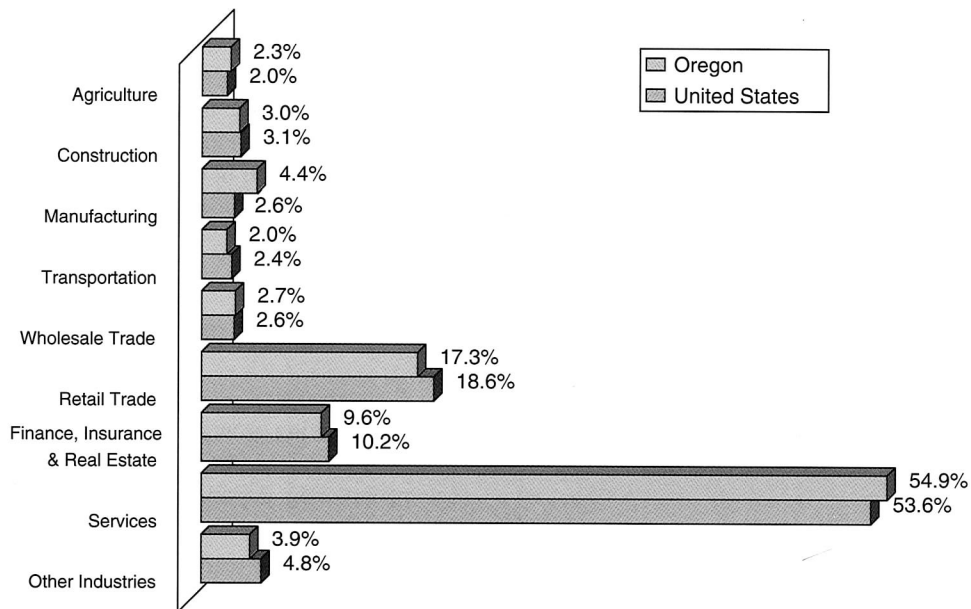
Source: U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, 1996a.

Compiled by the Institute for Women's Policy Research.

the United States as a whole (see Figure 7). Nearly one-third of all Oregon women have one to three years of college—almost eight percentage points above the national average—while the percentage of women with four or more years of college, 18.1 percent, is only about one-half of a percentage point higher than the national average (see Figure 7). The proportion of women over 25 in Oregon without high school diplomas is correspond-

ingly smaller than that of women in the United States as a whole (18.3 percent and 25.2 percent, respectively). In Oregon, educational attainment varies among women of different racial and ethnic groups. In 1990, the proportion of women without high school degrees was smallest for white women (18 percent) and highest among Hispanic women (39 percent). Among Native Americans, Asian and Pacific Islanders and African Americans, about 25 percent of women had less than a high school degree. Further, Asian and Pacific Islander women had the highest educational attainment with 29 percent earning college or advanced degrees compared to 18 percent for white women and 13 percent for African Americans. Fewer Hispanic women (10 percent) and Native American women (eight percent) had college or advanced degrees as of 1990 (Hallock, Morgen and Seidel, 1993).

Figure 8.
Distribution of Women-Owned Firms Across Industries in Oregon and the United States, 1992



Source: U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, 1996a.

Compiled by the Institute for Women's Policy Research.

Women Business Owners and Self-Employment

Between 1987 and 1992, the number of women-owned businesses grew 49.3 percent in Oregon, slightly higher than the growth of women-owned businesses in the United States as a whole (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 87,970 firms in Oregon (see Table 12). Fifty-five percent of women-owned firms in Oregon were in the service industries and the next highest proportion (17 percent) was in retail trade (see Figure 8). The business receipts of women-owned businesses in Oregon increased by 76.5 percent (in constant dollars) between 1987 and 1992. This growth is somewhat less than the increase of 87.0 percent in business receipts for women-owned firms nationwide during this time period (also adjusted for inflation).

In 1992, the U.S. Bureau of the Census reported that women owned nearly 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; U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, 1996a). Projecting 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 firms for Oregon to be 121,000 out of eight million women-owned firms in the United States (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 by 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 woman worker. 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).

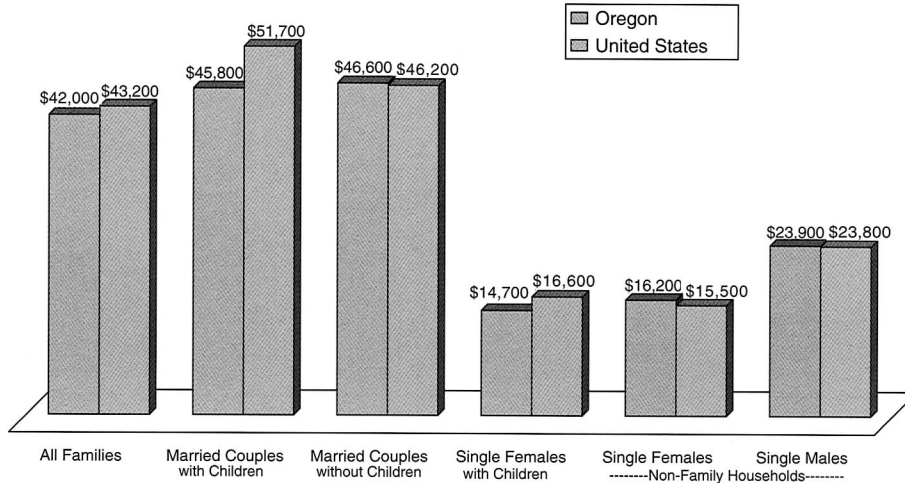
Many low-income women package earnings from many sources in an effort to raise their family incomes (Spalter-Roth and Hartmann, 1993). Some self-employed workers are independent contractors; independent contracting is often viewed as a form of contingent work — temporary or on-call work that does not 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) which wage and salaried workers 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 twelve, 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 with wage and salary work explains most of the upward trend in self-employment by 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). Women in Oregon are more likely to be self-employed than women in the United States. In 1994, eleven percent of employed women in Oregon were self-employed compared with 6.1 percent of women in the United States (data not shown).

