



ARIZONA FOUNDATION FOR WOMEN

ARIZONA WOMEN 2007: A STATUS UPDATE

Also included

THE ECONOMIC STATUS OF WOMEN IN ARIZONA

By Erica Williams and Olga Sorokina

Institute for Women's Policy Research commissioned
by the Arizona Foundation for Women

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The Economic Status of Women in Arizona
By Erica Williams and Olga Sorokina
Institute for Women’s Policy Research
Commissioned by the Arizona Foundation for Women

FOREWORD

The Arizona Foundation for Women was created in 1995 to address the unmet needs of our state's women and children. Believing that women and children have the basic right to live free from fear in a just and equitable society, the Foundation has expended time and resources toward identifying innovative solutions for some of our most pressing social challenges. This report is a critical step in our ability to understand, and then act, on our most important social issues.

Through our effort to increase philanthropy, educate, inform and advocate, the Arizona Foundation for Women has become a leader on a myriad of topics such as child abuse, domestic violence and the economic empowerment of women and girls. This report becomes the cornerstone upon which all of our future endeavors rests and creates a comprehensive platform for future action.

Taking the information from the Status of Women in Arizona Report, we seek to catalyze social change. While we do not provide direct services, the innovative programs that we fund, the issues that we spotlight and the policy that we influence become triggers for long-term, sustainable and positive change. We promise to take the information presented in this Report and, with community collaboration, begin to translate data into results.

The Arizona Foundation for Women is part of a movement comprised of over one hundred other women's funds and foundations internationally. We are part of a powerful network and strive to be a key resource for the community. Future research will undoubtedly delve deeper into core issues, but these efforts emerge as a result of this initial research report.

We appreciate the support and participation of community leaders in partnering with us as we move ahead. This is an exciting time in the history of our state; one with the promise of a brighter tomorrow. We hope that our efforts will inspire others to join us, as we know that only by working together will we accomplish our collective vision.



Laurel Stoimenoff
Chair
Board of Directors



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Background:

It has been seven years since there was last a report on the status of women in Arizona. Now, as then, Arizona owes a deep debt of gratitude to the Institute for Women's Policy Research (IWPR), for their excellent work in tracking the status of Arizona women year after year. IWPR is a public policy research organization dedicated to informing and stimulating debate on public policy issues critical to women and their families. Without their previous work, this report would have little to benchmark Arizona's current progress. Besides their 2000 "The Status of Women in Arizona" report, IWPR, supported by the Southern Arizona Women's Foundation, produced a Status of Women fact sheet in 2004. Recently, the Arizona Foundation for Women commissioned the Institute to update the fact sheet for 2006, and to produce "The Economic Status of Women in Arizona" by Erica Williams and Olga Sorokina. The data from this report forms the backbone of our chapter on the economic status of Arizona women, and the full report is contained in the Appendixes of this volume. The updated fact sheet from the Institute and the economic status report also provided valuable data for the chapters on health, education, and political participation. The fact that the Institute has studied Arizona women for so many years is of immeasurable value; with the ability to compare data on an apples-to-apples basis both against other states, and over time means that we can identify definite, measurable progress (or the lack of it) on so many key indicators.

Our goals for this report:

At the Arizona Foundation for Women, we value concrete facts and in-depth research. At the same time, we know that for meaningful social change to occur, those facts must move from the realm of academics and think tanks, and into the consciousness of everyday women and those who care about them. In that spirit, this report attempts to assemble data from a variety of credible, reliable sources like the Institute for Women's Policy Research, the Annie E. Casey Foundation, the National Conference of State Legislatures, and others, crafting those facts and figures into an overall picture that will be grasped readily by the average reader.

Our hope for the future:

It is our hope that Arizona women will see the facts we have presented, understand what can be done, and mobilize their power and passion to make Arizona a better place for women and girls to live, grow, and thrive. We sincerely believe that the findings of this report have great potential to move the public discourse away from anecdote and rhetoric, and guide it toward fact-based, rational discussion and problem solving. We hope you will join us in an ongoing dialog!

CHAPTER ONE

WOMEN'S HEALTH IN ARIZONA

Presented by

HIDDEN MEADOW RANCH

ARIZONA IS

14TH

FOR MATERNAL AND CHILD HEALTH

19TH

FOR FEMALE DISEASE AND MORTALITY

42ND

FOR HEALTH INSURANCE COVERAGE

A woman's health status affects every aspect of her well-being. Her ability to work, care for her family, and lead an independent life all depend on her health. Similarly, access to health care and insurance coverage is a main determinant of whether a woman and her family grow and prosper – or not. Women (and men) may find themselves trapped in jobs they don't like, in order to maintain their health insurance coverage. Those even less fortunate may postpone or forgo altogether the kinds of routine preventive care so essential to health and longevity. Finally, the entire public's health is affected when, due to financial hardship, women and their families must use emergency rooms as their health care provider, or skip immunizations and other preventive health care measures that protect not only individuals, but the entire community.

As with many issues, Arizona's health care scene is a study in contrasts: Arizona's indigent health care system, the Arizona Health Care Cost Containment System (AHCCCS), was a radical yet ultimately successful approach to cost control for the Medicaid program at the time it was enacted in 1982. AHCCCS is still considered a national model. Mayo, the Arizona Heart Institute, and other big-name health care institutions have raised the level of perceived quality in health care – at least in the urban areas of the state. Many rural areas are terribly underserved.

However, Arizona ranks 42nd among all states for women's health coverage at 78.6 percent, according to the Institute for Women's Policy Research (IWPR). This rate of coverage falls below the national average of 81.4 percent. White women are the most likely to have health coverage (86.1 percent), while Hispanic women are the least likely (63.4 percent). On the other hand, a composite index measuring maternal and infant health indicators – such as prenatal care, infant mortality, and low-birth-weight babies – ranks Arizona in the top quarter, at number 14. Again, though, women of color and their babies fare less well than their white counterparts. 87 percent of white women begin prenatal care in their first trimester, compared to 66 percent of Native American women. Only 6.7 percent of babies born to white women are low birth weight, compared to more than double that number – 14.4 percent of babies born to African American women.

On a more general women's health measure, Arizona fares about average. IWPR ranks Arizona at 19 on its Health and Well-Being index. A closer look at the data, however, reveals wide disparities among racial and ethnic groups. Asian American women in Arizona have the lowest mortality from heart disease, at 97.1 per 100,000. African American women have almost triple the incidence, at 263.3 per 100,000. Native American women have the lowest rate of breast cancer deaths, 12.9 per 100,000, while African American women again have the highest: 40.4. The most startling disparity of all? The incidence of AIDS among women (adults and adolescents). White women have a rate of 3.2 incidents per 100,000. African American women develop AIDS at almost 10 times this rate: 30.3.

What's Going Well: Maternal and Child Health

At 14th in the country for Maternal and Child Health, Arizona is doing well overall. This composite measure is an index consisting of the percent of mothers beginning prenatal care in the first trimester, the infant mortality rate, and the percent of low-birth-weight babies. Though the overall rating on this measure is good, there are disturbing variations in the data along racial and ethnic lines.

	White Women	African American Women	Hispanic Women	Asian American Women	Native American Women
Percent of Mothers Beginning Prenatal Care in the First Trimester of Pregnancy, 2001	87%	76%	67%	84%	66%
Infant Mortality Rate (deaths of infants under age one per 1,000 live births), 2001	6.4	18.2	6.1	N/A	11.4
Percent of Low-Birth-Weight Babies, 2001	6.7%	14.4%	6.6%	7.7%	7.4%

NOTES: N/A = Not Available.
Hispanics may be of any race or two or more races. Racial categories (Whites, African Americans, Asian Americans, Native Americans) do not include Hispanics.

See Appendix III of The Status of Women in the States for sources and methodology.

This fact sheet is excerpted from The Status of Women in the States (2004) report, edited by Dr. Amy Caiazza and April Shaw at the Institute for Women's Policy Research (IWPR). The Status of Women in the States project is designed to inform policymakers and business and community leaders about the progress of women in their state relative to women in other states, to men, and to the nation as a whole. The data in the report come from federal government sources and other organizations.

SOURCE: Institute for Women's Policy Research

Compiled by the Institute for Women's Policy Research.

In particular, Hispanic and Native American women receive far less prenatal care than their white counterparts. Additionally, African American women have much higher incidence of infant mortality and low-birth-weight babies.

