# The Status of Women in Washington <br> POLITICS • ECONOMICS • HEALTH • DEMOGRAPHICS 



INSTITUTE FOR WOMEN'S POLICY RESEARCH


## About this Report

The Status of Women in Washington is a result of a research project conducted by the Institute for Women's Policy Research (IWPR) to establish baseline measures for the status of women in Washington as well as in 13 other states (California, Georgia, Illinois, Maine, Maryland, Michigan, New Jersey, New Mexico, New York, North Carolina, Texas, Virginia, and the District of Columbia). The effort is part of a larger IWPR Economic Policy Education Program, funded by the Ford Foundation, that is intended to improve the ability of advocates and policymakers at the state level to address women's economic issues.

The data used in each report come from a variety of sources, primarily govemment agencies (although other organizations also provided data where relevant). Many individuals and organizations in Washington assisted in locating data and reviewing this report.

While every effort has been made to check the accuracy and completeness of the information presented, please do not hesitate to contact the Institute with any questions or comments. The Board of Directors and staff of IWPR hope the people of Washington will find this information useful.

## About the Institute for Women's Policy Research

The Institute for Women's Policy Research is an independent, nonprofit, scientific research organization founded in 1987 to meet the need for women-centered, policy-oriented research. The Institute works with policymakers, scholars, and advocacy groups around the country to design, execute, and disseminate research findings that illuminate policy issues affecting women and families and to build a network of individuals and organizations that conduct and use women-oriented policy research. Members and affiliates of the Institute's Information Network receive regular reports and information. The Institute is a 501 (c)(3) tax-exempt organization.

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## Introduction

The changes that have occurred in women's economic roles during the current century are among the most significant and sweeping transformations of U.S. society and indeed of societies around the world. The 1995 Fourth World Conference on Women heightened awareness of the progress women have made in achieving equal rights and opportunities, of the barriers remaining, and of the need to monitor women's progress.

The staff of the Institute for Women's Policy Research (IWPR) have prepared this report on the Status of Women in Washington to inform Washington residents about the progress of Washington's women relative to women in other states, to men, and to national trends. In addition to this report, IWPR staff have produced reports on 12 other states and the District of Columbia as well as a shorter national report that summarizes key findings for all 50 states and the District of Columbia.

In each report, various indicators describe women's status in political participation, employment and earnings, economic autonomy, reproductive rights, and health. Basic demographic data are also provided. In addition to presenting descriptive data about women in the state and in the United States as a whole, the reports for each state show how the state ranks relative to each of the other states and the District of Columbia. Each state report also provides rankings on the key indicators for all 50 states and the District of Columbia.

The data used in each report come from a variety of sources, primarily government agencies (although other organizations also provided data where relevant). Most of the figures reported come either from the 1990 Census, which provides a very large number of cases for each state, making reliable comparisons across the states possible, or from combining several years or months of data since 1990 from the U.S. Census Bureau's Current Population Survey, a procedure which also makes state comparisons possible. In cases where the figures reported here come from only one Current Population Survey interview rather than several, the Census Bureau's judgment in publishing state-by-state data was relied upon. In comparing indicators or variables based on
data from different years, it is important to keep in mind that the 1990 to 1995 period was characterized by a major economic recession at the start of the period, followed by, in most states, a slow and gradual recovery. In some cases, the differences reported between two states or between the state and the nation for a given indicator or variable are statistically significant (unlikely to have occurred by chance) and in other cases they are not (likely to have occurred by chance). Measures of statistical significance were neither calculated nor reported. For any given sample size, the larger the difference, relative to the base-value, the more likely the difference is to be statistically significant. Sample sizes differ among the states and indicators. A description of the data sources and methodology used to create the indicators and rank the states, as well as lists of regional and national resources, can be found at the end of the report.

In producing any report of this nature, it is necessary to select some data for inclusion and leave out other data, to choose some indicators of women's status and reject others. In making these decisions, the IWPR research team kept in mind several principles and constraints: parsimony, representativeness and reliability, and comparability of data across all the states and the District of Columbia. The indicators chosen were selected to provide the most concise summaries of women's status in several important areas. The treatment of several topics was necessarily limited by the lack of reliable and comparable data at the state level: these topics include domestic violence, older women, pension coverage, and the experiences of women in different racial and ethnic groups. In the area of health care, the amount of data is vast, and developing and summarizing one index to represent women's health status was not attempted. Identifying and reporting on regional differences within the states was also beyond the scope of this project.

The data presented are designed to provide baseline information on a broad range of topics in a concise format. This report is intended to serve as a useful reference to guide policy decisions affecting the lives of women in Washington.

## Overview of the Status of Women in Washington

Women in Washington enjoy relatively high status when compared with women in the other 49 states, the District of Columbia, and the United States as a whole. As Chart I ("How Washington Ranks on Key Indicators") shows, on each of the four important aspects of women's well-being for which the Institute for Women's Policy Research calculated composite indicators, Washington ranks in the top third. Its best rank is in the area of political participation, on which it ranks second in the nation. Washington is part of the Pacific region (consisting of Alaska, California, Hawaii, and Oregon in addition to Washington), a region in which women generally do well when compared with women in the rest of the nation. Washington ranks first in its region in the area of political participation. In the area of employment and earnings, Washington ranks fourth, near the bottom of its region. Thus Washington still has room for improvement in the status of its women.

The UN 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 govermment 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 women. The Platform for Action outlines the critical issues of concern to women and the 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 the Platform. However, in other areas, the United States and many individual states have an opportunity to improve women's rights.

Chart II, "Women's Rights Checklist," shows how Washington rates on selected indicators of women's rights. The indicators chosen are some of those that directly result from state policy decisions. As the chart shows, women in Washington have many of the rights that have been identified as important for women's well-being.


Calculated by the Institute for Women's Policy Research.

## Chart II. Women's Rights Checklist



## CHILD SUPPORT

## Percent of child suppoit cases with orders for collection



## WELFARE (as of August 1996) ${ }^{\dagger}$

Child Exclusion/Family Caps: Does Washington extend AFDC benefits to children who are born or concelved whlle the mother was on welfare?

Does Washington allow AFDC recipients to retain more of their earnings?
Has Washington raised its asset limits?

## EMPLOYMENT/UNEMPLOYMENT BENEFITS

Is Washington's minimum wage hlgher than or equal to that of the United States as of August 1996? tt
Does Washington have mandatory temporary disability insurance?
Does Washlington have inclusive cilteria for: F unemployment insurance eligibility?
Has Washington implemented adjustments to achieve pay equity in its civil service?

## INSTITUTIONAL RESOURCES

Does Washington have a Commission on the Status of Women?


[^0]New federal legislation, passed in September 1996, requires insurance companies to pay for minimum hospital stays in matemity cases.
As this report goes to press, new federal legislation on welfare that gives states much more autonomy in shaping their welfare programs has been passed. The policies a state adopted under the former federal law may indicate the direction its welfare policy will take under the new law, which went into effect October 1, 1996. States have untll July 1997 to comply; however, states may continue to carry out programs approved by the Department of Health and Human Services prior to passage of the new law.

H As of October 1. 1996, the federal minimum hourly wage was incraased to $\$ 4.75$. It will increase to $\$ 5.15$ on September 1, 1997. Washington's minimum wage was $\$ 4.90$ as of June 1996 , substantially higher than the federal standard at that time. Washinglon's relatively higher minimum wage i'n the past may indicate that Washington's lawmakers will seek to raise the state's minimum wage again.

## Political Participation

This section describes several aspects of political life that are important to women: voter registration and turnout, women elected officials on the state and federal level, and women's institutional resources in the state (commissions for women or other bodies). Political participation is important because only through participation can citizens affect the design and implementation of public policies and legislation.

In recent years, a growing gender gap - the tendency for women and men to vote differently has focused attention on the ways in which women's and men's interests and policy needs might differ. There is also growing support among voters, both
male and female, for electing women to political office. Research has found that regardless of party affiliation, women officeholders are more likely than male officeholders to support women's agendas (Center for the American Woman and Politics, CAWP, 1991).

Women need to be at the table when policies affecting women's lives are discussed to ensure that women's unique perspectives are being included in the debate and their needs addressed. The institutional resources focused on women's interests that are available in a state are important in making women's voices heard.


## Voter Registration and Turnout

In 1920, the 19th Amendment, giving women the right to vote, was officially ratified, and approximately eight million women of 52 million women of all ages voted for the first time in the November 1920 election (NWPC, 1995). In the 1992 presidential election, over 60 million women voted, constituting 62 percent of women eligible to vote, compared with 53 million men, constituting 60 percent of men eligible to vote. Women today are more likely to register to vote and to actually vote than men and have had consistently higher registration and voter tumout rates than men since 1980 (U.S. Bureau of the Census, 1993). Washington reflects these national trends, with over 68 percent of women reporting that they were registered to vote in the November 1994 election, compared with 66 percent of men. Voter registration rates in Washington for both men and women have generally been higher than voter registration rates for men and women nationally (see Table 1). And, voter registration for men and women in Washington, as well as in the United States, fell between the 1992 November elections and the 1994 November
elections, as voter interest usually declines in nonpresidential elections.

Since 1964, women voters in the United States have outnumbered male voters, but voter turnout is relatively low for both sexes (see Table 2). Sixtytwo percent of all U.S. women who were eligible to vote reported that they voted in the 1992 presidential election, and women constituted 54 percent of the total vote. In Washington, 69 percent of all women and 64 percent of all men eligible to vote reported that did so in 1992. In 1994, women's voter turnout in Washington fell to 47.4 percent. This rate, however, was higher than the rates for men in Washington as well as the turnout for women and men in the United States. Two groups that typically have been underserved by the voter registration system are the poor and the disabled. The National Voter Registration Act (NVRA), which went into effect in January 1995, addresses this problem by requiring states to offer to register people to vote when they get or renew their drivers' licenses or when they apply for AFDC, Food


| Table 2. <br> Women's and Men's Voter Turnout* in Washington and the United States |  |  |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  | Washington |  | United States |  |
|  |  | Percent | Number | Percent | Number |
| 1994 Voter Turnouta ${ }^{\text {a }}$ |  |  |  |  |  |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  | Men | 45.6 | 868,000 | 44.7 | 40,716,000 |
| 1992 Voter Turnouta ${ }^{\text {a }}$ |  |  |  |  |  |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  | Men | 63.8 | 1,159,000 | 60.2 | 53,312,000 |
|  <br>  <br>  |  |  |  |  |  |
| * Voter Tumout data presented here are self-reports from the Current Population Survey. These tend to overstate actual voter tumout. <br> + Percent of all women and men ages 18 and oider who reported voting, based on data from the 1993 and 1995 November supplements of the Current Population Survey. <br> a U.S. Bureau of the Census, 1993, 1996; ${ }^{\text {b }}$ Women's Vote Project, Council of Presidents, 1996. |  |  |  |  |  |

Compiled by the institute for Women's Policy Research.

Stamps, Medicaid, WIC, and disability services. The NVRA has succeeded in enrolling or updating the voting addresses of over 11 million people, 1.3 million of them through public assistance agencies (HumanSERVE, 1996). Still, there are nearly 24 million eligible unregistered women in the United States, 427,050 of whom are in Washington.

## Elected Officials

Though women are still a minority in elected office at both national and state levels, their presence has grown steadily over the years. Currently, a record nine women serve in the U.S. Senate (104th Congress), one of whom is from Washington (Patty

Table 3.
Women in Elected Office


Compiled by the Institute for Women's Policy Research.

Murray; see Table 3). Also in the 104th Congress, women fill 49 of the 435 seats in the U.S. House of Representatives (this includes Eleanor Holmes Norton, the delegate from the District of Columbia). Women from Washington filled two of these seats (of a possible nine representatives). Washington had 58 women in the state legislature of a possible 147, giving Washington State the highest percentage of women in state legislatures in the United States ( 39.5 percent). Washington also has four women in statewide elected executive office, among the highest in number of all the states in the nation.

## Institutional Resources

Women's institutional resources play an important role in providing information and attracting the attention of policymakers and the public to women's issues. Washington has a nonprofit organization that calls attention to women's agendas, but does not have a government-appointed Commission on the Status of Women (see Table 4). In the state legislature, women members have organized a caucus in the House of Representatives but not in the Senate.