Women's Economic Security and 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 may 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-headed households was \$16,600 while that for married couples with children was \$51,700 (see Figure 9). Figure 9 also shows that those families without children, both married couples and single individuals, had median incomes slightly higher than

Figure 9.
Median Annual Income for Selected Family Types
and Single Women and Men
in Oregon and the United States, 1995



Source: IWPR, 1998b.

Calculated by the Institute for Women's Policy Research.

6.3 percent and 7.3 percent for Gilliam and Morrow counties respectively to highs of 21.6 percent and 19.2 percent in Malheur and Josephine counties (Oregon Department of Employment, 1998).

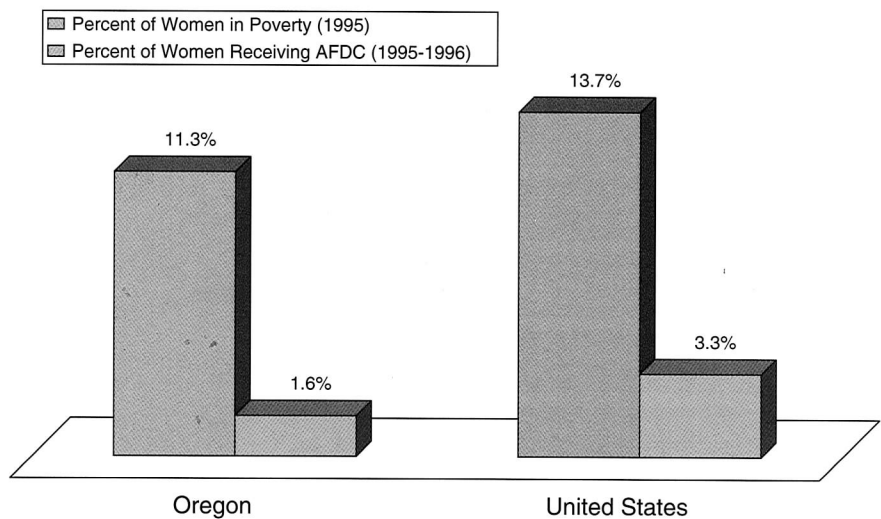
It is disturbing to note that the age group with the highest poverty rates in Oregon are children aged 0-17. Just over 16 percent of children lived below the poverty line in 1989 compared to 13 percent for aged 18-64 and just under 13 percent for people over 65 (Hallock, Morgen and Seidel, 1993). Poverty rates for different age groups vary dramatically by race and ethnicity. African Americans have the highest poverty rate

national medians. Significantly, median family income was slightly lower for both family types with children in Oregon than in the United States as a whole.

for girls (age 0-17) at 32 percent while for Native Americans and Hispanics, the rate is 29 percent. In comparison, the poverty rates for white and Asian and

In 1995, the proportion of women in poverty in Oregon was somewhat smaller than that of women in the United States, 11.3 percent and 13.7 percent, respectively (see Figure 10). Thus, Oregon ranked 19th in the nation for women above poverty and third of five states in its region (see Chart V). The 1996 Oregon Population survey found poverty rates by race/ethnicity to be eleven percent for whites, 18 percent for Asian Americans, 21 percent for Native Americans, 26 percent for African Americans and 27 percent for Hispanics (Oregon Department of Employment, 1996). In addition, poverty rates in Oregon vary greatly by county. In 1993, poverty rates ranged from lows of

Figure 10.
Percent of Women in Poverty and Percent Receiving AFDC
Aged 18 and Older in Oregon and the United States



Source: ^a IWPR 1998b; ^b U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, 1997, U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, 1997b.

Calculated by the Institute for Women's Policy Research.

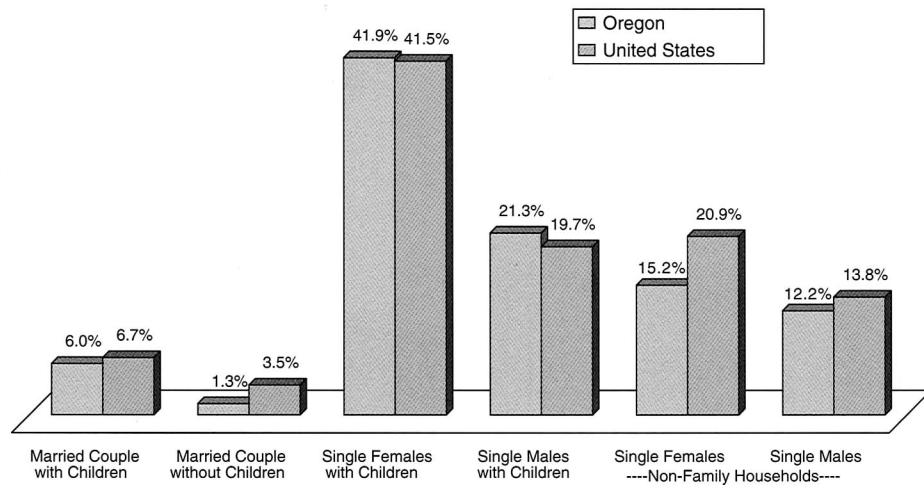
Pacific Islander girls are 13 percent and 19 percent respectively. The highest poverty rate for adult women between ages 18 and 64 occurs for African American women (27 percent) and Native American women at 29 percent (Hallock, Morgen and Seidel, 1993).

Figure 10 also shows the proportion of adult women receiving AFDC (the form of welfare in place in 1996) for Oregon and the nation as a measure of how effective the state and national safety nets for poor women are. 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 the Census, 1997d). The proportion of women receiving AFDC in Oregon is substantially less than the proportion of women receiving AFDC in the United States. Despite a lower overall rate of female poverty, the poverty rate for single mothers is 41.9 percent in Oregon, slightly above the nationwide rate of 41.5 percent and much higher than for any other family type (see Figure 11). Oregon's low AFDC participation rate is therefore especially problematic.

