

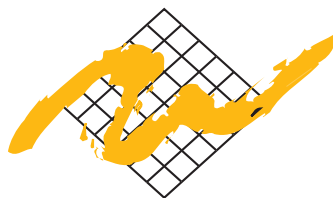
THE STATUS OF WOMEN IN THE STATES



WOMEN'S ECONOMIC STATUS IN THE STATES:

Wide Disparities by Race, Ethnicity, and Region

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Acknowledgments

The success of *The Status of Women in the States* project can be attributed to the many staff members, allied groups, and devoted volunteers involved in producing, publicizing, and applying IWPR's research.

IWPR would first like to thank members of the National Advisory Committee for their support and advice. We are particularly indebted to our reviewers for this report: Genie Babb, University of Alaska-Anchorage; Irasema Garza, American Federation of State, County, and Municipal Employees; Irma Herrera, Equal Rights Advocates; Joan Kuriansky, Wider Opportunities for Women; Nicole Mason, National Women's Alliance; Lisa Miller, Women's Foundation of Southern Arizona; Kym Mulhern, Nokomis Foundation; Christine Owens, AFL-CIO; Bonnie Palecek, North Dakota Council on Abused Women's Services; Shelley Theno, University of Alaska-Anchorage; Lorna Vogt, Utah Progressive Network; and Montoya Whiteman, Native American Rights Fund. The full committee membership is listed on the inside front cover.

We would also like to thank members of the project's Data Advisory Group: Jared Bernstein, Economic Policy Institute; Jorge del Pinal, U.S. Census Bureau; Roderick Harrison, Joint Center for Political and Economic Studies; Marlene Kim, University of Massachusetts-Boston; Sonia Perez, National Council of La Raza; Elena Silva, AAUW Educational Foundation; Matthew Snipp, Stanford University; Greg Squires, George Washington University; and Peter Tatian, Urban Institute. Mr. Tatian also produced the data on earnings and poverty for this report, and Drs. Bernstein, Kim, Snipp, and Squires reviewed earlier drafts. These experts guided us on key decisions about the data and indicators used in this report.

We also owe our thanks to the IWPR staff members who were involved in the report. Jean Sinzdak, Associate Director of Outreach and Communications, coordinated the work of the Advisory Committee and reviewers for the project. We are also indebted to the work of Hiedi Hatcher and Jody Herman, both graduate students in public policy and women's studies at George Washington University. Dr. Barbara Gault, Director of Research, Dr. Heidi Hartmann, President, and Study Directors Dr. Avis Jones-deWeever, Dr. Sunhwa Lee, and Dr. Vicky Lovell contributed to the research design and review of the reports.



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Overview

Women's earnings, the female/male earnings ratio, the occupation and industries in which women work, women's business ownership, and women's poverty are all important aspects of women's economic status. Although women have made gains in all these areas in past decades, they still earn less, are less likely to own a business, and are more likely to live in poverty than men across the states. With median annual earnings of \$30,100, women in the United States still earn only 76.2 percent of what men earn (Chart 1). Among working women, 33.2 percent work in professional and managerial positions. About a quarter (26.0 percent) of businesses are owned by women, and 87.9 percent of women live above poverty.

The advances women have made are not experienced equally by all women. African American, Native American, and Hispanic women experience lower earnings and are less likely to work in professional and managerial jobs than white and Asian American women, and white women are less likely to live in poverty than

women in any other racial or ethnic group (Chart 2). Moreover, there are significant differences and inequalities among women within these larger racial and ethnic categories.

Differences in women's economic status are also evident regionally and from state to state. Women's earnings range from \$37,800 in the District of Columbia to \$24,400 in South Dakota and Montana, and the earnings ratio ranges from 92.4 percent in the District of Columbia to 66.3 percent in Wyoming (Chart 1). The District of Columbia also has the highest rate (49.3 percent) of women employed in managerial or professional occupations, while Idaho has the lowest (24.6 percent). The District of Columbia has the highest proportion (30.9 percent) of businesses owned by women, while South Dakota has the lowest (21.5 percent). The percentage of women living above poverty ranges from 92.7 percent in New Hampshire to 79.8 percent in Mississippi.

The findings in this report provide an overview of women's status to assess the progress women have made and remaining obstacles to their economic equality and well-being across the country.

Chart 1

Overview of Women's Economic Status Across the States

Best States	Worst States
Women's Median Annual Earnings, 2002 (for full-time, year-round employed women) — \$30,100	
1. District of Columbia (\$37,800)	50. Montana, South Dakota (\$24,400; tied)
2. Maryland (\$37,200)	48. Arkansas, West Virginia (\$24,900; tied)
3. Connecticut, Massachusetts, New Jersey (\$35,800; tied)	
Earnings Ratio Between Women and Men, 2002 (for full-time, year-round employed women and men) — 76.2%	
1. District of Columbia (92.4%)	51. Wyoming (66.3%)
2. Hawaii (83.4%)	49. Alabama, Michigan (66.7%; tied)
3. Maryland (81.4%)	
Percent of Employed Women in Professional or Managerial Occupations, 2001 — 33.2%	
1. District of Columbia (49.3%)	51. Idaho (24.6%)
2. Maryland (41.3%)	50. Nevada (26.9%)
3. Massachusetts (38.3%)	49. Nebraska (29.1%)
Percent of Businesses that are Women-Owned, 1997 — 26.0%	
1. District of Columbia (30.9%)	51. South Dakota (21.5%)
2. New Mexico (29.4%)	50. Arkansas (22.0%)
3. Maryland (28.9%)	49. North Dakota (22.5%)
Percent of Women Living Above Poverty, 2002 — 87.9%	
1. New Hampshire (92.7%)	51. Mississippi (79.8%)
2. Maryland (92.4%)	50. New Mexico (81.9%)
3. Minnesota (92.3%)	48. Arkansas, District of Columbia (82.1%; tied)

Note: For sources and methodology, see Appendix II.

Compiled by the Institute for Women's Policy Research.



Chart 2

Overview of Women's Economic Status Across the States by Race and Ethnicity

Best States	Worst States
Median Annual Earnings, 1999 (for full-time, year-round employed women) ^a	
Asian American women — \$33,100	
1. New Jersey (\$44,200)	45. Arkansas (\$21,400)
2. Delaware, District of Columbia (\$38,700; tied)	44. Nebraska (\$23,200)
	43. Louisiana (\$23,400)
White women — \$30,900	
1. District of Columbia (\$55,200)	51. Montana (\$22,100)
2. California (\$39,300)	50. North Dakota (\$22,300)
3. Connecticut, New Jersey \$38,700	47. Arkansas, South Dakota, West Virginia (\$23,200; tied)
African American women — \$27,600	
1. California (\$35,300)	43. Louisiana (\$19,400)
2. Maryland (\$34,200)	42. Mississippi (\$19,900)
3. District of Columbia (\$33,700)	41. Arkansas (\$20,800)
Native American women — \$25,500	
1. Connecticut (\$38,700)	43. North Dakota (\$19,900)
2. Maryland (\$35,300)	39. Mississippi, Montana, Nebraska, South Carolina (\$22,100; tied)
3. Alaska (\$32,000)	
Hispanic women — \$23,200	
1. Alaska, Maine (\$28,700; tied)	48. Arkansas (\$17,700)
3. District of Columbia Hawaii, Maryland, New York (tied; \$27,600)	47. North Carolina (\$18,200)
	46. South Dakota (\$18,400)
Earnings Ratio Between Women and White Men, 1999 (for full-time, year-round employed women and men) ^{a,b}	
Asian American women — 75.0%	
1. Delaware (87.5%)	45. Rhode Island (53.8%)
2. New Jersey (80.0%)	44. Alaska (54.4%)
3. Idaho, New Mexico (78.9%; tied)	43. District of Columbia (57.4%)
White women — 70.0%	
1. District of Columbia (82.0%)	51. Wyoming (62.9%)
2. Vermont (78.1%)	50. Utah (63.9%)
3. Hawaii (77.5%)	49. Michigan (65.1%)
African American women — 62.5%	
1. West Virginia (72.6%)	43. Louisiana (48.9%)
2. Nebraska (71.2%)	42. District of Columbia (50.0%)
3. Oregon (71.1%)	41. Rhode Island (54.0%)
Native American women — 57.8%	
1. Arkansas (78.7%)	43. New Jersey (52.0%)
2. Pennsylvania (76.1%)	42. Arizona (52.5%)
3. Tennessee (75.0%)	41. Utah (53.7%)
Hispanic women — 52.5%	
1. Maine (80.0%)	48. District of Columbia (41.0%)
2. Missouri (62.9%)	47. Rhode Island (43.3%)
3. Hawaii (62.5%)	46. California (44.0%)



Best States	Worst States
Percent of Employed Women in Professional or Managerial Occupations, 2000 ^a	
Asian American women — 41.4%	
1. District of Columbia (57.0%)	51. Nevada (20.9%)
2. West Virginia (53.1%)	50. Alaska (22.1%)
3. New Jersey (52.8%)	49. South Dakota (25.0%)
White women — 38.7%	
1. District of Columbia (74.1%)	51. Nevada (32.1%)
2. Hawaii (46.9%)	50. Indiana (32.2%)
3. Maryland (45.8%)	49. West Virginia (33.0%)
Native American women — 30.0%	
1. District of Columbia (49.5%)	51. Iowa (20.2%)
2. Maryland (42.4%)	50. Nebraska (21.9%)
3. Hawaii (38.8%)	49. Utah (23.5%)
African American women — 29.7%	
1. Hawaii (38.7%)	51. North Dakota (11.3%)
2. District of Columbia, Maryland (38.6%; tied)	50. South Carolina (22.0%)
	49. Mississippi (23.6%)
Hispanic women — 22.9%	
1. Vermont (36.6%)	51. Nevada (14.2%)
2. West Virginia (36.3%)	50. Arkansas (16.4%)
3. Maine (34.9%)	49. North Carolina (17.8%)
Percent of Women Living Above Poverty, 1999 ^a	
White women — 91.0%	
1. Connecticut (94.5%)	51. West Virginia (82.7%)
2. New Jersey (94.3%)	50. Kentucky (84.8%)
3. Alaska (94.1%)	48. Arkansas, Montana (87.2%; tied)
Asian American women — 87.6%	
1. New Jersey (93.0%)	46. Rhode Island (73.8%)
2. Delaware (92.5%)	45. West Virginia (77.0%)
3. Connecticut (91.1%)	44. District of Columbia (79.0%)
Hispanic women — 77.5%	
1. Alaska (87.0%)	48. Rhode Island (62.3%)
2. Maryland, Virginia (86.2%; tied)	47. Pennsylvania (68.4%)
	46. Massachusetts (69.9%)
African American women — 75.9%	
1. Alaska (92.9%)	43. Louisiana (64.4%)
2. Hawaii (89.2%)	42. Mississippi (65.3%)
3. Maryland (86.0%)	41. Arkansas (67.1%)
Native American women — 75.0%	
1. Virginia (88.7%)	44. South Dakota (54.7%)
2. Kansas (86.6%)	43. North Dakota (55.6%)
3. New Jersey (86.5%)	42. Montana (58.8%)
Notes: Hispanics may be of any race or two or more races. Racial categories (Whites, African Americans, Asian Americans, Native Americans, Other/Two Plus) do not include Hispanics. ^aData presented here are from a different source than those in Chart 1; see Appendix II for details. ^bThe earnings ratio presented here is between women in each racial and ethnic group and white men only. The ratio presented in Chart 1 is between all women and all men. For sources and methodology, see Appendix II. Compiled by the Institute for Women's Policy Research.	



Introduction

Women have made tremendous progress toward gaining economic equality during the last several decades. Nonetheless, throughout the United States, women earn less, are less likely to own a business, and are more likely to live in poverty than men. Even in areas where there have been significant advances in women's status, there is still ample room for improvement. For example, at the rate of progress achieved between 1989 and 2002, women would not achieve wage parity for more than 50 years.¹ In addition, the economic opportunities available to women differ tremendously in different regions and states. Even more profoundly, race and ethnicity continue to shape women's economic opportunities. These disparities remain central to women's economic status across the country.

This report assesses several aspects of women's economic status: women's earnings, the female/male earnings ratio, the occupations and industries in which women work, women's business ownership, and women's poverty. Each of these factors contributes to the overall economic well-being of women and their families. Women's earnings have become increasingly important to families' financial status and often shield them from poverty (Cancian, Danziger, and Gottschalk 1993; Cattan 1998; Spalter-Roth, Hartmann, and Andrews 1990; Winkler 1998). While in 1979, wives' earnings accounted for 16 percent of the average family income of middle quintile, married-couple families with children, in 2000 they accounted for 27 percent of that income (Mishel, Bernstein, and Boushey 2003). The occupations and industries in which women work have a strong influence on their earnings, benefits, and opportu-

nities for growth. For example, women in managerial and professional positions and those who own their own businesses often earn more and have greater job flexibility than those in service jobs (U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics 2003a; McCrate 2002). Lower wage occupations often lack basic benefits, such as health insurance and paid sick leave, which are critical to economic security.

Throughout the United States, and among all racial and ethnic groups, women lack economic equality with men.

Women's economic status varies by region. For example, women in parts of the Northeast and the West generally enjoy higher earnings and lower poverty than women in much of the Southeast and the Midwest. Northeastern and Western women are also more likely to work in managerial positions and to own their own businesses. The ratio of women's to men's earnings also differs widely among the states.

In every state, racial and ethnic inequalities abound. In most states, these inequalities follow a general trend: white and Asian American women enjoy better wages and less poverty than African American, Hispanic, and Native American women. Within this pattern, however, there are important variations across the states and among women within each major racial and ethnic category. Throughout this report, we explore patterns and differences in the economic status of women of color in the United States (Appendix I also presents basic demographic information on the racial and ethnic composition of women in the United States).

The economic status of women is critical to the success and growth of every state and the entire country. When women can contribute as full and equal participants in work, politics, and community life, they unleash the potential of cities, states, and the nation as a whole.

¹ This figure was calculated by taking the average yearly percent change in the wage ratio between 1989 and 2002 and calculating how many years it would take for that percent change to bring the ratio to 100 percent (data from IWPR 1995a; Urban Institute 2004a).



Women's Earnings Across the States

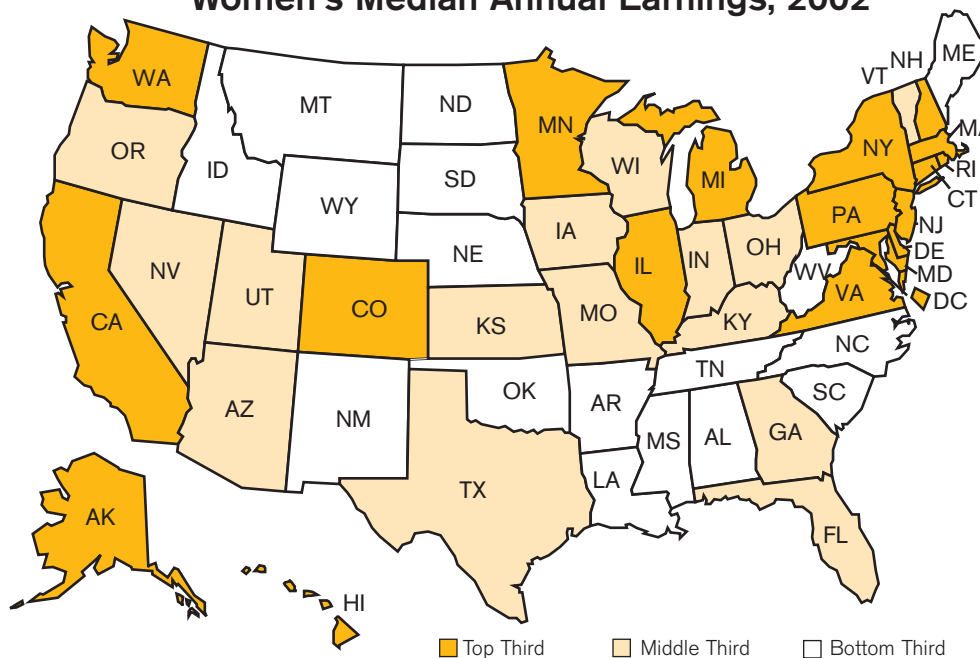
In 2002, women in the United States working full-time, year-round earned median wages of \$30,100 (Urban Institute 2004a).² Between 1979 and 2002, the median annual earnings of women in the United States increased by 17.1 percent, while men's earnings decreased by 8.3 percent in constant dollars (IWPR 1995a; Urban Institute 2004a).

Women's earnings have generally been growing faster than men's since 1975. A large part of this growth is due to women's rapid gains in formal education and labor market experience, accompanied by an increase in union representation in several of the occupations traditionally dominated by women (teaching and nursing, for example). Better paying jobs and educational opportunities have also opened to women as a result of equal opportunity and civil rights laws, such as the Equal Pay Act of 1963 and the Civil Rights Act of 1964. In contrast, men experi-

enced real wage declines in the 1980s, and only in 1999 did men's real wages recover to their 1973 level. Women's real wages rose almost every year since then (U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census 2002).

- Women in the Northeast and the Pacific West generally have the highest earnings among women in the United States, while women in the Southeast and a group of states in the Northern Plains and Mountain areas have the lowest (see Map 1).³
- The District of Columbia ranked first in the nation for the median annual earnings of women working full-time, year-round in 2002, at \$37,800. Women in Maryland, Connecticut, Massachusetts, and New Jersey also had much higher earnings than average for women in the United States (see Appendix Table 3a).
- In South Dakota and Montana, women earned a median salary of \$24,400, the lowest in the country, in 2002. In other low ranking states, including West Virginia, Arkansas, and Louisiana, women earned only slightly more.

Map 1
Women's Median Annual Earnings, 2002



Note: For methodology and sources, see Appendix II.

² These calculations are based on the March supplement of the Current Population Survey in 2002-03, for calendar years 2001-02; see Appendix II for details on the methodology.

³ The earnings data in this report have not been adjusted for cost-of-living differences between the states because the federal government does not produce an index of such differences. High earnings levels in states with high costs of living may overstate workers' living standards, because high earnings may be partially offset by higher costs of living. Similarly, in low-earnings states, low earnings may be partially offset by a low cost of living.



Wage Inequality by Race and Ethnicity

Women's Wages by Race and Ethnicity

For minority women, the factors causing the gender wage gap are often compounded by specific race-based inequities. Racial discrimination continues to pose serious barriers to employment, promotion, and higher earnings for Hispanics, African Americans, Asian Americans, and Native Americans in the United States (Blumrosen and Blumrosen 2002). Industrial and occupational segregation can also be a source of racial wage inequality—for instance, in 2002, nearly one-third of employees in the low-paying private households sector of the service industry were Latinos (Thomas-Breitfeld 2003). Asian American women are also disproportionately represented in low-wage jobs such as garment work, high-tech contract assembly work (for example, in Silicon Valley), and domestic work (Foo 2003). For Native Americans, geographic isolation, reductions in state and federal public assistance, limited tribal economic development and employment opportunities, and inadequate investment in education and health services are also associated with lower wages (Vinje 1996). Among Hispanics, lower levels of educational attainment and English language ability both contribute to lower earnings (Thomas-Breitfeld 2003; Trejo 1997).

National data show that in 1999, the median annual earnings of African American women (in 2003 dollars) were \$27,600, those of Native American

women were \$25,500, and those of Hispanic women were \$23,200, all substantially below those of white women, who earned \$30,900 (see Figure 1; Urban Institute 2004b).⁴ The earnings of Asian American women were the highest of all groups at \$33,100; these higher earnings, however, are offset for many by higher poverty rates and disparities within the larger category of Asian American women (see “The Economic Status of Asian American Women: Important Strides, But Not for Everyone,” p. 24).

For women in different states, race and ethnicity affect earnings differently. These disparities have consequences for the economic autonomy and stability of women of color and their families.

- California had the highest wages for African American women in the country, at \$35,300. Maine and Alaska had the best wages among Hispanic women (\$28,700); New Jersey had the best wages for Asian American women (\$44,200); and Connecticut had the highest earnings for Native American women (\$38,700; see Appendix Table 3b).⁵
- In contrast, the lowest wages for African American women were in Louisiana, at \$19,400. The lowest wages for Hispanic women and Asian American women were in Arkansas (\$17,700 and \$21,400, respectively).
- The lowest wages for American Indian/Alaska Native women were in North Dakota (\$19,900).

4 These numbers are all median annual earnings of full-time, year-round women workers aged 16 years and older; note that the source of the data in this section is the 2000 Census, which differs from the Current Population Survey data presented above.