*Maternal and
Child Health*

A Word on Prenatal Care and Infant Mortality

Why are these measures so important? What follows are examinations of two of the measures key to measuring maternal and child health, prenatal care and infant mortality.

Prenatal Care

Infants born to mothers who have not received prenatal care are three times more likely to have a low birth weight.¹ Such children are more susceptible to learning difficulties, vision difficulties, chronic respiratory problems (like asthma), and even cerebral palsy.²

According to the Ottawa Coalition for the Prevention of Low Birth Weight, mothers of such babies are also more susceptible to post-partum depression.

Even more alarming, mothers who receive no prenatal care are five times more likely to have their newborns die.

What is Prenatal Care?

Prenatal care encompasses any medical care a woman receives for her pregnancy. The two most important factors in receiving treatment are that it is done early and regularly.³ Federal reports recommend that a pregnant woman should see her doctor about once a month during the first six months of pregnancy, every two weeks during the 7th and 8th months, and every week thereafter until the baby is born.⁴

Early visits with an obstetrician can involve complete physical exams, checking maternal blood pressure, as well as blood and urine tests to detect any abnormalities such as pregnancy-induced diabetes. In later visits maternal weight gain is measured, as well as continuous monitoring of the baby's heart rate. Perhaps as exciting as hearing the child's heart rate, mothers can also expect to receive an approximate due date.

Women can take measures on their own to ensure a healthy infant, aside from regular doctor's visits. Recommendations include: immediately stop drinking alcohol or taking drugs (this can include some prescribed medications – see a doctor for their opinion); taking 400 micrograms of folic acid per day; exercising for 30 minutes most days of the week; avoiding hot tubs, saunas, or x-rays; avoiding insecticides, lead, or mercury; not eating undercooked fish or meat; and avoiding caffeine (or take it in limited amounts).

When Should a Woman Begin Prenatal Care?

Women should seek attention immediately if they suspect they may be pregnant. If a woman desires to become pregnant, she can begin many preventive measures to ensure the pregnancy goes smoothly, including starting a regimen of folic acid. Even if there is no desire to become pregnant, most recommendations for women who are pregnant are sound health practices to follow in general.

Where Can a Woman Receive Prenatal Care?

Every state has programs to assist women in receiving prenatal care. A toll-free number has been instituted via the Health Department to help women in finding medical assistance – 1-800-833-4642.

The Health Start program in Arizona uses lay health workers throughout the state to treat women during and immediately after pregnancy. In 2005, 785 children were born to women in the Health Start program – only 12 of which were considered to be of very low birth weight.⁵ A County Prenatal Block Grant is also in effect in Arizona, which supports funding to each of the 15 county health departments. During the 2004-2005 fiscal year, 14,288 people were served.⁶

Sadly, in 2004, still only 68.7 percent of women in Arizona received proper prenatal care.⁷

Infant Mortality



The death of any child before they reach the age of 1 year is considered to be an “infant mortality.” By measuring the number of infant mortalities compared to the larger number of live births, scientists are able to come up with a number known as the IMR or Infant Mortality Rate. This measure is commonly used in evaluating conditions of living within an area, and is considered one of the best predictors of state failure.⁸ In Arizona, 653 infants died in 2005.⁹ The latest estimates in 2006 indicate that for every 1000 live births in the United States, there are approximately 7 infants who will die within their first year of life.¹⁰

A recent study indicates that the United States has the second-worst newborn death rate in the modern world. In fact, U.S. infants are three times more likely to die within their first month of life than children in Japan.¹¹ Despite increasing technology and neo-natal advances taking place within the United States, it still falls behind only Latvia when looking at the newborn death rate. This is particularly true for minorities and other disadvantaged groups within the United States – African Americans, for example, experience approximately 9 newborn deaths for every 1000 live births.

What Can Be Done?

The United States Department of Health & Human Services has several programs and initiatives as a result of a nearly \$730,000,000 budget to reduce infant mortality.¹² Energy is being spent in three main areas:

1. Greater Access to Health Care

Infants born to mothers who have received no prenatal care are three times more likely to be born at a low birth weight than infants who received prenatal care. Even more disturbing, infants without prenatal medical attention are also five times more likely to die. With increased access to Medicaid, the federal government is attempting to increase medical attention and education to mothers nationwide.

2. Promoting Healthy Choices

Efforts such as promoting the use of folic acid during pregnancy, and reducing the frequency of HIV transmission from mother to child, have gone far in promoting infant health. Additional preventive measures, such as promoting abstinence among teens, have done wonders in lowering the Infant Mortality Rate in the United States. Under Title V, or the Maternal and Child Health (MCH) Services Block Grant, states receive funds every year to protect newborns, and infants in general. It is estimated that in an average year, about 60 percent of women in the United States who give birth do so with assistance from MCH programs.

3. More Medical Research

With increasing medical research come increasing solutions to problems that infants face in their first year of life. The National Institute of Child Health and Human Development alone has discovered techniques that have prevented infants from dying due to respiratory distress syndrome. The National Heart, Lung and Blood Institute is in the process of investigating typical issues which arise in pregnancy to try to reduce the effects of such conditions on the infants themselves.

Also Going Well: Female Disease Mortality

At 19th for disease and mortality, Arizona is near the middle of the pack. The disease and mortality measure is made up of ratings for female deaths due to heart disease, lung cancer, or breast cancer. The average annual incidence of AIDS rounds out this measure. Again, although the overall ranking shows Arizona doing moderately well, the variations among ethnic groups indicate inequalities in the delivery of health care, particularly for African American women.

	White Women	African American Women	Hispanic Women	Asian American Women	Native American Women
Female Heart Disease Mortality, per 100,000, 1999-2001	168.9	263.3	172.9	97.1	152.9
Female Lung Cancer Mortality, per 100,000, 1999-2001	41.8	40.3	16.7	22.9	N/A
Female Breast Cancer Mortality, per 100,000, 1999-2001	26.4	40.4	18.7	N/A	12.9
Average Annual Incidence Rate of AIDS Among Women (per 100,000 adolescents and adults), 1999	3.2	30.3	5.0	N/A	8.2

NOTES: N/A = Not Available.
Hispanics may be of any race or two or more races. Racial categories (Whites, African Americans, Asian Americans, Native Americans) do not include Hispanics.
See Appendix III of The Status of Women in the States for sources and methodology.

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SOURCE: Institute for Women's Policy Research

Compiled by the Institute for Women's Policy Research.

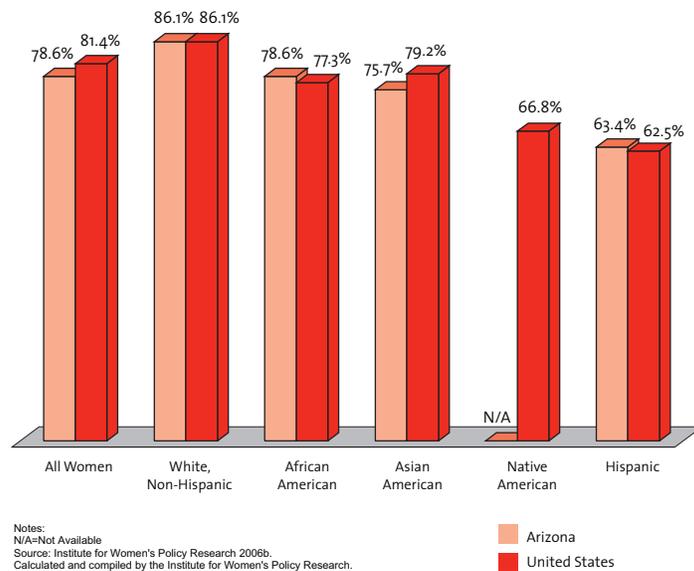
The data show that in Arizona, African American women have high rates of death from heart disease, lung cancer, and breast cancer, though, perhaps surprisingly, white women have the highest rate of lung cancer deaths. The most startling statistic? The incidence of AIDS in African American women is over 10 times higher than in white women, 30.3 percent compared to 3.2 percent.

*Health and
Mortality*

Not Going So Well: Health Insurance Coverage for Women

At 42nd, Arizona is not doing well ensuring that women in need of health care coverage are getting it. The cost of health care in Arizona is high, as it is in the rest of the nation. Therefore, going without insurance, as a practical matter, means going without health care. It should be noted that Arizona has improved its ranking. The Institute for Women's Policy Research ranked Arizona 49th in the year 2000, using the same methodology.