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

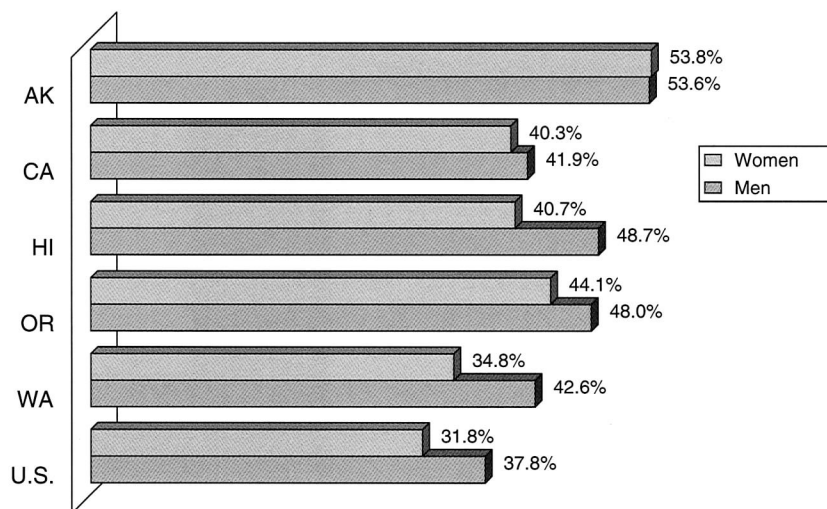
Figure 11.
Poverty Rates for Selected Family Types and Single Men and Women in Oregon and the United States, 1995



Source: IWPR, 1998b.

Calculated by the Institute for Women's Policy Research.

Figure 12.
Percent of Unemployed Women and Men with Unemployment Insurance in the Pacific West Region and the United States, 1996



Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Employment and Training Administration, Unemployment Insurance Service, 1997.

Compiled by the Institute for Women's Policy Research.

were developed) would increase the calculated poverty rates both in Oregon and the nation (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).

Oregon does a better than average job of providing a safety net for employed women. The unemployment rate for women in Oregon (4.4 percent) is less than the national average (5.6 percent; see Table 7). Unemployment is relatively low, and the percent of unemployed women receiving unemployment insurance benefits in Oregon is much higher than the United States as a whole—44.1 percent of unemployed women in Oregon received benefits in 1996 compared with only about 31.8 percent nationally (see Figure 12). In the Pacific West, Oregon was second only to Alaska in the percentage of unemployed women receiving unemployment insurance. Men in Oregon were more likely to be unemployed than women (see Table 7). However, as in most states of the Pacific West and the United States as a whole, men were more likely to receive unemployment insurance when unemployed; only in Alaska among the Pacific West states did women receive unemployment insurance at the same rate as men.

Reproductive Rights

This section includes information on legislation relating to access to legal abortion, public funding for abortion, public funding for the treatment of infertility, the position of the governor and state legislature on reproductive choice, bills that would require health insurers to cover contraception and the right of gay and lesbian couple to adopt children 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 United Nations Fourth 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 (United Nations 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 the state. The stances of the Governor 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. Bills 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 shows that Oregon ranks second in its region and fifth in the nation,

indicating that Oregon has many protections for women's reproductive rights; some kinds of protection, however, are still inadequate. As in many states, issues related to reproductive rights continue to be the subject of controversy and political attack.

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 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. As of January 1998, Oregon is one of eleven states that have no mandatory parental consent laws (NARAL and NARAL Foundation, 1998).

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. Oregon is one of the 31 states without a mandatory waiting period as of January 1998 (NARAL and NARAL Foundation, 1998).

In some states, public funding for abortions is available only under limited health circumstances or when mandated by federal law: when the pregnancy results from reported rape or incest or when the pregnancy threatens the life of the woman. Fifteen states fund abortions in all or most circumstances. Oregon is one of 15 states funding abortions in all or most circumstances. Another five states provide public funding for abortions in special cases (NARAL and NARAL Foundation, 1998).

Chart VI. Panel A
Reproductive Rights: National and Regional Ranks

	National Rank* (of 51)	Regional Rank* (of 5)
Composite Reproductive Rights Index	5	2

See Appendix I for methodology.

* The national rank is of a possible 51 including the 50 states and the District of Columbia. The regional rankings are of a maximum of five and refer to the states in the Pacific West Region (AK, CA, HI, OR, WA). See Appendix V.

Calculated by the Institute for Women's Policy Research.

Chart VI. Panel B Components of the Reproductive Rights Composite Index

	Yes	No
• Does Oregon allow access to abortion services without mandatory parental consent laws for minors? ^a	✓	
• Does Oregon allow access to abortion services without a waiting period? ^a	✓	
• Does Oregon provide public funding for abortions under any circumstances if a woman is eligible? ^a	✓	
• What percent of counties in Oregon have abortion providers? ^b	25.0%	
• Is Oregon's state government pro-choice? ^a		
Governor	✓	
Senate		✓
Assembly		✓
• Does public funding cover infertility treatments? ^c	✓	
• Does Oregon require health insurers to provide coverage for contraceptives? ^d		✓
• Does Oregon allow the non-biological parent in a gay/lesbian couple to adopt his/her partner's biological child? ^e	✓	Lower Court Ruling

Source: ^a NARAL Foundation, 1997, 1998; ^b Henshaw and Van Vort, 1994; ^c King and Meyer, 1996; ^d Planned Parenthood, 1998; ^e National Center for Lesbian Rights, 1998.

Compiled by the Institute for Women's Policy Research.

The percentage of counties with abortion providers includes all counties that have at least one abortion provider as of 1992. This proportion ranges from two to 100 percent across the states. At 25 percent, Oregon's proportion of counties falls in the upper half for its percentage of counties with at least one abortion provider (Henshaw and Van Vort, 1994).

About 49 percent of traditional health plans do not cover any reversible method of contraception, such as the pill or IUD. Others will pay for one or two types, but not all five types of prescription methods—the pill, implants and injectables, IUD and diaphragms. About 38 percent of HMOs cover all five prescription methods (Gold and Daley, 1994). The controversy is leading lawmakers in 19 states to introduce bills that would require health insurers to cover contraception; Oregon is not one of these states (Planned Parenthood, 1998). Maryland recently became the first state to pass a bill requiring contraception coverage. Six states, not including Oregon, have provisions that require 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 as of July 1998.