Unless otherwise noted, the data included in this report for the various races (whites, African Americans, Asian Americans, Native Americans, and other/two or more races) exclude Hispanics. In contrast to most data produced by the Census Bureau, Hispanics are treated as a distinct group. As a result, the numbers in this report for the various racial and ethnic groups will often not match Census Bureau numbers.

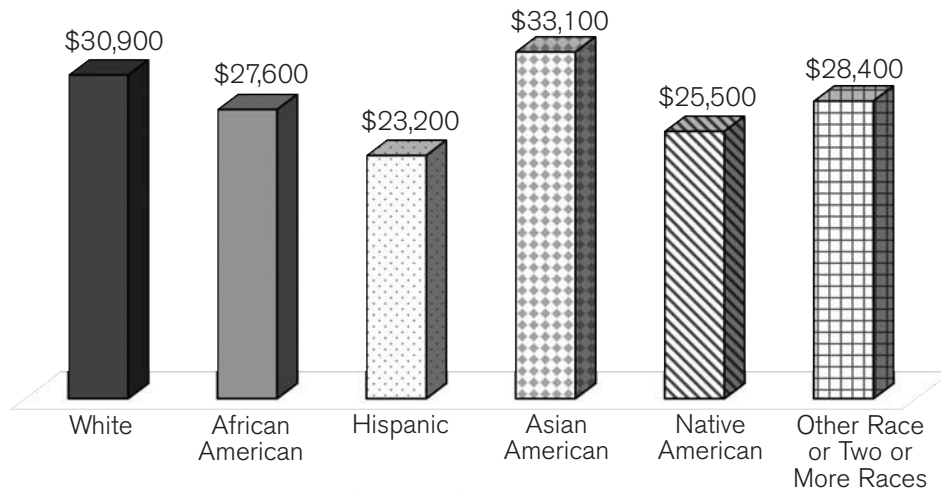
Note also that in the 2000 Census, respondents were allowed for the first time to indicate belonging to two or more racial categories. Only 2.4 percent of the population did so (including both Hispanic and non-Hispanic respondents), and only 1.6 percent of the non-Hispanic population did (U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census 2001a). Among people who marked “two or more races,” the most common combination (47 percent) was “white and some other race.” For these reasons, and because social scientists who have been analyzing this group of people have not found consistent patterns to report, IWPR grouped people of “two or more races” with the “other” category, which is also small, at 0.2 percent of the population without Hispanics (and 5.5 percent of the population with Hispanics included; U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census 2001a). Thus, when this report refers to the various racial groups, it refers only to those people who indicated one race alone.

Although excluding people who mark “two or more races” underestimates the numbers of all the racial categories, by far the largest impact is on the American Indian/Alaska Native population. This population jumps from 0.9 percent to 1.5 percent of the total population if those who report American Indian or Alaska Native in combination with another race are included (these numbers include Hispanics; U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census 2001a). Estimates of the population of Native Americans are also proportionately most affected by subtracting Hispanics: about 16.4 percent of all Native Americans are Hispanic, compared with 8.0 percent of whites (U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census 2001a). People who identify as Hispanic and Native American are most concentrated in the Southwestern region of the country; in this report Hispanic Native Americans are grouped with Hispanics unless otherwise noted. Altogether, the population of Native American women jumps from approximately 1.0 million to 2.2 million if both Hispanics and those identifying as Native American plus one or more other races are included.

5 Due to small sample sizes, some states are excluded from these rankings for the wages and wage ratio among women of color. See Appendix Tables 3a and 3b.

These calculations are based on the March supplement of the Current Population Survey in 2002-03, for calendar years 2001-02; see Appendix II for details on the methodology.



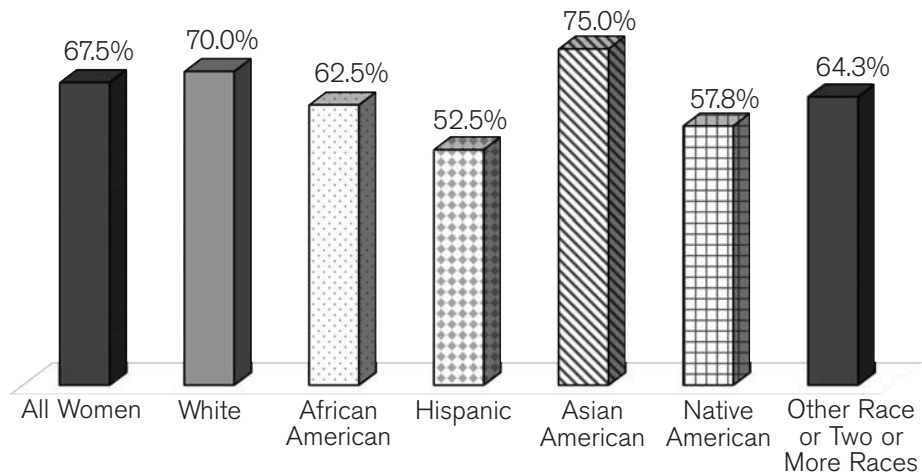
Figure 1**Median Annual Earnings of Women Employed Full-Time/Year-Round in the United States, by Race and Ethnicity, 1999 (2003 Dollars)**

Notes: For women aged 16 and older; see Appendix II for methodology.

Hispanics may be of any race or two or more races. Racial categories (Whites, African Americans, Asian Americans, Native Americans, Other/Two Plus) do not include Hispanics.

Source: Urban Institute 2004b.

Compiled by the Institute for Women's Policy Research.

Figure 2**Ratio of Women's to White Men's Median Annual Earnings in the United States, by Race and Ethnicity, 1999 (For Full-Time/Year-Round Workers)**

Notes: For women aged 16 and older; see Appendix II for methodology.

Hispanics may be of any race or two or more races. Racial categories (Whites, African Americans, Asian Americans, Native Americans, Other/Two Plus) do not include Hispanics.

Source: Urban Institute 2004b.

Compiled by the Institute for Women's Policy Research.



Comparing Women's Wages to White Men's Wages

Wage differences become all the more striking when reflected in the earnings ratios between women of different races and ethnicities, on the one hand, and white men, on the other. The wage ratio between white women and men in 1999, for example, was 70.0 percent (higher than the ratio between all women and white men of 67.5 percent; see Figure 2). The wage ratio between Asian American women and white men was higher, at 75.0 percent. The wage ratio between African American women and white men was lower, at 62.5 percent; the wage ratio between Native American women and white men was 57.8 percent; the wage ratio between Hispanic women and white men was the lowest of all at 52.5 percent.

- West Virginia has the highest wage ratio with white men for African-American women (72.6 percent). For Asian American women, the best wage ratio is in Delaware (87.5 percent). Arkansas has the best wage ratio for Native American women (78.7 percent), and Maine has the highest wage ratio for Hispanic women (80.0 percent). The highest wage ratio for white women is in the District of Columbia, at 82.0 percent (see Appendix Table 3c).
- The worst wage ratio for African American women is in Louisiana, with earnings just 48.9 percent of what white men in that state earn. Rhode Island has the worst wage ratio for Asian American women (53.8 percent), and New Jersey has the worst wage ratio for Native American women (52.0 percent). The District of Columbia has the worst wage ratio for Hispanic women (41.0 percent).

In states with relatively diverse populations, the wage ratio between all women and white men provides a particularly interesting snapshot of how race and gender work together to disadvantage women of color. Because the wages of men of color are generally lower on average than white men's, states that have large minority populations have lower overall wages for men. The same is true for women, but in general the race- and ethnicity-based wage gap is smaller among women than among men, making the wage ratio between all women and all men look better. Comparing women only to white men, though, illustrates the combined effects of racial and gender disparities for women of color more starkly than the overall wage ratio between all women and all men.

For example, based on 2000 Census data, the District of Columbia has the highest wage ratio be-

tween all women and all men (90.0 percent; data not shown; Urban Institute 2004b), but it ranks at the bottom for the ratio of all women to white men (59.0 percent; Appendix Table 3c). This large drop is due both to the District's large minority population and to the particularly high wages of white men relative to the states. While the ratio between white women and white men ranks at the top of the nation (82.0 percent), the ratio between African American women and white men ranks 42nd of 43 (at 50.0 percent); between Asian American women and white men, the District ranks 43rd of 45 (57.4 percent); and between Hispanic women and white men it ranks last of 48 (41.0 percent; some states are left out of these rankings due to small sample sizes). Women of color comprise large proportions of the city's population, and so their lower earnings decrease women's overall wages dramatically. As a result, when their earnings are measured not against those of men of color—who also have low earnings—but against white men's, the disparities related to race and ethnicity become breathtakingly clear. It is important to recognize, however, that women of color in the District of Columbia have among the highest earnings in the nation (Appendix Table 3b).

Several other states with relatively large populations of women of color also do worse on this measure than on the measure of all women's earnings to all men's. For example, California would rank second for the overall women-to-men ratio based on 2000 Census data (at 79.0 percent; data not shown; Urban Institute, 2004b), but it ranks 45th for the ratio of all women's to white men's wages (at 63.2 percent), because of its large minority population and its relatively high earnings for white men. California is another state with relatively high earnings for women of color compared with other states, but it also a state where white men have particularly high earnings. Similarly, Hawaii drops from 3rd to 13th, Florida from 4th to 21st, and Nevada from 7th to 29th.

Wage inequalities are also evident within the relatively broad racial and ethnic categories described above, particularly among Asian American, Native American, and Hispanic women. For example, Japanese women have much higher earnings than Vietnamese women, Cuban women have much higher earnings than Central American women, and Eskimo women have much higher earnings than Yaqui women. (Data were not available for analysis of subgroups among African American women.) For details on differences within these racial and ethnic groups, please see the text boxes devoted to the economic status of each group within this report.



The Gender Wage Gap

In the United States, women's wages continue to lag behind men's. In 2002, the median wages of women who worked full-time, year-round were 76.2 percent of men's (Urban Institute 2004a). In other words, among workers with the greatest employment effort, women earned about 76 cents for every dollar earned by men.

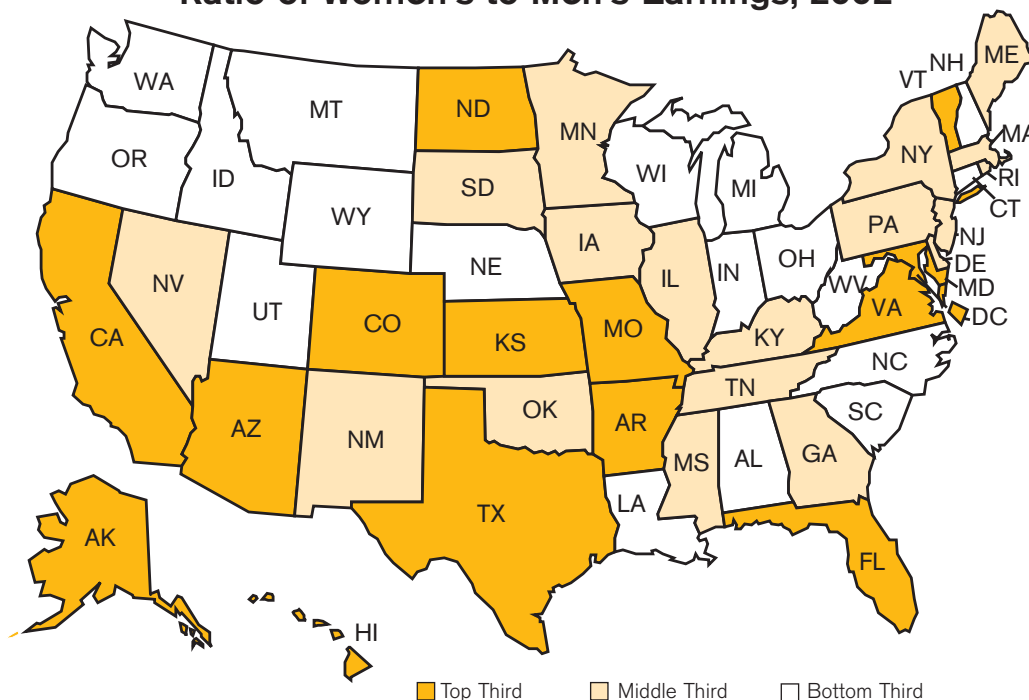
- The wage ratio is generally best in Southwestern and Middle Atlantic states. It is worst in much of the Midwest, the Southeast, and the Northwest. A few states in almost every region do well on this indicator, some because neither women nor men have high earnings; others, because both sexes do (see Map 2).
- The District of Columbia has the best earnings ratio in the nation: women who work there full-time, year-round earned 92.4 percent of what men earned in 2002. The District has been at the top of all states for the wage ratio since IWPR began measuring in 1996 (based on 1989 data). The 2002 ratio marks a 3.2 percentage point increase from the 1999 wage ratio of 89.2 percent. But

it comes at a cost for both women and men in the District of Columbia: between 1999 and 2002, both women's and men's earnings dropped in real terms, but men's dropped more rapidly than women's. Men's wages dropped by almost 5 percent, while women's dropped by approximately 1 percent.

- The next best state for the wage ratio, Hawaii, has a much lower wage ratio than the District's, at 83.4 percent. This is an increase from a ratio of 72.1 percent in the 2002 rankings (based on a three year average using 1998-2000 data) and improved the state's ranking by 25 places, moving Hawaii from 27th to 2nd place. The jump occurred because women's wages rose by almost 9 percent, while men's fell in the same period by almost 6 percent.
- In several other states, including Illinois, Indiana, Mississippi, Missouri, New Jersey, North Dakota, South Dakota, and Virginia, rankings for the wage ratio also improved by ten or more places—in every case because women's earnings rose but men's fell. In one state, Missouri, the wage ratio improved as women's earnings rose and men's did not change at all.
- Wyoming has the worst wage ratio in the nation for 2002, at 66.3 percent. Wyoming has ranked at the bot-

Map 2

Ratio of Women's to Men's Earnings, 2002



tom of the states for the wage ratio since the 2000 rankings (based on 1996-98 data). Its highest ranking was in 1998 (based on 1994-96 data), when it ranked 46th for this indicator.

- Michigan and Alabama (66.7 percent), Louisiana (68.5 percent), New Hampshire (69.3 percent), and Utah (70.3 percent) are next worst for the 2002 wage ratio.
- Several states dropped by ten or more places in the rankings between the 2002 and 2004 rankings. In five of these states—Alabama, Delaware, Idaho, Maine, and Minnesota—men’s wages increased while women’s decreased. In three—New Hampshire, Vermont, and Washington—men’s wages increased more quickly than women’s did. In one, New York, women’s and men’s wages both decreased, but women’s decreased more.
- Alabama’s wage ratio has seen many changes in the past several years. Between 1997 and 1999, the wage ratio improved from 41st to 11th place, increasing from 68.8 percent to 76.5 percent. By 2002, it dropped back down to 49th, with a ratio of 66.7 percent. Between 1999 and 2002, men’s wages increased by almost 11 percent, while women’s decreased by almost 4 percent.

Many factors help explain the difference between women’s and men’s wages. Earnings are determined partly by the development of job-related skills through education, job training, and workforce experience, and women and men continue to differ in the amount and types of human capital they attain. Women and men also tend to work in different occupations and industries and to join unions at different rates. Women are still grossly underrepresented in a number of higher paying occupations, such as jobs in science, technology, engineering, and mathematics, and in top business jobs. At the same time, research by the U.S. General Accounting Office (2003) shows that for the period from 1983 to 2000, approximately 45 percent of the wage gap between men and women could not be explained by the combined effect of differences in human capital, industry and occupation, unionization, and work hours. Both this finding and evidence from case studies and litigation suggest that sex discrimination continues to

play a role in holding down women’s earnings. Differences in human capital and job characteristics may also reflect discrimination, to the extent that women face greater barriers to obtaining human capital or are discouraged or prevented from entering certain occupations or industries.

Research by IWPR has found that union membership raises women’s weekly wages by 38.2 percent and men’s by 26.0 percent (data not shown; Hartmann, Allen, and Owens 1999). Unionization also raises the wages of women of color more, relatively speaking, than the wages of non-Hispanic white women and the wages of low earners relatively more than the wages of high earners (Spalter-Roth, Hartmann, and Collins 1993). In the United States, unionized minority women earned 38.6 percent more than those who are not unionized (Hartmann, Allen, and Owens 1999).

Throughout the 1960s and 1970s, the ratio of women’s earnings to men’s in the United States remained fairly constant at around 60 percent. During the 1980s, however, women made progress in narrowing the gap between men’s earnings and their own. At the same time, though, adverse economic trends, such as declining wages in the low-wage sector of the labor market, began to make it more difficult to close the gap, since women still tend to be concentrated at the low end of the earnings distribution. During the 1990s, the wage ratio grew and then plateaued as men’s relative wages began to increase. In the late 1990s and the first years of the new century, the wage ratio grew again, as men’s wages, perhaps more affected by the slowdown in economic growth, began losing ground relative to women.

Notably, the disadvantages of women’s lower wages follow many women into retirement, especially among women who live on their own or are primary household earners. Among these women in particular, low earnings not only make it difficult to support their families—including their children’s care and education—but keep them from building assets by, for example, owning their homes and contributing to their pension programs, which often provide security in old age (Rose and Hartmann 2004).



The Economic Status of Native American Women

A Legacy of Hardship and Limited Opportunity

In the centuries that Native Americans have lived in the Americas, they have built strong and varied social, political, and economic systems. Native American women have been central figures in this history, and many historians argue that at least some tribes achieved a system of gender role equality that embraced women's leadership and long preceded colonization by white Europeans. The values imposed by missionaries and other colonists came to disrupt the equality that women had in these tribes, imposing instead a set of social and religious principles that devalued women's roles. Thus, for many Native American women, colonization resulted not just in hardship and limited opportunity related to their status as Native Americans, but in a new system of gender inequality (Devens 1992; Mihesuah 2003). Both race- and gender-based economic disparities are still evident in their status today.

Native American women earn considerably less than African American, Asian American, and white women, and, with a poverty rate of 25.0 percent, they are more likely to be in poverty than any other major racial or ethnic group (see Figures 1 and 7).¹ Not only are the median annual earnings of these women much lower than the median for white women (\$25,500 versus \$30,900; see Figure 1), but the wages of only two tribes—Eskimo and Alaskan Athabaskan—pass this threshold (Table 1). Notably, these tribes are also concentrated in Alaska, a state with high wages and costs of living.² In just two other tribes, Iroquois and Puget Sound Salish, women match the median wage level for all women. The median earnings of women from all the other 18 tribes in Table 1 are lower than the national median for all women.³

As Figure 8 shows, a quarter (25.0 percent) of American Indian/Alaska Native women lived in

poverty in 1999, compared with about half that proportion (12.6 percent) among all women. Among the Chickasaw, the tribe with the best poverty rate for women, 14.1 percent of women lived in poverty in 1999—1.5 percentage points higher than the proportion for all women nationally (Table 1). Among the worst tribe for women's poverty, the Tohono O'odham, a stunning two in five (40.8 percent) women lived in poverty. This proportion is more than 20 percentage points worse than that in the worst-poverty state for all women in 1999—Mississippi, whose rate was 20.6 percent.

Table 1 also shows that the wages of the highest-earning tribe, the Eskimo, are \$12,600 more than that of the lowest-earning tribe, the Yaqui (at \$32,600 and \$21,000, respectively, although again, the top earning tribes for women are in a state with a high cost of living). The rate of women in poverty in the worst tribe for this indicator, the Tohono O'odham (40.8 percent poor), is almost three times worse than that of the best, the Chickasaw (14.1 percent).

Disparities among women from different Native American tribes reflect a variety of factors, including geographic location and accompanying job opportunities, variations in welfare coverage, and tribal differences in economic development, particularly for those women living on reservations (Hillabrant, Rhoades, and Pindus 2003).

An array of other factors contributes to the poor economic status of American Indian/Alaska Native women. Disparities in educational attainment and work experience are a factor in the wage difference between Native Americans and whites (Waters and Eschbach 1995; Snipp 1992). Both racial and gender discrimination play a role; not only do many Native Americans experience discrimination in the

1 As outlined in note 4 of this report, the data presented throughout the report for each of the racial groups exclude both people of "two or more races" and Hispanics. This methodology has the largest impact on the numbers for the American Indian/Alaska Native population (see note 4). The total population of American Indian/Alaska Native women grows from 1.0 million to 2.2 million if both Hispanics and those who report American Indian or Alaska Native in combination with another race are included. People who identify as Hispanic and Native American (about 16 percent of the total Native American population) are most concentrated in the Southwestern region of the country. Note, however, that the data for earnings and poverty presented here were not significantly affected by excluding Hispanics from these figures.