*Percent of Women
18 to 64 with
Health Insurance by
Race and Ethnicity,
2005, Current
Population Survey*



At an overall insured rate of 78.6 percent, Arizona falls below the national average of 81.4 percent. Hispanic women fare the least well, at 63.4 percent, although Arizona's rate for Hispanic women exceeds the national average of 62.5 percent.

Immigration impact? As a border state, Arizona has one of the highest immigrant populations in the country. Many wonder whether Arizona's outcomes are affected by this "invisible population," especially with regard to health care. Because hospitals cannot inquire about immigration status or refuse to treat emergency patients, the exact impact of immigration on our health care system is unclear. However, one study estimated uncompensated medical outlays for health care provided to Arizona's undocumented immigrant population at about \$400 million a year.¹³

Alternative Options: What Other States are Doing to Address These Issues

We have seen in the preceding data that women of color have less health insurance coverage, and therefore less access to health care. It is not surprising, therefore, that women of color have poorer health outcomes. If good health is linked to health care coverage (i.e., access to care), then addressing this issue is a high priority. Federal solutions may be forthcoming. In the meantime, two states have initiatives that are of particular relevance: Massachusetts' new mandate that its citizens carry health insurance, and the requirement that Oregon and other states impose on insurance carriers to formulate rates based not on individuals' health status, but on the health of the entire community.

Mitt Romney's Massachusetts Experiment

Early in 2006, the Massachusetts legislature passed a measure supported by Governor Mitt Romney that would require all residents to purchase some type of health insurance policy by July 1, 2007, or face a fine. As reported in the *Washington Post*, Massachusetts is the first state to address the problem of incomplete medical coverage by enacting a system similar to one that many states use to require automobile insurance of all drivers.¹⁴ The new system would require all uninsured adults to purchase health insurance, or face a fine. The state will subsidize a variety of affordable policies offered by private-sector insurers. Costs to citizens for the subsidized policies top out at \$250 per month, with many costing far less. The groundbreaking plan was the result of two years of advocacy and negotiation among stakeholders.¹⁵ No other state has made health insurance coverage mandatory. In part, the scheme attempts to eliminate "free riders," uninsured individuals who can afford insurance, but choose not to do so – sometimes later costing state taxpayers in emergency room costs and other forms of uncompensated care. The plan is not without controversy, with some arguing that "affordability" is hard to determine. However, the final plan was a negotiated compromise between Romney's concept and rival plans from the Democratic-dominated legislature. Together, they await its success.

Community Rating – A Fairer Way to Price Insurance?

Connecticut, Maine, Maryland, Massachusetts, New Hampshire, New Jersey, Oregon, Pennsylvania, Rhode Island, and Washington all require community rating for at least some portion of their insurance markets.¹⁶ States with community rating and adjusted community rating do not allow pricing based on health status. This means that medical underwriting is not allowed either when policies are issued or when they are renewed.¹⁷ In community rating, health insurance premiums are calculated based on actuarial estimates of what a population's total health costs will be, and charging individuals an average rate based on those costs. Insurers are prohibited from factoring in age, sex, previous medical conditions or any other factor.¹⁸ Proponents argue that community rating injects a needed dose of fairness into insurance markets.

Community rating has critics – many argue that reforms like community rating have unintended consequences that increase the cost of insurance and actually leave more people without insurance. They posit that insurance is a business of risk allocation and that, to the degree that insurers are prevented from basing their contracts on actuarial values, healthy policyholders will be forced to absorb the additional costs of sick ones.¹⁹ Indeed, their studies estimate that, while employers with high-risk employees would certainly notice improved access to coverage under proposed insurance reforms, premiums could increase substantially.²⁰

CHAPTER TWO

WOMEN'S ECONOMIC WELL-BEING IN ARIZONA

Presented by

U.S. BANK

ARIZONA IS

17TH

FOR WOMEN'S EMPLOYMENT & EARNINGS

14TH

FOR WOMEN'S BUSINESS OWNERSHIP

37TH

FOR WOMEN ABOVE THE POVERTY LINE

The economic status of women is connected to their well-being in all aspects of their lives. A woman who is economically independent will be able to provide a decent living for her children, even in the absence of financial assistance from their father. Similarly, divorce and widowhood pose far less of a threat to women who are independent and stable wage-earners. Access to health insurance, higher education, housing, and adequate nutrition all hinge on a woman's economic status.

Arizona is a state that holds much promise for women's economic equality. Yet, like women across the country, Arizona women still earn less and are more likely to be poor than men. According to the Institute for Women's Policy Research, *Economic Status of Women in Arizona*, disparities along racial lines further impede women's economic progress. Women of color earn less than white women. In most cases they are less likely to be in managerial or professional occupations, and much more likely to lack health insurance and to live in poverty than their white counterparts.

The good news is that Arizona ranks 2nd in the nation for the ratio of women's to men's median annual earnings. At 14th, Arizona ranks high for the proportion of businesses owned by women. Arizona ranks in the top ten for its ratio of women's to men's earnings at number 2, and in the bottom third for women's median annual earnings, at 16th.

The bad news is that Arizona is in the bottom ten states for women's labor force participation, at 42nd. Women in Arizona are in the bottom half, at 27th, for women in managerial and professional occupations, and in the percentage of women above the poverty line, at 37th. Poverty disproportionately affects women of color in Arizona; 90.7 percent of white women in Arizona were above the federal poverty line, while only 77.5 percent of African American women and Hispanic women, and 65 percent of Native American women, lived above the poverty line. The IWPR, in its report, said it best: "In other words, more than one in five African American and Hispanic women in Arizona live in poverty and one in three Native American women do. Their greater likelihood of being poor underscores the disadvantages they face in the job market."

Overall the economic status of Arizona women is mixed, with several factors somewhat weak, relative to other states. The state is in the bottom half of states by all but three indicators (earnings, wage ratio, business ownership). Women of color do not have equal access to higher education, and therefore, cannot qualify for better-paying jobs. As the Institute notes, the state's Hispanic women seem particularly disadvantaged in that they do not have access to opportunities and resources so critical to economic security and stability.

What's Going Well: Employment and Earnings

At 17th in the country for Women's Employment and Earnings, Arizona is making reasonable progress on this measure, which is an improvement over Arizona's ranking at 26th in the Institute for Women's Policy Research's year 2000 report. Employment and Earnings is an index consisting of women's median annual earnings, the ratio of women's to men's earnings (also known as the "wage gap"), and women's labor force participation.

State	Composite Index		Median Annual Earnings Full-Time, Year-Round for Employed Women	
	Score	Rank	Dollars	Rank
Alabama	3.77	39	\$29,700	34
Alaska	4.22	6	\$36,100	67
Arizona	3.99	17	\$32,000	16
Arkansas	3.47	51	\$24,800	50
California	4.14	11	\$35,100	7
Colorado	4.21	8	\$34,000	10
Connecticut	4.20	9	\$38,200	4
Delaware	4.00	16	\$32,000	16
District of Columbia	4.98	1	\$42,400	1
Florida	3.81	35	\$30,000	29
Georgia	4.06	13	\$31,700	23
Hawaii	3.99	17	\$31,800	19
Idaho	3.53	49	\$27,000	43
Illinois	3.97	20	\$33,100	14
Indiana	3.79	38	\$30,000	29
Iowa	3.86	30	\$29,700	34
Kansas	3.96	21	\$30,000	29
Kentucky	3.74	41	\$28,900	37
Louisiana	3.50	50	\$26,500	45
Maine	3.96	21	\$30,300	28
Maryland	4.57	2	\$39,300	2
Massachusetts	4.27	4	\$37,200	5
Michigan	3.86	30	\$32,600	15
Minnesota	4.23	5	\$35,000	8
Mississippi	3.56	47	\$25,800	47
Missouri	3.98	19	\$30,800	27
Montana	3.63	43	\$24,800	50
Nebraska	3.89	25	\$28,900	37
Nevada	3.87	29	\$31,000	24
New Hampshire	4.07	12	\$34,000	10
New Jersey	4.28	3	\$38,900	3
New Mexico	3.61	44	\$25,800	47
New York	4.01	15	\$33,300	13
North Carolina	3.85	33	\$29,800	33
North Dakota	3.80	36	\$26,000	46

*Economic Status
of Women
Employment
and Earnings*

*Status of
Women of Color
Employment and
Earnings*

State	Composite Index		Median Annual Earnings Full-Time, Year-Round for Employed Women	
	Score	Rank	Dollars	Rank
Ohio	3.89	25	\$31,800	19
Oklahoma	3.77	39	\$27,600	41
Oregon	3.91	24	\$31,000	24
Pennsylvania	3.84	34	\$31,800	19
Rhode Island	3.92	23	\$32,000	16
South Carolina	3.80	36	\$27,700	40
South Dakota	3.86	30	\$26,900	44
Tennessee	3.70	42	\$29,000	36
Texas	3.88	28	\$30,000	29
Utah	3.60	46	\$28,000	39
Vermont	4.18	10	\$31,800	19
Virginia	4.22	6	\$34,000	10
Washington	4.03	14	\$34,100	9
West Virginia	3.56	47	\$27,600	41
Wisconsin	3.89	25	\$31,000	24
Wyoming	3.61	44	\$25,800	47
United States	4.00		\$31,800	

See Appendix I for Methodology. Compiled by the Institute for Women's Policy Research.