Table 4. Institutional Resources for Women

| Does Washington Have a ... | Yes | No |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Wxminfoighith stat of women |  |  |
| Women's State Agenda Project? | $\checkmark$ |  |
| WGgislatye Caucus the the state Legislature? <br> House of hepresentatives |  |  |
| Senate |  | $\checkmark$ |

Source: Center for Policy Alternatives, 1995; updated by the Institute for Women's Policy Research in 1996.

## Employment and Earnings

This section focuses on the economic issues surrounding women's participation in the labor market. Topics include women's earnings; the female/male earnings ratio; women's educational attainment and the impact of education on women's eamings, labor force participation, and unemployment rates; and the industries and occupations in which women in the state are concentrated. Earnings and economic well-being are inextricably linked
for all people and increasingly so for women. Women's employment status and eamings have grown in importance to women and their families as demographic changes have occurred - more married couple families rely on both the husband's and wife's earnings to survive, more women are heading their own households alone, and more women are in the labor force.


## Women's Earnings

Women in Washington working full-time, full-year have higher median annual earnings than women in the United States (approximately \$20,000 and $\$ 19,000$, respectively; see Figure 1). Similarly, median yearly earnings for men in Washington are also higher than for men in the United States ( $\$ 30,000$ and $\$ 27,000$, respectively). The annual earnings for women in Washington ranked eleventh highest in the United States. The District of Columbia ranked the highest in the nation in terms of women's median annual earnings at $\$ 24,500$. The median annual earnings of Washington women working full-time, full-year are the third highest among the Pacific West states, after Alaska ( $\$ 24,000$ ) and Califomia ( $\$ 22,000$ ). Between 1980 and 1990, women in Washington saw their median annual earnings increase by 6.7 percent (in constant dollars).

## The Wage Gap

## The Wage Gap and Women's Relative

 EarningsIn 1990, the ratio of the median earnings of women to those of men in the United States for fulltime, year-round workers, aged 18 to 65 , was 68.5 percent. In other words, women were earning about 69 cents for every dollar earned by their male counterparts. At the same time, women in Washington were earning about 67 percent of what men in Washington were earning (see Figure 2). Compared with the earnings ratio for the Pacific West region, Washington women have the lowest earnings equality with men and rank 33 rd in the nation. The District of Columbia has the highest earnings ratio in the nation at 87.5 percent. In the Pacific West region, Hawaii has the highest earnings ratio, at 76.0 percent. The wage gap remains large in Washington and elsewhere in the nation.

Figure 1.

Figure 2.
Ratio of Women's to Men's Full-Time/Full-Year Median Annual Earnings in the Pacific West and the United States, 1990


For women and men aged 18-65.
Source: Institute for Women's Policy Rasearch, 1995; based on the Public Use Mierodata Sample of the 1990 Census.

## Narrowing the Wage Gap

Throughout the 1960s and 1970s, the ratio of women's to men's earnings 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. But at the same time, adverse economic trends such as

Figure 3.
Change in Women's to Men's Earnings Ratio Between 1980 and 1990 in Washington and the United States

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 narrowing that did occur (Blau and Kahn, 1994).

Unfortunately, part of the narrowing that did occur was due to an actual fall in men's real wages. According to research done by the Institute for Women's Policy Research, only about one-third (34 percent) of the closing in the national female/male earnings gap between 1979 and 1994 is due to women's rising real wages and about two-thirds ( 66 percent) is due to men's falling real wages (in constant dollar terms, adjusting for inflation; Institute for Women's Policy Research, 1996).

Washington was marginally behind the United States as a whole in increasing women's earnings relative to men's between 1980 and 1990 (see Figure 3). In Washington, the earnings ratio increased by 8.6 percentage points, compared with an increase of 9.0 percentage points in the United

States. Washington had the 19th highest increase in the women's to men's earnings ratio of all the states and District of Columbia, between 1980 and 1990 (data not shown).

## Earnings and Earnings Ratios by

 Educational LevelsBetween 1980 and 1990, the changes in Washington women's median annual earnings ranged from a decrease of 8.6 percentage points for women with less than a high school education to an increase of 14.2 percentage points for women with post-college education (see Table 5). Women's relative earnings (as measured by the women/men earnings ratios) increased for all educational groups. However, the most educated women (with more than a college education) saw the smallest increase in the wage ratio. Women who had not attended college showed substantial gains in the earnings ratio, but their actual earnings declined, implying that the earnings ratio gains were entirely due to men's falling real wages. Table 5 also shows small variation in the earnings ratios across the educational levels.

Table 5.
Women's Earnings and the Earnings Ratio in Washington by Educational Attainment, 1980 and 1990

| Educational Attainment | Women's Median Annual Earnings, 1990 | Percent Growth in Earnings, 1980-1990* | Female/Male Earnings Ratio, 1990 | Percent Point Change in the Earnings Ratio, 1980-1990 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Less than 12th Grade | \$13,790 | -8.6 | 65.7\% | +15.4 |
| High School Only | \$17,000 | -2.9 | 68.0\% | +10.0 |
| Stime College | \$19,300 | +4.4 | 68.4\% | +9.1 |
| College | \$25,000 | + 14.7 | 71.4\% | +11.2 |
| - College Pjus | \$30,000 | +14.2 | 71.4\% | +3.3 |

All figures are for full-time full-year working women and men aged 18-65.

* In constant dollars.

Source: Institute for Women's Policy Research, 1995; based on the Public Use Microdata Sample of the 1980 and 1990 Censuses.


Table 6.
Per Capita Personal Income for Both Women and Men in Washington and in
the United States, 1994


Compiled by the Institute for Women's Policy Research.

## Part-Time and Full-Time Work

Women in Washington have a marginally higher unemployment rate than women in the United States as a whole, and a marginally higher percentage of women in the labor force are "involuntary" part-time employees - that is, they would prefer full-time work were it available - than in the United States ( 3.8 percent and 3.2 percent, respectively; see

Table 7). Research has shown that involuntary part-time work is nearly perfectly correlated with unemployment rates (Blank, 1990). Not only does Washington have a greater percentage of its female labor force working part-time involuntarily, but it also has a smaller percentage of the female labor force employed full-time compared with the national average.

## Labor Force Participation

One of the most notable changes in the U.S. economy over the past decades has been the rapid rise in women's participation in the labor force. Between 1965 and 1990, women's labor force participation (the proportion of the civilian noninstitutional population aged 16 and older who are employed or looking for work) increased from 39 to 58 percent (U.S. Department of Labor, 1995). Women now make up nearly half 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 1994 and 2005 (U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1995a).

In 1994, 60 percent of women in Washington were in the labor force, compared with 59 percent of women in the United States (see Figure 4). While Washington women's labor force participation rate is marginally higher than for women nationally, men's labor force participation rate in Washington is comparable to that of U.S men (74.9 and 75.1 , respectively).

## Unemployment and Per Capita Personal Income

Washington's unemployment rates for women and men are only slightly higher than the nation's unemployment rates (see Figure 5). In 1994, the unemployment rate for women in Washington was 6.3 percent, compared with the nation's 6.0 percent unemployment rate (see Table 7). Men in Washington had the second lowest unemployment rate in the Pacific West region and women in Washington had the second highest rate of unemployment in the region.

While per capita personal income in Washington grew by 13.3 percent during the 1980 s (in constant dollars) compared with an increase of 18.4 percent in the United States, between 1990 and 1994 Washington's increase in per capita personal income slightly outpaced that of the nation ( 3.5 percent versus 3.0 percent; see Table 6). In general, the economic health of Washington State, as indicated by unemployment and per capita personal income growth, is about the same as that of the nation (or lagging marginally behind).


Table 7.
Full-Time, Part-Time, and Unemployment Rates for Women and Men in Washington and the United States, 1995

| Labor Force Status | Washington |  | United States |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | Female Labor Force | Male Labor Force | Female Labor Force | Male Labor Force |
|  |  |  |  |  |
| Percent Employed Full-Time | 61.9 | 82.0 | 67.9 | 83.0 |
| Percent Employed Part-Time | $31.8$ | , ${ }^{3} 115$ | , $4 \times 20$ | 10.8 |
| Percent Voluntary Part-Time | 25.7 | 8.9 | 21.0 | 8.0 |
| vercontinvolntyryPart trae | $3.8$ | $2.0$ | $3.2$ | 23 |
| Percent Unemployed | 6.3 | 6.5 | 6.0 | 6.2 |

For men and women aged 16 and older.

* Percent par-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. See Appendix II for more information.
Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1995b; based on data from the 1994 Current Population Survey.

Compiled by the Institute for Women's Policy Research.
Table 8.
Labor Force Participation of Women in Washington and the United States by Race/Ethnicity, 1990

|  | Washington |  | United States |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | Total Number of Women | Percent in the Labor Force | Total Number of Women | Percent In the Labor Force |
| All Races | 1,889,187 | 58.0 | 99,559,747 | 56.8 |
| White | 1,673,166 | 57.6 | 77,436,552 | 56.4 |
| African-American | 46,113 | 64.5 | 11,344,218 | 59.6 |
| Hispanic | $56,406$ | $62.4$ | 7,256,549 | 55.9 |
| Asian-American | 84,126 | 60.4 | 2,809,897 | 60.2 |
|  |  |  |  |  |
| For women aged 16 and older. <br> Source: Population Reference Bureau, 1993; based on the Public Use Microdata Sample of the 1990 Census. |  |  |  |  |

Compiled by the Institute for Women's Policy Research.

## Labor Force Status of Women by Race/Ethnicity

In 1994, women in Washington had a one percentage point higher labor force participation rate than women in the United States (see Figure 4). Four years earlier the pattern was the same, with women in Washington participating in the labor market at a greater rate than the average for women in the United States ( 58.0 percent versus 56.8 percent, data not shown).

According to U.S. Census data for 1990, close to six of 10 women in Washington, ages 16 and over, were in the labor force regardless of race or ethnicity. Women's labor force participation rate is higher in Washington than in the United States across all racial and ethnic categories (see Table 8). African-American women have historically had higher than average labor force participation rates; they have the highest participation rate of all the racia/ethnic groups in Washington and the second highest in the United States ( 64.5 percent and 59.6 percent, respectively). Hispanic women in Washington have the second highest participation of all racial/ethnic groups ( 62.4 percent). Native-American women in Washington have the lowest labor force participation rate ( 56.8 percent). While women in Washington were slightly more likely to participate in the labor force in 1990 than were women nationwide, there were also somewhat
larger disparities in women's labor force participation rates by race and ethnicity. In Washington, the difference among the groups between the lowest and highest labor force participation rate was 7.7 percentage points compared with 4.8 percentage points for the United States as a whole.

## Labor Force Participation of Women with Children

Mothers represent the fastest growing group in the U.S. labor market (Brown, 1994). In 1992, 54 percent of women with children under age one were in the labor force compared with 31 percent in 1976 (Bachu, 1993).

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 is for women over age 16, whereas mothers tend to be in their prime working years (aged 18 to 44 ). What is striking about Washington is that women with children are less likely to engage in labor market activity than corresponding groups in the United States as a whole (see Table 9). This is somewhat surprising given that women in Washington across all racial and ethnic categories have higher labor force participation rates than women in the United States.

| Table 9. |  |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | Washington |  | United States |  |
|  | Total Number of Women | Percent in the Labor Force | Total Number of Women | Percent in the Labor Force |
|  |  |  |  |  |
| With Children Under Age 6* | 302,565 | 56.7 | 15,183,228 | 59.7 |
| Women aged 16 and older. <br> Children under age 6 are also included in children under 18. <br> Source: Population Reference Bureau, 1993; based on the Public Use Microdata Sample of the 1990 Census. |  |  |  |  |

## Occupation and Industry

The distribution of women in Washington across occupations is similar to that for the United States with women workers most likely to be in technical, sales, and administrative support occupations ( 42.2 percent and 42.4 percent, respectively; see Figure 6a). Washington women are slightly more likely to work in service occupations than women in the United States ( 19.2 percent versus 17.8 percent). Women in Washington are also more likely to work in managerial and professional specialty occupations than are women in the United States ( 31.3 percent versus 28.7 percent). Washington ranks 11 th of the 50 states and the District of Columbia for the proportion of its female labor force employed in professional and managenial occupations, and ranks third of five states in the Pacific West region.