2 Like other earnings data in this report, these earnings data have not been adjusted for cost-of-living differences between the states because the federal government does not produce an index of such differences.

3 The tribes analyzed here are those available for analysis in the public-use data set from the 2000 Census. They encompass only 57.6 percent of all Native American women (Appendix Table 2). These data also do not include Hispanic Native Americans to ensure that the analysis in this report does not double-count any population; for information on Hispanics in the United States, see "The Economic Status of Hispanic Women: Wages and Poverty Vary by National Origin" in this report.



Table 1
Economic Indicators for Native American Women
in the United States, 1999, by Tribe

	Median Annual Earnings (for full-time, year-round workers)	Ratio of Native American Women's Earnings to Non-Hispanic White Men's Earnings	Rank for Earnings and the Earnings Ratio (of 22)	Percent of Native American Women Above Poverty	Rank for Women Above Poverty (of 23)
All Native American Women	\$25,500	57.8%		75.0%	
American Indian					
Apache	\$22,100	55.3%	19	65.0%	19
Blackfeet	\$27,600	69.0%	8	74.6%	16
Cherokee	\$26,500	66.3%	11	81.8%	6
Cheyenne	*	*	*	62.1%	22
Chickasaw	\$26,500	66.3%	11	85.9%	1
Chippewa	\$25,300	63.3%	15	78.0%	14
Choctaw	\$27,200	68.0%	10	80.9%	7
Comanche	\$28,700	71.8%	5	85.4%	4
Creek	\$26,500	66.3%	11	79.4%	13
Iroquois	\$29,800	74.5%	3	79.9%	9
Lumbee	\$24,300	60.8%	16	79.7%	11
Navajo	\$23,200	58.0%	17	64.0%	20
Potawatomi	\$27,600	69.0%	8	85.6%	3
Pueblo	\$22,500	56.3%	18	73.9%	17
Puget Sound Salish	\$29,800	74.5%	3	79.8%	10
Seminole	\$22,100	55.3%	19	74.7%	15
Sioux	\$26,500	66.3%	11	63.5%	21
Tohono O'odham	\$22,100	55.3%	19	59.2%	23
Yaqui	\$21,000	52.5%	22	67.4%	18
Alaska Native					
Alaskan					
Athabaskan	\$30,900	77.3%	2	80.7%	8
Aleut	\$28,700	71.8%	5	85.3%	5
Eskimo	\$32,600	81.5%	1	79.5%	12
Tlingit	\$28,700	71.8%	5	85.7%	2

Notes: For women and men aged 16 and older. All figures are in 2003 dollars. All data are for non-Hispanics only.
See Appendix II for methodology.

*The earnings of Cheyenne women were not available due to small sample sizes.

Source: Urban Institute 2004b

Compiled by the Institute for Women's Policy Research.



types of jobs they have access to, but Native American women are paid less than white women and Native American men for jobs in similar circumstances (Snipp 1992). Like African American and Hispanic women, Native American women are also more highly represented in lower-paying jobs (Reskin 1993). While the poor economic status of Native American women is visible both on and off reservations, a lack of employment opportunities, low levels of human capital, and geographic isolation in rural areas contribute to especially high levels of poverty on reservations (Snipp and Sandefur 1988). As a result, Native American women also have very low rates of labor force participation and unemployment, which in turn contribute to lower earnings and higher poverty. Finally, poor state and federal policies have contributed to the economic underdevelopment of reservations (Snipp 1992; Vinje, 1996; Brown et al. 2001). At the same time, casinos are becoming increasingly important to their economic development (Snipp 1992).

As Table 2 shows, poverty is worst among Native American women in several predominantly rural states with relatively large American Indian/ Alaska Native populations. South Dakota, for example, has the worst rate of Native American women's poverty among all the states. Montana and North Dakota also have more than two in five Native Americans living in poverty; Wyoming and Arkansas do not fare much better. Besides Arkansas, which has the 20th largest population of American Indian/Alaska Native women in the country, each of these states ranks among the top eight states for the proportion of women who are Native American. In contrast, in the best states for American Indian/Alaska Native women living above poverty (including Virginia, Kansas, New Jersey, Indiana, and Maryland), they make up only 0.3 percent or less of the total population of women. Alaska is an exception to this generalization; it has a large Native population and lower poverty levels relative to other states.

These findings suggest that, in general, Native Americans are more likely to experience hardship where they are most concentrated. Policies encouraging the economic development of reservations and other Native American communities are a key path to improving the lives of Native American women and their families.

In recent decades, American Indian and Alaska Native women have made important strides, including rapid increases in gaining both high school and

college educations (Pavel et al 1999). In a few states, Native American women are doing much better than is typical for Native Americans: in Connecticut, for example, Native American women earn \$38,700 a year, more than the median for all women in the state (\$37,000), while in Virginia, less than 13 percent live in poverty, compared with 25 percent nationwide (see Appendix III).

Although Native American women have made gains and do particularly well in some parts of the country, as a group they experience high levels of poverty and low earnings. Policies designed to increase their educational attainment and job opportunities, decrease discrimination, and encourage economic development where they live would all contribute to improving the economic status of Native American women.

Table 2
Native American Poverty
by State:
Top and Bottom States

State	Percent of Native American Women Above Poverty	Rank (of 44)
Top States:		
Virginia	88.7%	1
Kansas	86.6%	2
New Jersey	86.5%	3
Illinois	85.6%	4
Maryland	85.5%	5
Bottom States:		
Arizona	63.8%	40
Wyoming	62.2%	41
Montana	58.8%	42
North Dakota	55.6%	43
South Dakota	54.7%	44

Notes: Rankings are out of 44. Six states and the District of Columbia are excluded due to small sample sizes.
For women aged 16 and older. All data are for non-Hispanics only.
See Appendix II for methodology.

Source: Urban Institute 2004b.

Compiled by the Institute for Women's Policy Research.



Women's Work by Occupation and Industry

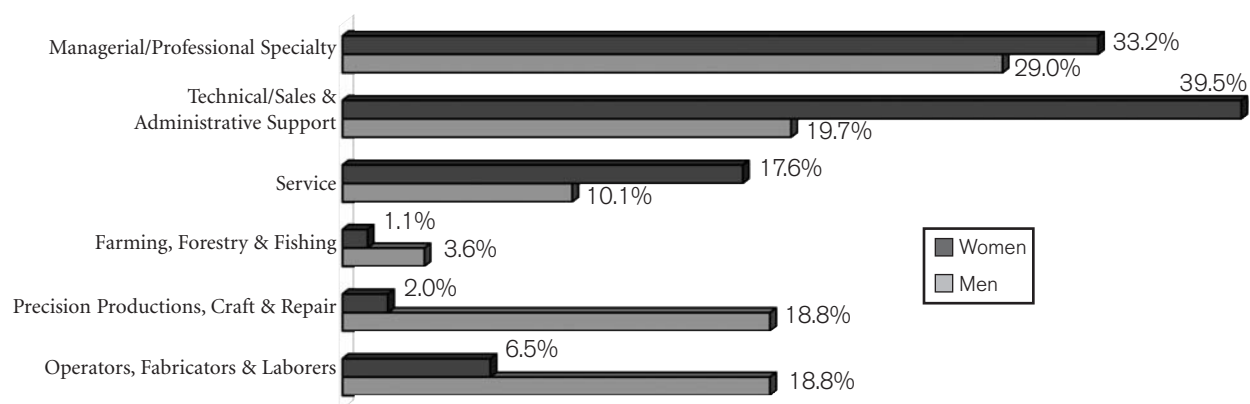
Figure 3 shows that women and men are distributed differently across occupations.⁶ Women workers are most likely to be in technical, sales, and administrative support occupations; two-fifths (39.5 percent) of women workers are in these occupations. Women's next most common occupational group is managers and professionals (33.2 percent). Another 17.6 percent of working women are in service occupations, and very small percentages work in skilled and unskilled blue collar jobs or in agricultural jobs. Men are more evenly spread across the six broad occupational categories: their largest occupational group is managers and professionals (29.0 percent); technical, sales, and administrative support occupations follow at 19.7 percent; and operators, fabricators, and laborers and precision, production, craft, and repair occupations are next, each at 18.8 percent. Smaller percentages

of men work in service jobs and as agricultural workers. Table 3 provides an overview of jobs predominantly held by women compared with those predominantly held by men. Because those occupations dominated by men tend to pay more than those dominated by women, these distributions have implications for women's average wages (Treiman and Hartmann 1981).

For example, even when women work in higher-paid occupations, such as managerial positions, they earn substantially less than men. An IWPR study (1995b) shows that women managers are unlikely to be among top earners in managerial positions. If women had equal access to top-earning jobs, 10 percent of women managers would be among the top 10 percent of earners for all managers; however, only 1 percent of women managers have earnings in the top 10 percent. In fact, only 6 percent of women managers have earnings in the top 20 percent (for all managers). Similarly, a Catalyst study (2002) showed that only 5.2 percent (just 118) of the highest-earning high-level executives in Fortune 500 companies were women in 2002.

Table 3 provides a few examples of jobs within the cate-

Figure 3
Distribution of Women and Men Across Occupations in the United States, 2001



Note: For employed women and men aged 16 and older.

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics 2003a: Table 15.

Compiled by the Institute for Women's Policy Research.

⁶ These numbers are produced by the U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics based on the 2001 Current Population Survey.



Table 3
Examples of Labor Market Segregation
by Gender in the United States, 2000

Among All Occupations			
Predominantly Men	Women	Men	Percent Female
Pipelayers, Plumbers, Pipefitters, and Steamfitters	9,000	512,000	1.7%
Vehicle and Mobile Equipment Mechanics, Installers, and Repairers	38,000	1,935,000	1.9%
Electricians	17,000	678,000	2.4%
Construction Laborers	36,000	1,066,000	3.3%
Fire Fighting and Prevention Workers, including Supervisors	11,000	290,000	3.7%
Aircraft and Traffic Control	11,000	147,000	7.0%
Law Enforcement Workers, including Supervisors	224,000	1,011,000	18.1%
Predominantly Women			
Secretaries and Administrative Assistants	3,598,000	128,000	96.6%
Child Care Workers	1,253,000	66,000	95.0%
Nursing, Psychiatric, and Home Health Aides	1,470,000	205,000	87.8%
Personal Appearance Workers	722,000	144,000	83.4%
Cashiers	2,031,000	652,000	75.7%
Waiters and Waitresses	1,229,000	426,000	74.3%
Customer Service Representatives	1,396,000	599,000	70.0%
Among Management, Professional, and Related Occupations			
Predominantly Men	Women	Men	Percent Female
Engineers	180,000	1,523,000	10.6%
Top Executives	447,000	1,569,000	22.2%
Physicians and Surgeons	187,000	514,000	26.7%
Lawyers	246,000	616,000	28.5%
Computer and Mathematical Occupations	950,000	2,218,000	30.0%
Predominantly Women			
Registered Nurses	2,065,000	169,000	92.4%
Legal Support Workers	398,000	95,000	80.7%
Health Technologists and Technicians	1,467,000	370,000	79.9%
Teachers, primary, secondary, and special education	3,460,000	995,000	77.7%
Counselors, Social Workers, and other Community and Social Service Specialists	1,030,000	413,000	71.4%

Note: For women and men aged 16 and older. The data presented here are based on 2000 Census data.
Source: U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census 2004b.
Compiled by the Institute for Women's Policy Research.



gory of managerial and professional occupations, including those held predominantly by men (such as top executives, computer and math jobs, engineers, lawyers, physicians, and surgeons) and those held predominantly by women (such as counselors, legal support workers, teachers, nurses, and health technicians). Within these positions as well, predominantly female jobs tend to be lower paying than those held by men (Treiman and Hartmann 1981).

Still, women's growing participation in managerial and professional jobs is an important component of women's status, as it reflects their educational preparation and employers' willingness to promote them to positions of responsibility and authority, and challenges the glass ceiling as well. These types of jobs often allow women more control over their work lives, pay well, and are relatively highly regarded.

- Women in the Northeast and Mid-Atlantic states are among the most likely to work in managerial and professional jobs, while women in several Western, Prairie,

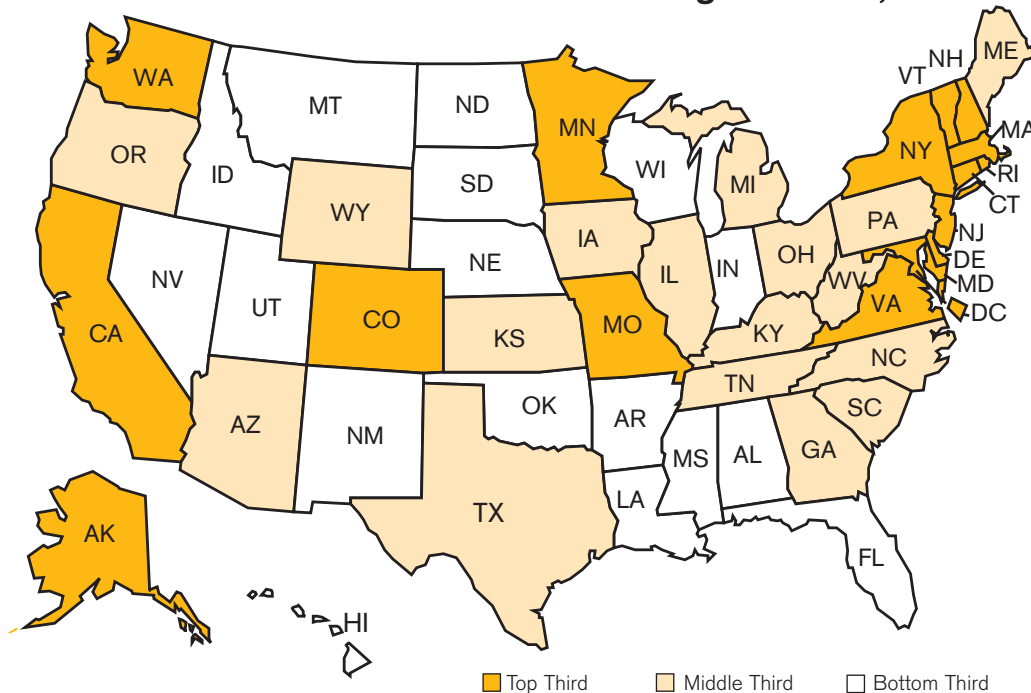
and Mountain states are among the least likely to work in these positions (see Map 3).

- The District of Columbia has the highest rate (49.3 percent) of women employed in professional and managerial jobs. A high proportion of women workers in Maryland (41.3 percent), Massachusetts (38.3 percent), and Connecticut (38.2 percent) also hold professional and managerial jobs.
- Idaho (24.6 percent), Nevada (26.9 percent), Nebraska (29.1 percent), and Mississippi (29.2 percent) all score poorly in comparison with the national average (33.2 percent) for women in professional and managerial positions. Arkansas, Indiana, and Oklahoma (29.3 percent) also fare poorly on this indicator.

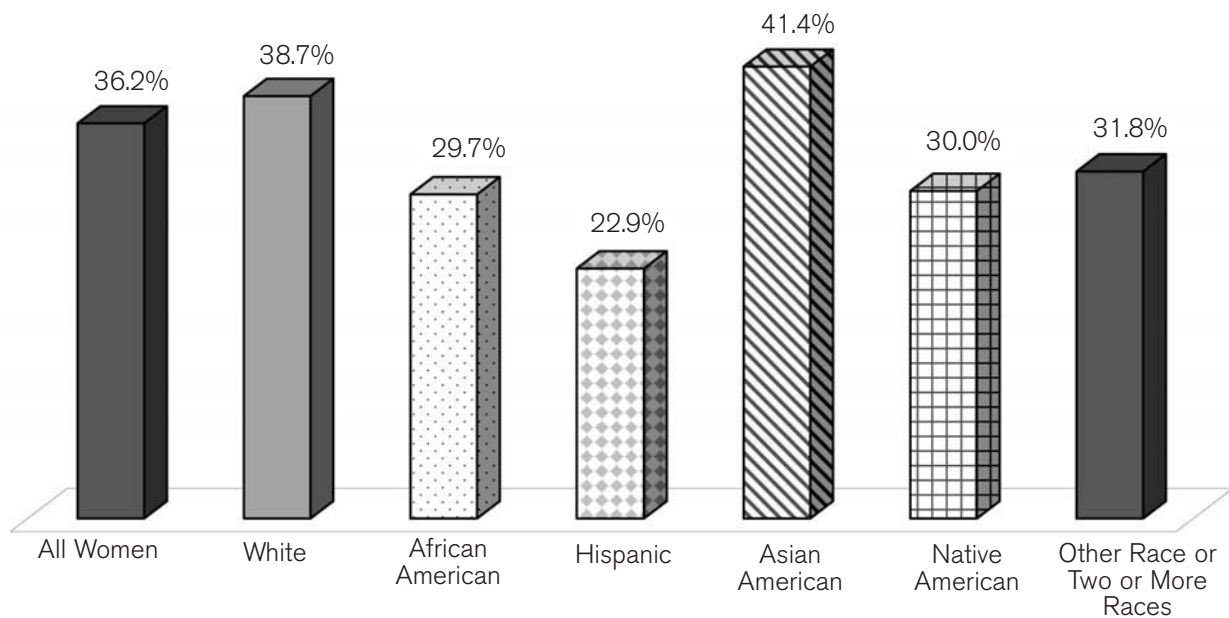
Race and ethnicity are important factors related to women's occupations. Among women, Asian American women are most likely to work in professional and managerial positions, at 41.4 percent, while Hispanic women are least likely to do so, at 22.9 percent (see Figure 4).⁷ White

Map 3

Women in Professional and Managerial Jobs, 2001



⁷ Note that these data come from the 2000 Census, which differs from the Current Population Survey data for 2001 presented above; the 2000 Census also relied on a different system for classifying occupations than the 2001 Current Population Survey and included a larger number of occupations in the professional and managerial category.

Figure 4**Percent of Women in Professional and Managerial Jobs
in the United States, by Race and Ethnicity, 2000**

Notes: For women aged 16 and older. The proportions presented here are based on 2000 Census data. They differ from those in Figure 3, which are based on the 2002 Current Population Survey data (for the year 2001). In addition to the difference in data source and year, the 2000 Census relied on a new system for classifying occupations; thus, the category "managerial and professional occupations" now encompasses a larger group of jobs. See Appendix II for methodology.
Hispanics may be of any race or two or more races. Racial categories (Whites, African Americans, Asian Americans, Native Americans, Other/Two Plus) do not include Hispanics.

Source: U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census 2004b.

Compiled by the Institute for Women's Policy Research.

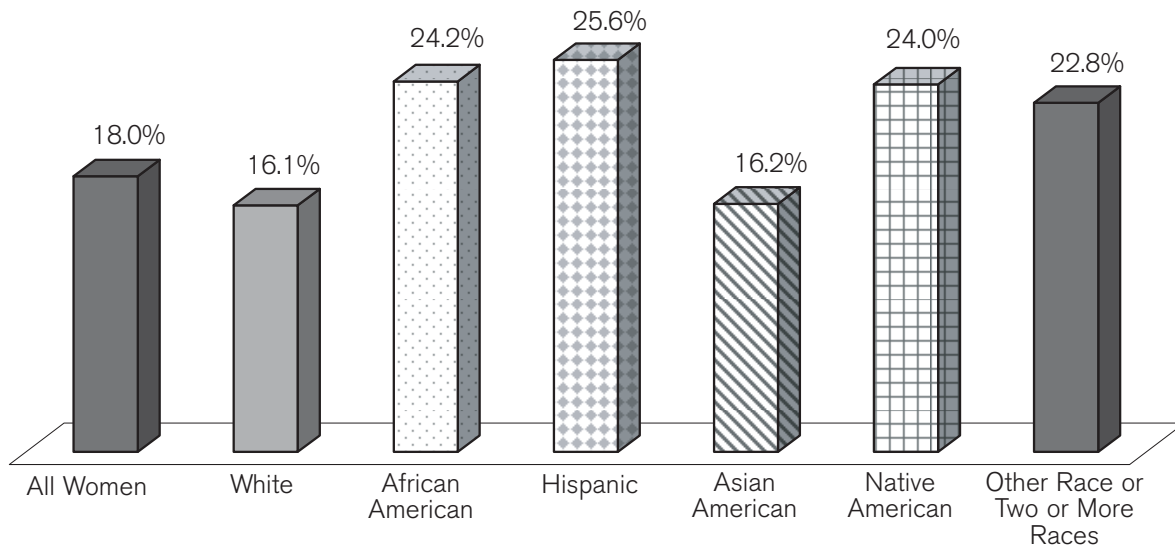
women are the second most likely group to work in professional and managerial jobs at 38.7 percent. Native American women (30.0 percent) and African American women (29.7 percent) have lower rates of working in these jobs. Because of the benefits that managerial and professional jobs can extend to women workers, the low proportions of Hispanic, African American, and Native American women in these jobs also affect their ability to achieve economic autonomy and flexibility in their work. In contrast, these women are more likely than white and Asian American women to work in lower-paying service jobs (Figure 5), which generally provide less flexibility and fewer benefits.