Though Arizona's rating on employment and earnings is positive, the picture varies for women along ethnic lines.

	All Women	White, Non-Hispanic Women	African American Women	Asian American Women	Native American Women	Hispanic Women
Employment and Earnings						
Median Annual Earnings (for full-time, year-round employed women), 2005 ^a	\$32,300	\$36,400	\$30,300	\$33,700	N/A	\$24,200
Earnings Ratio Between Women and White Men, 2005 ^a	68.7%	77.4%	64.5%	71.7%	N/A	51.5%
Women's Labor Force Participation, 2005 ^b	55.8%	55.6%	60.3%	57.4%	50.7%	56.2%
Women in Managerial and Professional Occupations, 2005 ^c	36.6%	41.9%	34.1%	42.1%	35.7%	21.0%

NOTES: N/A = Not Available.

Hispanics may be of any race or two or more races. Racial categories (Whites, African Americans, Asian Americans, and Native Americans) do not include Hispanics. Data for women's business ownership are not available by race and ethnicity.

SOURCE: a) U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census 2006c; b) U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census 2006d; c) U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census 2006e; d) U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census 2006f; e) U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census 2006g; f) Institute for Women's Policy Research 2006b.

Compiled by the Institute for Women's Policy Research.

Hispanic women do significantly less well than others on nearly every measure – for example, earning \$24,200 compared to \$32,300 for women overall, and 21 percent in professional and managerial occupations compared to 41.9 percent for white women.

Immigration impact? As in many of our measures, one wonders whether a border state such as Arizona suffers from wage suppression as the result of the number of immigrants, both legal and undocumented, who reside here. The formula seems simple – the more cheap labor available, the lower wages will be. However, recent research reported by the *Washington Post* suggests that the economic impact of immigration is not so simple, and that the effects are difficult to separate out from other factors that have dampened wage growth in recent decades.²¹ *The Post* compared several pieces of research, including much that indicated that immigration mainly affects those natives who do not have high school diplomas.²² Economists further contend that the impact of immigration has actually lessened as the nation has become better educated. The stagnation of wages on the low end, they contend, is due to the steep loss of manufacturing jobs in the United States.²³ So, experts disagree, and the impact in any given state is mixed. Cheap labor may hold down prices, but drive down wages as well. Immigrants often pay taxes due to the use of false documents and social security numbers, but they may also consume public benefits and social services.

A Word on the Ratio of Women's to Men's Earnings

Why is the ratio of women's to men's wages important? Although many factors can explain the difference between men's and women's wages, researchers consider the ratio an important measure because it captures indirectly institutional discrimination that undervalues women and women's work. As the Institute for Women's Policy Research indicates in its report on the Economic Status of Women in Arizona, though women and men often work in different industries, and women are underrepresented in high-paying occupations, these differences may result from discrimination and barriers to obtaining the education or experience needed to enter such occupations. The Institute also reports that a U.S. Government study from 2003 showed that from 1983 to 2000, 45 percent of the wage gap between men and women could not be explained by the differences in human capital, industry, occupation, unionization, or work hours. In other words, to a certain degree, women earned less simply because they were women.

What is a Wage Gap?

The term "wage gap" is used to compare differences in income between men and women for relatively same occupations. This number is also broken down into analyses of wage gaps between not only gender, but racial groups as well. When the Equal Pay Act was signed in 1963, it became illegal for employers to pay men and women differently who perform the same job. At the time the Act was passed, women were making 55 cents to every dollar earned by men with equal qualifications and job status earned. It was recently estimated that the wage gap between men and women would be eliminated by around 2030.²⁴ Although there is some contention that a wage gap exists because women actually work less – it is true women are more likely than men to work part-time in any occupation – it is generally only full-time employees who are included in data measuring the wage gap.²⁵

How is the Wage Gap Measured?

The wage gap is measured as a percentage – by dividing women’s median annual earnings by men’s median annual earnings.²⁶ According to a White House Report released in June 1998, the wage gap has most significantly minimized since 1963 for younger females and married women with children.²⁷ Still, in 2004, women were still as a whole only making 77 percent of what a man with equal position and education can expect to earn in the workforce. These numbers are even more drastic when comparing wage gaps across racial strata.

How is the Wage Gap Applied to Minorities in the Workplace?

As of 2004, African American women in the workforce earned, on average, 68 percent of a white male’s typical income.²⁸ Hispanic women received only 57 percent – a minimal increase since the Equal Pay Act was enacted some 40 years ago.²⁹

A wage gap is present even among men when looking at racial groups. African American men make roughly 75 percent of white men with equal occupation and qualifications; Hispanic men earn an average of only 63 percent.

How is the Wage Gap Affected by Education?

Surprisingly, education does not seem to minimize any wage gap. While educated women do make more in the workplace, so do educated men. In fact, surprisingly, the wage gap is most obvious when looking at men and women who have received professional degrees. In 2001, women with professional degrees earned only 60 percent of what men with equal qualifications were making.³⁰ There is even some argument that typical “women” occupations are valued less in the work field; and that as women begin to become more predominant in any given arena, their work consequently begins to be valued less – thus leaving those women with less pay.³¹

According to noted scholar Hilary Lips, in her article *The Gender Wage Gap: Debunking the Rationalizations*, the wage gap is nothing to be complacent about. If the situation is to be resolved, the idea of women just having to “make it in a man’s world” must be discarded.³²

Also Going Well: Women's Business Ownership

In an age where discrimination still exists in many workplaces, often women feel left behind or put on the “mommy track” working for others. Starting her own business is one way a woman can exercise more control over her working environment and take charge of her future. The number of women-owned businesses across the country has been growing steadily, and the Institute for Women's Policy Research ranks Arizona in the top third of all states, at 14th. Sadly, however, this is a decline from the ranking that Institute for Women's Policy Research assigned to Arizona in their 2000 report. At that time Arizona was 3rd in the nation for women's business ownership.

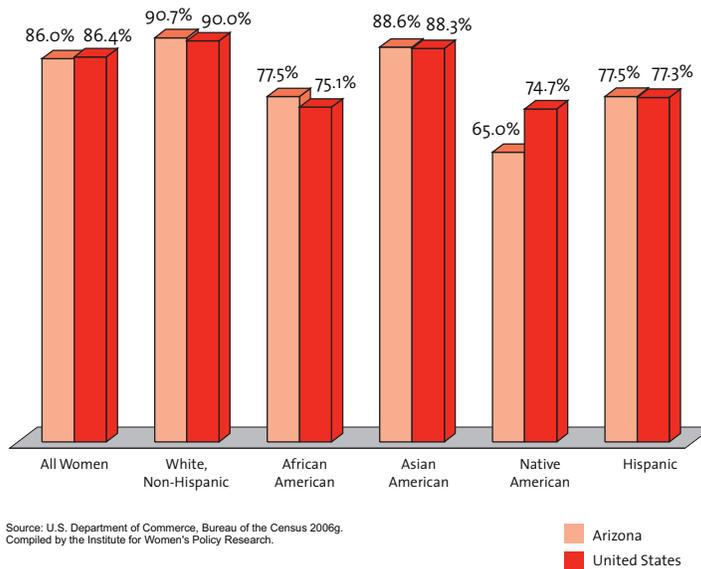
Percent of Businesses that are Women-Owned			Percent of Businesses that are Women-Owned		
State	Percent	Rank	State	Percent	Rank
Alabama	26.4%	31	Montana	24.4%	44
Alaska	26.2%	34	Nebraska	26.6%	28
Arizona	28.8%	14	Nevada	28.1%	17
Arkansas	23.7%	48	New Hampshire	24.7%	43
California	29.9%	5	New Jersey	26.1%	36
Colorado	29.1%	12	New Mexico	30.9%	3
Connecticut	27.2%	23	New York	29.6%	8
Delaware	24.1%	46	North Carolina	27.1%	25
District of Columbia	33.2%	1	North Dakota	23.3%	50
Florida	28.4%	16	Ohio	28.1%	17
Georgia	29.1%	12	Oklahoma	25.7%	39
Hawaii	30.1%	4	Oregon	29.5%	10
Idaho	23.7%	48	Pennsylvania	26.0%	37
Illinois	29.7%	6	Rhode Island	26.5%	29
Indiana	27.4%	21	South Carolina	26.2%	34
Iowa	27.0%	26	South Dakota	22.4%	51
Kansas	27.2%	23	Tennessee	26.0%	37
Kentucky	25.7%	39	Texas	27.0%	26
Louisiana	26.4%	31	Utah	25.1%	41
Maine	24.0%	47	Vermont	26.3%	33
Maryland	31.0%	2	Virginia	29.7%	6
Massachusetts	28.7%	15	Washington	29.4%	11
Michigan	29.6%	8	West Virginia	27.7%	20
Minnesota	27.9%	19	Wisconsin	26.5%	29
Mississippi	25.1%	41	Wyoming	24.4%	44
Missouri	27.4%	21	United States	28.2%	