As with occupations, the distribution of women in Washington across industries is similar to that for the United States as a whole (see Figure 6b). In both Washington and the United States, the service industries (including business, professional, and personnel services) are the largest single source of employment for women, but fewer women are employed in services in Washington than in the country as a whole ( 27.8 percent versus 31.3 percent). Roughly one-fifth of employed women in Washington (and in the nation) work in the wholesale and retail trade industries and another fifth work in government. Washington women are slightly more likely to work in government, in the finance, insurance, and real estate industries, and in wholesale and retail trade, but are much less likely to work in the manufacturing industries than women in the United States.

Figure 6a.
Distribution of Employed Women Across Occupations in Washington and the United States, 1994


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

Figure 6b.

## Distribution of Employed Women Across Industries in Washington and the United States, 1994



For women aged 16 and older.
Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1995b; based on data from the 1995 Current Population Survey.
(a) Durables and Nondurables are included in Manufacturing.
(b) Household Services are included in Services.
(c) Self-employed and Unpaid workers could also be distributed among these industries. The industrial breakdown shown here is for wage and salary workers only.

## Economic Autonomy

This section highlights the issues, in addition to employment and earnings, that relate to women's ability to act independently, exercise choice, and control their lives. Topics include access to health insurance, educational attainment, women's business ownership and self-employment, and women living in poverty. Access to health insurance plays a role in determining the overall quality of health care for women in the 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 or are self-employed 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.

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

National Rank* (of 51)

Regional Rank*
(of 5)

COMPOSTEE ECONOMIC AUTONOMY INDEX
Percent with Health Insurance (among nonelderly.
8
2


14
4
Women's Business Ownership (percent of ail firms owned by women, 1992 ${ }^{\circ}$

9

## Percent of Women Above Poverty (percent of women

 living above the poverty threshold, 1990) ${ }^{\text {b }}$13
3
See Appendix I for methodology.
*The national rank is of a possible 51, referring to the 50 states plus the District of Columbia. The regional rank is of a maximum of five refers to the states in the Pacific West region (Alaska, California, Hawail, Oregon, and
Washington).

- Winterbottom et al., 1995; ${ }^{\circ}$ Population Reference Bureau, 1993; ${ }^{\circ}$ U.S. Department of Commerce, 1996;
${ }^{\text {a }}$ Unpublished data from the U.S. Department of Labor for 1994.


## Access to Health Insurance

Women in Washington enjoy somewhat higher earnings than most women in the United States. Accordingly, women are less likely to be uninsured in Washington than in the United States as a whole (9.6 percent in Washington, as compared with 13.8 percent in the United States; see Table 10). Women workers in Washington are also somewhat more likely to have employer-based health insurance than women in the United States as a whole ( 66.4 percent compared with 63.7 percent). Both men and women in Washington are less likely to be covered by Medicaid compared with men and women nationally. As in the United States as a whole, women in Washington are more likely than men to rely on publicly funded health insurance, with 11.2 percent of Washington women covered by Medicaid compared with 6.9 percent of Washington men.

## Education

In the United States as a whole, women have made steady progress in 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 a onefifth, with comparable percentages of men and women having completed high school ( 81.0 percent of men versus 80.5 percent of women in 1994). 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 24.4 percent of men in 1990 , bringing women closer to closing the education gap (U.S. Department of Labor, 1995b).

In general, women in Washington tend to be more highly educated than the national average. Over 53 percent of women in Washington have more than a high school education compared with 42.6 percent of women in the United States (see Figure 7). The proportion of women over 25 in Washington without high school diplomas is substantially less than that of women in the United States as a whole ( 16.5

Table 10.

## Percent of Women and Men without Health Insurance and with Different Sources of Health Insurance in Washington and the United States, 1990-1992

|  | Washington |  | United States |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | Women | Men | Women | Men |
| Number | 2,126,000 | 2,158,000 | 109,961,000 | 108,625,000 |
|  | 9.6 |  | \% 18.8 |  |
| Percent with Employer-Based Insurance | 66.4 | 66.8 | 63.7 | 63.8 |
|  | 䞨 |  |  | 88.8 |
| Percent with Other Coverage | 12.7 | 11.6 | 9.5 | 9.7 |
| Women and men below age 65 (incluch <br> Source: Winterbottom et al., 1995; | under age ta from the | 3 Current | tion Survey |  |

Compiled by the Institute for Women's Policy Research.

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


Sourea: Population Reference Bureau, 1993; based on the Pubic Use Microdata Sample of the 1990 Census.
percent and 25.2 percent, respectively), and the proportion of women in Washington with at least some college education is much higher than the national average (at 34 percent, nine percentage points higher than the national average). The percent of women with four or more years of college, at 19.7 percent, is about two percentage points higher than the national average.

## Women Business Owners and Self-Employment

In January 1996, the U.S. Department of Commerce announced that women owned over 6.4 million firms in the United States, employing over 13 million persons and generating $\$ 1.6$ trillion in business revenues (these numbers include all women-owned businesses, including C corporations - see notes for Table 11 for further explanation). Between 1987 and 1992, the number of womenowned businesses grew at a rate of 51 percent in Washington, faster than the growth rate of womenowned businesses in the United States. By 1992,
women owned 136,337 firms in Washington (see Table 11). In Washington, 54 percent of womenowned firms were in the service industries and the next highest proportion, 19 percent, were in retail trade (see Figure 8). These figures are similar to those for the nation as a whole. The business receipts of women-owned businesses in Washington rose by 177 percent (in constant dollars) between 1987 and 1992. This is compared with an increase of 87 percent in business receipts for womenowned firms nationally, and 35 percent for all firms in the United States during this time period, also adjusted for inflation (data not shown).

Like women's business ownership, self-employment for women has also been rising over recent decades. Self-employed is a larger category than business owners and includes many individuals who do not consider themselves to be operating their own businesses, such as independent contractors in construction or business services who have, in essence, only one customer. In 1975, women represented one in every four self-employed workers in the United States, and in 1990, they were one

Table 11.

## Women-Owned Firms* in Washington and the United States, 1992



* For reasons of comparability, the statistics in Table 11 do not include data on C corporations. Because data on $C$ corporations were collected for the first time in the most recent Economic Census (1992), there are no comparable numbers for C corporations in the 1987 Economic Census. In 1992, there were over 517,000 women-owned $C$ comorations nationally. C corporations are legally incorporated businesses that are non-subchapter $S$-i.e., unlike subchapter $S$ corporations, which must have 35 or fewer shareholders to quality for taxation as individual shareholders rather than as corporations, $c$ corporations have no restrictions.

Source: U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, 1996; based on the 1992 Economic Census.
Compiled by the Institute for Women's Policy Research.

in three. The decision to become self-employed is influenced by many factors. According to recent research, self-employed women tend to be older and married, have no young children, and have higher levels of education than the average. They are also more likely to be covered by another's health insurance. Self-employed women are also more likely to work flexible hours, with 42 percent of married self-employed women and 34 percent of nonmarried self-employed women working parttime (Devine, 1994). Women in Washington are more likely to be self-employed than women in the United States. In Washington, 8.8 percent of employed women are self-employed, compared with 6.1 percent of women in the United States (see Figure 6b).

## 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 frustrate 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 $\$ 12,000$, while that for married couples with children was $\$ 41,000$ (see Figure 9). Figure 9 also shows that family incomes were higher, on average, for all family types in Washington than in the United States as a whole.

The proportion of women in poverty in Washington is lower than that nationwide ( 11.0 percent and 13.2 percent, respectively; see Figure 10). The proportion of women receiving AFDC in Washington is comparable to the proportion of women receiving AFDC in the United States (see Figure 10). Approximately 82,500 women and 187,000 children in Washington received benefits in 1993 (U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, 1993). The level of AFDC benefits for a family of three in Washington was $\$ 546$ in 1993. AFDC and Food Stamp benefits combined equaled 75.8 percent of the poverty threshold. In contrast, nationwide, the median AFDC benefit for a family of three was $\$ 393$ and combined AFDC and Food


Figure 10.
Percent of Women in Poverty and Percent Receiving AFDC Aged 18 and Older in Washington and the United States, 1990


Soures: Poverty data from the Population Reference Bureau, 1993; based on the Publle Use Microdata Sample of the 1990 Census. AFDC recipiency data are from the U.S. Department of Health and Human Sevices, 1990.

Stamp benefits equaled only 62 percent of the poverty line. Thus among the states, Washington does a better than average job in providing a minimum sufficiency level for poor women and their children. Nevertheless, the poverty rate for single mothers is 39.5 percent in Washington compared with 42.3 percent nationwide, much higher than for any other family type (see Figure 11).

Washington does relatively well in providing a safety net for employed women. Although two states in the Pacific West region do better than

Washington, the percent of unemployed women receiving Unemployment Insurance (UI) is much higher in Washington than in the United States as a whole ( 45.7 percent versus 29.7 percent; see Figure 12). However, unemployed men in Washington fare much better than women, with 61.9 percent of unemployed men receiving UI benefits, among the highest rates of UI receipt in the Pacific West region. The discrepancy between men's and women's UI receipt is much larger in Washington than for the country as a whole.

Figure 11.
Poverty Rates for Selected Family Types and for Unrelated Individuals in Washington and the United States, 1990


Source: Unpublished data, U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, based on the 1990 Census.

Figure 12.
Proportion of Unemployed Women and Men with Unemployment Insurance in the Pacific West Region and in the United States, 1994


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

## Reproductive Rights

This section includes information on legislation relating to access to legal abortions, public funding for abortions and infertility treatments, the position of the governor and state legislature on reproductive choice, and maternity stay laws, among other factors related to reproductive rights.

Reproductive rights include more than the legal right to abortion; they also include the ability to exercise that right in practice. Ease of access to abortions is critical. Legal issues that relate to access to abortion include parental notification and waiting periods. The number of abortion providers in each county within the state also plays an important role in providing access to abortions. The stances of the governor and state legislative body
are also important in maintaining access to legal abortions in the face of concerted antiabortion campaigns. There are also economic issues relating to abortion, such as public funding for abortions for women who qualify. In addition, abortion is not the only reproductive issue of importance to women. Maternity stay laws (which provide a minimum length of hospitalization after childbirth), the right of gay and lesbian couples to adopt children, and public funding for infertility treatments all affect the reproductive lives of women.

The reproductive rights composite index shows that Washington, while in the middle of its region, is nevertheless tenth in the nation, indicating that reproductive rights in Washington are very strong.

| Chart VI. Panel A <br> Reproductive Rights: National and Regional Ranks |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | National Rank* (of 51) | Regional Rank ${ }^{*}$ (of 5) |
| Reproductive Rights Composite Index | 10 | 3 |
| For methodology see Appendix 1. <br> * The national rank is of a possible 51, referring to the 50 states plus the District of Columbia. The regional rank is of a maximum of five and refers to states in the Pacific West region (Alaska, California, Hawail, Oregon, and Washington). |  |  |
|  |  |  |

Calculated by the Institute for Women's Policy Research.

## Chart Vl. Panel B Components of the Reproductive Rights Composite Index



Does the state allow access to abortion services without a waiting period? ${ }^{\text {a }}$

What percent of counties in the state have abortion providers? ${ }^{\text {b }}$
$28 \%$
Is Washington's state government pro-choice?
Governor
Senate
House of Representatives
Doos pubilic funding cover infertility treatments?
Does the state have a maternity stay law? ${ }^{\mathrm{d}}$ *
Does the state allow gayfesbian couples to adopt? ${ }^{\circ}$
State is neutral

- New federal legislation, passed in September 1996, requires insurance companies to pay for minimum hospital stays in maternity cases.
- NARAL Foundation and NARAL, 1995; 'Henshaw and Van Vort, 1994; ©King and Meyer, 1996; "American Political Network, Inc., 1996; "Human Rights Campaign, forthcoming.

Compiled by the Institute for Women's Policy Research.

## Explanation of the Components in the Reproductive Rights Index

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 35 states with such laws on the books as of January 1995, 24 enforced their laws, which usually included some type of procedure allowing courts or physicians to waive the notice or consent requirement in
cases of undue burden. Washington has no mandatory consent law (NARAL Foundation and NARAL, 1995).

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. Washington has no waiting period (NARAL Foundation and NARAL, 1995).