- The District of Columbia has the highest rates of women in professional and managerial jobs among white women, Asian American women, and Native American

women (74.1 percent, 57.0 percent, and 51.6 percent, respectively). While the District is also second in the nation for the percent of African American women in these jobs, the proportion is much lower than it is for other groups, at 38.6 percent. At 38.7 percent, Hawaii is first in the nation for the percentage of African American women in professional and managerial jobs. Vermont is the best state for Hispanic women's share of these jobs (36.6 percent; see Appendix Table 3d).

- Nevada is the worst state for the proportions of Hispanic, Asian American, and white women in managerial and professional positions (at 14.2 percent, 20.9 percent, and 32.1 percent, respectively). North Dakota has the lowest ranking for African American women (with a rate of 11.3 percent). Iowa is worst for Native American women (20.2 percent).

Figure 5
Percent of Women Employed in Service Occupations
in the United States, by Race and Ethnicity, 2000



Notes: For women aged 16 and older. The proportions presented here are based on 2000 Census data. They differ from those in Figure 3, which are based on the 2002 Current Population Survey data (for the year 2001). See Appendix II for methodology.

Hispanics may be of any race or two or more races. Racial categories (Whites, African Americans, Asian Americans, Native Americans, Other/Two Plus) do not include Hispanics.

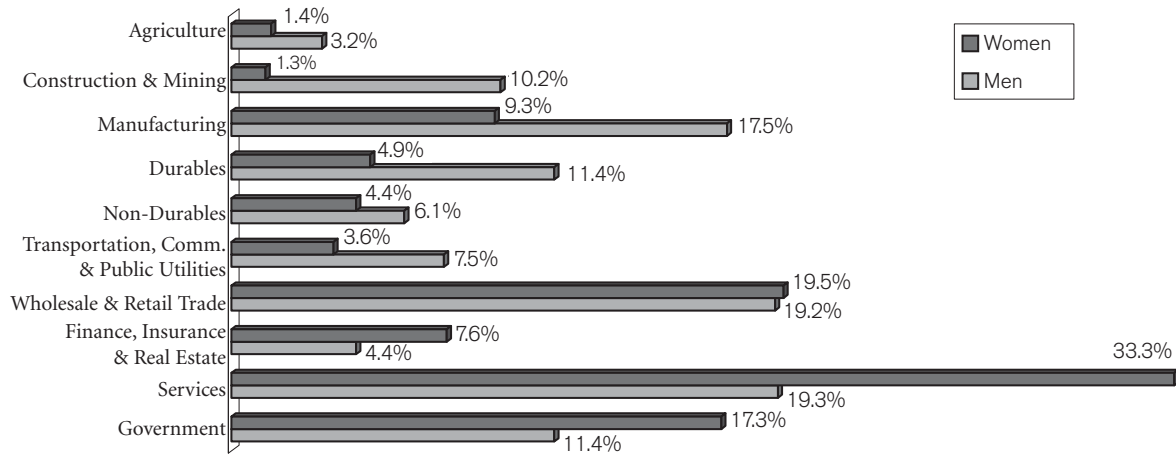
Source: U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census 2004b.

Compiled by the Institute for Women's Policy Research.

Women and men are also distributed differently across industries, and as with occupations, men are distributed more evenly (Figure 6). Women are most likely to be employed in the service industries. One-third of all working women are employed in that category, which includes business, professional, and personal services. About one-fifth work in the wholesale and retail trade industries. A slightly smaller proportion (17.3 percent) works in government. The next largest industries for women are manufacturing (9.3 percent) and finance, insurance, and real estate (7.6 percent). Men are also most likely to be employed in the service industries (19.3 percent) and in wholesale and retail trade (19.2 percent), but at considerably lower proportions than women. The next largest industry for men is manufacturing, at 17.5 percent. Of employed men, 11.4 percent work in government, 10.2 percent work in construction and mining, and 7.5 percent work in transportation, communications, and public utilities.

Because of their close proximity to the nation's capital, high proportions of women working in Virginia (20.1 percent) and in Maryland (25.1 percent), as well as in the District of Columbia itself (28.8 percent), work in government. The highest proportion of women working in government is in Alaska at 29.1 percent. Wyoming (26.2 percent) and New Mexico (23.4 percent) also have high proportions of women working in government. Government employment especially benefits women, as it tends to provide employment opportunities, pay, and benefits that are more similar to those of men than is the case in private industry, as well as good access to health insurance and a high rate of representation by labor unions and professional associations. Large proportions of all women managers and professionals, especially among women of color, work in the public sector.



Figure 6**Distribution of Women and Men Across Industries
in the United States, 2001**

Notes: For employed women and men aged 16 and older.

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

Durables and non-durables are included in manufacturing.

Private household workers are not included in services.

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics 2003a.

Compiled by the Institute for Women's Policy Research.



The Economic Status of African American Women

Despite Substantial Gains, Low Wages and High Poverty Persist

African American women have seen many advances in their economic status in past decades. They have increased their educational attainment more quickly than white women have (Adams 2001), and they have moved into increasingly stable, diverse, and well-paying jobs. For example, in the period between 1940 and 1980, the proportion of African American women in private household jobs decreased from 58.4 percent to 6.2 percent (Cunningham and Zalokar 1992). During that same period, African American women moved into more middle-class, white collar positions, and their rising earnings and professional status contributed to the rise of an African American middle class, particularly in the decades since the 1960s (Pattillo-McCoy 1999).

At the same time, African American women continue to earn considerably less than white and Asian American women in the United States (Figure 1), and they are much more likely to live in poverty than either group. They earn more than Hispanic or Native American women, but they have the lowest rate of employment in professional and managerial occupations of any group besides Hispanics (see Figure 4).

As Table 4 shows, the median annual earnings for full-time year-round African American women in 1999 were \$27,600, \$3,300 less than those for white women. Even these depressed earnings would seem generous for some African American women, though: in some states, their earnings are considerably lower. For example, in the worst state for African American women's earnings, Louisiana, women earned just \$19,400; in Mississippi and Arkansas, they earned \$19,900 and \$20,800, respectively. By contrast, in the best state for African American women's wages, California, they earned \$35,300 in 1999; in Maryland and the District of Columbia, they earned \$34,200 and \$33,700, respectively. In general, states with high earnings for African American women are concentrated in the Northeast and the Western areas of the United States, while those with poor earnings tend to be in the Southeast and Midwest (see Appendix Table 3b). These patterns are similar to

those for white women's earnings. Still, African American women in only ten states earn more than the national median for white women (\$30,900).

The gap between African American women and white men is especially large: full-time year-round African American women workers earn 62.5 percent of what white men earn. The largest gap between the earnings of African American women and white men is in Louisiana, where African American women make only 48.9 percent of what white men earn. The District of Columbia (50.0 percent) and Rhode Island (54.0 percent) also fare poorly on this indicator (see Appendix Table 3c). The best wage ratio between African American women and white men is in West Virginia, where African American women earn 72.6 percent of what white men earn, followed by Nebraska (71.2 percent) and Oregon (71.1 percent).

Not surprisingly, African American women experience some of the highest poverty rates in the United States. Nationally, in 1999, 24.1 percent of African American women lived in poverty, compared with 9.0 percent of white women. Louisiana has the worst percentage of African American women living below the poverty line (35.6 percent), followed by Mississippi (34.7 percent) and Arkansas (32.9 percent). (See Appendix Table 3e.) The best poverty rates among African American women are in Alaska (7.1 percent), followed by Hawaii (10.8 percent) and Maryland (14.0 percent). Overall, the Western states (including California, Nevada, Colorado, Arizona, and New Mexico) tend to have the least poverty among African American women, while Southeastern and Midwestern states have the most poverty.

The economic hardship experienced by many African American women results from persistent discrimination in hiring and promotion, occupational segregation by race and gender, and differences in access to higher education. Inequalities in access to other key resources also contribute. For example, African American/white disparities in health have been estimated to account for 21 to 29 percent of the corresponding gap in employment (Bound et al. 2003). Racial segregation and the



location of housing and jobs also contribute to lower earnings for African Americans (Drago 1994), and occupational segregation by race and gender twice disadvantage female African American workers (Reskin 1999). In addition, African American women have relatively low levels of educational attainment, even though the education levels of African Americans have increased considerably since the 1960s (Blau, Ferber, and Winkler 2002). Finally, declines in union membership and manufacturing jobs and urban economic decline have contributed to falling earnings among African American women over the 1980s and 1990s (Bound and Dresser 1999).

African American women clearly face many obstacles to improving their economic status in the United States. Both the federal and state governments could reduce these inequities by adopting better policies and adequately enforcing those that already exist. For example, the adoption and stronger enforcement of equal opportunity and affirmative action provisions, expansion of programs designed to minimize occupational segregation, and an increase in scholarships and other educational support programs to widen access to higher education would all enhance the economic status of African American women.

Table 4
Economic Status of
African American Women in the United States

Median Annual Earnings for African American Women (for full-time, year-round workers)		Earnings Ratio Between African American Women and White Men		Percent of African American Women Above Poverty	
State	Earnings	State	Ratio	State	Percent
United States	\$27,600		62.5%		75.9%
Best States					
California (1)	\$35,300	West Virginia (1)	72.6%	Alaska (1)	92.9%
Maryland (2)	\$34,200	Nebraska (2)	71.2%	Hawaii (2)	89.2%
District of Columbia (3)	\$33,700	Oregon (3)	71.1%	Maryland (3)	86.0%
Worst States					
Arkansas (41)	\$20,800	Rhode Island (41)	54.0%	Arkansas (41)	67.1%
Mississippi (42)	\$19,900	District of Columbia (42)	50.0%	Mississippi (42)	65.3%
Louisiana (43)	\$19,400	Louisiana (43)	48.9%	Louisiana (43)	64.4%

Notes: All rankings are of 43. Eight states are excluded from the rankings due to small sample sizes.

All data are for non-Hispanics only.

All figures are in 2003 dollars. See Appendix II for methodology.

Source: Urban Institute 2004b.

Compiled by the Institute for Women's Policy Research.



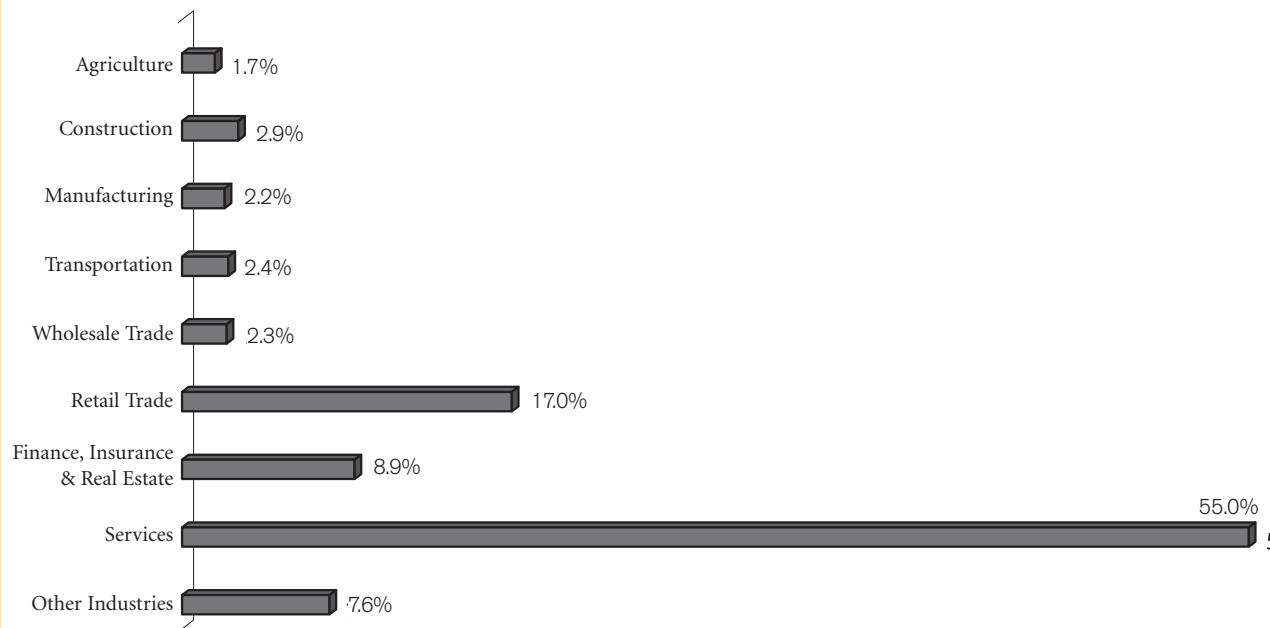
Women's Business Ownership

owning a business can bring women increased control over their working lives and create important financial and social opportunities for them. It can encompass a wide range of arrangements, from owning a corporation, to consulting, to providing child care in one's home. Overall, both the number and proportion of businesses owned by women have been growing.

By 1997, women owned 5.4 million firms in the United States. Of these firms, 55.0 percent were in the service industries, and the next highest proportion, 17.0 percent, was in retail trade (see Figure 7). Women-owned businesses employed nearly 7.1 million people and generated \$878.3 billion in business revenues in 1997 (U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census 2001b).⁸

- The District of Columbia has the highest percentage (30.9 percent) of businesses that are women-owned. South Dakota has the lowest (21.5 percent; see Appendix Table 3a).
- In general, the Pacific West and Southwestern regions of the country have high percentages of women-owned businesses, along with the states bordering the District of Columbia and a few Midwestern and Northeastern states (see Map 4). New Mexico, with 29.4 percent of all businesses owned by women, has the second highest proportion of women-owned businesses, and Maryland, with 28.9 percent, ranks third.
- The Mountain states and a cluster of states in the South (from Kentucky to Oklahoma and Louisiana) have smaller proportions of women-owned businesses and rank in the bottom third on this indicator.

Figure 7
Distribution of Women-Owned Firms Across Industries in the United States, 1997

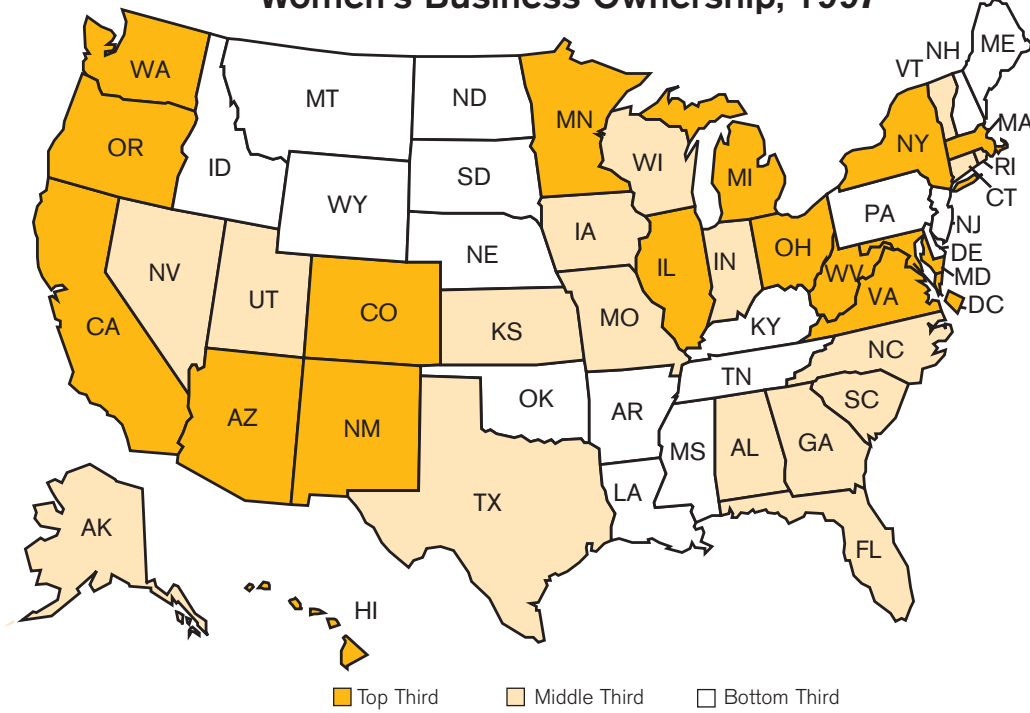


Source: U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census 2001b.

Compiled by the Institute for Women's Policy Research.

⁸ Data on women-owned businesses are not available by race by state or for the nation as a whole.



Map 4**Women's Business Ownership, 1997**

Note: For methodology and sources, see Appendix II.



The Economic Status of Asian American Women:

Important Strides, but Not for Everyone

Asian American women, considered as a group, earn more than any other major racial or ethnic group of women, and they are less likely to live in poverty than any group besides white women (see Figures 1 and 7). Asian American women are also more likely to work in professional/managerial jobs than other women (Figure 4). They are among the most highly educated women in the United States: according to the United States Census Bureau, 43.8 percent of Asian American women aged 25 and older, compared with 27.3 percent of white women, held a college degree or more as of 2002 (U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census 2003a). These high levels of education contribute to their higher earnings and lower poverty.

Nonetheless, there are important variations in the progress of Asian American women. Not all Asian American women are benefiting equally from the economic advantages achieved by some. The fact that Asian American women workers as a group earn more than white women workers, but are also more likely to live in poverty, points to the existence of substantial earnings and income inequalities within this group. In fact, research shows that Asian American workers are more likely than whites to earn both the highest wages (more than \$250 per hour) and the lowest (less than \$5 per hour; Cohen 2002).

As Table 5 shows, the wage differential between the highest-earning group of Asian American women, Japanese Americans, and the lowest-earning, Vietnamese Americans, is striking. While the earnings of Japanese American women are \$39,300 for full-time, full-year workers—well above the annual earnings of white women, at \$30,900—the earnings of Vietnamese American women are almost \$13,000 less, at \$26,500. Japanese women earned 89.0 percent of white men's earnings in 1999, compared with 67.5 percent for all women relative to white men; Vietnamese women earned just 60.0 percent of white men's wages.

Poverty rates also range widely according to specific Asian heritage. While a relatively low proportion of Filipina women live in poverty (6.5 per-

cent), a much higher proportion—16.7 percent—of Hawaiian/Pacific Islander women have family incomes below the federal poverty line.

These differences among Asian American women are partially related to disparities in educational attainment, labor force participation, and job opportunities, as well as immigrant status (Foo 2003; Ro 2001). Although many Asian Americans are highly educated and earn high wages, many others, including Asian immigrants, work in low-paying positions and have limited English and educational attainment. These women have comparatively few opportunities for higher earnings and job promotion. Among Asian American women, earnings for those born in the United States are \$38,700, compared with \$33,133 for those who are born outside the country (data not shown; Urban Institute 2004b). Poverty rates are also higher for foreign-born Asian American women, at 12.7 percent compared with 11.2 percent.

There is also evidence that wage discrimination affects the earnings and career mobility of Asian Americans (Woo 2000), particularly in areas of the country where they comprise relatively low proportions of the population (Mar 2000). In addition, their overall higher earnings are partially related to living in concentrated populations in urban areas, such as New York and San Francisco. Within these cities, where high incomes and costs of living distort national statistics, incomes are lower among Asian Americans than among whites (Cohen 2002; Mar 2000).

The poor economic status of some Asian American women is illustrated by their disproportionately high representation in some types of low-wage work: for example, in sweatshops in the garment industry, in the "high-tech sweatshops" manufacturing microchips in Silicon Valley, and in domestic work. Many of these jobs also disproportionately include Hispanic women, and they tend to involve poor and sometimes dangerous working conditions, long hours, and little work flexibility. Immigrant women are particularly likely to occupy them. Some research suggests that Asian American and Hispanic women, especially as immi-



grants, are preferred by employers to fill these jobs based on stereotypes that they are less likely to protest poor working conditions and better “suited” to repetitive, boring work (Foo 2003).