Percent of Businesses that are Women-Owned

Not Going So Well: Women in Poverty

Arizona is 37th in the country for women above the poverty line. According to a 2003 Institute for Women's Policy Research study, single-mother families in 2002 made up half of all families living in poverty. When so many women have responsibility for their children's economic well-being, this number is disturbing.

Percent of Women Aged 16 and Older Living Above the Federal Poverty Limit, by Race and Ethnicity, 2005, Current Population Survey



Even more disturbing is the way that poverty disproportionately affects women of color in Arizona. IWPR's measure indicates that 90.7 percent of white women were above the federal poverty line. In stark contrast are Native American women, at 65 percent, and Hispanic and African American women at 77.5 percent.

A Word on the Federal Poverty Line

“FPL” or the Federal Poverty Limit (Line) is the most common indicator of well-being for low-income families in America. For over forty years it has been the primary measure of poverty in the United States and the most often used benchmark for eligibility for federal, state, and local social welfare benefits.³³ In 2005, the poverty threshold for a family of four in the continental United States was \$19,350.³⁴

How Did it Begin?

In 1963, author Michael Harrington's *The Other America: Poverty in the United States* came to the attention of the Kennedy administration. In it, Harrington asserted that as many as fifty million Americans were living in poverty. The federal government had never attempted to count the poor, and was now interested. By coincidence, a statistician in the Social Security Administration named Mollie Orshansky had that summer published an article, "Children of the Poor" in the Social Security Bulletin. In it she outlined simple food plans to create a budget for poor families. Rather than calculate the costs of other items, she relied on Department of Agriculture data, which showed that the average American family spent a third of its money on food. To determine the minimum income needed for survival, she simply multiplied the cost of her food plan times three.³⁵

Measure Widely Used

The Orshansky measure revealed that between fifteen and twenty million children were living in poverty: A large number of them from single-parent households and minority neighborhoods. Soon, due to growing national interest, Lyndon Johnson had declared a "War of Poverty" and made the Orshansky measure the method by which to determine eligibility for a vast array of new programs.

Orshansky was a dedicated civil servant who devoted her entire professional life to helping the poor – children in particular. It is likely she never intended her measure to be so widely applied, or used so long without revision. In any event, the FPL is now used to determine eligibility for at least \$60 billion annually in social welfare programs.

What's the Problem?

The primary flaw in the current measure is that it fails to take into account the very problems facing working single mothers. Single mothers head the vast majority of households that receive government assistance. The measure does not take into account the costs of child care, transportation and other work-related expenses at all, and fails to adequately account for the exponential growth in the costs of health care and housing.³⁶

FPL Especially Hard on Arizona Women

In Arizona, housing and child care are disproportionately expensive. For a family of four making \$33,000 a year, child care is the single biggest expense – at \$932 (34 percent) per month, it exceeds even the cost of housing, \$817 (29 percent).³⁷ Neither of these expenses is taken into account by the FPL – undoubtedly many working Arizona families are actually “working poor.”

Alternative Options: What States and the Federal Government are Doing

Since the birth of the Union movement, people have been concerned that hardworking people be paid a “living wage.” Economists debate about the effect of the minimum wage, but its existence as a confirmed standard is not in doubt. As several states contend with the pressures of providing social services for the poor, many have enacted separate, higher minimum wage standards, including Arizona. As more and more women become the head of their household, the minimum wage gains growing importance for working women everywhere. A woman working full-time, year-round at the current federal minimum wage of \$5.15 per hour would earn just \$10,300 per year, and women are nearly two-thirds of all minimum-wage workers.³⁸ At the federal level, concern over the conflict between work and family obligations resulted in the Family and Medical Leave Act. Ideally, FMLA should level the playing field by preventing women (who are more often caregivers for family members) from being fired or discriminated against. However, results have been mixed since its implementation.

Minimum Wage

Enacted in 1938 as part of the Fair Labor Standards Act, the U.S. federal minimum wage sets the lowest amount individuals can be paid for labor. The current federal minimum wage is \$5.15 per hour. Pursuant to legislation passed by President Clinton, states are free to enact higher minimum wage laws, which are then the applicable standard for employers within those states. Arizona recently passed a minimum wage law via ballot initiative, so as of January 1, 2007, the minimum wage standard in Arizona will be \$6.75 – a full \$1.60 more than the federal minimum.³⁹

Cities and counties are also free to institute higher minimum wage standards than the larger state of which they are a part. For example, the New Mexico state minimum wage is \$5.15, but the City of Santa Fe imposes a minimum wage standard of \$9.50 (currently the highest in the nation).

What is the Purpose of Having a Minimum Wage?

One of the core reasons the minimum wage exists is to promote an idea of basic social justice. If all workers are guaranteed a set amount of pay, then employers will not be able to “race to the bottom” in paying their employees as little as possible just to cut costs. Employees receiving the minimum wage will be thereby always be guaranteed, theoretically, enough income to provide their families with basic living necessities (also called a “living wage”).

In practice, however, it is obvious this is not always the case. Some opposition to the minimum wage asserts that such a measure actually makes employees less employable.⁴⁰ If employers *have* to pay \$5 an hour, they will be prone to hire fewer employees than if they could hire more individuals for only \$2 an hour.

Recent studies indicate that as the minimum wage has increased from 1964-2004, the rate of teenage unemployment (workers aged 16-19) has increased as well.

How Much Protection Does the Minimum Wage Really Provide to Workers?

One notable drawback to the Fair Labor Standards Act is that although it may enforce minimum wage requirements, many employers do not provide minimum-wage employees with health insurance. As of 2005, only 60 percent of employers in the United States had health coverage for their employees.⁴¹

Family Leave

As of 1993, under the Family and Medical Leave Act (FMLA), “covered” employers are required to provide “eligible” employees with up to 12 weeks of unpaid leave per year for various medical reasons.⁴² During that time, an employee’s job cannot be given to another simply due to the employee’s absence under the FMLA. If the employee’s former position is no longer available when they return, then they are entitled to a position with equal pay, benefits, and responsibilities as their old job. The employee can be absent from work under the FMLA intermittently, or by simply working a reduced schedule. Furthermore, while the employee is absent, the employer is required by federal law to maintain that employee’s health coverage under any group health plan.

An employer may not interfere with or deny an employee’s rights under the FMLA; an employer also may not discriminate against or fire an employee purely due to them exercising rights under the FMLA.

States can provide additional, but not less, protection for FMLA-qualified employees. Arizona in particular follows the FMLA rather closely, with its family leave protection found in Personnel Rules R2-5-404 (“Sick Leave”), R2-5-411 (“Parental Leave”), and R2-5-412 (“Leave for Serious Health Condition”). All can be found at the Arizona Department of Administration Web site - <http://www.hr.state.az.us>

What Employees Qualify for FMLA Protection?