In some states, public funding for abortions is available only under specific circumstances, such as rape or incest, life endangerment to the mother, or limited health circumstances of the fetus. Washington has no such restrictions (NARAL Foundation and NARAL, 1995).

The percent of counties with abortion providers includes all counties that have at least one abortion provider. This proportion ranges from two to 88 percent across the states. Washington's proportion of counties with providers is 12 percentage points above the national average (Henshaw and Van Vort, 1994).

Maternity stay laws require that a minimum length of time under hospitalization be provided to a new mother. Such laws follow the recommendations of the American Medical Association, which suggests a minimum hospital stay of 48 hours after an uncomplicated vaginal birth and of 96 hours after a cesarean section. If the doctor and the mother agree to an early release, such legislation generally requires that the relevant insurance company provide one home visit. As of this writing, Washington had passed a matemity stay law (American Political Network, Inc., 1996). In September 1996, new federal legislation was passed that mandates that insurance companies pay for the recommended stays.

The governor and members of the State Senate and State House of Representatives were asked by NARAL if they would uphold a judicial restriction on abortion rights and availability. If they answered "yes," they were considered anti-choice. If they answered "no," they were considered pro-choice. In addition, the official comments made by the Governor's office were taken into account in determining abortion rights positions. While Washington's governor is pro-choice, its Senate and House of Representatives are not (NARAL Foundation and NARAL, 1995).

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, although they tend to cover a wide range of contraceptive services. Washington follows the general trend (King and Meyer, 1996).

Some states have specific legislation prohibiting discrimination against gay and lesbian couples in adoption procedures. One state, New Mexico, has passed legislation to allow the nonbiological parent in a gay or lesbian couple to adopt the child, while four states have passed legislation explicitly prohibiting adoption in such circumstances. Washington is neutral on this issue (Human Rights Campaign, forthcoming).

## Health and Vital Statistics

This section focuses on the quality of health of the population in the state. Topics include fertility and infant health, the consumption of preventive health services, environmental and cancer risks, and Health Management Organization (HMO) enrollment. Health is an important aspect of the economic status of women. Illness can be costly and painful and can interrupt the daily tasks people take for granted. The healthier the inhabitants of an area are, 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 that men do. Women also suffer more chronic illness, 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). Average life expectancy in the United States in 1992 was 79.1 years for women and 72.3 years for men. The median age for women at the time of their first birth was 23.8 years, and the age at first marriage was 24 years.

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 (Hartmann et al., 1996). 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 12 million women of working age lack health insurance of any kind (Yoon et al., 1994). The percent of women in Washington who have health insurance and the percent who have access through their employment is well above the national average (see Table 10).
Poverty rates are lower for women in Washington compared with women in the United States as a
whole (see Figure 10). Infant mortality rates are also lower in Washington than nationwide ( 6.4 per 1,000 births compared with 8.4 per 1,000 births for the United States), as are fertility rates ( 62.9 births per 1,000 women in Washington compared with 66.7 births per 1,000 women; see Table 12). The percent of babies with low birth weights is also lower in Washington. This may indicate that women in Washington have greater access to pre- and postnatal care. In terms of births to teenage mothers and unmarried mothers, Washington follows the national trend. In the United States, births to teenage mothers as a percent of all births fell from 15.6 percent in 1980 to 12.7 in 1992 while births to unmarried mothers rose from 18.4 percent in 1980 to 32.6 percent in 1994, indicating that, increasingly, unwed motherhood extends across all age groups. In Washington, births to teenage mothers also fell while births to unmarried mothers rose. The levels of both are lower in Washington than in the nation.

Washington also does relatively well on a number of preventive health care measures. Of women over age 40,86 percent have had a mammogram, higher than the median rate for women in the United States. Of adult women, 96 percent have had a pap smear, again higher than the national rate. And, nearly three quarters of all young children in Washington have been vaccinated (about the same as the national average).

In recent years, the trend toward HMOs has grown, with national enrollment rising from 9.1 million in 1980 to 45.2 million at the end of 1993 (U.S. Department of Commerce, 1995b). This major trend requires monitoring from the point of view of how well the new arrangements meet women's health care needs. In addition, concerns have been raised about how well HMOs meet the needs of the medically needy, such as the disabled or those with severe or long-term illnesses.

Similarly, there has been an increasing trend 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

Table 12.
Health and Vital Statistics in Washington and the United States


Table 13.
Percent of Total Population, Medicare, and Medicaid Recipients Enrolled in Health Maintenance Organizations (HMOs), 1994

|  | Washington | United States |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Total Population | 5,343,000 | 260,341,000 |
|  |  |  |
| Percent of Total Population Receiving Medicare | 12.6 | 14.0 |
|  | 135 | 83 |
| Percent of Total Population Receiving Medicaid | 12.5 | 13.1 |
|  | 70.8 | 2 |

Source: McCloskey et al., 1995, and unpublished tables for 1994 from the U.S. Department of Commerce.
Compiled by the Institute for Women's Policy Research.
question (Urban Institute, 1996; Jacobs Institute of Women's Health, 1996).

There is a great deal of variation in HMO membership 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 (Winterbottom et al., 1995). The percentage of the population enrolled in HMOs in Washington is not as high as that of the United States ( 16.4 percent versus 19.5 percent, see

Table 13). Medicare recipients in Washington are more likely to be enrolled in an HMO than the national average - 13.5 percent versus 9.2 percent). While a marginally lower proportion of the total population receives Medicaid in Washington compared with the United States, Medicaid recipients in Washington are much more likely to be enrolled in HMOs ( 70.6 percent compared with 21.4 percent in the United States.

## Basic Demographics

This section includes data on different populations within the state. 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 prisons. 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 nation as a whole, Washington has a slightly smaller proportion of elderly women, a greater proportion of single-person households, a slightly lower proportion of women living in metropolitan areas, and is less diverse in terms of race and ethnicity. Demographic factors have implications for the location of economic activity, the types of jobs available, the growth of markets, and the types of public services that are needed.

Between 1980 and 1990, the population of Washington grew by 17.8 percent, almost twice as fast as the nation as a whole ( 9.8 percent; U.S. Department of Commerce, 1995b). Compared with its surrounding states, Washington's population growth rate falls in the middle. In recent years, population growth appears to have kept pace with past trends in Washington, with population increasing by 9.8 percent between 1990 and 1993). This rate is the second highest in the Pacific West region, behind Alaska ( 10.2 percent).

There were 2.4 million women in Washington in 1990, 1.9 million of whom were aged 16 and over. The average age for women in Washington is almost the same as the average age for women in the

United States. However, Washington has a smaller proportion of women over age 65 than the United States as a whole ( 13.5 percent versus 14.7 percent nationwide). The female population in Washington is not as ethnically diverse as the female population in the nation as a whole, with minorities comprising about 12.8 percent of women in the state ( 24 percent for the United States). Asian-Americans are the largest minority population in Washington, making up nearly five percent of the population of women.

The proportion of single women in Washington is smaller than in the country as a whole(20.4 percent versus 23.1 percent), but there are proportionately more divorced women than in the nation (11.4 percent versus 9.4 percent; Figure 13). Fifty-eight percent of the women in Washington are married, compared with 56 percent of women in the United States. The distribution of family types is comparable to the nation as a whole. Washington's share of married-couple families matches the nation's, but the state has a greater proportion of single-person households. Among families with children under age 18, the percent that are female-headed in Washington is slightly smaller than that of the nation (18.6 percent versus 19.5 percent; see Figure 14).

Washington is slightly less urbanized than the U.S. population as a whole. Washington has a proportion of women who are foreign-born similar to that of the United States as a whole. The percent of Washington's prison population that is female is higher than that for the nation as a whole.

| Table 14. Basic Statistics* |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | Washington | United States |
| Total Population, 1995 ${ }^{\text {a }}$, |  |  |
| Number of Women, All Ages ${ }^{\text {b }}$ | 2,436,273 | 127,212,264 |
|  |  |  |
| Median Age of All Women ${ }^{\text {c }}$ | 33.9 years | 34.1 years |
| Proportionof Women Over Age 65 ${ }^{\text {b }}$, |  |  |
| Distribution of Women by Race and Ethnicity, All Ages ${ }^{\text {b }}$ |  |  |
| African-American $\dagger$ - | 1-27\% | - $12.1 \%$ |
|  |  |  |
| Asian-American ${ }^{\dagger}$, | - $4.6 \%$ | 2.9\% |
| Native Americant | 17 | 08\% |
| Distribution of Households by Type, 1990 ${ }^{\text {b }}$ |  |  |
| Total Number of Famly and Nonfamily Households |  |  |
| Married-Couple Families (with and without their own children) | 56.1\% | 56.2\% |
| Female-Headed Families (with and without their own childreb) <br> $9.0 \%$ <br> $113 \%$ |  |  |
| Male-Headed Families (with and without their own children) | 3.0\% | 3.2\% |
|  |  |  |
| Nonfamily Households: Other | 4.3\% | 6.6\% |
| proportion of Women Living in Metropolitan Areas, AllAges (1990) |  |  |
| Proportion of Women Who Are Foreign-Born, All Ages (1990) ${ }^{\text {b }}$ | 7.1\% | 7.9\% |
| Percent of Federal and State Prison Population Who Are Women (1993) ${ }^{\text {a }}$ | $5$ |  |
| * Data are for 1990 unless otherwise specified. <br> ${ }^{\dagger}$ Non-Hispanic. <br> \# Hispanics may be of any race. <br> - McCloskey et al., 1995 ;' Population Reference Bureau, 1993; "Institute for Women's Policy Research, 1995; ${ }^{\text {d U.S. Department of Justice, } 1995 .}$ |  |  |

Compiled by the Institute for Women's Policy Research.

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



For women aged 15 and otder.
Source: Population Reference Bureau, 1993; based on the Public Use Microdata Sample of the 1990 Census.

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


Source: Institute for Women's Policy Research, 1995; based on the Public Use Microdata Sample of the 1990 Census.

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

Composite Political Participation Index: This composite index reflects four areas of political participation: voter registration; voter turnout; women in elective office, including state legislatures, statewide 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 officeholding 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.

Voter Registration and Voter Turnout: These two component indicators show the average percent (for the two elections) of all women aged 18 and oider (in the civilian noninstitutionalized population) who reported registering or voting. Source: U.S. Bureau of the Census (1993, 1996), based on the Current Population Survey.
Women in Elected Office: This component indicator is based on a methodology developed by the Center for Policy Alternatives (1995).

This composite has four components and reflects office-holding at the state and national levels. For each state the proportion of officeholders who are women was computed for several levels: state representatives, state senators, statewide 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 was 4.45. 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 (1996) and the Council of State Governments (1996).

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 established by legislation or executive order), women's state agenda projects (usually voluntary, nonprofit organizations), 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 and 0.5 point if a legislative caucus exists in one house but not the other. Source: Center for Policy Alternatives, 1995, updated in 1996 by IWPR.

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: 1989 median

 yearly earnings of noninstitutionalized women aged 18-65 who worked more than 49 weeks during the year and more than 34 hours per week. Source: IWPR calculations of the Public Use Microdata Sample of the 1990 Census of Population.Ratio of Women's to Men's Earnings: 1989 median yearly earnings of noninstitutionalized women aged 18-65 who worked more than 49 weeks per year and more than 34 hours per week divided by the 1989 median yearly earnings of noninstitutionalized men aged 18-65 who worked more than 49 weeks per year and more than 34 hours per week. Source: IWPR calculations of the Public Use Microdata Sample of the 1990 Census of Population.

## 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, in 1994, employed or looking for work. This includes those employed full-time, part-time voluntarily, or parttime involuntarily and those who are unemployed. Source: U.S Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1995a, based on the Current Population Survey.
## Women in Managerial and Professional Occupations: Percent of civilian noninstitutionalized

 women aged 16 and older who, in 1994, were employed in executive, administrative, manage-rial, or professional specialty occupations. Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1995, 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 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. Each component was given a weight of 1.0.
Access to Health Insurance: Percent of civilian noninstitutionalized women under age 65 who are insured. The state-by-state percentages are based on the averages of three years of pooled data from the 1991, 1992, and 1993 Current Population Survey from the Bureau of the Census. Source: Winterbottom et al., 1995.