Although Asian American women as a group have made important strides in improving their economic status, significant differences among

these women point to discrepancies in access to the factors related to higher earnings, including education, unionization, and higher-quality job opportunities. Policies should address these issues. Governments should also strengthen the enforcement of anti-discrimination laws and provide better protections for immigrant workers.

Table 5
Economic Indicators for Asian American Women
in the United States, 1999, by Origin

	Median Annual Earnings (for full-time, year-round workers)	Ratio of Asian American Women's Earnings to White Men's Earnings	Rank for Earnings and the Earnings Ratio, by Type of Asian Origin	Percent of Asian American Women Above Poverty	Rank for Women Above Poverty, by Type of Asian American Origin
All Asian American Women	\$33,100	75.0%		87.6%	
Japanese	\$39,300	89.0%	1	89.4%	3
Asian Indian	\$38,700	87.5%	2	90.4%	2
Chinese	\$37,600	85.0%	3	86.2%	4
Filipino	\$35,000	79.3%	4	93.5%	1
Korean	\$30,900	70.0%	5	84.6%	6
Other Asian	\$29,200	66.0%	6	80.9%	8
Hawaiian/Pacific Islander	\$28,700	65.0%	7	83.3%	7
Vietnamese	\$26,500	60.0%	8	85.2%	5

Notes: For women and men aged 16 and older. All figures are in 2003 dollars. All data are for non-Hispanics only.

See Appendix II for methodology.

Source: Urban Institute 2004b.

Compiled by the Institute for Women's Policy Research.



Poverty

Women bear substantial responsibility for their families' economic well-being. Factors such as the wage gap, women's prevalence in low-paid, female-dominated occupations, and their low relative hours of paid work all impede their ability to ensure their families' financial security, particularly in the case of single mothers. Nationally, the proportion of women aged 16 and over in poverty was 12.1 percent, compared with 8.7 percent for men, in 2002 (Urban Institute 2004a). While 7.1 percent of married couples with children were living in poverty in 2002, 28.9 percent of single mothers with children were. In 2002 single mother families were half of all families in poverty (IWPR 2003).

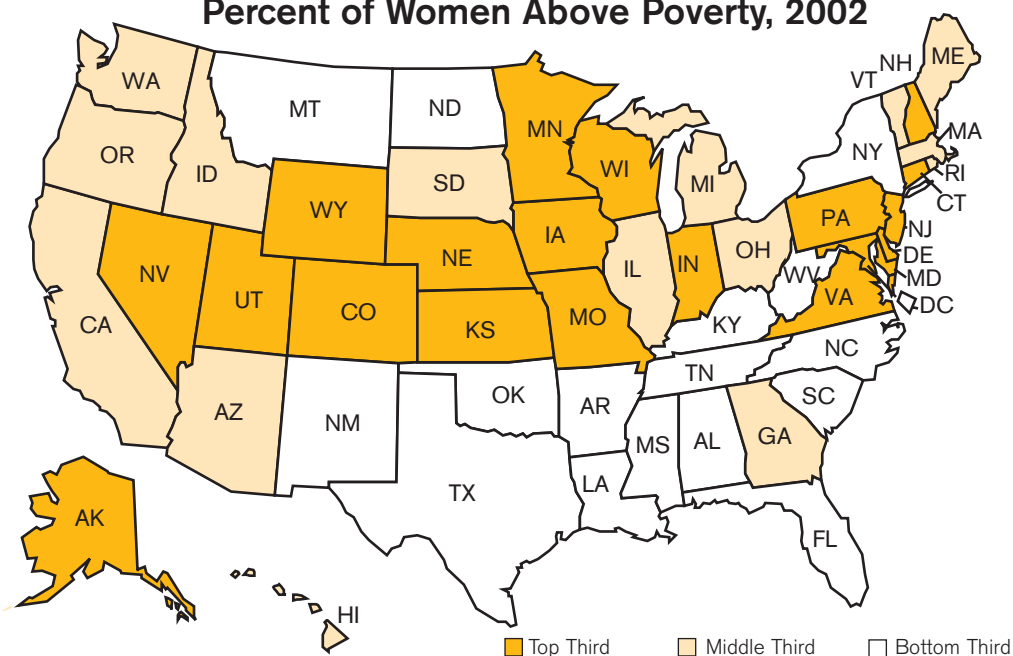
- Women are most likely to be poor (using the federal definition) in many of the Southeastern states, as well as in a few Western states, such as Montana and New Mexico (see Map 5). In the worst state for women's poverty, Mississippi, 20.2 percent of women live in families with incomes below the poverty level. In New Mexico (18.1 percent), Arkansas and the District of Columbia (17.9 percent), and Louisiana (17.4 percent), women are also much more likely to live in poverty than the national average (see Appendix Table 3a).

- Women are least likely to be poor in parts of the Northeast, the Midwest, and a band of states stretching from Nevada to Missouri. In the best states for women's poverty—New Hampshire (7.3 percent), Maryland (7.6 percent), and Minnesota (7.7 percent)—poverty rates are all lower than 8.0 percent.

These rates of poverty probably understate the degree of hardship among women. Although the poverty line is the federal standard of hardship in the United States, some researchers have begun to use alternative measures of hardship and economic well-being, including basic family budgets or living wage standards. For example, several non-governmental groups, including Wider Opportunities for Women and the Economic Policy Institute, have developed living wage or family budget methods, which calculate the cost of every major budget item a family needs—including housing, child care, health care, transportation, food, and taxes—based on family composition and where the family resides (Boushey et al. 2001; Bernstein, Brocht, and Spade-Aguilar 2000; Pearce and Brooks 2003). According to analysis by the Economic Policy Institute, the proportion of people in families (consisting of one or two parents and one to three children under the age of twelve) with incomes below a minimum family budget level was 27.6 percent in 1999, much higher than the proportion of people in comparable families living below the federal poverty line (10.1 percent; Boushey et al. 2001).

Map 5

Percent of Women Above Poverty, 2002



Note: For methodology and sources, see Appendix II.



Race, Ethnicity, and Women's Poverty

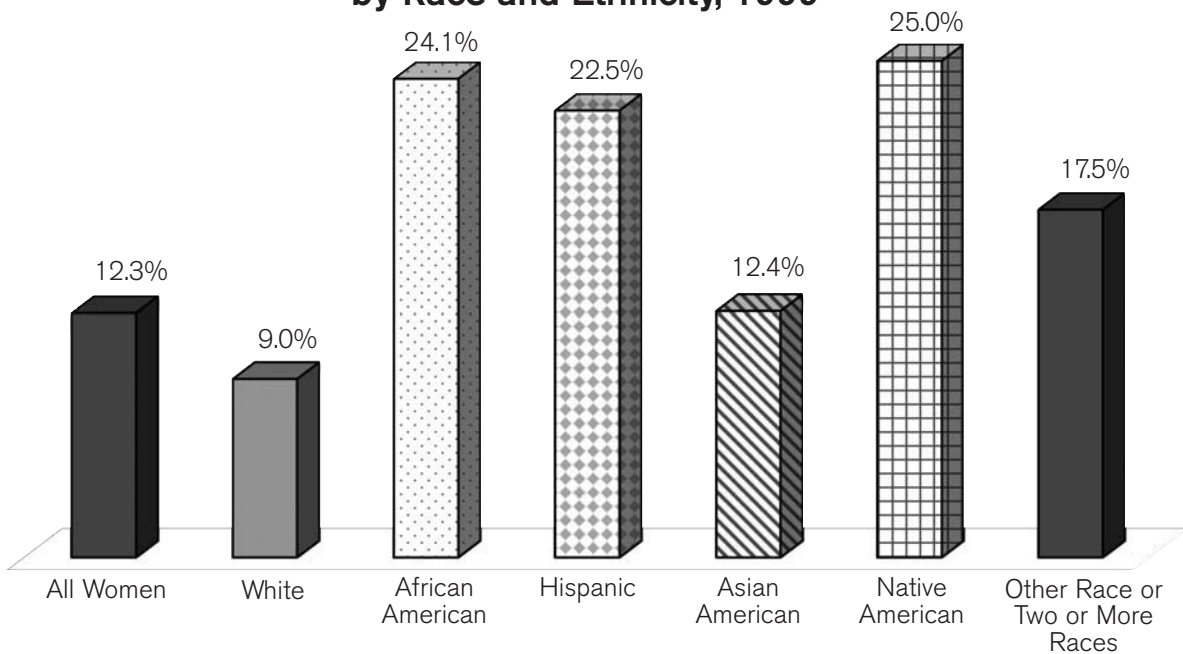
Women of color of all races and ethnicities are more likely to live in poverty than white women are. Nationally, 25.0 percent of Native American women, 24.1 percent of African American women, and 22.5 percent of Hispanic women aged 16 and older were living below the poverty line in 1999.⁹ This compares with 9.0 percent of white women and 12.4 percent of Asian American women (see Figure 8; see also Appendix Table 3e for state-by-state data on poverty among women of color; Urban Institute 2004b).

Among single mothers, poverty rates were also higher for women of color than for white women. Single mother families experienced poverty rates of

22.1 percent among whites, 22.4 percent among Asian Americans, 35.4 percent among African Americans, 36.3 percent among Hispanics, and 37.8 percent among Native Americans. These numbers are particularly devastating for African American, Native American, and Hispanic women and their children, because they are also more likely to live in single-mother families. While single-mother families are 15.5 percent of all white families and 10.1 percent of all Asian American families, they are 49.7 percent of African American families, 31.7 percent of Native American families, and 21.7 percent of Hispanic families (Urban Institute 2004b).

The higher poverty rates of women of color result

Figure 8
Percent of Women Living Below the Poverty Line
by Race and Ethnicity, 1999



Notes: For women aged 16 and older. See Appendix II for methodology.

Hispanics may be of any race or two or more races. Racial categories (Whites, African Americans, Asian Americans, Native Americans, Other/Two Plus) do not include Hispanics.

Source: Urban Institute 2004b.

Compiled by the Institute for Women's Policy Research.

⁹ The source of these data is the 2000 Census, which differs from the Current Population Survey data for poverty presented above.



from fewer economic opportunities in communities of color. Lower wages, which in turn result from factors such as racial discrimination, occupational segregation, lower levels of educational attainment, and a lack of job opportunities, as well as inadequate social supports and safety net programs, all increase the likelihood of poverty. Unemployment is also a key factor among women of color, who have higher unemployment rates than both white women and men of color (U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics 2003c). Women of color are also less likely to be married than white women; and if they are married, their husbands' earnings tend to be lower as well (because of lower earnings for men of color than white men). High incarceration rates, particularly among African American men, also have effects on the economic stability of their families and communities (Moore 1996). For American Indian/Alaska Native women in particular, factors such as reduced state and federal assistance

and limited economic development, particularly on reservations, also contribute to high levels of poverty (see "The Economic Status of Native American Women: A Legacy of Hardship and Limited Opportunity," on page 11).

- Virginia has the least poverty among Native American women (11.3 percent). Alaska has the least poverty among African American and Hispanic women, at 7.1 percent and 13.0 percent, respectively. New Jersey has the best rate for Asian American women (7.0 percent; see Appendix Table 3e).¹⁰
- Louisiana has the worst poverty rate among African American women (35.6 percent). Rhode Island has the worst rate for Asian American women (26.2 percent) and Hispanic women (33.7 percent). For Native American women, South Dakota has the worst poverty rate (45.3 percent).

¹⁰ Due to small sample sizes, some states are excluded from these rankings for poverty among women of color. See Appendix Table 3e.



The Economic Status of Hispanic Women

Wages and Poverty Vary by National Origin

Over the past few decades, Hispanic women have experienced important gains in their social and economic status. Hispanic families have increased their incomes and are one of the fastest-growing groups in the U.S. middle class, particularly among those born in the United States (Bean et al. 2001). Hispanic women are increasingly responsible for sustaining their families' incomes, as their labor force participation grew by 4.3 percentage points between 1992 and 2002, compared with 1.9 percentage points among white women (U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics 2004). But Hispanic women also earn less than women in any other racial or ethnic group in the United States, they are more likely to live in poverty than Asian American and white women, and they are far less likely to be employed in professional or managerial jobs than any other group (see Figures 1, 4, and 7).

Both the progress of Hispanic women and the remaining obstacles they face are illustrated by the significant differences that mark their economic

status based on their specific heritage. For example, Cuban women fare better than any other group of Hispanic origin. They rank first for earnings and the wage ratio with white men, and they are the most likely group of Hispanic women to live above poverty (see Table 6). At the opposite end of the spectrum, Mexican women rank near the bottom among Hispanic women for both earnings and poverty. The disparities dividing Hispanic women are evident in the range of earnings within this group. While Cuban women earned \$28,700 in 1999, for example, Central American women earned almost \$9,000 less, at \$19,900, and Mexican women earn only slightly more, at \$22,100.

Interestingly, while Puerto Rican women rank near the top of Hispanic women for their earnings and the wage ratio with white men, they rank last for the percent of women living above poverty. A total of 26.4 percent of Puerto Rican women lived in poverty in 1999, compared with a rate of 15.5 percent among Cuban women. Worse poverty rates among Puerto Rican women may stem in

Table 6
Economic Indicators for
Hispanic Women in the United States, 1999, by Origin

	Median Annual Earnings (for full-time, year-round workers)	Ratio of Women's Earnings to Non- Hispanic White Men's Earnings	Rank for Earnings and the Earnings Ratio, by Type of Hispanic Origin	Percent of Hispanic Women Above Poverty	Rank for Women Above Poverty, by Type of Hispanic Origin
All Hispanic Women	\$23,200	52.5%		77.5%	
Cuban	\$28,700	65.0%	1	84.5%	1
Puerto Rican	\$27,600	62.5%	2	73.6%	6
South American	\$26,100	59.0%	3	83.4%	2
Other Hispanic	\$24,300	55.0%	4	77.8%	4
Mexican	\$22,100	50.0%	5	77.0%	5
Central American	\$19,900	45.0%	6	78.7%	3

Notes: For women and men aged 16 and older. All figures are in 2003 dollars. See Appendix II for methodology.

Hispanics may be of any race.

Source: Urban Institute 2004b.

Compiled by the Institute for Women's Policy Research.



part from lower labor force participation rates among these women, which lead to greater economic hardship in the families of those who are outside the labor force (Bean and Tienda 1988).

A variety of issues contribute to the economic hardships experienced by many Hispanic women. Racial or ethnic discrimination is a factor in their employment status and earnings; it has been estimated that 11 percent of Hispanic workers experienced discrimination based on their race or origin in 1999 (Blumrosen and Blumrosen 2002). Hispanic women also have significantly lower levels of educational attainment than white women. In 2002, more than one-fourth (26.3 percent) of Hispanics had less than a ninth-grade education, compared with only 3.8 percent of whites. Similarly, only 11.2 percent of Hispanic women, less than half the rate for white women (27.3 percent), had a college degree or more in 2002 (U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census 2003b). While union affiliation has been declining among all racial and ethnic groups, Hispanic workers are even less likely to be union members than those from other racial and ethnic groups (Thomas-Breitfeld 2003). As a result, fewer Hispanics enjoy the higher earnings and better benefits that collective bargaining often provides.

The disadvantages facing Hispanic women are exemplified in their low participation in top corporate board and executive positions. In 2003, only

21 Hispanic women served on the boards of Fortune 1,000 companies, and only seven Hispanic women were executive officers in these companies (Grundmann 2004). In contrast, Hispanic women are the most likely of all women to work in service occupations (Figure 5) and are especially concentrated in low-paying domestic service jobs (Foo 2003).

Finally, for many Latinas, immigration status poses a unique set of issues and obstacles. Among Hispanic women, earnings for those born in the United States are \$26,500, compared with \$19,900 for those who are born outside the country (data not shown; Urban Institute 2004b). A majority of all Hispanic workers are foreign-born, and immigrant workers tend to have lower levels of education, less proficiency in English, and less awareness of their legal protections (which are often fairly weak themselves); these factors all create barriers to higher earnings and better job placement (Thomas-Breitfeld 2003). Poverty rates are also higher for foreign-born Hispanic women, at 24.7 percent compared with 20.0 percent for native-born Hispanic women.

Hispanic women's economic status would benefit from policies designed to improve their educational attainment and union representation, reduce the discrimination they confront, and provide stronger protections from exploitation of those who are immigrants.



Conclusions and Policy Recommendations

Women in the United States have made a great deal of economic progress in the past few decades. They hold higher-paying, more prestigious jobs, and they own more businesses than they did thirty years ago. They have also made strides in narrowing the wage gap. Despite progress, however, women face substantial and persistent obstacles to attaining equality. Their wages still lag behind men's, they are more likely to live in poverty, and they are less likely to own a business.

The economic issues examined here are closely related to women's equality and access to opportunities in other areas of their lives. For example, educational attainment often directly relates to occupation and earnings. Women's occupations shape their access to health insurance, paid leave, and other benefits, as well as their earnings. Women's health status can negatively affect women's earnings as well.

For many women of color, access to economic equality with white women and with men remains particularly problematic, limiting their economic autonomy and long-term security in many ways. Their economic status could be improved by policies designed to alleviate race- and gender-based employment discrimination and occupational segregation in low-wage jobs, and to enhance educational attainment. In addition, policies contributing to the economic development of reservations and other Native American communities would improve the financial and social prospects of American Indian/ Alaska Native women.

Policies and programs designed to diminish both gender- and race-based inequities should remain at the forefront of local, state, and national policymaking efforts. All women need policies promoting equality and basic well-being.

- Federal, state, and local governments can increase women's earnings by strengthening their support for the enforcement of equal opportunity laws. With more resources, federal, state, and local equal opportunity offices could resolve complaints more quickly and, if more cases were resolved in the plaintiffs' favor due to stronger and more timely enforcement efforts, employers would have greater incentives to improve their employment practices. Equal employment offices could also audit large employers regularly for discrimination.
- Businesses should regularly evaluate their wage and promotion practices to ensure that men and women of all races and ethnicities are fairly compensated for their

work. Employers could be required by federal or state policies or by union contracts to show that comparable jobs are paid fairly, using tools such as job evaluation systems that measure job content on many dimensions.

- Employers should actively recruit women into predominantly male jobs that pay well compared to traditionally female jobs with similar educational and skill requirements. They should also actively prevent harassment and discrimination in these traditionally male fields.
- Federal, state, and local governments should improve educational and job training opportunities for women, especially in occupations not traditionally held by women. States should also invest in technological training in primary, secondary, and post-secondary schools, in order to reduce the digital divide keeping many disadvantaged women out of these occupations. States should enforce Title IX rules about equal access to educational programs at the secondary school level.
- State and local activists concerned with the quality of life of women, workers of color, and low-wage workers should get involved in living wage campaigns and efforts to tie the federal or state minimum wages to cost of living increases. All raise public awareness about the importance of setting a reasonable wage floor, which disproportionately benefits women workers—and particularly women of color—because they are more likely to be in low-wage work.
- Educational attainment should be encouraged among all women, but especially women of color, through affirmative action policies encouraging their enrollment in higher education and through increased financial aid and scholarship programs reducing economic barriers. Native American women's educational opportunities can be specifically expanded by increased investment in tribal colleges and universities.
- Rates of women's business ownership and business success could be increased by ensuring that federal, state, and local government contracts are accessible to women-owned businesses and by public and private sector investment in loan and entrepreneurial programs that expand small-business opportunities for all.
- Women workers would benefit from greater availability of health insurance and paid parental and dependent-care leave policies—benefits often least available to the lowest paid workers. These benefits can be expanded through state policy mandates, including strategies such as using unemployment insurance or temporary disability benefits, and through the private sector, where businesses can incorporate them into worker compen-



sation packages and collective bargaining agreements.

- Small and large businesses can also evaluate the needs of their workers for flexibility and family-friendly benefits on an ongoing basis by surveying employees and then seeking to meet their needs.
- States can reduce women's poverty by implementing welfare reform programs that provide a range of important support services, such as high quality education and training opportunities, while still providing a basic safety net for those who earn very low wages or cannot work.
- Because union representation correlates strongly with higher wages for women and improved pay equity, benefits, and working conditions, federal and state laws that facilitate the freedom of workers to form unions would especially assist women workers. For example, states should repeal so-called "right to work" provisions, which prohibit requiring employees who benefit from unions to pay dues and undermine unionization by granting its benefits to workers who do not join.
- State and tribal policies should support the economic and political development of reservations and Native American tribes by incorporating tribally designed economic development strategies, supporting and rein-

forcing tribal sovereignty, and serving tribal goals.