An employee can take family leave under the FMLA if they meet the three following conditions:

1. The employee has worked for the employer for at least one year (365 days)
2. Over the immediate past 12 months, the employee has worked at least 1,250 hours
3. The employer maintains at least 50 employees in the business within 75 miles of where the employee is stationed

An employee can also lawfully be required by the employer to give 30 days advance notice prior to leaving when the leave is “foreseeable,” and the employer may require medical certification (such as proof of the medical condition, a fitness for duty report upon return to work, etc.). If an employee does not comply with these conditions, then they will not be eligible for protected family leave under the FMLA.

What Medical Reasons Trigger FMLA Protection?



In general terms, the FMLA allows for an employee to leave work due to personal illness, or to care for a family member. Typical uses of the act include caring for a newborn child, handling foster care or adoption issues, caring for a sick child/parent/spouse, or simply being physically unable to work.

What are Potential Problems with the FMLA?

In 1997, studies were released indicating that approximately 50 percent of individuals who took family leave did not ever return to work.⁴³ This led many employers to call for a “legislative tune-up” of the Act, in order to protect business interests while still allowing employees the time they deserve.

Arguments have also been raised that the FMLA makes women much more expensive to hire than their male colleagues, because they will typically utilize rights under the FMLA more frequently. Supporters of the FMLA state that unlike the Pregnancy Discrimination Act of 1978 (which clearly protects only women), the FMLA offers job protection to both men and women, making them equal candidates for its use.

CHAPTER THREE

WOMEN AND EDUCATION IN ARIZONA

Presented by

THE BRUCE T. HALLE FAMILY FOUNDATION

ARIZONA IS

26TH

FOR WOMEN WITH A COLLEGE DEGREE

2ND

FOR WOMEN ENROLLED IN POSTSECONDARY EDUCATION

36TH

FOR HIGH SCHOOL DROPOUT RATE

6TH

FOR NUMBER OF ENGLISH LANGUAGE LEARNERS ENROLLED
IN ELEMENTARY AND SECONDARY SCHOOL

A woman's educational level is a major predictor for her success in adult life. What kind of job she has, how much she earns, whether she will advance in her career, even what kind neighborhood she lives and raises a family in will be influenced by her level of education and later career success.

Arizona has long been a laboratory for innovation and experimentation, in the K-12 system and beyond. The Maricopa County Community College District is the largest community college district in the United States in terms of enrollment. Arizona was a leader in the charter school / school choice movement, and was one of the first states to require high-stakes testing for graduation. Nearly one out of every four public schools in Arizona is a charter school, according to a report by the Progressive Policy Institute. Critics of both charter schools and high-stakes testing continue to debate their value, but one thing is clear – schools of all kinds in Arizona are grappling, many unsuccessfully, with English-learners and the challenges associated with bringing them into the educational mainstream. When children fail to meet their fullest potential in the K-12 system, their prospects for further educational attainment dim.

Arizona's high school dropout rate is 9 percent, putting Arizona in the bottom half of the nation and tying with 8 other states for 36th place, according to the annual Kids Count report by the Annie E. Casey Foundation. The Casey Foundation also reports that teen parenthood greatly increases the risk of educational failure, and that nearly one in three girls cited pregnancy as the reason they dropped out of school in 2004. Arizona has the 4th-highest teen birth rate in the nation, with more than 38 girls becoming pregnant every day, according to the Arizona Coalition on Adolescent Pregnancy and Parenting. Perhaps it's no surprise that Arizona has a dropout problem.

In higher education, the number of women in the United States earning a college degree has risen steadily, according to IWPR. Nationwide, the percentage of women 25 and older with a college degree or more has almost doubled since 1980, going from 13.6 percent to 26.5 percent. Arizona is slightly behind in the number of female college graduates at 25.2 percent in 2005. Arizona's educational attainment varies a great deal depending on race and ethnicity, however. 44.1 percent of Asian women hold a college degree, compared to only 8.1 percent of Hispanic women, according to IWPR's analysis of census data. The Institute indicates that the results for Asian women are similar to national trends, but that Hispanic women in Arizona are doing worse than their national counterparts. While nearly one in four white women and one in two Asian American women hold a college degree in Arizona, less than one in ten Hispanic women does. This low rate of educational attainment for Hispanic women impedes their ability to move out of low-wage jobs. For Hispanic women who are also immigrants to the United States, access to higher education can be especially problematic.

What's Improving: Women with a Four-Year College Degree

Arizona was ranked 25th in the nation in the 2000 Status of Women in Arizona Report, compiled by the Institute for Women's Policy Research, which used data from 1990. Four years later, in an update commissioned by the Southern Arizona Women's Foundation and also performed by the IWPR, Arizona's ranking had slipped to 30th for 2004. Therefore, our current rating at 26th shows real improvement.

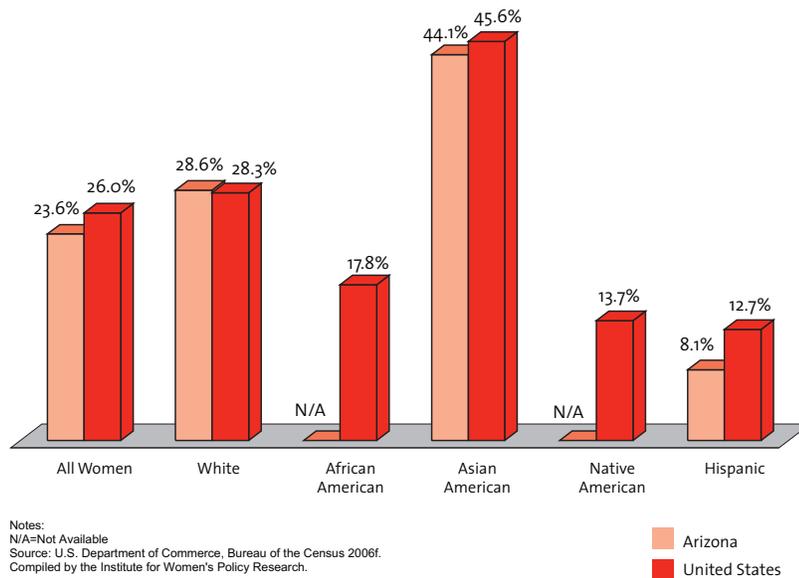
Percent of Women with Four or More Years of College			Percent of Women with Four or More Years of College		
State	Percent	Rank	State	Percent	Rank
Alabama	19.6%	48	Montana	24.9%	28
Alaska	29.1%	13	Nebraska	25.5%	23
Arizona	25.2%	26	Nevada	21.4%	44
Arkansas	17.6%	50	New Hampshire	31.9%	9
California	28.8%	15	New Jersey	33.6%	7
Colorado	34.2%	6	New Mexico	24.4%	30
Connecticut	4.9%	4	New York	30.6%	10
Delaware	25.4%	24	North Carolina	24.2%	32
District of Columbia	45.3%	1	North Dakota	27.6%	19
Florida	24.2%	32	Ohio	22.7%	39
Georgia	27.5%	20	Oklahoma	21.6%	43
Hawaii	30.4%	11	Oregon	27.0%	21
Idaho	22.5%	40	Pennsylvania	24.5%	29
Illinois	27.7%	18	Rhode Island	28.9%	14
Indiana	21.2%	45	South Carolina	23.6%	37
Iowa	24.0%	34	South Dakota	25.0%	27
Kansas	28.2%	16	Tennessee	21.9%	41
Kentucky	19.5%	49	Texas	23.7%	35
Louisiana	20.9%	47	Utah	25.9%	22
Maine	25.3%	25	Vermont	35.5%	3
Maryland	34.6%	5	Virginia	30.4%	11
Massachusetts	35.6%	2	Washington	28.0%	17
Michigan	23.5%	38	West Virginia	15.2%	51
Minnesota	32.3%	8	Wisconsin	24.3%	31
Mississippi	21.8%	42	Wyoming	21.0%	46
Missouri	23.7%	35	United States	26.5%	

Compiled by the Institute for Women's Policy Research.

As the IWPR report *The Economic Status of Women in Arizona* indicates, educational attainment among Arizona's women varies greatly by race and ethnicity. Only 8.1 percent of Hispanic women have a college degree or more, while 44.1 percent of Asian American women in Arizona do.