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 per-

 cent 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. Sex of the owner was determined by sending their social security numbers to the Social Security Administration for a list of sex codes. Source: U.S. Department of Commerce, 1996, based on the 1992 Economic Census.Women Above Poverty Level: In 1989, the percent of women living above the official poverty threshold, which varies by family size and composition. In 1989, the poverty level for a family of four was $\$ 12,675$. Source: Population Reference Bureau, 1993, based on the Public Use Microdata Sample of the 1990 Census of Population.

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 prochoice, public funding of infertility treatments, existence of a maternity stay law, and whether gay/lesbian couples can adopt. 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 waitingperiod 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 maternity stay law indicator, the state received a score of 0.5 if it had legislation pending. For the indicator of whether gay/ lesbian couples can adopt, states were given 1.0 point if legislation prohibiting discrimination against these couples in adoption proceedings exists and 0.5 points if the state has no official position on the subject. The maternity stay 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 35 states with such laws on the books as of January 1995, 24 enforce their laws. Of the 24, 20 allow for a judicial bypass of notification if the minor appears before a judge and provides a reason that notifjcation would place an undue burden on the decision to have an abortion. Three states provide for physician bypass of notification; only Utah had no bypass procedure as of January 1995 (NARAL Foundation and NARAL, 1995).

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 15 states with mandatory waiting periods as of January 1995, seven (with waiting periods ranging from eight to 24 hours) enforced their laws (NARAL Foundation and NARAL, 1995).

Restrictions on Public Funding: In some states, public funding for abortions is available only under specific circumstances, such as rape or incest, endangerment to the mother's life, or limited health circumstances of the fetus. As of January 1995, 17 states and the District of Columbia funded abortions in all or most circumstances (NARAL Foundation and NARAL, 1995).

Maternity Stay Laws: Maternity stay laws require that a minimum length of time under hospitalization be provided to a new mother. The laws follow the recommendations of the American Medical Association, which suggests a minimum hospital stay of 48 hours after an uncomplicated vaginal birth and 96 hours after a cesarean section. Usually, the laws provide that if the doctor and the
mother agree to an early release, the relevant insurance company must provide one home visit (American Political Network, Inc., 1996). In September 1996, new federal legislation was passed to require that-insurance companies pay for the recommended minimum hospital stays in maternity cases.

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, although they tend to cover a wide range of contraceptive services (King and Meyer, 1996).

## Same-Sex Couples and Adoption: Some states

 have specific legislation prohibiting discrimination against gay and lesbian couples in adoption procedures. For situations in which only one member of the couple is the biological parent, states can adopt legislation that allows the nonbiological parent in a gay or lesbian couple to adopt the child. One state, New Mexico, has passed legislation to allow the nonbiological parent in a gay or lesbian couple to adopt the child, while four states have passed legislation explicitly prohibiting adoption in such circumstances (Human Rights Campaign, forthcoming).
## Domestic Violence

Mandatory Arrest: As of 1992, the codes of 14 states and the District of Columbia mandate arrest for perpetrators when a responding officer concludes that domestic violence has occurred. 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). Michigan and Virginia also recently passed pro-arrest laws.

## Child Support

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 (Gershenzon, 1993).

## Welfare

Note: As this report goes to press, new federal legislation on welfare that gives states much more autonomy in shaping their welfare programs has been passed. The policies a state adopted under the former federal law may indicate the direction its welfare policy will take under the new law, which went into effect October 1, 1996. States have until July 1997 to comply; however, states may continue to carry out programs approved by the Department of Health and Human Services prior to the passage of the new law.

Child Exclusion/Family Caps: Under child exclusion/family cap provisions, additional AFDC benefits are denied to children conceived while the mother was receiving AFDC. As of May 1995, 14 states requested waivers from the federal law to implement child exclusion rules. In most of those states, the exclusion applies to children born more than ten months after the mother first started to receive benefits or to children conceived while the mother was receiving AFDC. Eleven of the states would exempt from the child exclusion requirement children born as a result of incest, rape or sexual assault (Savner and Greenberg, 1995).

Retains More Earnings: Under prior law, AFDC recipients who enter employment are entitled to disregard only a small amount of earnings before their AFDC grants are reduced. The rule has been criticized as creating a disincentive to work. As of May 1995, 28 states had submitted waiver requests to the federal government to liberalize the treatment of earnings for AFDC recipients (Savner and Greenberg, 1995).

Raised Asset Limitations: Under prior law, families with assets exceeding $\$ 1,000$ are ineligible for AFDC. However, the asset rule has been criticized for penalizing savings. As of May 1995, 31 states had requested waivers from the federal government to change the asset rules. Increased asset limits range from $\$ 1,500$ in Indiana to $\$ 10,000$ in Oregon and Missouri (Savner and Greenberg, 1995).

## Employment/Unemployment Benefits

Minimum Wage: As of June 1996, 11 states and the District of Columbia had minimum wage rates that were higher than the federal level. Seven 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, 1996). A federal minimum wage increase was signed into law on August 20, 1996. The federal standard will rise to $\$ 5.15$ in two steps - the first step, effective October 1, 1996, is an increase to $\$ 4.75$, and the second step, effective September 1,1997 , is an increase to $\$ 5.15$ per hour.

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 work. In five states with mandated programs, 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 seriously ill or disabled. In states with TDI programs, women workers typically receive 8 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 the 12 -month period preceding the start of a spell of unemploy-
ment. 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 minimum 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 Ul and can enact policies that are more or less inclusive and more or less generous to claimants.

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 sex or race of the workers who hoid those jobs. By 1989, 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, 1995). 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: <br> National Rankings on Selected Indicators

| STATE | Political Participation Rankings |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | Composite Index |  | Women in Elected Óffice Composite Index |  |
|  | SCORE | RANK |  |  |
|  |  |  | SCORE | RANK |
| Alabama Alaska | -3.09 | 41 |  |  |
| Alaska | 2.97 | 12 | . 60 | 47 |
| Arizona Arkansas | -2.16 | 36 | 2.35 <br> 2.08 | 11 |
| California | -5.46 | 46 | 2.88 1.16 | 16 |
| Colorado | 4.16 | 8 | ${ }_{3.11}$ | 38 |
| Connecticut | 2.87 | 13 | 2.65 | 3 |
| Delaware | 4.24 | 7 | 2.39 | 5 |
| District of Columbia | 3.16 6.00 | 11 | 2.80 | 4 |
| Florida | 6.00 | n/a | n/a | + ${ }^{4}$ |
| Georgia | -2.97 | 40 | 1.42 | n/a |
| Hawaii | -3.44 0.31 | 42 | 1.11 | 39 |
| Idaho | 0.31 2.86 | 23 | 2.60 |  |
| Illinois | 2.86 0.69 | 14 | 2.23 | 13 |
| Indiana | 0.69 -0.69 | 21 | 2.31 | 12 |
| lowa | -0.69 0.50 | 29 | 1.89 | 20 |
| Kansas | 8.78 | 22 | 1.24 | 35 |
| Kentucky | 8.78 -7.10 | 49 | 4.45 | 1 |
| Louisiana | -4.02 | 49 | 0.53 | 49 |
| Maine | 4.84 | 43 | 0.60 | 47 |
| Maryland | 4.84 4.79 | 4 | 2.46 |  |
| Massachusetts | -1.15 | 30 | 2.56 | 7 |
| Michigan | -1.28 | 30 | 1.23 | 37 |
| Minnesota | 4.98 | 24 3 | 1.39 | 33 |
| Mississippi Missouri | -6.32 | + 48 | 1.93 | 18 |
| Missouri Montana | 0.91 | 48 19 | 0.52 1.46 | 50 |
| Montana Nebraska | 2.59 | 15 | 1.46 1.59 | 31 |
| Nevada | 0.84 | 20 | 1.53 | 26 27 |
| New Hampshire | -0.06 -1.23 | 27 | 2.37 | 10 |
| New Jersey | -1.23 -1.38 | 31 | 1.51 | 29 |
| New Mexico | -1.38 | 33 | 1.65 | 23 |
| New York | -1.86 -2.26 | 35 37 | 1.49 | 30 |
| North Carolina | -2.26 -2.78 | 37 | 1.39 | 33 |
| North Dakota | -2.78 4.53 | 38 | 1.03 | 41 |
| Ohio | -0.10 | 6 | 1.69 | 22 |
| Oklahoma | -0.164 | 28 34 | 1.72 | 21 |
| Oregon | -1.64 3.95 | 34 | 1.09 | 40 |
| Pennsylvania | -5.94 | 47 | 1.95 | 17 |
| Rhode Island | -0.04 | 47 | 0.74 | 45 |
| South Carolina | -4.88 | 26 44 | 1.63 | 24 |
| South Dakota | 1.42 | 44 18 | 0.73 | 46 |
| Tennessee | -7.29 | 50 | 1.61 | 25 |
| Texas | -7.29 -1.25 | 50 32 | 0.84 | 43 |
| Utah | -1.06 | 32 24 | 1.92 | 19 |
| Vermont | 3.33 | 24 10 | 1.53 | 27 |
| Virginia | -2.33 -2.87 | 10 39 | 2.21 | 14 |
| Washington | -2.87 7.87 | 10 2 | 0.88 | 42 |
| West Virginia | -4.98 | 2 45 | 3.88 0.82 | 2 |
| Wisconsin | 1.58 | 45 17 | 0.82 | 44 |
| Wyoming | 2.39 | 16 | 1.34 | 35 15 |
| United States |  | 16 | 2.19 | 15 |
|  |  |  | 1.64 |  |

## Political Participation Rankings

|  | 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 | PERCENT | RANK | PERCENT | RANK | NUMBER |  |
| Alabama | 73.2 | 17 | 54.4 | 27 | NUMBER | RANK |
| Alaska Arizona | 73.8 | 16 | 64.4 | 8 | 2.5 1.0 | 6 40 |
| Arkansas | 65.0 | 34 | 54.3 | 29 | 0.0 | 48 |
| California | 65.2 58.1 | 33 | 50.4 | 43 | 0.5 | 48 |
| Colorado | 72.4 | 48 | 50.6 | 41 | 3.0 | 1 |
| Connecticut | 74.9 | 19 | 58.0 | 22 | 1.0 | 40 |
| Delaware | 65.0 | 34 | 62.1 | 12 | 2.0 | 10 |
| District of Columbia | 73.9 | n/a | 54.1 | 31 | 2.0 | 10 |
| Florida | 61.3 | 45 | 64.8. | n/a | 1.0 | n/a |
| Georgia | 60.9 | 46 | 50.5 | 42 | 2.0 | 10 |
| Hawaii | 57.8 | 49 | 46.7 51.2 | 48 | 3.0 | 1 |
| Idaho | 70.2 | 25 | 51.2 | 39 | 1.5 | 37 |
| Illinois | 69.2 | 26 | 61.1 54.7 | 14 | 2.0 | 10 |
| Indiana | 63.3 | 42 | 54.7 | 14 34 | 1.0 | 40 |
| lowa | 76.8 | 7 | 63.4 | 34 | 2.0 | 10 |
| Kansas | 72.6 | 18 | 63.6 | 13 | 2.0 | 10 |
| Kentucky | 62.9 | 43 | 43.6 | 13 50 | 0.0 | 48 |
| Louisiana | 74.0 | 15 | 52.0 | 35 | 2.0 | 10 |
| Maine | 83.8 | 2 | 65.1 | 35 6 | 2.0 | 10 |
| Maryland | 68.9 | 27 | 58.1 | ${ }^{6}$ | 1.0 | 40 |
| Massachusetts | 70.3 | 24 | 58.9 58.9 | 22 19 | 3.0 | 1 |
| Michigan | 75.4 | 10 | 56.9 59.9 | 19 | 2.0 | 10 |
| Minnesota | 83.3 |  | 66.0 | 17 5 | 2.0 2.5 | 10 6 |
| Mississippi | 76.6 | 9 | 54.4 | 27 | 0.0 | 6 48 |
| Montana | 75.2 76.7 | 11 | 62.5 | 11 | 2.0 | 10 |
| Nebraska | 74.7 | - 14 | 68.8 | 1 | 2.0 | 10 |
| Nevada | 57.1 | 50 | 61.1 | 14 | 2.0 | 10 |
| New Hampshire | 68.0 | 30 | 50.4 | 43 | 2.0 | 10 |
| New Jersey | 65.8 | 32 | 53.8 51.4 | 32 | 2.0 | 10 |
| New Mexico | 63.4 | 39 | 51.4 54.3 | 38 | 2.0 | 10 |
| New York | 60.9 | 46 | 54.3 51.8 | 29 37 | 2.0 | 10 |
| North Carolina | 66.1 | 31 | 51.8 48.0 | 37 45 | 2.5 | 6 |
| North Dakota | 92.4 | 1 | 65.1 | 45 | 3.0 |  |
| Ohio | 68.1 | 29 | 56.0 | 25 | 2.0 | 10 |
| Oklahoma | 72.1 | 20 | 56.0 57.5 | 25 24 | 2.0 | 10 |
| Oregon | 77.2 | 6 | 57.5 68.7 | 24 | 2.0 | 10 |
| Pennsylvania | 62.2 | 44 | 68.7 51.1 | 2 40 | 2.0 | 10 |
| Rhode Island | 68.6 | 28 | 51.1 58.6 | 40 20 | 1.5 | 37 |
| South Carolina | 64.4 | 36 | 58.6 51.9 | 20 36 | 2.0 | 10 |
| South Dakota | 79.3 | 5 | 51.9 67.4 | 36 3 | 2.0 1.0 | 10 40 |
| Tennessee | 64.0 | 37 | 47.2 | 47 | 1.0 0.5 | 40 46 |
| Texas | 63.4 | 39 | 47.9 | 46 | 0.5 2.0 | 46 10 |
| Vermont | 70.7 74.7 | 23 | 59.2 | 18 | 2.0 | 10 10 |
| Virginia | 74.7 63.4 | 13 39 | 60.7 | 16 | 2.0 | 10 |
| Washington | 63.4 70.8 | 39 21 | 53.4 | 33 | 3.0 | 1 |
| West Virginia | 63.6 | 38 | 58.1 | 21 | 1.5 | 37 |
| Wisconsin | 82.2 | 38 | 45.5 | 49 | 2.5 | 6 |
| Wyoming | 70.8 | 21 | 63.4 | 10 | 2.0 | 10 |
|  |  |  |  | 4 | 1.0 | 40 |
| United States | 66.5 |  | 53.7 |  | 2.0 (media |  |