- States should broaden supports and protections for immigrant women workers, many of whom work in poorly regulated private household or low-wage manufacturing positions, by raising awareness of immigrants' and workers' rights. Increased investment in language training would improve the skills of immigrants as workers and open their access to better-paying jobs as well.
- Women can increase the visibility of all the issues facing their lives by striving to assume leadership positions in a variety of places—on reservations and in tribal governments, in towns and cities, in state and federal government, in businesses and corporations, in community groups, and in any other place where leadership is needed.

By investing in the status of women, states can encourage the kind of broad-based economic growth and successes that benefit both their economies and the men, women, and children that reside within their borders. Only with all women—regardless of race or ethnicity—contributing their best efforts and talents as full and equal partners in work, politics, and communities will cities, states, and the nation achieve their full potential.



Appendix I

Race and Ethnicity Among Women in the United States

This section provides population distributions of women by race and ethnicity in the United States. These data present an image of the nation's female population and can be used to provide insight into the topics covered in this report.

As of 2000, women of color (African Americans, Asian Americans, Native Americans, Hispanics of any race, and women of other races or two or more races) constituted 30.7 percent of the national female population (see Appendix Table 1). The two largest minority groups as of 2000 were African Americans (12.4 percent of all women) and Hispanics of any race (12.0 percent of all women). Mexican women (6.9 percent) were over half of the national Hispanic female population. Asian American women were the third largest minority group (3.8 percent of all women), with Chinese and Filipina women, the two largest groups of Asian American women, 0.9 percent and 0.7 percent of the U.S. female population, respectively. Native American women comprised 0.7 percent of all women in the United States.¹¹

Hawaii (78.8 percent), the District of Columbia (73.6 percent), and New Mexico (55.1 percent) have the largest

proportions of women of color. In the District of Columbia, most women are African American (61.4 percent); in Hawaii, most are Asian American and Native Hawaiian/Pacific Islander (51.9 percent); and in New Mexico, most are Hispanic and Native American (41.8 percent and 9.1 percent, respectively). Alaska (15.8 percent) has the largest proportion of Native American women.

Immigrant women make up 10.9 percent of the U.S. population of women, with Hispanic women the largest group of foreign-born women, at 4.6 percent of the population. California has the largest proportion of women who were foreign-born, at 26.2 percent, followed by New York (20.5 percent) and Hawaii (19.9 percent).

Approximately 1.2 million women are American Indian or Alaska Native alone (Appendix Table 2; note that figures in this table include Hispanics). Cherokee (12.4 percent) and Navajo (11.6 percent) women are the two largest female populations within the Native American female population. Cherokee women make up 2.9 percent of the total population of women in Oklahoma and 5.9 percent of all women in New Mexico. Among Alaska Natives, the largest tribe is the Eskimo, who make up 1.9 percent of all Native American women. Eskimo women make up 6.9 percent of all women in Alaska. Excluding Hispanics, slightly more than a million women are American Indian/Alaska Native alone. Slightly less than a million women are American Indian/Alaska Native in combination with one or more other races, including Hispanics. Including both Hispanics and those who are Native American in combination with one or more other races, there are a total of 2.2 million Native American women in the United States.

¹¹ As noted above, people of "two or more races" are grouped with those who marked "some other race" in the 2000 Census. Among women, these two groups total 1.9 percent (see Appendix Table 1). Each of the other racial groups refer only to those people who indicated one race alone. As in the rest of this report, the data in Appendix Table 1 for the various races (white, African Americans, Asian Americans, Native Americans, and other/two or more races) exclude Hispanics. Excluding people of two or more races



Appendix Table 1
Basic Demographic Statistics for the United States, 2000

United States		Top 3 States (as proportion of total population of women)
Total Population	281,421,906	
Number of Women, All Ages	143,505,720	California, Texas, New York
Distribution of Women by Race and Ethnicity, All Ages		
White ^a	69.3%	Maine, Vermont, New Hampshire
African American ^a	12.4%	District of Columbia, Mississippi, Louisiana
Hispanic ^b	12.0%	New Mexico, California, Texas
Mexican	6.9%	California, Texas, Arizona
Puerto Rican	1.2%	Connecticut, New York, New Jersey
Cuban	0.4%	Florida, New Jersey, Nevada
Central American	0.6%	District of Columbia, California, Florida
South American	0.5%	Wyoming, New Jersey, Florida (all tied)
Other Hispanic	2.3%	New Mexico, Colorado, Texas
Asian American ^a	3.8%	Hawaii, California, Washington
Chinese	0.9%	Hawaii, California, New York
Filipina	0.7%	Hawaii, California, Nevada
Japanese	0.3%	Hawaii, California, Washington
Korean	0.4%	Hawaii, California, Alaska
Vietnamese	0.4%	California, Washington, Hawaii
Hawaiian and Pacific Islander	0.1%	Hawaii, Utah, Alaska
Other Asian	1.0%	Hawaii, New Jersey, California
Native American ^a	0.7%	Alaska, New Mexico, South Dakota
Other/Two Or More Races ^a	1.9%	Hawaii, Alaska, Oklahoma
Distribution of Foreign-Born Women by Race and Ethnicity		
	10.9%	California, New York, Hawaii
White ^a	2.6%	New York, Massachusetts, Connecticut
African American ^a	0.7%	New York, District of Columbia, Florida
Hispanic ^b	4.6%	California, Texas, Florida
Asian American ^a	2.6%	Hawaii, California, New Jersey
Native American ^a	0.01%	Alaska, District of Columbia, Montana, New York (all 3 tied for 2nd)
Other/Two Or More Races ^a	0.4%	New York, Massachusetts, Hawaii

Note: ^aNon-Hispanics only. ^bHispanics may be of any race or two or more races.

Source: U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census 2004a.

Compiled by the Institute for Women's Policy Research.



Appendix Table 2

American Indian and Alaska Native Female Population, 2000^a

Distribution of Women within the Native American Population, All Ages	United States (proportions are of the female Native American population)	Top 3 States (as proportion of the total population of women)
American Indian and Alaskan Native Alone^a	1,231,926	Alaska, New Mexico, South Dakota
American Indian alone^a		
Apache alone	2.3%	Arizona, New Mexico, Oklahoma
Blackfeet alone	1.1%	Montana, Washington, Idaho
Cherokee alone	12.4%	Oklahoma, Rhode Island, Arkansas
Cheyenne alone	0.4%	Montana, Oklahoma, Wyoming
Chickasaw alone	0.9%	Oklahoma, Alaska, Texas
Chippewa alone	4.6%	North Dakota, Minnesota, Montana
Choctaw alone	3.7%	Oklahoma, Mississippi, Arkansas
Comanche alone	0.4%	Oklahoma, Texas, California
Creek alone	1.6%	Oklahoma, Alabama, Florida
Iroquois alone	2.0%	Wisconsin, New York, Oklahoma
Lumbee alone	2.2%	North Carolina, South Carolina, Maryland
Navajo alone	11.6%	New Mexico, Arizona, Utah
Potawatomi alone	0.7%	Oklahoma, Kansas, Michigan
Pueblo alone	2.5%	New Mexico, Arizona, Oklahoma
Puget Sound Salish alone	0.5%	Washington, Oregon
Seminole alone	0.5%	Oklahoma, Florida, Texas
Sioux alone	4.7%	South Dakota, North Dakota, Montana
Tohono O'odham alone	0.8%	Arizona, California
Yaqui alone	0.6%	Arizona, California
Alaska Native alone^a		
Alaskan Athabascan alone	0.6%	Alaska, Washington
Aleut alone	0.5%	Alaska, Washington, California
Eskimo alone	1.9%	Alaska, Washington, Oregon
Tlingit-Haida alone	0.6%	Alaska, Washington, Oregon
Other Tribe^a	9.2%	Montana, Wyoming, Nevada
Tribe Not Specified/Two or More Tribes^a	33.6%	Alaska, Montana, Oklahoma
American Indian and Alaskan Native in Combination with Other Race(s)^a	945,499	Oklahoma, Alaska, Hawaii

Note: ^aData in this table include Hispanics.

Source: U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census 2004a.

Compiled by the Institute for Women's Policy Research.



Appendix II

Methodology

The data used to create the indicators presented in this report come from several sources. Data for women's median annual earnings, the wage ratio between women's and men's earnings, and women's poverty come from original calculations for IWPR by the Urban Institute, using data from the 2000 Census and the 2002 and 2003 Current Population Survey (CPS) March Demographic Supplement. Data for women's occupations and industries come from Census Bureau publications that also use Census and CPS data. Data for women's business ownership are published by the Census Bureau based on the Economic Census from 1997. Details on each indicator are below.

Women's Median Annual Earnings and the Wage Ratio: The data for all women and men nationally and by state are median yearly earnings (in 2003 dollars) of noninstitutionalized women or men aged 16 and older who worked full-time, year-round (at least 50 weeks during the year and at least 35 hours per week) in 2001-02, based on calculations from the 2002-03 Demographic Files (March) from the Current Population Survey. Earnings were converted to constant dollars using the Consumer Price Index, and the median was selected from the merged data file for the two years. Two years of data were used in order to ensure a sufficiently large sample for each state. The sample size for women ranges from 568 in Montana to 4,521 in California; for men, the sample size ranges from 781 in Mississippi to 6,584 in California. These earnings data have not been adjusted for cost-of-living differences between the states because the federal government does not produce an index of such differences. The ratio of women's to men's earnings is calculated by dividing median yearly earnings of women by the median yearly earnings of men. Although all the data presented combine data from 2001 and 2002, they are labeled 2002 in the report. Source: Urban Institute, 2004a.

Median annual earnings by race and ethnicity are also for women and men aged 16 and older who worked full-time, year-round. These data come from the 2000 Census and are for calendar year 1999 (in 2003 dollars). IWPR used the 2000 Census for these numbers to ensure adequate sample sizes for minority women and men in as many states as possible. Source: Urban Institute 2004b.

Unless otherwise noted, the data included in this

report for the various races (white, African Americans, Asian Americans, Native Americans, and other/two or more races) exclude Hispanics. As a result, IWPR's numbers will often not match numbers produced by the Census Bureau, which frequently includes Hispanics in calculations for the different racial groups. In addition, for the first time in the 2000 Census, respondents were allowed to indicate belonging to two or more racial categories. As described earlier in this report (see note 4), only 1.6 percent of the non-Hispanic population did so (U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census 2001a). For this reason, and because social scientists who have been analyzing this group of people have not found consistent patterns to report, IWPR grouped people of "two or more races" with the "other race" category, which is also small, at 0.2 percent of the population without Hispanics (U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census 2001a). Thus, when this report refers to the various racial groups, it refers only to those people who indicated one race alone. The largest impact of this strategy is on the American Indian/Alaska Native population, which jumps from 0.9 percent to 1.5 percent of the total population if those who report American Indian or Alaska Native in combination with another race are included (these numbers include Hispanics; U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census 2001a).

Women in Managerial and Professional Occupations: Data for all women nationally and by state are the percent of civilian noninstitutionalized women aged 16 and older who were employed in executive, administrative, managerial, or professional specialty occupations in 2001. Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics 2003a, based on the Current Population Survey.

Data for women in managerial and professional occupations by race and ethnicity come from the 2000 Census. Source: U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census 2004.

Please note that the categories used to classify occupations differ between these two sources and are not directly comparable. Data for the different racial and ethnic groups can be compared with one another but not with the national and state data used to rank the states for all women.

Women's Business Ownership: The data for this indicator are the percent of all firms (legal entities engaged in economic activity during any part of the year that filed an IRS Form 1040, Schedule C, 1065, any 1120, or 941) owned by women in 1997. This indicator includes five legal forms of organization: C corporations (any legally incorporated business, except subchapter S, under state laws), Sub-



chapter S corporations (those with fewer than 75 shareholders who elect to be taxed as individuals), individual proprietorships (including self-employed individuals), partnerships, and others (a category encompassing cooperatives, estates, receiverships, and businesses classified as unknown legal forms of organization). The Bureau of the Census determines the sex of business owners by matching the social security numbers of individuals who file business tax returns with Social Security Administration records providing the sex codes indicated by individuals or their parents on their original applications for social security numbers. For partnerships and corporations, a business is classified as women-owned based on the sex of the majority of the owners. Source: U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census 2001b based on the 1997 Economic Census.

Percent of Women Above Poverty: Data for all women nationally and by state are the percent of women living

above the official poverty threshold, which varies by family size and composition, in 2001-02, based on calculations from the 2002-03 Demographic Files (March) from the Current Population Survey. Two years of data were used in order to ensure a sufficiently large sample for each state. The data are referred to as 2002 data. Source: Urban Institute, 2004a.

Data for women by race and ethnicity are the percent of women living above the official poverty threshold from the 2000 Census, for calendar year 1999. These data were used to ensure an adequate sample by state for women from as many racial and ethnic groups as possible. Please see the discussion above (under “Women’s Median Annual Earnings and the Wage Ratio,” in this Appendix) for information on how the racial and ethnic categories are defined. Source: Urban Institute 2004b.

In 2002, the poverty level for a family of four (with two children) was \$18,513 (in 2003 dollars).

Appendix III

State by State Comparison Tables

(next 5 pages)



State-by-State Rankings and Data on Indicators of Women's Economic Status

Median Annual Earnings for Full-Time, Year-Round Employed Women, 2002			Median Annual Earnings for Full-Time, Year-Round Employed Men, 2002		Earnings Ratio between Full-Time, Year-Round Employed Women and Men, 2002		Percent of Employed Women in Managerial or Professional Occupations, 2001		Percent of Businesses that are Women-Owned, 1997		Percent of Women Living Above Poverty, 2002		Percent of Men Living Above Poverty, 2002	
State	Dollars	Rank	Dollars	Rank	Percent	Rank	Percent	Rank	Percent	Rank	Percent	Rank	Percent	Rank
Alabama	\$26,600	37	\$39,900	49	66.7%	49	29.4%	43	24.4%	33	83.7%	45	90.1%	
Alaska	\$34,300	6	\$43,600	8	78.7%	8	37.0%	7	25.9%	18	92.0%	4	93.1%	
Arizona	\$29,700	21	\$37,200	7	79.8%	7	32.8%	24	27.0%	13	87.2%	33	89.3%	
Arkansas	\$24,900	48	\$31,700	11	78.5%	11	29.3%	45	22.0%	50	82.1%	48	88.0%	
California	\$32,700	7	\$40,500	4	80.7%	4	36.0%	9	27.3%	9	87.8%	31	89.7%	
Colorado	\$33,200	9	\$40,900	8	78.7%	8	36.4%	8	28.0%	4	90.4%	13	92.5%	
Connecticut	\$35,800	3	\$50,100	43	71.5%	43	38.2%	4	25.5%	24	92.0%	4	93.6%	
Delaware	\$31,200	12	\$40,900	20	76.3%	20	34.2%	14	24.1%	36	92.0%	4	93.8%	
D.C.	\$37,800	1	\$40,900	1	92.4%	1	49.3%	1	30.9%	1	82.1%	48	89.5%	
Florida	\$28,600	26	\$35,800	6	79.9%	6	30.3%	36	25.9%	18	86.8%	35	90.9%	
Georgia	\$28,600	26	\$37,400	18	76.5%	18	33.7%	18	25.6%	22	87.1%	34	92.9%	
Hawaii	\$30,700	15	\$36,800	2	83.4%	2	30.3%	36	27.5%	6	87.8%	31	91.9%	
Idaho	\$25,600	42	\$35,300	40	72.5%	40	24.6%	51	23.5%	28	88.3%	25	92.1%	
Illinois	\$30,700	15	\$40,900	24	75.1%	24	32.9%	23	27.2%	10	88.9%	25	91.7%	
Indiana	\$28,100	28	\$38,400	37	73.2%	37	29.3%	45	25.9%	18	90.7%	12	93.3%	
Iowa	\$27,100	32	\$36,400	30	74.5%	30	30.8%	30	25.3%	25	90.8%	11	93.4%	
Kansas	\$29,100	23	\$37,400	14	77.8%	14	33.0%	21	25.6%	22	89.7%	18	92.2%	
Kentucky	\$27,000	33	\$36,400	31	74.2%	31	32.2%	25	23.4%	46	86.5%	36	90.5%	
Louisiana	\$25,200	47	\$36,800	48	68.5%	48	30.4%	35	23.9%	41	82.6%	41	89.6%	
Maine	\$26,900	35	\$36,400	33	73.9%	33	33.5%	19	24.0%	38	88.0%	29	90.3%	
Maryland	\$37,200	2	\$45,700	3	81.4%	3	41.3%	2	28.9%	3	92.4%	2	93.0%	
Massachusetts	\$35,800	3	\$46,800	18	76.5%	18	38.3%	3	26.6%	14	93.2%	14	93.2%	
Michigan	\$30,700	15	\$46,000	49	66.7%	49	31.6%	27	27.2%	10	88.7%	20	92.6%	
Minnesota	\$31,900	11	\$43,000	31	74.2%	31	34.2%	14	26.4%	15	92.3%	3	94.4%	
Mississippi	\$25,600	42	\$33,200	16	77.1%	16	29.2%	48	22.8%	47	79.8%	51	87.0%	
Missouri	\$29,700	21	\$37,800	10	78.6%	10	35.1%	11	25.2%	26	89.9%	15	93.6%	
Montana	\$24,400	50	\$33,200	36	73.5%	36	29.7%	42	23.9%	41	85.6%	41	90.3%	
Nebraska	\$26,000	41	\$36,400	44	71.4%	44	29.1%	49	24.1%	36	89.9%	15	92.2%	
Nevada	\$27,500	31	\$35,800	17	76.8%	17	26.9%	50	25.7%	21	91.9%	7	93.8%	
New Hampshire	\$31,200	12	\$45,000	47	69.3%	47	34.2%	14	23.6%	44	92.7%	1	95.6%	
New Jersey	\$35,800	3	\$47,000	21	76.2%	21	35.8%	10	23.7%	43	90.9%	9	94.0%	
New Mexico	\$25,600	42	\$34,300	29	74.6%	29	30.2%	38	29.4%	2	81.9%	50	87.3%	
New York	\$30,700	15	\$40,900	24	75.1%	24	34.9%	12	26.1%	17	86.1%	37	89.4%	
North Carolina	\$26,400	40	\$35,800	73	73.7%	34	30.6%	32	24.5%	32	85.7%	39	90.8%	
North Dakota	\$25,600	42	\$31,800	5	80.5%	5	30.1%	39	22.5%	49	86.1%	37	91.3%	
Ohio	\$30,000	20	\$41,600	41	72.1%	41	32.1%	26	26.2%	16	89.0%	24	93.3%	
Oklahoma	\$26,600	37	\$35,100	22	75.8%	22	29.3%	45	24.0%	38	85.6%	41	88.9%	
Oregon	\$29,100	23	\$39,500	34	73.7%	34	33.0%	21	27.6%	5	88.0%	29	91.4%	
Pennsylvania	\$30,700	15	\$41,100	28	74.7%	28	33.5%	19	24.2%	35	89.8%	17	93.6%	
Rhode Island	\$31,200	12	\$31,600	27	75.0%	27	34.1%	17	24.6%	31	89.3%	22	91.9%	
South Carolina	\$26,600	37	\$36,400	38	73.1%	38	30.7%	31	24.7%	30	85.7%	39	89.1%	
South Dakota	\$24,400	50	\$32,200	22	75.8%	22	30.1%	39	21.5%	51	88.8%	26	91.6%	
Tennessee	\$26,900	35	\$35,800	24	75.1%	24	31.0%	28	24.0%	38	85.5%	43	89.4%	
Texas	\$28,100	28	\$35,800	11	78.5%	11	31.3%	28	25.0%	28	85.3%	44	89.0%	
Utah	\$27,000	33	\$38,400	46	70.3%	46	30.0%	41	24.8%	29	89.7%	18	92.1%	
Vermont	\$29,100	23	\$37,800	14	77.8%	14	37.7%	6	25.2%	26	89.4%	21	92.5%	
Virginia	\$32,400	8	\$41,600	13	77.9%	13	38.2%	4	27.5%	6	90.4%	13	93.4%	
Washington	\$33,200	9	\$45,000	42	71.6%	42	34.8%	13	27.5%	6	89.1%	23	91.1%	
West Virginia	\$24,900	48	\$34,300	39	72.6%	39	30.5%	34	27.1%	12	83.1%	46	87.7%	
Wisconsin	\$28,100	28	\$39,500	45	71.1%	45	29.4%	43	24.4%	33	91.6%	8	94.2%	
Wyoming	\$25,600	42	\$38,600	51	66.3%	51	30.6%	32	22.6%	48	90.9%	9	92.9%	
United States	\$30,100		\$39,500		76.2%		33.2%		26.0%		87.9%		91.3%	

See Appendix II for methodology.