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. In Oregon, the Governor is pro-choice while the majority of members of the State Senate and State House of Representatives are not.

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. Oregon does provide publicly funded infertility treatments (King and Meyer, 1996).

Second parent adoption allows the non-biological parent in a gay or lesbian couple to adopt the biological child of his or her partner. In many states, courts or legislatures have supported or limited the right to second parent adoption. As of April 1998, lower courts have 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. In Oregon, a lower court has approved second parent adoption petitions (National Center for Lesbian Rights, 1998).

Health and Vital Statistics

This section focuses on the quality of health of the population in Oregon. Topics include fertility and infant health, the consumption of preventive health services, environmental and cancer risks, and Health Maintenance Organization (HMO) enrollment. 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 greater 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 from more 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). Women experience depression at about twice the rate that men do. Average life expectancy in the United States in 1996 was 79 years for women and 73 years for men. The median age for women at the time of their first marriage was 23.8 years (Centers for Disease Control and Prevention, 1997a; U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, 1998b).

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. The Institute for Women's Policy Research has found that about twelve million women of working age lack health insurance of any kind (Yoon et al., 1994). Women in Oregon are somewhat more likely to have insurance than women nationally and more likely than women nationally to have access through their employment (see Table 11).

Fertility and infant mortality rates in Oregon are considerably lower than in the United States as a whole

(Table 13 shows 62.2 live births per 1,000 women in Oregon and 65.6 births per 1,000 women in the United States and 6.1 infant deaths per 1,000 births in Oregon and 7.6 infant deaths per 1,000 in the United States). The percentage of white infants with low birth weights is lower in Oregon than in the United States (5.4 and 6.2 respectively). In general in the United States, African American infants have much higher death rates than white infants, and that is also the case in Oregon. The variances in infant mortality and low birth weight rates between racial and ethnic groups is likely due to socioeconomic differences between white and African American families, which can lead to less access to resources like adequate prenatal care. However, the low birth weight rate for African American babies is lower in Oregon than in the United States as a whole (10.3 percent versus 13.1 percent). This relatively low percentage of low birth weight infants may indicate that African American women in Oregon have better access to prenatal care than African American women nationally. Births to teenage mothers in Oregon occurred at a slightly lower rate than in the United States; unmarried mothers in Oregon also experienced lower birth rates than the United States.

Oregon also performs well concerning some preventive health care measures. Of women over age 40, 85.9 percent have had a mammogram, higher than the percentage for women in the United States. Of women over age 18, 95.5 percent have had a pap test, higher than for women in the United States. Other preventive health measures are mixed; Oregon women have similar rates of blood pressure and cholesterol screenings but a much higher rate of proctoscopies than women in the nation. Surprisingly, only 67 percent of all young children in Oregon have been vaccinated compared with 75 percent nationwide. Oregon does not have a mastectomy stay law.

Measures of environmental and cancer risks are important when assessing the overall health of women in the states. In Oregon, the percentage of women 45 to 54 years old who smoke is slightly less than the national average (20.3 percent and 21.6 percent respectively). Likewise, rates of breast, cervical, uterine and ovarian cancer in Oregon are fairly close to rates in the United States as a whole.

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). This major trend requires monitoring to ascertain how well the new arrangements meet women's health care needs. In

**Table 13.
Health and Vital Statistics for Oregon and the United States, 1996**

	Oregon	United States
Fertility and Infant Health		
• Fertility Rate in 1995 (live births per 1,000 women aged 15-44) ^a	62.2	65.6
• Infant Mortality Rate in 1995 (deaths of infants under age one per 1,000 live births) ^b	6.1	7.6
• Percent of Counties with at Least One Abortion Provider, 1992 ^c	25.0%	16.0%
• Percent of Low Birth Weight Babies (less than 5 lbs., 8 oz.), 1995 ^d		
Among Whites	5.4%	6.2%
Among African Americans	10.3%	13.1%
• Births to Teenage Women as a Percent of All Births, 1995 ^e	13.0%	13.2%
• Births to Unmarried Women as a Percent of All Births, 1995 ^d	28.9%	32.2%
Preventive Health Care		
• Percent of Women Who Have Ever Had a:		
Mammogram (Aged 40 and Older), 1995 ^f	85.9%	81.8%*
Pap Test (Aged 18 and Older), 1995 ^g	95.5%	93.6%*
• Percent of Women Aged 45-54 Who Have Been Screened for Blood Pressure in the Previous Two Years, 1993 ^h	94.6%	95.5%
• Percent of Women Aged 45-54 Who Have Been Screened for Cholesterol in the Previous Two Years, 1993 ^h	96.2%	97.1%
• Percent of Women Aged 45-54 Who Have Ever Had a Proctoscopy, 1993 ⁱ	33.6%	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	67.0%	75.0%
Environmental and Cancer Risks		
• Percent of Women Aged 45-54 Who Smoke, 1993 ^k	20.3%	21.6%
• Toxic Chemicals that Could Cause Birth Defects (pounds per person), 1992 ^l	6.4 lbs	36.0 lbs
• Average Annual Mortality Rate (per 100,000) Due to:		
Female Breast Cancer, 1990-94 ^m	24.6	26.4
Cervical and Uterine Cancer, 1990-94 ^m	2.1	2.9
Ovarian Cancer, 1990-94 ^m	8.5	7.8
• Estimated Number of New Cases of Female Breast, Cervical and Uterine Cancers, 1997 ⁿ	2,570	229,600
Other		
• Does Oregon have a mastectomy stay law? ^o	No	

* 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; ^o Miller, 1998.

Compiled by the Institute for Women's Policy Research.

addition, concerns have been raised about how well HMOs meet the needs of heavy medical users, such as the disabled or those with severe or long-term illnesses.

Similarly, there has been an increasing trend towards 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 dramatically 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). The percentage of the population enrolled in HMOs in Oregon is double the rate in the nation as a whole (44.8 percent and 22.0 percent, respectively; see Table 14).