## Employment and Earnings Rankings

Composite Index

| STATE | SCORE | RANK | EARNINGS | RANK |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Alabama | 3.52 | 48 | \$15,000 | 42 |
| Alaska | 4.63 | 2 | 24,000 |  |
| Arizona | 4.00 | 22 | 18,000 | 20 |
| Arkansas | 3.57 | 46 | 14,000 | 47 |
| California | 4.27 |  | 22,000 | 5 |
| Colorado | 4.28 | 6 | 19,000 | 14 |
| Connecticut | 4.35 | 5 | 23,000 | 3 |
| Delaware | 4.13 | 15 | 19,600 | 12 |
| District of Columbia | 5.12 | 1 | 24,500 |  |
| Florida | 3.84 | 32 | 17,062 | 27 |
| Georgia | 4.04 | 18 | 18,000 | 20 |
| Hawaii | 4.18 | 12 | 19,000 | 14 |
| Idaho | 3.73 | 40 | 15,000 | 42 |
| llinois | 4.01 | 21 | 19,842 | 9 |
| Indiana | 3.57 | 46 | 16,500 | 32 |
| lowa | 3.79 | 36 | 16,000 | 34 |
| Kansas | 3.93 | 25 | 16,640 | 30 |
| Kentucky | 3.50 | 49 | 15,087 | 41 |
| Louisiana | 3.58 | 45 | 15,000 | 42 |
| Maine | 3.88 | 27 | 16,536 | 31 |
| Maryland | 4.53 | 3 | 22,000 |  |
| Massachusetts | 4.45 | 4 | 22,000 | 5 |
| Michigan | 3.88 | 27 | 19,500 | 13 |
| Minnesota | 4.14 | 14 | 19,000 | 14 |
| Mississippi | 3.44 | 50 | 14,000 | 47 |
| Missouri | 3.86 | 30 | 17,000 | 28 |
| Montana | 3.66 | 43 | 14,000 | 47 |
| Nebraska | 3.81 | 35 | 15,000 | 42 |
| Nevada | 3.97 | 23 | 18,531 | 19 |
| New Hampshire | 4.22 | 11 | 19,800 | 10 |
| New Jersey | 4.26 | 9 | 22,700 |  |
| New Mexico | 3.88 | 27 | 15,900 | 37 |
| New York | 4.25 | 10 | 22,000 | 5 |
| North Carolina | 3.82 | 33 | 16,000 | 34 |
| North Dakota | 3.86 | 30 | 14,000 | 47 |
| Ohio | 3.82 | 33 | 18,000 | 20 |
| Oklahoma | 3.76 | 38 | 16,000 | 34 |
| Oregon | 4.12 | 17 | 18,000 | 20 |
| Pennsylvania | 3.79 | 36 | 18,000 | 20 |
| Rhode Island South Carolina | 4.04 | 18 | 18,833 | 18 |
| South Dakota | 3.70 3.74 | 41 | 15,500 13,429 | 39 |
| Tennessee | 3.67 | 42 | 15,739 | 38 |
| Texas | 4.04 | 18 | 18,000 | 20 |
| Utah | 3.97 | 23 | 16,500 | 32 |
| Vermont | 4.28 | 6 | 18,000 | 20 |
| Virginia | 4.18 | 12 | 19,000 | 14 |
| Washington | 4.13 | 15 | 19,680 | 11 |
| West Virginia | 3.34 | 51 | 14,738 | 46 |
| Wisconsin | 3.92 | 26 | 16,981 | 29 |
| Wyoming | 3.62 | 44 | 15,200 | 40 |
| United States |  |  | 18,778 |  |

Employment and Earnings Rankings

|  | Earnings Ratio Between Full-Time, Full-Year Employed Women and Men |  | Percent of Women in the Labor Force |  | Percent of Employed Women, Managerial or Professional Occupations |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| STATE | PERCENT | RANK | PERCENT | RANK | PERCENT | RANK |
| Alabama | 61.2 | 46 |  |  |  |  |
| Alaska | 75.0 | + | 54.8 67.5 | 46 | 25.7 | 39 |
| Arizona | 69.7 | 17 | 57.4 | 38 | 31.7 30.1 | 9 |
| Arkansas | 70.0 | 15 | 57.3 | 38 40 | 30.1 23.7 | 17 |
| California | 73.3 | 6 | 56.9 | 41 | 23.7 30.3 | 48 |
| Colorado | 70.4 | 14 | 65.7 | 5 | 30.3 32.2 | 16 |
| Connecticut | 67.6 | 24 | 61.5 | ${ }^{5}$ | 32.2 31.3 | 12 |
| Delaware | 67.6 | 24 | 63.4 | 15 15 | 31.3 29.4 | 12 19 |
| District of Columbia Florida | 87.5 | 1 | 63.9 | 24 | 29.4 43.0 | 19 |
| Florida | 69.6 | 18 | 55.4 | 42 | 43.0 28.0 | 1 28 |
| Georgia Hawaii | 72.0 | 8 | 60.1 | 29 | 28.0 29.0 | 28 20 |
| Hawaii Idaho | 76.0 | 2 | 62.8 | 18 | 28.3 | 20 |
| Idaho | 65.2 | 40 | 63.3 | 16 | 25.8 | 38 |
| Indiana | 66.1 | 35 | 59.7 | 32 | 28.0 | 28 |
| lowa | 61.7 | 47 | 62.5 | 19 | 21.2 | 51 |
| Kansas | 66.6 | 32 | 65.6 | 8 14 | 24.3 | 45 |
| Kentucky | 62.9 | 44 | 53.8 | 14 | 28.3 | 25 |
| Louisiana | 60.0 | 49 | 53.3 | 43 | 24.2 | 47 |
| Maine | 68.9 | 21 | 58.6 | 49 36 | 28.7 | 23 |
| Maryland | 71.0 | 12 | 64.2 | 12 | 28.5 35.4 | 24 |
| Massachusetts | 70.8 | 13 | 60.7 | 25 | 35.4 34.9 | 2 |
| Michigan | 61.8 | 45 | 58.7 | 35 | 34.9 26.9 | 3 3 3 |
| Minnesota | 67.9 | 23 | 69.8 | 35 | 26.9 27.4 | 34 |
| Mississippi | 63.6 | 41 | 55.2 | 45 | 27.4 23.6 | 31 49 |
| Missouri | 67.5 | 26 | 60.6 | 26 | 23.6 27.0 | 49 33 |
| Montana | 63.6 | 41 | 61.8 | 22 | 27.0 26.7 | 33 35 |
| Nebraska | 68.2 | 22 | 66.9 | 4 | 26.7 25.2 | 35 43 |
| Nevada New Hampshire | 71.3 66.3 | 11 | 62.4 | 20 | 25.2 25.3 | 43 |
| New Hampshire New Jersey | 66.3 65.7 | 34 | 65.7 | 5 | 31.1 | 13 |
| New Jersey New Mexico | 65.7 | 37 | 57.4 | 38 | 31.9 | 13 6 |
| New York | 67.3 73.3 | 28 | 55.3 | 43 | 31.8 | 7 |
| North Carolina | 73.3 71.7 | 6 10 | 53.2 | 50 | 31.8 | 7 |
| North Dakota | 70.0 | 15 | 60.4 | 27 | 25.6 | 40 |
| Ohio | 63.6 | 41 | 65.6 57.6 | $\begin{array}{r}8 \\ 3 \\ \hline\end{array}$ | 28.1 | 27 |
| Oklahoma | 66.7 | 30 | 57.6 | 37 47 | 27.5 | 30 |
| Oregon | 69.2 | 19 | 62.2 | 47 21 | 28.8 | 21 |
| Pennsylvania | 65.5 | . 38 | 54.6 | 48 | 31.5 | 10 |
| Rhode Island | 67.3 | 28 | 59.3 | -38 | 27.2 | 32 |
| South Carolina | 67.4 | 27 | 59.1 | 34 | 29.9 25.5 | 18 |
| South Dakota | 74.6 | 5 | 65.7 | 5 | 25.5 | 41 |
| Tennessee | 66.1 | 35 | 60.2 | 28 | 23.5 24.3 | 50 |
| Texas | 72.0 | 8 | 60.1 | -28 | 24.3 28.8 | 45 |
| Utah | 61.1 | 47 | 65.5 | 29 10 | 28.8 31.1 | 21 |
| Vermont | 75.0 | 3 | 65.3 | 10 11 | 31.1 32.1 | 13 5 |
| Virginia | 69.1 | 20 | 63.0 | 17 | 32.1 31.1 | 5 |
| Washington | 66.5 | 33 | 59.9 | 31 | 31.1 31.3 | 13 |
| West Virginia | 58.9 | 51 | 46.6 | 51 | 31.3 25.9 | 11 37 |
| Wisconsin | 65.3 | 39 | 67.3 |  | 26.9 26.2 | 37 36 |
| Wyoming | 59.7 | 50 | 64.1 | 13 | 24.5 | 36 44 |
| United States | 68.5 |  | 58.8 |  | 28.7 |  |