Percent of Women with Four or More Years of College

*Percent of Women
Age 25 and Older with
a Four-Year College
Degree or More,
by Race and Ethnicity,
2005 Current
Population Survey*



Compared to their national counterparts, white and Asian American women are about the same. 28.6 percent of white women in Arizona have four years or more of college, while 28.3 percent of white women nationally do. Similarly, the 44.1 percent of Asian American women with this level of education is comparable to the national average of 45.6 percent for this racial group. Hispanic women in Arizona are doing much worse: 8.1 percent of Arizona Hispanic women have a college education, while 12.7 percent of their national counterparts do.

What's Going Well: Enrollment in Postsecondary Education

Awareness of the value of higher education has grown, as high-wage manufacturing jobs disappear, replaced by high-tech jobs, knowledge workers and the “new economy.”

Arizona is second in the nation when it comes to women enrolled in some sort of postsecondary education. This adds a hopeful note to the statistics regarding educational attainment; more women have college degrees now than in 2000, and more are in the higher educational pipeline.

Rank	State	Amount Per 10 People	Rank	State	Amount Per 10 People
1	District of Columbia	1.073	28	North Carolina	0.326
2	Arizona	0.472	29	Virginia	0.323
3	Rhode Island	0.426	30	Mississippi	0.32
4	Iowa	0.413	31	Indiana	0.314
5	New Mexico	0.404	32	Pennsylvania	0.313
6	North Dakota	0.402	33	Hawaii	0.312
7	Massachusetts	0.395	34	New Hampshire	0.312
8	Kansas	0.39	35	Washington	0.307
9	Minnesota	0.39	36	Ohio	0.306
10	Utah	0.385	37	Oregon	0.305
11	Nebraska	0.382	38	West Virginia	0.305
12	Wyoming	0.37	39	Texas	0.304
13	California	0.368	40	South Carolina	0.299
14	Colorado	0.363	41	Arkansas	0.298
15	Missouri	0.362	42	Maine	0.297
16	Illinois	0.359	43	Idaho	0.293
17	South Dakota	0.358	44	Connecticut	0.288
18	Delaware	0.357	45	Georgia	0.285
19	Michigan	0.353	46	Florida	0.285
20	Vermont	0.349	47	Alaska	0.282
21	New York	0.345	48	Montana	0.277
22	Wisconsin	0.342	49	Tennessee	0.272
23	Maryland	0.332	50	New Jersey	0.25
24	Kentucky	0.331	51	Nevada	0.25
25	Louisiana	0.329			
26	Oklahoma	0.328			
27	Alabama	0.327			

Weighted average: 0.3 per 10 people

DEFINITION: This is the count of all female students enrolled in courses creditable toward a degree or other formal award; in courses that are part of a vocational or occupational program, including those enrolled in off-campus centers; and high school students taking regular college courses for credit. Per capita figures expressed per 10 population.

SOURCE: National Center for Educational Statistics via StateMaster.com.

*Postsecondary Total
Fall Female Enrollment
(per capita) by state*

Not Going So Well: High School Dropout Rate

No national research organization has systematically examined dropout rates among high school girls; therefore specific data are not available to rank Arizona with respect to girls' graduation rates, exclusively. However, we can gather that Arizona is not doing right by any of its teens when it ties with ten other states (Alabama, Alaska, Delaware, Idaho, Indiana, Kentucky, Mississippi, North Carolina, South Carolina, and West Virginia) for 36th place. In other words, only four states – Georgia, Nevada, New Mexico and Oklahoma – are doing worse than Arizona.⁴⁴

*Percent of Teens
Who are High School
Dropouts 2005*

State	Percent	Rank	State	Percent	Rank
Alabama	9%	36	Nebraska	5%	4
Alaska	9%	36	Nevada (highest)	11%	50
Arizona	9%	36	New Hampshire	6%	9
Arkansas	8%	27	New Jersey	6%	9
California	7%	16	New Mexico	10%	47
Colorado	8%	27	New York	6%	9
Connecticut	4%	2	North Carolina	9%	36
Delaware	9%	36	North Dakota	5%	4
Florida	8%	27	Ohio	6%	9
Georgia	10%	47	Oklahoma	10%	47
Hawaii (lowest)	3%	1	Oregon	7%	16
Idaho	9%	36	Pennsylvania	7%	16
Illinois	7%	16	Rhode Island	8%	27
Indiana	9%	36	South Carolina	9%	36
Iowa	5%	4	South Dakota	7%	16
Kansas	6%	9	Tennessee	8%	27
Kentucky	9%	36	Texas	8%	27
Louisiana	8%	27	Utah	7%	16
Maine	7%	16	Vermont	5%	4
Maryland	7%	16	Virginia	6%	9
Massachusetts	5%	4	Washington	7%	16
Michigan	7%	16	West Virginia	9%	36
Minnesota	4%	2	Wisconsin	6%	9
Mississippi	9%	36	Wyoming	8%	27
Missouri	8%	27	United States	7%	
Montana	7%	16			

DEFINITION: Teenagers between the ages of 16 and 19 who are not enrolled in high school and are not high school graduates.

FOOTNOTE: Updated December 2006. The data for this measure come from the 2000 and 2001 Supplementary Survey and the 2002 through 2005 American Community Survey (ACS). The 2000 through 2005 ACS surveyed approximately 700,000 households monthly during each calendar year. In general but particularly for these years, use caution when interpreting estimates for less populous states or indicators representing small subpopulations, where the sample size is relatively small. Beginning in January 2005, the U.S. Census Bureau expanded the ACS sample to 3 million households. The ACS, when fully implemented, is designed to provide annually updated social, economic, and housing data for states and communities. (Such local-area data have traditionally been collected once every ten years in the long form of the decennial census.) The data for this variable—like all data from the ACS and the supplementary surveys—reflect annual averages of monthly data. This measure focuses on teens ages 16 to 19 rather than young adults 16 to 24 because a large share of 18- to 24-year-olds migrate across state lines each year. The high interstate migration rates confound the connection between state policies and programs and state dropout rates. Raw numbers are rounded to the nearest thousand.

SOURCE: Population Reference Bureau, analysis of data from the U.S. Census Bureau, Census 2000 Supplementary Survey, 2001 Supplementary Survey, 2002 through 2005 American Community Survey. Annie E. Casey Foundation, KidsCount.

A Word on Teen Pregnancy and Dropouts

Teen pregnancy is a complex health and social problem that will be examined later in the Social Justice section of this report. However, it has a special impact on high school graduation rates. Arizona has the 3rd-highest teen birth rate in the nation.⁴⁵ It also has historically had one of the highest dropout rates – just two years ago Arizona was number 50 in the dropout rate.⁴⁶ According to the Arizona Coalition on Adolescent Pregnancy and Parenting, the more connected a female student is to her school, the less likely she is to become a teen parent.⁴⁷ Similarly, the coalition reports that nearly 60 percent of teens who become pregnant drop out of school.⁴⁸ 30 percent of high school mothers earn a high school diploma, compared to 76 percent who postpone having children.⁴⁹

A Heavy Burden: English Language Learners

Many Arizona schools have struggled for years with inadequate funding, competition from charter schools, and especially the struggle to educate children who arrive at school speaking a language other than English. It is estimated that nationally, by the year 2010, over 30 percent of all school-age children will come from homes in which the primary language is not English.⁵⁰

Rank	State	Amount per 100 people	Rank	State	Amount per 100 people
1	California	4.424	25	North Carolina	0.702
2	Alaska	2.995	26	Wyoming	0.682
3	Nevada	2.894	27	Indiana	0.68
4	Texas	2.892	28	New Jersey	0.669
5	New Mexico	2.828	29	Arkansas	0.618
6	Arizona	2.624	30	Michigan	0.613
7	Colorado	2.08	31	South Dakota	0.577
8	Utah	2.007	32	Iowa	0.514
9	Oregon	1.938	33	Maryland	0.495
10	Idaho	1.375	34	Wisconsin	0.477
11	Oklahoma	1.129	35	Delaware	0.469
12	Florida	1.102	36	Vermont	0.32
13	Minnesota	1.042	37	Louisiana	0.269
14	District of Columbia	1.04	38	North Dakota	0.257
15	Hawaii	1.008	39	Missouri	0.256
16	Washington	0.931	40	South Carolina	0.25
17	Rhode Island	0.903	41	Alabama	0.238
18	Nebraska	0.886	42	Maine	0.216
19	Kansas	0.816	43	New Hampshire	0.21
20	Virginia	0.797	44	Ohio	0.204
21	Massachusetts	0.77	45	Kentucky	0.202
22	Connecticut	0.74	46	Mississippi	0.1
23	Georgia	0.726	47	West Virginia	0.081
24	Montana	0.713			

Weighted average: 1.0 per 100 people

*Education Statistics -
Elementary & Secondary
LEP/ELL Students
(per capita) by State*

DEFINITION: This is the number of students served in appropriate programs of language assistance (e.g., English as a Second Language, High Intensity Language Training, bilingual education). The name of this field changed to English Language Learners (ELL) in the 2001-02 school year from Limited-English Proficient (LEP) used in prior school years. Per capita figures expressed per 100 population.