Table 14.
Percent of Total Population, Medicare and Medicaid Recipients Enrolled in Health Maintenance Organizations (HMOs) in Oregon and the United States, 1996

	Oregon	United States
Total Population^a	3,204,000	265,284,000
Percent of Total Population Enrolled in HMOs ^b	44.8	22.0
Percent of Total Population Receiving Medicare ^c	14.7	14.0
Percent of Medicare Recipients Enrolled in HMOs ^c	37.0	13.0
Percent of Total Population Receiving Medicaid ^c	14.4	13.4
Percent of Medicaid Recipients Enrolled in HMOs ^d	90.9	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 includes data on different populations within Oregon. Statistics on age, the sex ratio, and the elderly female population are presented, as are the distribution of women by race/ethnicity and family types and information on women in prison. These data present an image of the state's female population and can be used to provide insight on the topics covered in this report. For example, compared with the United States as a whole, Oregon has a slightly larger proportion of women over age

65, a slightly lower ratio of women to men, a smaller percentage of female-headed families and a slightly larger percentage of non-family households (see Table 15). A much smaller proportion of women live in urban areas in Oregon and the population is less diverse in terms of race and ethnicity. Demographic factors also have implications for the location of economic activity, the types of jobs available, the growth of markets, and the types of public services needed.

Table 15.
Basic Demographic Statistics for Oregon and the United States

	Oregon	United States
Total Population, 1996^a	3,203,735	265,283,783
• Number of Women, All Ages ^b	1,620,232	135,473,568
• Sex Ratio (women to men aged 18 and older) ^b	1.05:1	1.08:1
• Median Age of All Women ^b	37.2	35.8
• Proportion of Women Over Age 65 ^b	15.2%	14.7%
Distribution of Women by Race and Ethnicity, 1995, All Ages^c		
• White*	89.6%	73.0%
• African American*	1.7%	12.8%
• Hispanic [†]	4.3%	9.8%
• Asian American*	3.0%	3.6%
• Native American*	1.4%	0.8%
Distribution of Households by Type, 1990^d		
• Total Number of Family and Non-Family Households	1,101,512	91,770,958
• Married-Couple Families (with and without their own children)	56.6%	56.2%
• Female-Headed Families (with and without their own children)	8.8%	11.3%
• Male-Headed Families (with and without their own children)	3.1%	3.2%
• Non-Family Households: Single-Person Households	25.1%	24.4%
• Non-Family Households: Other	6.3%	4.9%
Proportion of Women Living in Metropolitan Areas, All Ages, 1990^e	69.1%	83.1%
Proportion of Women Who Are Foreign-Born, All Ages, 1990^f	4.8%	7.9%
Percent of Federal and State Prison Population Who Are Women, 1996^g	6.6%	6.3%

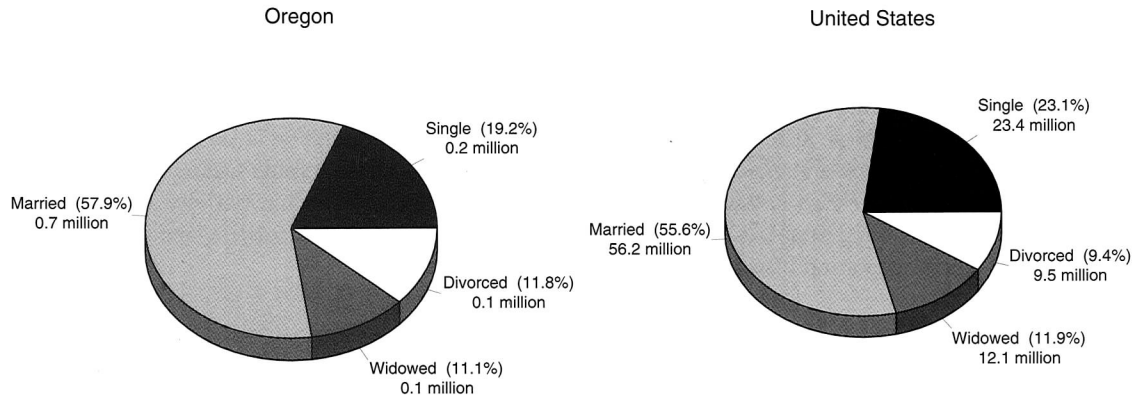
* Non-Hispanic.

† 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.

Figure 13.
Distribution of Women by Marital Status
in Oregon and the United States, 1990



For women aged 15 and older.

Source: Population Reference Bureau, 1993.

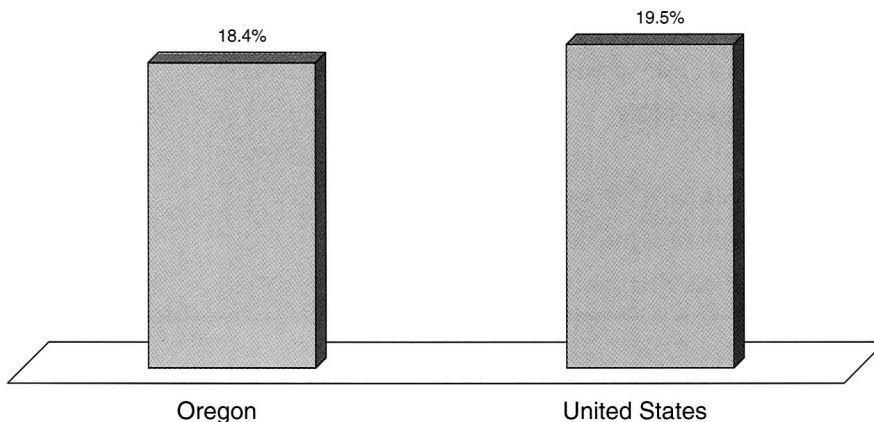
Compiled by the Institute for Women's Policy Research.