Economic Autonomy Rankings

|  | Composite Index |  | Percent of Women with Four or More Years of College |  |  | Percent of Women without Health Insurance |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| STATE | SCORE | RANK | PERCENT | RANK |  | PERCENT | RANK |
| Alabama | 3.58 | 46 | 13.5 | 45 |  | 16.8 | 39 |
| Alaska | 4.23 | 10 | 22.2 | 7 |  | 17.9 | 42 |
| Arizona | 4.03 | 23 | 17.2 | 25 |  | 16.3 | 37 |
| Arkansas | 3.47 | 50 | 11.9 | 50 |  | 18.5 | 43 |
| California | 4.17 | 14 | 20.1 | 13 |  | 16.3 | 37 |
| Colorado | 4.49 | 3 | 23.5 | 4 |  | 10.6 | 18 |
| Connecticut | 4.49 | 3 | 23.8 | 3 |  | 6.8 | 1 |
| Delaware | 4.15 | 16 | 18.7 | 16 |  | 13.2 | 28 |
| District of Columbia | 4.85 | 1 | 30.6 | 1 |  | 18.9 | 45 |
| Florida | 3.83 | 37 | 15.1 | 36 |  | 20.0 | 47 |
| Georgia | 3.89 | 32 | 16.8 | 27 | - | 16.2 | 36 |
| Hawaii | 4.42 | 7 | 20.9 | 11 |  | 7.8 | 3 |
| Idaho | 3.77 | 40 | 14.6 | 41 |  | 17.8 | 41 |
| Illinois | 4.11 | 18 | 18.4 | 17 |  | 10.5 | 16 |
| Indiana | 3.82 | 38 | 13.4 | 46 |  | 11.0 | 20 |
| lowa | 3.93 | 31 | 15.0 | 38 |  | 8.4 | 6 |
| Kansas | 4.11 | 18 | 18.4 | 17 |  | 10.8 | 19 |
| Kentucky | 3.58 | 46 | 12.2 | 49 |  | 11.2 | 21 |
| Louisiana | 3.58 | 46 | 14.5 | 42 |  | 20.6 | 49 |
| Maine | 3.96 | 26 | 17.2 | 25 |  | 11.4 | 22 |
| Maryland | 4.50 | 2 | 23.1 | 6 |  | 10.0 | 14 |
| Massachusetts | 4.44 | 6 | 24.1 | 2 |  | 9.7 | 12 |
| Michigan | 3.94 | 28 | 15.1 | 36 |  | 9.3 | 10 |
| Minnesota | 4.17 | 14 | 19.2 | 15 |  | 10.1 | 15 |
| Mississippi | 3.45 | 51 | 13.3 | 47 |  | 18.7 | 44 |
| Missouri | 3.86 | 33 | 15.2 | 35 |  | 13.0 | 27 |
| Montana | 3.94 | 28 | 18.0 | 20 |  | 15.5 | 35 |
| Nebraska | 4.05 | 21 | 16.7 | 28 |  | 9.1 | 9 |
| Nevada | 3.77 | 40 | 12.8 | 48 |  | 20.1 | 48 |
| New Hampshire | 4.23 | 10 | 21.1 | 9 |  | . 12.0 | 24 |
| New Jersey | 4.22 | 12 | 21.0 | 10 |  | 11.5 | 23 |
| New Mexico | 3.95 | 27 | 17.8 | 22 |  | 21.7 | 51 |
| New York | 4.19 | 13 | 20.7 | 12 |  | 12.9 | 26 |
| North Carolina | 3.84 | 36 | 15.7 | 32 |  | 13.6 | 30 |
| North Dakota | 3.94 | 28 | 16.7 | 28 |  | 7.6 | 2 |
| Ohio | 3.86 | 33 | 14.4 | 43 |  | 9.7 | 12 |
| Oklahoma | 3.72 | 43 | 15.0 | 38 |  | 19.9 | 46 |
| Oregon | 4.12 | 17 | 18.1 | 19 |  | 13.5 | 29 |
| Pennsylvania | 3.86 | 33 | 15.3 | 34 |  | 8.9 | 8 |
| Rhode Island | 4.04 | 22 | 18.0 | 20 |  | 8.2 | 5 |
| South Carolina | 3.72 | 43 | 14.7 | 40 |  | 17.0 | 40 |
| South Dakota | 3.77 | 40 | 15.5 | 33 |  | 14.8 | 33 |
| Tennessee | 3.67 | 45 | 14.0 | 44 |  | 14.0 | 32 |
| Texas | 3.82 | 38 | 17.4 | 24 |  | 21.5 | 50 |
| Utah | 4.08 | 20 | 17.5 | 23 |  | 10.5 | 16 |
| Vermont | 4.46 | 5 | 23.2 | 5 |  | 8.0 | 4 |
| Virginia | 4.25 | 9 | 21.3 | 8 |  | 15.3 | 34 |
| Washington | 4.27 | 8 | 19.7 | 14 |  | 9.6 | 11 |
| West Virginia | 3.49 | 49 | 10.9 | 51 |  | 13.8 | 31 |
| Wisconsin | 3.97 | 25 | 16.0 | 31 |  | 8.4 | 6 |
| Wyoming | 3.99 | 24 | 16.1 | 30 |  | 12.7 | 25 |
| United States | 4.00 |  | 17.6 |  |  | 13.8 |  |

## Economic Autonomy Rankings

| STATE | Percent of Women in Poverty |  | Percent of <br> Businesses that Are <br> Women-Owned |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | PERCENT | RANK | PERCENT | RANK |
| Alabama |  |  |  |  |
| Alaska | ${ }^{19.4}$ | 46 5 | 31.5 329 | 47 |
| Arizona Arkansas | 14.6 | 36 | 32.9 37.6 | 35 3 |
| Arkansas California | 19.8 | 49 | 37.6 31.6 | 3 |
| Colorado | 11.6 | 17 | 35.5 | 12 |
| Connecticut | 11.9 7.0 | 20 | 37.6 |  |
| Delaware | 7.0 | 8 | 33.6 | 28 |
| District of Columbia | $\stackrel{9}{9.6}$ | 8 | 35.3 | 14 |
| Florida | 12.5 | 41 | 41.3 | 1 |
| Georgia | 12.7 | 28 3 | 35.2 | 16 |
| Hawall | 8.2 | 37 | 33.6 | 28 |
| Idaho | 13.6 | 32 | 37.6 | 3 |
| llinois | 13.6 11.8 | 32 | 33.8 | 25 |
| Indiana | 11.8 | 19 | 34.5 | 21 |
| lowa | 12.2 | 16 23 | 34.4 | 22 |
| Kansas | 12.1 | 22 | 34.3 | 23 |
| Kentucky | 19.0 | 45 | 34.7 | 19 |
| Louisiana | 23.6 | 50 | 31.4 32.5 | 48 |
| Maine Maryland | 12.3 | 50 24 | 32.5 32.2 | 37 |
| Maryland | 8.8 | 6 | 37.1 | 40 |
| Massachusetts | 9.3 13.3 | 7 | 33.3 | 61 31 |
| Minnesota | 11.0 | 71 13 | 35.2 | 16 |
| Mississippi | 25.2 | 13 51 | 34.6 | 20 |
| Missouri | 13.8 | 51 | 30.2 | 51 |
| Montana | 13.8 16.8 | 33 42 | 33.8 | 25 |
| Nebraska | 16.8 11.9 | 42 | 33.2 | 32 |
| Nevada | 10.7 | 20 | 35.1 | 18 |
| New Hampshire | 7.4 | 2 | 36.9 | 7 |
| New Jersey | 7.8 | 3 | 32.2 | 40 |
| New Mexico | 19.7 | 48 | 31.9 | 42 |
| New York | 12.8 | 30 | 37.8 | 2 |
| North Caroina | 14.1 | 34 | 34.1 | 24 |
| North Dakota | 14.3 | 35 | 32.4 | 38 |
| Ohio | 12.6 | 27 | 31.7 33.7 | 44 |
| Oklahoma | 17.1 | 43 | 31.7 33.6 | 27 |
| Pennsylvania | 12.7 | 28 | 36.8 | 28 8 |
| Rhode Island | 11.7 | 18 | 31.2 | 49 |
| South Carolina | 10.9 | 11 | 31.6 | 45 |
| South Dakota | 16.4 | 39 | 32.8 | 36 |
| Tennessee | 16.2 | 38 39 | 31.9 | 42 |
| Texas | 17.4 | 4 | 31.1 | 50 |
| Utah | 12.3 | 44 | 33.0 | 34 |
| Vermont | 10.9 | 24 | 35.3 | 14 |
| Virginia | 11.2 | 11 | 35.7 | 11 |
| Washington | 11.0 | 15 13 | 35.4 | 13 |
| West Virginia | 19.6 | 47 | 36.5 | 9 |
| Wisconsin | 10.7 | 9 | 32.3 | 39 |
| Wyoming |  | $\stackrel{9}{26}$ | 33.1 | 33 |
|  |  |  | 35.9 | 10 |
| United States | 13.2 |  | 34.1 |  |

## Reproductive Rights Rankings

| Composite Index |  |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| STATE | SCORE | RANK | Notification | Waiting Period |
| Alabama | 0.84 | 39 | 0 | 1 |
| Alaska | 2.61 | 16 | 0 | 1 |
| Arizona | 1.27 | 32 | 0 | 1 |
| Arkansas | 0.79 | 42 | 0 | 1 |
| California | 3.00 | 13 | 0 | 1 |
| Colorado | 1.32 | 29 | 0 | 1 |
| Connecticut | 3.63 | 9 | 1 | 1 |
| Delaware | 1.17 | 33 | 0 | 0 * |
| District of Columbia | 3.92 | 4 | 1 | 1 |
| Florida | 1.31 | 31 | 1 | 1 |
| Georgia | 1.39 | 26 | 0 | 1 |
| Hawaii | 5.25 | 1 | 1 | 1 |
| Idaho | 1.36 | 28 | 0 | 0 * |
| Illinois | 2.09 | 19 | 0 | 1 |
| Indiana | 0.85 | 38 | 0 | $0{ }^{+}$ |
| lowa | 2.54 | 18 | 1 | 1 |
| Kansas | 0.81 | 41 | 0 | 0 |
| Kentucky | 0.77 | 43 | 0 | 0* |
| Louisiana | 1.83 | 21 | 0 | 1 |
| Maine | 2.58 | 17 | 1 | 1 |
| Maryland | 4.08 | 3 | 0 | 1 |
| Massachusetts | 2.94 | 15 | 0 | $0^{*}$ |
| Michigan | 0.72 | 45 | 0 | 0 * |
| Minnesota | 3.30 | 11 | 0 | 1 |
| Mississippi | 0.30 | 49 | 0 | 0 |
| Missouri | 1.37 | 27 | 0 | 1 |
| Montana | 0.88 | 36 | 0 | 1 |
| Nebraska | 0.03 | 51 | 0 | 0 |
| Nevada | 0.93 | 35 | 0 | 1 |
| New Hampshire | 3.00 | 13 | 1 | 1 |
| New Jersey | 3.84 | 5 | 1 | 1 |
| New Mexico | 3.68 | 8 | 0 | 1 |
| New York | 4.68 | 2 | 1 | 1 |
| North Carolina | 3.17 | 12 | 1 | 1 |
| North Dakota | 0.27 | 50 | 0 | 0 |
| Ohio | 0.60 | 46 | 0 | 0 |
| Oklahoma | 1.80 | 22 | 1 | 1 |
| Oregon | 3.83 | 6 | 1 | 1 |
| Pennsylvania | 1.80 | 22 | 0 | 0 |
| Rhode Island | 1.15 | 34 | 0 | 1 |
| South Carolina | 1.47 | 25 | 0 | 1 |
| South Dakota | 0.77 | 43 | 0 | $0{ }^{*}$ |
| Tennessee | 0.36 | 47 | 0 | 0 * |
| Texas | 1.32 | 29 | 1 | 1 |
| Utah | 0.32 | 48 | 0 | 0 |
| Vermont | 3.82 | 7 | 1 | 1 |
| Virginia | 2.00 | 20 | 1 | 1 |
| Washington | 3.36 | 10 | 1 | 1 |
| West Virginia | 1.79 | 24 | 0 | 1 |
| Wisconsin | 0.82 | 40 | 0 | 1 |
| Wyoming | 0.88 | 36 | 0 | 1 |