Appendix Table 3b

Median Annual Earnings for Full-Time, Year-Round Workers, 1999, by State, Race, and Ethnicity (in 2003 dollars)^a

POPULATION				WHITES				AFRICAN AMERICANS				ASIAN AMERICANS				NATIVE AMERICANS				OTHER/TWO PLUS ^b				HISPANICS			
State	Women's Earnings	Men's Earnings	Rank for Women (of 51)	Women's Earnings	Men's Earnings	Rank for Women (of 43)	Women's Earnings	Men's Earnings	Rank for Women (of 45)	Women's Earnings	Men's Earnings	Rank for Women (of 43)	Women's Earnings	Men's Earnings	Rank for Women (of 46)	Women's Earnings	Men's Earnings	Rank for Women (of 48)	Women's Earnings	Men's Earnings	Rank for Women (of 48)	Women's Earnings	Men's Earnings	Rank for Women (of 48)			
Alabama	\$24,700	\$36,300	36	\$38,700	\$28,700	40	\$21,200	\$29,800	24	\$43,100	\$33,600	33	\$23,400	\$33,100	33	\$24,300	\$33,100	27	\$22,100	\$33,100	33	\$24,300	\$33,100	27	\$22,100		
Alaska	\$33,400	\$45,300	7	\$48,700	\$33,100	12	\$29,800	\$26,500	33	\$34,200	\$40,900	3	\$32,000	\$40,900	2	\$34,200	\$40,900	1	\$28,700	\$42,000	2	\$34,200	\$42,000	1	\$28,700		
Arizona	\$29,200	\$38,700	18	\$44,200	\$27,600	17	\$27,600	\$30,900	15	\$44,200	\$34,200	34	\$23,200	\$34,200	16	\$28,700	\$34,200	26	\$24,000	\$34,200	16	\$28,700	\$34,200	26	\$24,000		
Arkansas	\$23,200	\$33,100	47	\$33,100	\$20,800	41	\$20,800	\$21,400	45	\$29,300	\$26,100	20	\$26,100	\$26,100	46	\$21,000	\$26,100	48	\$17,700	\$30,900	46	\$21,000	\$30,900	48	\$17,700		
California	\$34,900	\$44,200	2	\$55,200	\$35,300	1	\$35,300	\$36,400	6	\$45,300	\$29,800	5	\$29,800	\$38,100	3	\$38,100	\$33,100	14	\$24,300	\$43,100	3	\$38,100	\$43,100	14	\$24,300		
Colorado	\$42,700	\$33,100	10	\$45,300	\$30,900	10	\$30,900	\$32,800	13	\$42,000	\$26,500	16	\$26,500	\$33,600	9	\$33,600	\$29,800	10	\$28,700	\$35,300	9	\$33,600	\$35,300	10	\$28,700		
Connecticut	\$37,000	\$49,700	3	\$54,100	\$38,700	6	\$38,700	\$37,900	4	\$49,700	\$39,800	1	\$39,800	\$39,800	11	\$39,800	\$29,400	7	\$26,500	\$38,700	11	\$39,800	\$38,700	7	\$26,500		
Delaware	\$33,100	\$43,500	10	\$44,200	\$29,000	14	\$29,000	\$38,700	2	\$57,400	\$30,900	5	\$30,900	\$35,300	5	\$35,300	\$23,200	22	\$26,500	\$35,300	5	\$35,300	\$35,300	22	\$26,500		
D.C.	\$39,800	\$44,200	1	\$67,400	\$33,700	3	\$33,700	\$38,700	2	\$39,800	\$35,500	1	\$35,500	\$39,800	1	\$39,800	\$27,600	3	\$26,200	\$39,800	1	\$39,800	\$39,800	3	\$26,200		
Florida	\$27,600	\$35,300	26	\$39,800	\$29,200	32	\$29,200	\$27,600	24	\$36,400	\$26,500	34	\$23,200	\$37,600	40	\$29,800	\$24,300	14	\$28,300	\$29,800	40	\$29,800	\$29,800	14	\$28,300		
Georgia	\$28,700	\$38,700	20	\$44,200	\$26,600	24	\$26,600	\$31,900	24	\$39,800	\$24,300	27	\$24,300	\$34,500	13	\$34,500	\$28,700	27	\$23,200	\$34,500	13	\$34,500	\$34,500	27	\$23,200		
Hawaii	\$31,100	\$39,800	9	\$44,200	\$27,600	17	\$27,600	\$31,100	14	\$39,800	\$29,800	19	\$29,800	\$37,600	42	\$37,600	\$28,700	3	\$23,100	\$37,600	13	\$37,600	\$37,600	3	\$23,100		
Idaho	\$25,400	\$36,400	43	\$37,800	\$19,400	43	\$19,400	\$27,600	43	\$37,800	\$27,600	24	\$27,600	\$36,000	25	\$36,000	\$22,100	42	\$21,000	\$36,000	25	\$36,000	\$36,000	42	\$21,000		
Illinois	\$32,000	\$44,200	10	\$49,700	\$32,000	6	\$32,000	\$36,400	6	\$47,500	\$24,300	27	\$24,300	\$38,700	11	\$38,700	\$28,700	22	\$28,700	\$38,700	11	\$38,700	\$38,700	22	\$28,700		
Indiana	\$27,600	\$40,800	30	\$41,900	\$27,600	17	\$27,600	\$34,200	33	\$49,700	\$23,200	34	\$23,200	\$37,600	30	\$37,600	\$25,400	30	\$24,000	\$37,600	30	\$37,600	\$37,600	30	\$24,000		
Iowa	\$26,500	\$36,200	36	\$36,400	\$24,300	32	\$24,300	\$29,800	33	\$36,400	\$26,500	33	\$26,500	\$27,600	26	\$27,600	\$22,100	42	\$25,400	\$27,600	26	\$27,600	\$27,600	42	\$25,400		
Kansas	\$27,600	\$38,700	30	\$39,800	\$26,000	28	\$26,000	\$33,100	38	\$33,100	\$25,400	38	\$25,400	\$28,700	23	\$28,700	\$25,400	27	\$27,400	\$28,700	23	\$28,700	\$28,700	27	\$27,400		
Kentucky	\$25,400	\$36,400	43	\$36,700	\$24,300	32	\$24,300	\$30,900	24	\$48,600	\$26,000	16	\$26,000	\$33,100	32	\$33,100	\$25,400	27	\$24,300	\$33,100	32	\$33,100	\$33,100	27	\$24,300		
Louisiana	\$24,300	\$36,700	36	\$39,800	\$19,400	43	\$19,400	\$27,600	43	\$39,800	\$23,400	39	\$23,400	\$36,000	21	\$36,000	\$22,100	25	\$23,400	\$36,000	21	\$36,000	\$36,000	25	\$23,400		
Maine	\$26,500	\$35,600	36	\$35,900	\$26,500	36	\$26,500	\$35,900	36	\$35,900	\$25,400	38	\$25,400	\$27,600	27	\$27,600	\$24,300	31	\$24,300	\$27,600	27	\$27,600	\$27,600	31	\$24,300		
Maryland	\$35,300	\$45,900	5	\$49,700	\$36,400	5	\$36,400	\$49,700	5	\$49,700	\$35,300	2	\$35,300	\$42,000	2	\$42,000	\$27,600	3	\$31,500	\$42,000	2	\$42,000	\$42,000	2	\$31,500		
Massachusetts	\$35,300	\$47,500	5	\$49,700	\$36,400	5	\$36,400	\$49,700	5	\$49,700	\$35,300	2	\$35,300	\$42,000	2	\$42,000	\$27,600	3	\$31,500	\$42,000	2	\$42,000	\$42,000	2	\$31,500		
Michigan	\$30,900	\$46,400	20	\$47,500	\$30,900	10	\$30,900	\$35,300	8	\$57,400	\$26,000	21	\$26,000	\$33,100	32	\$33,100	\$27,600	7	\$28,700	\$33,100	32	\$33,100	\$33,100	7	\$28,700		
Minnesota	\$31,300	\$43,100	15	\$44,200	\$28,500	16	\$28,500	\$33,100	21	\$38,700	\$26,000	16	\$26,000	\$30,900	16	\$30,900	\$28,200	16	\$27,600	\$30,900	16	\$30,900	\$30,900	16	\$27,600		
Mississippi	\$23,200	\$33,100	42	\$36,600	\$19,900	42	\$19,900	\$27,600	42	\$36,600	\$22,100	39	\$22,100	\$34,200	33	\$34,200	\$24,300	37	\$23,200	\$34,200	39	\$34,200	\$34,200	37	\$23,200		
Missouri	\$27,100	\$37,900	35	\$38,700	\$27,200	23	\$27,200	\$30,900	24	\$44,200	\$24,300	27	\$24,300	\$30,900	27	\$30,900	\$24,300	33	\$24,300	\$30,900	27	\$30,900	\$30,900	33	\$24,300		
Montana	\$22,100	\$33,100	51	\$33,100	\$22,100	51	\$22,100	\$33,100	44	\$33,100	\$22,100	39	\$22,100	\$21,400	45	\$21,400	\$19,900	41	\$19,900	\$21,400	45	\$21,400	\$21,400	41	\$19,900		
Nebraska	\$26,500	\$35,300	36	\$36,400	\$26,000	28	\$26,000	\$30,500	44	\$33,100	\$22,100	39	\$22,100	\$27,600	25	\$27,600	\$22,100	27	\$25,400	\$27,600	39	\$27,600	\$27,600	25	\$25,400		
Nevada	\$29,800	\$38,700	15	\$44,200	\$27,600	17	\$27,600	\$33,100	24	\$33,100	\$27,600	13	\$27,600	\$34,200	18	\$34,200	\$26,500	27	\$26,500	\$34,200	18	\$34,200	\$34,200	27	\$26,500		
New Hampshire	\$30,900	\$44,100	20	\$44,200	\$30,900	20	\$30,900	\$27,600	24	\$50,800	\$19,900	43	\$19,900	\$26,500	25	\$26,500	\$23,200	22	\$23,200	\$26,500	25	\$26,500	\$26,500	22	\$23,200		
New Jersey	\$36,400	\$50,600	3	\$55,200	\$38,700	4	\$38,700	\$44,200	1	\$55,200	\$28,700	7	\$28,700	\$39,800	5	\$39,800	\$30,900	10	\$30,900	\$39,800	5	\$39,800	\$39,800	10	\$30,900		
New Mexico	\$25,700	\$34,200	24	\$42,000	\$23,300	32	\$23,300	\$33,100	11	\$39,800	\$23,200	34	\$23,200	\$26,500	18	\$26,500	\$24,300	27	\$27,600	\$26,500	18	\$26,500	\$26,500	27	\$27,600		
New York	\$33,400	\$44,200	7	\$49,700	\$33,100	4	\$33,100	\$36,400	8	\$38,700	\$28,400	9	\$28,400	\$34,100	7	\$34,100	\$30,600	3	\$29,800	\$34,100	7	\$34,100	\$34,100	3	\$29,800		
North Carolina	\$27,500	\$35,300	29	\$38,700	\$24,300	32	\$24,300	\$28,700	24	\$40,600	\$23,700	30	\$23,700	\$28,700	25	\$28,700	\$26,500	47	\$21,000	\$28,700	30	\$28,700	\$28,700	47	\$21,000		
North Dakota	\$22,100	\$33,100	50	\$33,100	\$22,300	50	\$22,300	\$33,100	44	\$33,100	\$22,300	50	\$22,300	\$33,100	44	\$33,100	\$22,300	47	\$21,000	\$33,100	50	\$33,100	\$33,100	47	\$21,000		
Ohio	\$28,700	\$42,000	27	\$42,700	\$28,700	17	\$28,700	\$30,900	15	\$49,700	\$27,600	13	\$27,600	\$33,800	18	\$33,800	\$27,600	14	\$32,700	\$33,800	18	\$33,800	\$33,800	14	\$32,700		
Oklahoma	\$24,900	\$33,200	45	\$35,600	\$25,400	45	\$25,400	\$29,900	40	\$33,100	\$23,300	34	\$23,300	\$29,900	42	\$29,900	\$19,500	44	\$23,500	\$29,900	42	\$29,900	\$29,900	44	\$23,500		
Oregon	\$29,300	\$39,800	23	\$42,000	\$29,800	12	\$29,800	\$27,700	23	\$39,800	\$27,200	15	\$27,200	\$33,100	25	\$33,100	\$26,500	27	\$24,300	\$33,100	25	\$33,100	\$33,100	27	\$24,300		
Pennsylvania	\$28,700	\$40,900	25	\$42,000	\$29,300	25	\$29,300	\$28,700	19	\$42,000	\$31,900	4	\$31,900	\$35,300	18	\$35,300	\$24,300	14	\$28,600	\$35,30							

Wage Ratio Between Full-Time, Year Round Employed Women
Compared with Non-Hispanic White Men, by State and by Race^a

ALL WOMEN			WHITE WOMEN			AFRICAN AMERICAN WOMEN			ASIAN AMERICAN WOMEN			NATIVE AMERICAN WOMEN			OTHER/TWO PLUS WOMEN ^b			HISPANIC WOMEN		
State	Ratio	Rank	Ratio	Rank (of 51)	Ratio	Rank (of 43)	Ratio	Rank (of 45)	Ratio	Rank (of 43)	Ratio	Rank (of 46)	Ratio	Rank (of 48)	Ratio	Rank (of 43)	Ratio	Rank (of 43)	Ratio	Rank (of 48)
Alabama	64.0%	43	68.6%	39	54.9%	39	71.4%	14	60.6%	24	62.9%	25	57.1%	15						
Alaska	68.5%	24	72.6%	13	61.2%	30	54.3%	44	65.8%	12	70.3%	3	59.0%	10						
Arizona	66.0%	37	72.0%	17	62.5%	26	70.0%	22	52.5%	42	63.8%	19	50.8%	37						
Arkansas	70.0%	14	70.0%	31	62.7%	24	64.7%	33	78.7%	1	63.3%	21	53.3%	27						
California	63.2%	45	71.2%	23	64.0%	22	66.0%	31	54.0%	40	60.0%	36	44.0%	46						
Colorado	70.7%	11	73.2%	10	68.3%	8	70.2%	20	58.5%	31	65.9%	10	56.1%	19						
Connecticut	68.4%	25	71.4%	18	59.2%	36	70.0%	22	71.4%	4	54.3%	45	49.0%	40						
Delaware	75.0%	2	75.0%	4	65.8%	14	87.5%	1			70.0%	4	52.5%	32						
D.C.	59.0%	51	82.0%	1	50.0%	42	57.4%	43			52.6%	46	41.0%	48						
Florida	69.4%	21	73.3%	7	61.1%	31	69.4%	24	66.7%	9	59.2%	37	61.1%	4						
Georgia	65.0%	41	70.0%	31	60.3%	33	62.5%	37	55.0%	38	65.0%	13	50.0%	38						
Hawaii	70.5%	13	77.5%	3	62.5%	26	70.5%	20			65.0%	13	62.5%	3						
Idaho	67.3%	30	67.8%	40			78.9%	3	65.8%	12	58.5%	38	55.6%	22						
Illinois	64.4%	42	66.7%	45	64.4%	19	73.3%	11	56.0%	35	57.3%	41	46.7%	43						
Indiana	66.0%	37	66.0%	48	66.0%	13	63.3%	36	55.4%	36	60.7%	34	58.0%	11						
Iowa	72.7%	4	72.7%	11	66.7%	10	72.7%	12	67.9%	7	60.6%	35	60.6%	5						
Kansas	69.4%	21	69.4%	38	65.3%	15	63.9%	34	63.9%	18	63.3%	21	55.6%	22						
Kentucky	69.3%	23	69.9%	36	66.3%	12	75.3%	6			72.3%	2	60.2%	7						
Louisiana	61.1%	50	66.7%	45	49.9%	43	58.9%	42	65.3%	14	61.1%	32	55.7%	17						
Maine	73.8%	3	73.8%	6	68.9%	5	73.6%	10	77.1%	8	64.6%	17	80.0%	1						
Maryland	71.1%	7	73.3%	7					66.7%	9	64.7%	16	60.0%	8						
Massachusetts	71.1%	7	73.3%	7	64.4%	19	68.4%	26	57.8%	32	55.6%	44	51.3%	36						
Michigan	65.1%	40	65.1%	49	65.1%	16	74.4%	9	54.7%	39	55.8%	20	55.8%	20						
Minnesota	70.8%	10	72.5%	14	64.5%	18	65.0%	32	60.0%	27	63.8%	19	53.3%	27						
Mississippi	63.4%	44	70.4%	28	54.4%	40	74.9%	8	60.4%	26	66.5%	9	57.4%	13						
Missouri	70.0%	14	70.3%	29	70.9%	4	71.4%	14	62.9%	19	62.9%	25	62.9%	2						
Montana	66.7%	34	66.7%	45					66.7%	9	64.7%	16	60.0%	8						
Nebraska	72.7%	4	72.7%	11	71.2%	2	63.6%	35	60.6%	24	72.7%	1	60.6%	5						
Nevada	67.5%	29	72.5%	14	62.5%	26	62.5%	37	62.0%	20	69.3%	5	52.5%	32						
New Hampshire	70.0%	14	70.0%	31			62.5%	37			46.0%	43	46.0%	45						
New Jersey	66.0%	37	70.0%	31	60.0%	34	80.0%	2	52.0%	43	60.0%	43	46.0%	45						
New Mexico	61.3%	49	70.3%	29	77.9%	37	78.9%	3	55.3%	37	65.8%	11	52.6%	30						
New York	67.1%	32	71.1%	24	66.7%	10	71.1%	17	57.1%	33	61.6%	30	55.6%	22						
North Carolina	71.1%	7	72.3%	16	62.9%	24	71.4%	14	61.4%	21	68.6%	6	47.1%	41						
North Dakota	66.7%	34	67.3%	43					60.0%	27										
Ohio	67.2%	31	67.2%	44	64.6%	17	72.4%	13	64.1%	17	64.6%	17	56.8%	16						
Oklahoma	69.9%	19	71.4%	18	64.3%	21	68.3%	27	65.2%	15	64.9%	15	55.0%	26						
Oregon	69.7%	20	71.1%	24	71.1%	3	66.1%	30	64.7%	16	63.2%	23	52.6%	30						
Pennsylvania	68.4%	25	69.7%	37	68.4%	7	71.1%	17	76.1%	2	65.8%	11	57.9%	12						
Rhode Island	68.0%	27	71.3%	22	54.0%	41	53.8%	45			57.3%	41	43.3%	47						
South Carolina	67.1%	32	71.4%	18					57.1%	33	62.9%	25	56.6%	18						
South Dakota	70.0%	14	70.0%	31	57.1%	38	68.6%	25	71.3%	5			55.7%	21						
Tennessee	70.6%	12	70.6%	27	67.6%	9	76.5%	5	75.0%	3	63.2%	23	52.9%	29						
Texas	62.4%	47	70.7%	26	61.0%	32	68.3%	27	61.0%	11	61.0%	33	46.3%	44						
Utah	61.4%	48	63.9%	50	61.4%	29	61.4%	40	53.7%	41	61.4%	31	46.8%	42						
Vermont	78.1%	1	78.1%	2																
Virginia	70.0%	14	75.0%	4	60.0%	34	75.0%	7	60.0%	27	67.5%	7	57.3%	14						
Washington	71.4%	6	71.4%	18	68.6%	6	66.7%	29	59.5%	30	62.9%	25	52.4%	34						
West Virginia	67.7%	28	67.7%	42																
Wisconsin	66.2%	36	67.8%	40	72.6%	1														
Wyoming	62.6%	46	62.9%	51	63.3%	23	60.4%	41	60.7%	23	58.0%	40	59.4%	9						
United States	67.5%		70.0%		62.5%		75.0%		57.8%		64.3%		52.5%							

Notes: Hispanics may be of any race or two or more races. Racial categories (Whites, African Americans, Native Americans, Other/Two Plus) do not include Hispanics.
Blank cells indicate insufficient sample sizes to reliably estimate these figures.
a The numbers and rankings presented here are based on 2000 Census data for the year 1999. These data differ slightly from those based on the 2003 Current Population Survey data (for the year 2002) presented in Table 3a.
Note that the ratios in this table are calculated differently from those in Appendix Table 3a between all women and all men; this table compares women's wages by race and ethnicity to white men only.
b This category includes men and women who report "other" or "two or more" races.