Oregon has the 29th largest population among all the states in the United States. More than 1.6 million women lived in Oregon in 1996. Between 1990 and 1996, the population of Oregon grew by 12.7 percent, a rate of growth substantially higher than the nation as a whole (6.7 percent; U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, 1997a). Compared with its region, Oregon's

population growth rate is the second highest, behind that of Washington. The increase in female population from 1990 to 1996 showed similar patterns (12.1 percent for Oregon and 6.3 percent for the United States). Oregon also has a slightly larger proportion of women over age 65 than the United States (15.2 percent versus 14.7 percent in the United States). The female population in Oregon is

much less ethnically diverse than the rest of the United States, with minorities making up only about ten percent of women in the state (compared with 27.0 percent for the nation as a whole). Among the racial and ethnic groups in Oregon, only Asian American and Native American women (3.0 and 1.4 percent respectively) constitute proportions comparable to the national average (3.6 and 0.8 percent respectively). Fewer than two percent of Oregon women are African American and only 4.3 percent are Hispanic, far below their national percentages (12.8 and 9.8 percent respectively).

Figure 14.
Percent of Households with Children Under
Age 18 Headed by Women
in Oregon and the United States, 1990



Source: IWPR, 1995a.

Calculated by the Institute for Women's Policy Research.

The proportion of single women in Oregon is considerably lower than that in the country as a whole, and the proportion of widowed women slightly lower, while the proportion of divorced women is higher (see Figure 13). The proportion of married women in Oregon is also higher than the proportion nationally (57.9 percent compared with 55.6 percent of women in the United States). Oregon's distribution of family types is somewhat different from the nation as a whole (see Table 15). While the proportion of single-person households is about the same in Oregon as in the United States as a whole, the proportion of other non-family households in Oregon (6.3 percent) is larger than in the United States as a whole (4.9 percent). The proportion of female-headed families is smaller than the United States as a whole (8.8 percent compared with 11.3 percent), while other family types have similar proportions as in the nation as a whole. The

proportion of female-headed families with children as a proportion of all families with children is 18.4 percent in Oregon, smaller than the 19.5 percent in the United States as a whole (see Figure 14).

Oregon's proportion of women living in metropolitan areas is considerably lower than in the nation as a whole (69.1 percent compared with 83.1 percent of women in the United States). The percentage of Oregon's prison population that is female is about the same as the national average (see Table 15). There is, however, a large difference between Oregon and the nation as a whole in terms of the proportion of the population that is foreign born. Oregon has a much smaller foreign-born female population than does the United States as a whole (4.8 percent compared with 7.9 percent).

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 persists. 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.

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 or the implementation of pay equity adjustments 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 availability of adequate and affordable child care, 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.
- Policies 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.

The Institute for Women's Policy Research's series of reports on *The Status of Women in the States* 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.

In addition to providing data for comparison, *The Status of Women in the States* report series is designed to strengthen relationships between IWPR, a nationally-based organization, and advocates, researchers and policymakers in the states. To that end, IWPR turned to state advisory committee members to provide feedback on each report and to help disseminate its results. The contributions of the advisory committees both improved the reports by

providing insights into the data about their states and offered valuable feedback on the types of data necessary to help women evaluate and further their status. As the cooperative model represented by the advisory committees continues to evolve, IWPR's directors and staff hope that it will become a new model for state-national partnerships. These partnerships can only strengthen efforts to improve women's status across the country.

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, 1996d) 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. For Oregon, the sample size is 557 for women and 773 for men. 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. For Oregon, the sample size is 557 for women and 773 for men. 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, 1997a (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, 1997a (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, 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 Chart II (Women's Rights Checklist)

Reproductive Rights

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 and three allow both physician and judicial bypass. Of the 31 states that enforce their laws, 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, 12 (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, for women who meet income eligibility standards. As of January 1998, 15 states funded abortions for eligible women 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 to 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).

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).

Same-Sex Couples and Adoption. Second parent adoption allows the nonbiological 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 upheld or 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).

Domestic Violence

Mandatory Arrest. Generally, arrest is mandated only under specific circumstances; for instance, when an assault results in bodily injury to the victim, when the intent of the abuser was to cause fear of serious injury or death or when the officer believes that domestic violence is likely to continue (Hart, 1992). As of 1997, law enforcement officials must arrest domestic violence perpetrators under all circumstances in five states and the District of Columbia. Law enforcement officials must arrest under certain circumstances and may arrest under other circumstances in 12 states. Twenty-eight states permit but do not require that law enforcement officials arrest domestic violence offenders; only five states do not have legislation indicating that arrest is the preferred response in domestic violence cases (National Council of Juvenile and Family Court Judges, 1997). Some domestic violence activists and experts question the usefulness of this approach since sometimes the victim is arrested, not the original intent of the laws.

Child Support

Single-Mother Households Receiving Child Support or Alimony. This is defined as a family headed by a nonmarried woman with one or more of her own children (by birth, marriage or adoption) who has received full or partial payment of child support or alimony during the past year (Annie E. Casey Foundation, 1997). Figures

based on an average of data from the Current Population Survey for 1992 through 1996. Nationwide, only one-third (33 percent) of single-mother families received child support or alimony in 1994.

Cases with Collection. According to the U.S. Department of Health and Human Services Office of Child Support Enforcement, 55 percent of all child support cases that go to trial are granted a support order by a judge. Only in 33 percent of the cases with orders (or 18 percent of all child support cases) was child support actually collected. A case is counted as having a collection if as little as one cent is collected during the year. The enforcement efforts made by state and local agencies can affect the extent of collections (Gershenson, 1993). Source: U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, 1996b.

Welfare

The Personal Responsibility and Work Opportunity Reconciliation Act of 1996 (PRWORA) enacted the most sweeping changes to the federal welfare system since it was established in the 1930's. PRWORA ended entitlements to federal cash assistance, replacing Aid to Families with Dependent Children (AFDC) with the new Temporary Assistance for Needy Families (TANF) Program. Where AFDC provided minimal guaranteed income support for all eligible families (most frequently those headed by low-income single mothers), TANF benefits are restricted to a five-year lifetime limit and are contingent on work participation after 24 months. TANF funds are distributed to states in the form of block grants, and states are free to devise their own eligibility rules, participation requirements and sanction policies within the federal restrictions.