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

Reproductive Rights Rankings

| STATE | Public Funding | Providers | Maternity Stay | Pro-Choice Gov't. | Infertility | Adoption |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Alabama | 0 | 0.09 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0.5 |
| Alaska | 1 | 0.28 | 0.5 | 0.33 | 0 | 0.5 |
| Arizona | 0 | 0.27 | 0.5 | 0 | 0 | 0.5 |
| Arkansas | 0 | 0.04 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0.5 |
| California | 1 | 0.67 | 0.5 | 0.33 | 0 | 0.5 |
| Colorado | 0 | 0.24 | 0 | 0.33 | 0 | 0.5 |
| Connecticut | 1 | 0.88 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0.5 |
| Delaware | 0 | 0.67 | 0.5 | 0 | 0 | 0.5 |
| District of Columbia | 1 | 1.00 | 0 | 0.67 | 0 | 0.5 |
| Florida | 0 | 0.31 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Georgia | 0 | 0.14 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0.5 |
| Hawaii | 1 | 1.00 | 0 | 1.00 | 1 | 0.5 |
| Idaho | 1 | 0.11 | 0 | 0 | 0 - | 0.5 |
| lilinois | 1 | 0.09 | 0.5 | 0 | 0 | 0.5 |
| Indiana | 0 | 0.10 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0.5 |
| lowa | 0 | 0.04 | 0.5 | 0 | 1 | 0.5 |
| Kansas | 0 | 0.06 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0.5 |
| Kentucky | 0 | 0.02 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0.5 |
| Louisiana | 0 | 0.08 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0.5 |
| Maine | 0 | 0.50 | 1 | 0.33 | 0 | 0.5 |
| Maryland | 1 | 0.50 | 1 | 0.33 | 1 | 0.5 |
| Massachusetts | 1 | 0.86 | 1 | 0.33 | 0 | 0.5 |
| Michigan | 0 | 0.22 | 0.5 | 0 | 0 | 0.5 |
| Minnesota | 1 | 0.05 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0.5 |
| Mississippi | 0 | 0.05 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0.5 |
| Missouri | 0 | 0.04 | 0.5 | 0.33 | 0 | 0.5 |
| Montana | 0 | 0.13 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0.5 |
| Nebraska | 0 | 0.03 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Nevada | 0 | 0.18 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0.5 |
| New Hampshire | 0 | 0.50 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 |
| New Jersey | 1 | 0.76 | 1 | 0.33 | 0 | 0.5 |
| New Mexico | 1 | 0.18 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 1 |
| New York | 1 | 0.60 | 1 | 0.33 | 1 | 0.5 |
| North Carolina | 1 | 0.34 | 1 | 0.33 | 0 | 0 |
| North Dakota | 0 | 0.02 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0.5 |
| Ohio | 0 | 0.10 | 0.5 | 0 | 0 | 0.5 |
| Oklahoma | 0 | 0.05 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0.5 |
| Oregon | 1 | 0.25 | 0 | 0.33 | 1 | 0.5 |
| Pennsylvania | 0 | 0.30 | 0.5 | 0 | 1 | 0.5 |
| Rhode Island | 0 | 0.40 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0.5 |
| South Carolina | 0 | 0.22 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0.5 |
| South Dakota | 0 | 0.02 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0.5 |
| Tennessee | 0 | 0.11 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0.5 |
| Texas | 0 | 0.07 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0.5 |
| Utah | 0 | 0.07 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0.5 |
| Vermont | 1 | 0.57 | 0 | 1.00 | 0 | 0.5 |
| Virginia | 0 | 0.25 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0.5 |
| Washington | 1 | 0.28 | 1 | 0.33 | 0 | 0.5 |
| West Virginia | 1 | 0.04 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0.5 |
| Wisconsin | 0 | 0.07 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0.5 |
| Wyoming | 0 | 0.13 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0.5 |

# Appendix IV: Washington and National Resources 

## Washington Resources

Associated Lesbians of Puget Sound
P.O. Box 20424

Seattle, WA 98102
Tel (206) 233-8145
Consultant Services Northwest, Inc.
839 NE 96th Street
Seattle, WA 98115
Tel (206) 524-1950
Employment Opportunities Center 4726 Ranier Avenue South
Seattle, WA 98118
Fair Budget Action Campaign
P.O. Box 31151

Seattle, WA 98103
Tel (206) 727-0369
Food Resource Network
P.O. Box 31151

Seattle, WA 98103
Healthy Baby Project
722 18th Avenue
Seattle, WA 98178
Tel (206) 727-0367
Institute for Policy Management
University of Washington
PO Box 353060
Seattle, WA 98105-3060
Tel (206) 543-0190
Fax (206) 616-5769

## Lesbian Resource Center

1208 East Pine Street
Seattle, WA 98122
Tel (206) 322-3953
Northwest Center for Research on Women
University of Washington
Cunningham Hall, AJ-50
Seattle, WA 98195
Tel (206) 543-9531
Fax (206) 685-4490
Northwest Coalition Against Malicious
Harassment
P.O. Box 16776

Seattle, WA 98116
Tel (206) 233-9136
Fax (206) 223-0611
Office of Women's Rights
700 Third Avenue, Room 220
Seattle, WA 98104
Tel (206) 684-0390
Fax (206) 684-0546
Policy Center Institute
University of Washington
P.O. Box 353060

Seattle, WA 98195-3060
Tel (206) 543-0190
Fax (206) 616-5769
Seattle Municipal Internships
710 Second Avenue
Seattle, WA 98104
Tel (206) 684-7999

Takoma Lesbian Concern
P.O. Box 947

Tacoma, WA 98401
Tel (206) 472-0422
Washington Women United
P.O. Box 2174

Olympia, WA 98507
Tel (360) 754-9880
Welfare Rights Organizing Coalition 2212 South Jackson
Seattle, WA 98144
Women's Bureau Regional Office
U.S. Department of Labor

1111 Third Avenue, Room 885
Seattle, WA 98101-3211
Tel (206) 553-1534
Fax (206) 553-5085

Women's Resource Center
Washington State University
Puliman, WA 99164-7204
Tel (509) 335-6830
Fax (509) 335-4377
Young Women's Christian Association
829 West Broadway
Spokane, WA 99201
Tel (509) 326-1190
Fax (509) 326-1597

## National Resources

AFL-CIO, Department of Working Women
815 16th Street, NW
Washington, DC 20006
Tel (202) 637-5000
Fax (202) 637-5058
Alan Guttmacher Institute
1120 Connecticut Avenue, Suite 460
Washington, DC 20036
Tel (202) 296-4012
Fax (202) 223-5756
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
American Medical Women's Association
801 North Fairfax Street, \#400
Alexandria, VA 22314
Tel (703) 838-0500
Fax (703) 549-3864
American Nurses Association
600 Maryland Avenue, SW, Suite 100W
Washington, DC 20024
Tel (202) 65t-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
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. 1301 N. Kenter Avenue
Los Angeles, CA 90049
Tel/Fax (310) 472-4927
Business and Professional Women/USA
2012 Massachusetts Avenue, NW
Washington, DC 20036
Tel (202) 293-1100
Fax (202) 861-0298
Black Women United for Action
6551 Loisdale Court, Suite 318
Springfield, VA 22150
Tel (703) 922-5757
Fax (703) 971-5892
Catalyst
250 Park Avenue South
New York, NY 10003-1459
Tel (212) 777-8900
Center for the Advancement of Public Policy, Washington Feminist Faxnet
1735 S Street, NW
Washington, DC 20009
Tel (202) 797-0606
Fax (202) 265-6245
Center for the American Woman and Politics Eagleton Institute of Politics, Rutgers University 90 Clifton Avenue
New Brunswick, NJ 08901
Tel (908) 828-2210
Fax (908) 932-6778
Centers for Disease Control and Prevention 6525 Bellcrest Road, Room 1064
Hyattsville, MD 20782
Tel (301) 436-8500
http://www.cdc.gov/nchswww/nchshome.htm
Center for Law and Social Policy
1616 P Street, NW, Suite 150
Washington, DC 20036
Tel (202) 328-5140
Fax (202) 328-5195
http://epn.org.clasp.html
Center for Policy Alternatives
1875 Connecticut Avenue, NW, Suite 710
Washington, DC 20009
Tel (202) 387-6030
Fax (202) 986-2539
http://www.cfpa.org/pub/cfpa/homepage.html


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

Joint Center for Political and Economic Studies
1090 Vermont Ave., NW, Suite 1100
Washington, DC 20005-4961
Tel (202) 789-3500
Fax (202) 789-6390
League of Women Voters
1730 M Street, NW
Washington, DC 20036
Tel (202) 429-1965
Fax (202) 429-0854
MANA - A National Latina Organization
1725 K Street, NW, Suite 501
Washington, DC 20006
Tel (202) 833-0060
Fax (202) 496-0588
Ms. Foundation for Women
120 Wall Street, 33rd Floor
New York, NY 10005
Tel (212) 742-2300
Fax (212) 742-1653
National Abortion and Reproductive Rights Action League
1156 15th Street, NW
Washington, DC 20005
Tel (202) 973-3000
Fax (202) 973-3097
National Association for Female Executives
30 Irving Place, 5th Floor
New York, NY 10003
Tel (212) 477-2200
Fax (212) 477-8215

National Association of Women Business Owners
1100 Wayne Avenue, Suite 830
Silver Spring, MD 20910
Tel (301) 608-2590
Fax (301) 608-2596

National Association of Black Women Entrepreneurs
P.O. Box 1375

Detroit, MI 48231
Tel (810) 356-3680
Fax (810) 552-6492
National Association of Commissions for Women
1828 L Street, NW, Suite 250
Washington, DC 20036
Tel (202) 628-5030 or (800) 338-9267
Fax (202) 628-0645
National Association of Negro Business and
Professional Women's Clubs, Inc.
1806 New Hampshire Ave., NW
Washington, DC 20036
Tel (202) 483-4206
Fax (202) 462-7253
National Center for American Indian Enterprise Development
953 East Juanita Avenue
Mesa, AZ 85204
Tel (602) 545-1298
Fax (602) 545-4208
National Center for the Early Childhood Workforce
733 15th Street, NW, Suite 1037
Washington, DC 20005-2112
Tel (202) 737-7700 or (800) U-R-WORTHY
Fax (202) 737-0370
National Committee on Pay Equity
1126 16th Street, NW, Suite 411
Washington, DC 20036
Tel (202) 331-7343
Fax (202) 331-7406
National Conference of Puerto Rican Women
5 Thomas Circle, NW
Washington, DC 20005
Tel (202) 387-4716
National Council for Research on Women
530 Broadway, 10th Floor
New York, NY 10012
Tel (212) 274-0730
Fax (212) 274-0821
National Council of Negro Women
1001 G Street, NW, Suite 800
Washington, DC 20001
Tel (202) 628-0015
Fax (202) 628-0233

National Education Association
1201 16th Street, NW
Washington, DC 20026
Tel (202) 822-7199
National Employment Law Project, Inc.
36 West 44th Street, Suite 1415
New York, NY 10036
Tel (212) 764-2204
Fax (212) 764-1966
National Foundation of Women Business Owners
1100 Wayne Avenue, Suite 830
Silver Spring, MD 20910
Tel (301) 495-4975
Fax (301) 495-4979
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, Suite 1201
New York, NY 10013
Tel (212) 925-6635
Fax (212) 226-1066
National Political Congress of Black Women
600 New Hampshire Avenue, NW, Suite 1125
Washington, DC 20037
Tel (202) 338-0800
Fax (202) 625-0499
National Resource Center on Domestic Violence 6400 Flank Drive
Harrisburg, PA 17112-2778
Tel (800) 932-4632
National Women's Business Council
409 Third Street, SW, Suite 5850
Washington, DC 20024
Tel (202) 205-3650
Fax (202) 205-6825
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 425
Washington, DC 20036
Tel (202) 785-1100
Fax (202) 785-3605
http://www.feminists.com/nwpc.htm
National Women's Studies Association
7100 Baltimore Avenue, Suite 301
College Park, MD 20740
Tel (301) 403-0525
Fax (301) 403-4137
9to5, National Association of Working Women
238 West Wisconsin Avenue, Suite 700
Milwaukee, WI 53203-2308
Tel (414) 274-0925
Fax (414) 272-2870
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) 541-7800
Fax (212) 247-6453
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/prb/
The Urban Institute
2100 M Street, NW
Washington, DC 20037
Tel (202) 833-7200
Fax (202) 659-8985
http://www.urban.org

UN 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) 690-7000
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
Victims Services, Inc.
2 Lafayette Street
New York, NY 10017
Tel (212) 577-7700
Fax (212) 385-0331
The White House Office for Women's Initiatives and Outreach
Executive Office of the President
708 Jackson Place
Washington, DC 20500
Tel (202) 456-7300
Fax (202) 456-7311
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

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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) 827-5335
Fax (202) 219-5529
http://www.dol.gov/dol/wb/welcome.html
Women's Environmental and Development Organization
845 Third Avenue, 15th Floor
New York, NY 10022
Tel (212) 759-7982
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Women's Legal Defense Fund 1875 Connecticut Avenue, NW, Suite 710
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923 F Street, NW, 3rd Floor
Washington, DC 20004
Tel (202) 393-0461
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