Appendix Table 3d

Percent of Employed Women in Managerial or Professional Occupations, 2000, by State, Race, and Ethnicity^a

ALL WOMEN			WHITE WOMEN			AFRICAN AMERICAN WOMEN			ASIAN AMERICAN WOMEN			NATIVE AMERICAN WOMEN			OTHER/TWO PLUS WOMEN ^b			HISPANIC WOMEN		
State	Percent	Rank	Percent	Rank	Percent	Rank	Percent	Rank	Percent	Rank	Percent	Rank	Percent	Rank	Percent	Rank	Percent	Rank		
Alabama	33.3%	30	35.9%	30	25.9%	42	42.6%	16	30.1%	23	31.1%	17	25.6%	15						
Alaska	38.3%	13	41.3%	13	33.4%	10	22.1%	50	33.6%	8	30.9%	18	26.4%	12						
Arizona	35.1%	19	38.8%	19	33.4%	10	39.2%	24	28.9%	31	30.7%	19	22.2%	32						
Arkansas	31.7%	47	33.5%	47	24.5%	46	29.1%	48	26.2%	42	26.4%	44	16.4%	50						
California	38.0%	4	45.2%	4	36.1%	5	41.8%	17	33.0%	10	36.3%	5	21.3%	37						
Colorado	38.7%	12	41.7%	12	31.4%	16	36.7%	27	28.2%	36	33.0%	10	23.0%	28						
Connecticut	40.8%	8	43.7%	8	29.6%	23	47.2%	10	37.5%	4	27.4%	40	22.3%	31						
Delaware	38.0%	14	40.5%	14	29.5%	25	50.6%	5	30.5%	20	32.8%	11	23.5%	26						
D.C.	51.9%	1	74.1%	1	38.6%	2	57.0%	1	49.5%	1	51.6%	1	29.3%	6						
Florida	34.1%	27	37.1%	27	28.0%	31	38.7%	26	29.9%	25	26.8%	41	26.6%	11						
Georgia	36.0%	15	39.8%	15	29.0%	28	36.0%	29	28.5%	33	30.0%	22	21.4%	35						
Hawaii	34.2%	2	46.9%	2	38.7%	1	31.4%	45	38.8%	3	28.0%	35	25.8%	14						
Idaho	32.7%	45	33.6%	45	35.1%	7	35.0%	34	25.3%	45	27.8%	37	20.1%	42						
Illinois	36.6%	17	39.0%	17	31.6%	15	50.0%	6	28.1%	37	32.6%	12	19.4%	44						
Indiana	31.5%	50	32.2%	50	26.1%	40	43.9%	11	25.2%	47	26.4%	44	21.4%	35						
Iowa	33.1%	45	33.6%	45	26.5%	38	32.7%	41	20.2%	51	24.1%	48	18.5%	47						
Kansas	36.0%	25	37.4%	25	28.5%	29	35.6%	32	26.9%	40	29.5%	27	20.7%	41						
Kentucky	32.7%	48	33.3%	48	25.0%	45	41.5%	19	29.1%	30	30.0%	22	23.9%	24						
Louisiana	34.1%	23	38.1%	23	25.6%	43	36.2%	28	32.4%	14	33.2%	8	30.1%	4						
Maine	35.4%	31	35.6%	31	34.6%	8	31.2%	46	24.3%	48	28.1%	34	34.9%	3						
Maryland	43.3%	3	45.8%	3	38.6%	2	49.4%	7	42.4%	2	40.0%	2	30.1%	4						
Massachusetts	43.3%	6	44.8%	6	35.9%	6	47.8%	8	35.2%	6	28.7%	32	27.8%	8						
Michigan	33.1%	39	34.2%	39	26.8%	35	50.8%	4	25.6%	43	28.8%	31	23.1%	27						
Minnesota	37.7%	21	38.5%	21	29.6%	23	32.6%	42	29.4%	28	32.1%	13	22.8%	29						
Mississippi	31.8%	29	36.1%	29	23.6%	49	35.6%	32	28.6%	32	29.2%	29	25.5%	16						
Missouri	34.3%	36	35.0%	36	29.3%	27	43.4%	13	30.0%	24	31.7%	14	25.5%	16						
Montana	34.8%	34	35.2%	34	30.2%	19	34.2%	35	32.0%	15	26.6%	43	25.9%	13						
Nebraska	34.3%	33	35.4%	33	26.9%	34	31.8%	44	21.9%	50	23.5%	49	17.9%	48						
Nevada	28.2%	51	32.1%	51	24.4%	47	20.9%	51	27.5%	39	24.3%	47	14.2%	51						
New Hampshire	37.9%	23	38.1%	23	36.9%	4	41.0%	20	28.3%	35	30.2%	21	28.9%	7						
New Jersey	39.5%	10	42.9%	10	32.6%	13	52.8%	3	32.9%	12	30.0%	22	21.6%	34						
New Mexico	37.1%	5	45.1%	5	34.4%	9	40.9%	21	29.5%	27	39.8%	3	27.5%	9						
New York	39.8%	7	43.9%	7	32.7%	12	42.9%	14	30.6%	19	33.2%	8	24.5%	21						
North Carolina	35.1%	22	38.3%	22	26.5%	38	35.7%	31	25.3%	45	31.3%	16	17.8%	49						
North Dakota	33.9%	40	34.1%	40	11.3%	51	33.0%	39	33.7%	7	29.7%	26	24.3%	22						
Ohio	33.2%	41	34.0%	41	27.0%	33	47.5%	9	28.0%	38	27.9%	36	25.1%	19						
Oklahoma	33.5%	35	35.2%	35	26.6%	37	32.0%	43	30.5%	20	29.5%	27	19.9%	43						
Oregon	35.3%	28	36.5%	28	29.8%	20	34.0%	37	28.5%	33	28.7%	32	21.0%	39						
Pennsylvania	34.9%	31	35.6%	31	29.5%	25	42.8%	15	25.6%	43	31.4%	15	25.2%	18						
Rhode Island	36.7%	20	38.7%	20	28.1%	30	32.9%	40	31.3%	17	23.2%	50	19.0%	45						
South Carolina	32.7%	26	37.2%	26	22.0%	50	35.9%	30	29.7%	26	26.3%	46	24.7%	20						
South Dakota	33.2%	44	33.7%	44	23.9%	48	25.0%	49	30.2%	22	22.9%	51	21.2%	38						
Tennessee	32.7%	42	33.9%	42	27.5%	32	39.6%	22	33.0%	10	27.5%	39	20.8%	40						
Texas	36.4%	11	42.4%	11	31.2%	17	43.8%	12	35.3%	5	34.7%	6	23.6%	25						
Utah	32.5%	43	33.8%	43	29.7%	21	30.7%	47	32.5%	49	26.7%	42	19.0%	45						
Vermont	39.7%	15	39.8%	15	30.9%	18	41.7%	18	32.9%	12	33.4%	7	36.6%	1						
Virginia	40.0%	9	43.5%	9	29.7%	21	39.5%	23	33.4%	9	37.0%	4	27.2%	10						
Washington	37.4%	17	39.0%	17	32.4%	14	34.2%	35	30.8%	18	30.7%	19	24.1%	23						
West Virginia	32.9%	49	33.0%	49	25.2%	44	53.1%	2	29.3%	29	28.9%	30	36.3%	2						
Wisconsin	33.8%	37	34.5%	37	26.1%	40	33.5%	38	26.4%	41	29.9%	25	22.8%	29						
Wyoming	33.5%	38	34.2%	38	26.7%	36	39.0%	25	31.4%	16	27.7%	38	22.1%	33						
United States	36.2%		38.7%		29.7%		41.4%		30.0%		31.8%		22.9%							

Notes: Hispanics may be of any race or two or more races. Racial categories (Whites, African Americans, Asian Americans, Native Americans, Other/Two Plus) do not include Hispanics.

^aThe numbers and rankings presented here are based on 2000 Census data for the year 1999. They differ from those based on the 2002 Current Population Survey data (for the year 2001) presented in Table 3a. In addition to the difference in data source and year, the 2000 Census relied on a new system for classifying occupations; thus, the category "managerial and professional occupations" now encompasses a larger group of jobs. As a result, the numbers in this table cannot be compared with the numbers provided for all women in Table 3a.

^bThis category includes men and women who report "other" or "two or more" races.

Percent of Women and Men Aged 16 and Older Living Above Poverty, 1999, by State, Race, and Ethnicity^a

TOTAL POPULATION			WHITES			AFRICAN AMERICANS			ASIAN AMERICANS			NATIVE AMERICANS			OTHER/TWO PLUS ^b			HISPANICS		
State	Percent of Women	Percent of Men	Percent of Women	Rank for Women (of 51)	Percent of Men	Percent of Women	Rank for Women (of 43)	Percent of Men	Percent of Women	Rank for Women (of 46)	Percent of Men	Percent of Women	Rank for Women (of 44)	Percent of Men	Percent of Women	Rank for Women (of 47)	Percent of Men	Percent of Women	Rank for Women (of 48)	Percent of Men
Alabama	83.2%	88.3%	88.5%	41	91.8%	68.7%	40	77.2%	85.1%	33	84.9%	75.1%	30	86.9%	82.9%	19	86.8%	75.6%	37	77.0%
Alaska	91.4%	91.8%	94.1%	3	94.5%	92.9%	1	88.7%	90.3%	8	87.3%	80.7%	12	80.4%	88.4%	2	89.2%	87.0%	1	88.8%
Arizona	86.7%	89.1%	91.6%	15	93.5%	79.3%	13	84.0%	87.6%	19	87.8%	63.8%	40	65.1%	80.1%	32	84.9%	76.3%	32	80.8%
Arkansas	83.8%	88.4%	87.2%	48	90.8%	67.1%	41	76.6%	85.9%	29	81.7%	78.0%	23	83.5%	85.0%	10	83.9%	72.6%	44	77.1%
California	86.4%	88.7%	91.5%	16	93.5%	78.9%	14	83.3%	87.6%	19	88.7%	79.8%	17	83.7%	84.8%	11	86.3%	78.4%	24	82.4%
Colorado	90.1%	92.4%	92.4%	12	94.5%	82.9%	4	89.3%	89.5%	13	89.7%	79.2%	18	83.5%	84.4%	13	87.4%	80.7%	15	84.2%
Connecticut	91.7%	94.0%	94.5%	1	96.2%	81.9%	6	86.4%	91.1%	3	89.8%	84.4%	8	89.8%	84.6%	12	87.0%	75.8%	35	81.1%
Delaware	90.4%	93.1%	93.2%	5	95.4%	82.0%	5	82.0%	92.5%	2	92.7%	86.9%	2	87.0%	86.9%	3	87.6%	76.3%	32	79.6%
D.C.	81.5%	84.2%	90.6%	30	92.4%	77.9%	15	79.6%	79.0%	44	79.1%	78.5%	42	82.4%	78.5%	42	82.4%	79.9%	19	85.7%
Florida	87.3%	90.4%	91.2%	20	93.4%	75.1%	27	81.9%	87.6%	19	87.3%	78.5%	22	86.0%	79.3%	36	83.2%	81.5%	11	85.0%
Georgia	86.4%	90.5%	91.0%	22	93.8%	76.9%	19	84.1%	89.8%	12	89.4%	81.3%	11	88.8%	82.6%	23	86.7%	78.4%	24	81.0%
Hawaii	89.1%	90.9%	89.9%	34	91.1%	89.2%	2	95.1%	90.5%	7	91.9%	85.3%	9	89.0%	85.3%	9	89.0%	82.1%	7	85.8%
Idaho	87.9%	91.0%	88.9%	39	92.0%	82.0%	25	80.2%	85.7%	31	86.1%	75.6%	28	81.8%	83.1%	17	84.6%	75.7%	36	80.7%
Illinois	89.2%	91.8%	92.9%	7	94.9%	75.3%	25	80.2%	89.9%	4	90.5%	85.6%	4	88.8%	83.8%	14	86.8%	83.7%	4	86.1%
Indiana	89.8%	93.0%	91.4%	18	94.3%	77.2%	17	85.2%	86.6%	26	80.1%	84.5%	7	85.6%	82.9%	19	88.6%	81.6%	10	83.6%
Iowa	90.6%	92.6%	91.3%	19	93.5%	69.7%	39	76.5%	82.6%	41	77.7%	71.0%	34	71.1%	83.3%	16	80.4%	81.4%	12	83.6%
Kansas	89.5%	92.3%	91.0%	22	93.7%	77.6%	16	84.2%	86.7%	25	85.5%	86.6%	2	89.9%	81.4%	27	85.1%	79.5%	21	83.4%
Kentucky	83.8%	87.9%	84.8%	50	88.6%	72.0%	35	81.3%	86.5%	27	89.4%	74.3%	31	73.2%	78.7%	40	82.4%	78.3%	26	76.6%
Louisiana	79.9%	85.9%	87.4%	46	91.0%	64.4%	43	73.7%	80.5%	42	81.4%	72.9%	33	84.2%	75.1%	46	83.7%	80.3%	17	82.5%
Maine	87.9%	91.7%	88.4%	42	92.0%	88.8%	4	89.3%	79.8%	3	88.8%	68.9%	36	71.0%	72.1%	47	81.9%	82.0%	8	80.2%
Maryland	91.1%	93.5%	93.8%	4	95.8%	86.0%	3	88.9%	90.6%	6	91.5%	85.5%	5	86.4%	90.1%	1	90.7%	86.2%	2	88.9%
Massachusetts	90.0%	92.9%	92.5%	10	95.0%	80.3%	11	83.0%	83.2%	38	85.1%	77.6%	24	84.7%	79.5%	34	86.3%	69.9%	46	78.0%
Michigan	89.1%	92.2%	91.7%	14	94.3%	76.4%	23	81.8%	88.7%	15	89.2%	80.4%	15	86.3%	81.3%	28	84.6%	82.2%	5	83.1%
Minnesota	91.5%	93.6%	92.9%	7	95.0%	72.2%	34	77.6%	85.4%	32	82.6%	73.7%	32	78.0%	81.5%	25	81.7%	78.1%	27	81.1%
Mississippi	79.4%	85.7%	87.3%	47	91.1%	65.3%	42	74.8%	84.0%	35	78.6%	65.3%	39	75.4%	79.4%	35	82.5%	77.6%	29	78.8%
Missouri	87.9%	91.3%	89.7%	35	92.7%	76.5%	21	81.8%	85.8%	30	85.1%	81.5%	10	83.7%	79.2%	37	83.9%	80.0%	18	83.2%
Montana	85.2%	87.8%	87.2%	48	89.3%	74.6%	29	81.9%	88.7%	10	88.7%	58.8%	42	63.5%	76.1%	44	81.3%	77.7%	28	82.8%
Nebraska	90.2%	92.8%	91.5%	16	93.9%	74.6%	29	81.9%	90.1%	10	88.7%	70.6%	35	74.3%	82.8%	21	90.3%	80.5%	16	83.7%
Nevada	89.5%	91.9%	92.1%	13	94.2%	80.3%	11	86.4%	91.0%	4	91.9%	81.6%	9	88.0%	86.8%	4	90.1%	82.2%	5	85.7%
New Hampshire	92.7%	95.3%	93.1%	6	95.6%	89.1%	14	91.5%	89.1%	14	91.5%	86.2%	6	83.0%	86.2%	6	83.0%	81.9%	9	91.7%
New Jersey	90.9%	93.6%	94.3%	2	96.2%	81.9%	6	86.8%	93.0%	1	93.3%	86.5%	3	92.7%	85.5%	8	89.0%	81.2%	13	85.9%
New Mexico	82.6%	88.7%	89.7%	35	92.0%	80.6%	10	86.1%	83.7%	18	81.7%	65.9%	38	67.9%	78.8%	39	84.6%	77.2%	30	81.4%
New York	85.4%	88.9%	91.0%	22	93.3%	76.5%	21	88.5%	87.1%	39	83.8%	75.9%	29	81.1%	79.9%	33	82.0%	71.1%	45	79.0%
North Carolina	87.1%	90.9%	90.8%	27	93.7%	76.9%	19	84.0%	90.7%	5	87.9%	79.0%	20	83.1%	81.0%	29	86.2%	74.1%	42	78.8%
North Dakota	87.4%	89.8%	88.9%	39	91.0%	88.9%	33	81.3%	86.1%	28	85.0%	55.6%	43	68.8%	81.7%	24	84.4%	76.7%	31	75.3%
Ohio	88.9%	92.5%	91.0%	22	94.1%	74.9%	28	81.8%	87.1%	22	86.3%	76.7%	25	85.7%	78.7%	40	84.2%	81.0%	14	84.5%
Oklahoma	85.2%	88.8%	87.7%	45	90.8%	72.0%	35	80.7%	84.0%	35	79.4%	79.2%	19	83.0%	81.5%	25	86.6%	73.6%	43	79.7%
Oregon	88.2%	90.5%	89.6%	37	92.0%	75.5%	24	83.3%	86.9%	24	86.6%	79.0%	20	79.5%	80.7%	30	83.2%	74.9%	41	79.3%
Pennsylvania	88.4%	92.0%	90.8%	27	93.8%	73.8%	31	80.3%	82.8%	40	83.3%	80.5%	14	85.5%	80.7%	30	84.0%	68.4%	47	75.8%
Rhode Island	87.3%	91.8%	90.5%	31	94.1%	73.6%	32	79.8%	73.8%	46	81.8%	76.4%	26	88.5%	78.3%	43	87.6%	62.3%	48	75.9%
South Carolina	85.2%	89.8%	90.4%	32	93.5%	73.5%	33	81.3%	86.1%	28	85.0%	54.7%	44	57.6%	81.7%	24	84.4%	76.7%	31	75.3%
South Dakota	87.1%	89.8%	89.6%	37	92.4%	89.6%	37	92.4%	89.6%	37	92.4%	54.7%	44	57.6%	81.7%	24	84.4%	76.7%	31	75.3%
Tennessee	85.9%	89.8%	88.2%	44	91.5%	75.2%	26	82.9%	88.1%	17	85.8%	80.6%	13	86.7%	79.2%	37	83.6%	76.1%	34	77.1%
Texas	84.9%	88.3%	91.2%	20	93.7%	77.0%	18	83.1%	88.5%	16	87.3%	84.7%	6	88.0%	83.4%	15	86.6%	75.3%	39	80.0%
Utah	89.4%	92.3%	90.9%	26	93.8%	74.5%	30	81.9%	84.8%	34	84.8%	66.3%	37	74.5%	83.0%	18	87.6%	79.6%	20	83.1%
Vermont	89.5%	93.0%	90.0%	33	93.2%	89.9%	9	87.3%	90.3%	8	91.3%	88.7%	1	90.6%	86.5%	5	89.0%	86.2%	2	88.4%
Virginia	89.9%	92.8%	92.5%	10	94.4%	80.9%	9	87.3%	90.3%	8	91.3%	88.7%	1	90.6%	86.5%	5	89.0%	86.2%	2	88.4%
Washington	89.0%	91.5%	90.7%	29	93.2%	81.9%	6	85.5%	87.1%	22	88.2%	76.1%	27	80.0%	82.8%	21	87.0%	75.6%	37	80.3%
West Virginia	82.2%	85.5%	82.7%	51	86.0%	70.6%	37	73.5%	77.0%	45	74.2%	80.1%	16	84.5%	76.1%	44	78.6%	75.0%	40	79.7%
Wisconsin	91.0%	93.5%	92.8%	9	95.0%	69.8%	38	78.6%	83.9%	37	78.6%	80.1%	16	84.5%	86.0%	7	86.3%	79.1%	22	82.0%
Wyoming	87.2%	91.6%	88.4%	42	92.4%	82.0%	25	80.2%	87.6%	31	86.1%	62.2%	41	77.2%	78.9%	23	87.9%	78.9%	23	87.0%
United States	87.4%	90.6%	91.0%		93.5%	75.9%		82.2%	87.6%		88.0%	75.0%		79.2%	82.5%		85.7%	77.5%		82.0%

Notes: Hispanics may be of any race or two or more races. Racial categories (Whites, African Americans, Native Americans, Other/Two Plus) do not include Hispanics.

Blank cells indicate insufficient sample sizes to reliably estimate these figures.

^aThe numbers and rankings presented here are based on 2000 Census data for the year 1999. They differ from those based on the 2003 Current Population Survey data (for the year 2002) presented in Table 3a.^bThis category includes men and women who report "other" or "two or more" races.

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