Child Exclusion/Family Caps. As of July 1998, 23 states have Child Exclusion policies, or Family Caps, which restrict the extension of TANF benefits to children conceived while the mother was on welfare. Of these states, two have a modified Family Cap and therefore give partial increases in benefits. In addition, Idaho has a flat rate regardless of family size, increases in benefits are given to a third party in Maryland and vouchers rather than cash are given in Oklahoma. Twenty-seven states and the District of Columbia do not have Family Caps (U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, Administration for Children and Families, 1998).

Time Limits. As of July 1998, 11 states have both a periodic and lifetime limit for the receipt of TANF funds. Thirty-six states and the District of Columbia have a time limit of 60 months (the maximum allowed under federal law). Nine other states report lifetime time limits less than 60 months. Michigan, Vermont and Illinois are the

only states which do not have a lifetime time limit for those individuals who are complying with TANF requirements; these states supplement their federal funds with state monies. Massachusetts reports that it has no lifetime limits, but extensions beyond its 24-month periodic limit may be granted only at the Commissioner's discretion. Oregon does not report any lifetime limits but restricts benefits to 24 months out of an 84-month period. Twenty-seven states offer limited extensions for a variety of reasons (U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, Administration for Children and Families, 1998).

Work Requirements. Federal law requires non-exempt residents to participate in work activities within two years of receiving cash assistance. States have the option of establishing stricter guidelines, and many have elected to do so. In 24 states, nonexempt recipients are required to engage in work activities immediately under TANF. Five states have work requirements within 24 months (the federally allowed maximum); another 10 states and the District of Columbia require recipients to work within 24 months or when determined able to work, whichever comes first. Nine states have work requirements within less than 24 months. In Arizona, work requirements are evaluated on an individual basis. Vermont requires unemployed two-parent families to work within 15 months and single parents to work within 30 months (U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, Administration for Children and Families, 1998).

What constitutes "work activities" is a contentious issue at both the state and federal level. State policies around these issues continue to evolve and are subject to caseworker discretion. This report uses each state's self-reported policy to identify which states require immediate work activities. To receive the full amount of their block grants, states must demonstrate that a specific portion of the states' TANF caseload is participating in activities that meet the federal definition of work. In fiscal year 1998, states must show that 30 percent of their TANF caseload is working. The required proportion grows each year until 2002 when states must demonstrate that 50 percent of the TANF caseload is engaged in work. PRWORA also restricts the amount of the caseload that may be engaged in basic education or vocational training to be counted in the state's work participation figures and only allows job training to count as work for a limited period of time for any individual.

Family Violence Provisions in TANF plans. As of March 1998, 26 states are recognized by the U.S. Department of Health and Human Services Administration for Children and Families as having adopted the Family Violence Option (which allows victims of violence to be exempted from work requirements, lifetime time limits or both) as a part of their TANF plans (U.S. Department of

Health and Human Services, 1998). In addition, 23 other states and the District of Columbia have language in their state TANF plans that addresses domestic violence; only Oklahoma has not taken steps to incorporate domestic violence language or adopt the Family Violence Option into its TANF plan (NOW LDEF, 1998).

Employment/Unemployment Benefits

Minimum Wage. As of January 1998, six states and the District of Columbia had minimum wage rates that were higher than the federal level. Twelve states had minimum wage rates lower than the federal level (but the federal level generally applies to most employers in these states). Seven states had no minimum wage law, and 25 states had state minimum wages that were the same as the federal level. According to the Fair Labor Standards Act, the state minimum wage is controlling if the state minimum wage is higher than the federal minimum wage (U.S. Department of Labor, Wage and Hour Division, Employment Standards Administration, 1998). A federal minimum wage increase was signed into law on August 20, 1996. The federal standard rose to \$5.15 per hour on September 1, 1997.

Temporary Disability Insurance (TDI). Temporary Disability Insurance provides partial income replacement to employees who leave work because of an illness or accident that is not related to their jobs. In five states with mandated programs (California, Hawaii, New Jersey, New York and Rhode Island), employees and/or their employers pay a small percentage of the employee's salary into an insurance fund and, in return, employees are provided with partial wage replacement if they become ill or disabled. In states with TDI programs, women workers typically receive eight to 12 weeks of partial wage replacement for maternity leaves through TDI (Hartmann, et al., 1995).

Access to Unemployment Insurance (UI). In order to receive UI, potential recipients must meet several eligibility requirements. Two of these are high quarter earnings and base period earnings requirements. The "base period" is a 12-month period preceding the start of a spell of unemployment. This, however, excludes the current calendar quarter and often the previous full calendar

quarter. This has serious consequences for low-wage and contingent workers who need to count more recent earnings to qualify. The base period criterion states that the individual must have earned a minimum amount during the base period. The high quarter earnings criterion requires that individuals earn a total reaching a specified threshold amount in one of the quarters within the base period. IWPR research has shown that women are less likely to meet the two earnings requirements than are men and thus are more likely to be disqualified from receipt of UI benefits. IWPR found that nearly 14 percent of unemployed women workers were disqualified from receiving UI by the two earnings criteria—this is more than twice the rate for unemployed men (Yoon, et al., 1995). States typically set eligibility standards for UI and can enact policies that are more or less inclusive and more or less generous to claimants. For example, some states have implemented a "moveable" base period, allowing flexibility to the advantage of the claimant. Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Unemployment Insurance Service, 1998.

Since states have the power to decide who receives unemployment insurance benefits, some states set high requirements, thereby excluding many low earners. A state was scored "yes" if it was relatively generous to low earners, such that base period wages were less than or equal to \$1,300 and high quarter wages were less than or equal to \$800. If the base period wages were more than \$2,000 or if high quarter wages were more than \$1,000, the state was scored "no;" "sometimes" was defined as base period and high quarter wages which fell between the "yes" and "no" ranges.

Pay Equity. The concept of pay equity (also known as "comparable worth") refers to a set of remedies designed to raise the wages of jobs that are undervalued at least partly because of the gender or race of the workers who hold those jobs. By 1997, 20 states had implemented programs to raise the wages of workers in female-dominated jobs in their states' civil services (National Committee on Pay Equity, 1997). A study by the Institute for Women's Policy Research found that for states that implemented pay equity remedies, the remedies improved female/male wage ratios (Hartmann and Aaronson, 1994).

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

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

State	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, Managerial or Professional Occupations	
	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%	33	66.4%	6	34.9%	4
Arizona	3.80	38	\$21,906	35	69.7%	44	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%	31
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	Composite Index		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	Score	Rank	Percent	Rank	Percent	Rank	Percent	Rank	Percent
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	12.1%	44	12.1%	38	37.6%	3
Arkansas	3.50	50	11.9%	50	19.2%	44	15.5%	44	31.6%	45
California	4.13	16	20.1%	13	16.9%	43	16.9%	37	35.5%	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%	28	12.0%	25	14.8%	35	33.2%	32
Nebraska	4.06	21	16.7%	20	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	33	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	4.00	17.6%	13.8%	13.7%	34.1%

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

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

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

Appendix IV: State and National Resources

Selected Oregon Resources

- Center for the Study of Women in Society
1201 University of Oregon
Eugene, OR 97403-1201
Tel: (541) 346-5015
Fax: (541) 346-5096
- Coalition of Labor Union Women (CLUW)
PO Box 86395
Portland, OR 97286
Tel: (503) 777-5167
- Communications Workers of America Local 7901
2950 S.E. Stark Street, Suite 130
Portland, OR 97214
Tel: (541) 238-6666
Fax: (541) 238-6965
- Confederated Tribes of the Warm Springs Reservation
PO Box C
Warm Springs, OR 97761
Tel: (541) 553-1161
Fax: (541) 553-1899
- Employment Resources Northwest
Tel: (503) 624-8304
- Labor Education and Research Center
1289 University of Oregon
Eugene, OR 97403-1289
Tel: (541) 345-5054
Fax: (541) 346-2790
- McKenzie River Gathering Foundation
454 Willamette
Eugene, OR 97401
Tel: (541) 485-2790
- National Abortion Rights Action League - Oregon NARAL
PO Box 40472
Portland, OR 97240
Tel: (503) 223-4510
Fax: (503) 223-0251
- Office of Multicultural Health Oregon Health Division
800 NE Oregon Street, Suite 950
Portland, OR 97232
Tel: (503) 731-4582
Fax: (503) 731-4079
- Oregon Commission for Women
PSU, Smith Center, Room M-315
PO Box 751-CW
Portland, OR 97207
Tel: (503) 725-5889
Fax: (503) 725-8152
- Oregon Council for Hispanic Advancement
108 9th NW 9th Street, Suite 201
Portland, OR 97209
Tel: (503) 228-4131
Fax: (503) 228-0710
- Oregon Federation of Nurses, AFT - Oregon
9123 SE St. Helens Road
PO Box 1566
Clarkamas, OR 97015
Tel: (503) 657-9974
Fax: (503) 657-7456
- Oregon League of Women Voters
2659 Commercial Street, SE,
Suite 220
Salem, OR 97302
Tel: (503) 581-5722
Fax: (503) 581-9403
- Oregon State University
Department of Agricultural and Resource Economics
213 Ballard Extension Hall
Corvallis, OR 97334-3601
Tel: (541) 737-9594
Fax: (541) 737-2563
- Rural Organizing Project
PO Box 1350
Scappoose, OR 97056-1350
Tel: (503) 397-5453
- Small Business Development Center
Southern Oregon University
322 West 6th Street
Medford, OR 97501
Tel: (541) 726-2255
Fax: (541) 686-0096
- Women and Children's Resource Center
PO Box 774
Lakeview, OR 97630
Tel: (541) 947-2449
Fax: (541) 947-2147

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 Avenue, 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.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.nglwf.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.nowdef.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.natpolcongbblackwomen.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 Avenue, 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 & 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/National
Commission on Working 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 Avenue, 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
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

West South Central

Arkansas
Louisiana
Oklahoma
Texas

West North Central

Iowa
Kansas
Minnesota
Missouri
Nebraska
North Dakota
South Dakota

East North Central

Illinois
Indiana
Michigan
Ohio
Wisconsin

Pacific West

Alaska
California
Hawaii
Oregon
Washington

Mountain West

Arizona
Colorado
Idaho
Montana
New Mexico
Nevada
Utah
Wyoming

New England

Connecticut
Maine
Massachusetts
New Hampshire
Rhode Island
Vermont

Middle Atlantic

New Jersey
New York
Pennsylvania

South Atlantic

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

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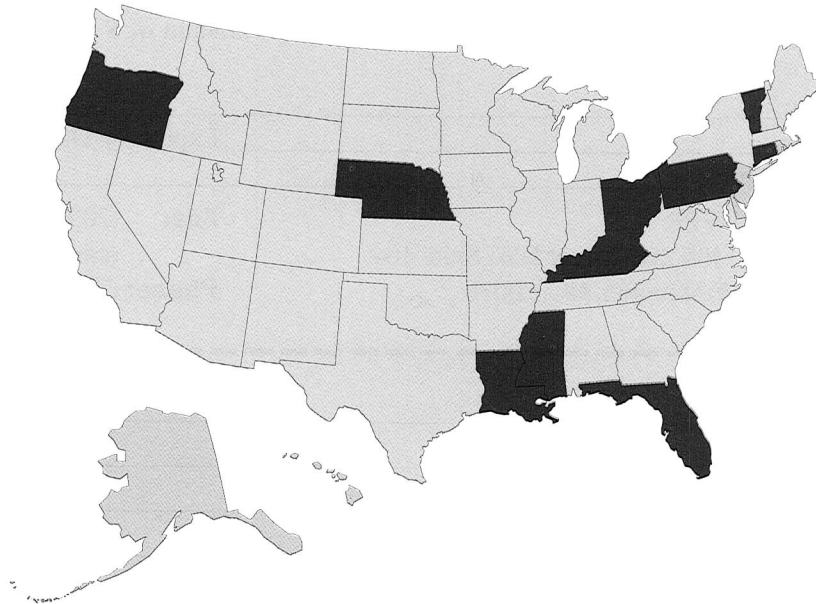
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