SOURCE: National Center for Educational Statistics via StateMaster.com.

Arizona ranks 6th in the nation for the number of English language learners per capita.⁵¹ Other border states – California, Texas, and New Mexico – are in the top five. Few reliable figures exist to indicate the impact of immigration on this statistic, but it undoubtedly has an effect.

Alternative Options: How Communities are Trying to Achieve School Success

We have seen that Arizona appears to be on its way with regard to the educational status of adult women. The number of college-educated women has increased over recent years, and it appears that even more young women are in the pipeline, on their way to a postsecondary degree. Less hopeful, though, are the numbers regarding high school graduation. Teen pregnancy is clearly a factor impeding Arizona girls' school success, and the struggle that all Arizona K-12 districts face in attempting to successfully educate students whose first language is not English is daunting. Highlighted below are two initiatives which address each of these issues.

Open Horizons: Supporting Teen Mothers for School Success

Open Horizons was established by the City of Tempe in response to a need identified by high school students at a Youth Town Hall. Open Horizons provides quality child care and parent support to adolescents attending school in the Tempe Union High School District.



A community-based partnership, the program is funded through donations from private citizens, churches, small businesses, civic organizations and corporations. Public child care subsidies offset a large portion of the cost, and student parents are responsible for a small portion of the cost of child care. In 1996, Open Horizons consolidated a total of three sites to one site at Broadmor Elementary School, and expanded its collaboration to include the Tempe Elementary School District and Arizona State University.⁵² The program's proponents point to their results in successfully graduating teen mothers who participate. Critics on local school boards have occasionally questioned whether the program and

others like it are somehow "endorsing" poor life choices. However, the program produces good outcomes for participants and their children and enjoys a long record of community support. The Arizona Coalition on Adolescent Pregnancy and Parenting endorses comprehensive school-based teenage pregnancy and parenting programs because teens involved in them are half as likely to drop out and six times less likely to have a repeat pregnancy.⁵³

The National Conference on State Legislatures (NCSL) reports that education initiatives on the 2002 ballots in two states to replace most bilingual education programs with a classroom technique called “sheltered English immersion” found success in Massachusetts and failure in Colorado. Both initiatives were authored and funded by California businessman Ron Unz. A similar initiative to curtail bilingual education programs was approved in Arizona in 2000 (Prop. 203), preceded by one in California in 1998. According to the NCSL, initiative proponents say they want children to learn English; they believe that bilingual education is an ineffective approach to English instruction. Advocates say that the limited “sheltered immersion” programs created by the initiatives should expedite the English language acquisition process and draw English-learners quickly into the educational mainstream. Opponents insist that they curtail parental choice and ignore research on child learning and language acquisition. Critics emphasize that the Colorado and Massachusetts initiatives leave educators vulnerable to lawsuits. In Colorado, for example, educators who are found in violation of the law can be sued or removed from teaching or holding public office for up to five years.⁵⁴



Arizona’s law requires that all public school instruction be conducted in English. It provides that children not fluent in English be placed in a one-year sheltered English immersion program to teach them the language as quickly as possible while allowing them to also learn other academic subjects in English. The law allows parents to request a waiver of these requirements for children who already know English, are more than 10 years old, or have special needs. Regarding enforcement, Arizona’s law is also strict: it permits initiative enforcement lawsuits by parents and guardians. It specifies that any school board member, elected official or administrator who “willfully and repeatedly” refuses to implement the terms of the statute

may be held personally liable for fees and actual and compensatory damages by the child’s parents or legal guardian.⁵⁵

Critics of the law abound and implementation was tied up in legal wrangling for years. Native Americans also complained that the initiative could thwart their attempts to preserve native languages. However, in 2004, the Arizona State Department of Education released data that they claim demonstrated that English Immersion had been a success, that test scores show that those in immersion outperformed the few children left in bilingual programs at all grade levels on a standardized test of reading, the SAT-9.⁵⁶ Many others disputed this finding, and the wisdom of English immersion continues to be debated locally and nationally.

CHAPTER FOUR

SOCIAL JUSTICE FOR WOMEN IN ARIZONA

Presented by

GENERAL DYNAMICS

ARIZONA IS

46TH

FOR TEEN BIRTHS TO GIRLS WHO ARE ALREADY MOTHERS

33RD

FOR AFFORDABILITY OF INFANT CHILD CARE

5TH

FOR AVERAGE NUMBER OF DEFICIENCIES PER NURSING FACILITY

6TH

FOR NUMBER OF WOMEN IN PRISON

What is social justice? It is a concept emerging from the notion that life ought to be fair. Social justice was described by John Stuart Mill as an ideal condition in which all members of a society have the same basic rights, security, opportunities, obligations and social benefits. In practical terms, social justice issues span the human services spectrum: poverty, teen pregnancy, domestic violence, and care for the elderly – to name just a few. The purpose in examining these seemingly disparate issues together here is an underlying premise that social injustice, especially gender inequality, is a contributing factor for nearly all these social ills.

Teen pregnancy is the single most often cited reason that girls drop out of high school. Particularly disturbing is the number of births to teens who have already had one child; Arizona has the 46th worst rate in the nation. Clearly, messages about pregnancy prevention are not yet reaching their targets to full effect.

Women are the victims in the vast majority of domestic and violence incidents, and Arizona is no exception. Recent studies indicate that Arizona law enforcement professionals still hold outdated and dangerous attitudes toward victims of domestic violence. Certainly additional training and a culture change within police officer ranks are overdue.

Women are most often responsible for the care of children and the elderly. Arizona is one of the least affordable places to obtain child care. With a system of long-term care that is less than ideal, and a lack of in-home services, responsibility for the care of aging spouses and other relatives falls especially hard on Arizona women.

As the number of female prison inmates in Arizona rises, so does the awareness that many, even most, women in prison were first crime victims themselves – suffering physical and sexual abuse as girls, then spiraling into substance abuse and crime themselves.

If gender inequity and discrimination are causal factors, then efforts to create a more just society will reap multiple benefits. If women's labor is valued fairly, fewer women will live in poverty. If crimes against women are taken seriously, then laws against domestic violence will be properly enforced. If men and women are equally responsible for the care of children and the elderly, society will demand high-quality and affordable systems of care. If girls are valued as individuals rather than objects, they will be more likely to speak out when they are abused. Society will begin to see early drug abuse, truancy, and delinquency as symptoms of a troubled upbringing, and connect girls (and boys) with the help they need, rather than abandoning them to a juvenile justice system, which often produces hardened criminals instead of recovered, productive citizens.

As we seek justice for women and girls, life in Arizona will get better – for all of us.

Not Going So Well: Repeat Teen Births

This report discussed teen pregnancy at length in the previous chapter with regard to its link with educational attainment, specifically high school graduation. This measure addresses births to young women who have already had at least one child as a teenager. It illustrates, painfully, how our social and educational systems have failed young women, and how far we have to go in preventing teen pregnancy.

State	Percent	Rank	State	Percent	Rank
Alabama	20.4%	36	Nebraska	18.3%	20
Alaska	17.9%	16	Nevada	23.1%	49
Arizona	22.1%	46	New Hampshire (lowest)	12.2%	1
Arkansas	20.6%	41	New Jersey	17.7%	14
California	18.6%	24	New Mexico	21.2%	44
Colorado	20.7%	43	New York	16.7%	11
Connecticut	15.4%	6	North Carolina	20.5%	37
Delaware	19.2%	29	North Dakota	15.3%	5
Florida	20.5%	37	Ohio	18.5%	23
Georgia	22.8%	47	Oklahoma	20.5%	37
Hawaii	15.7%	8	Oregon	19.2%	29
Idaho	19.6%	34	Pennsylvania	18.3%	20
Illinois	20.6%	41	Rhode Island	17.4%	12
Indiana	19.2%	29	South Carolina	20.1%	35
Iowa	15.9%	9	South Dakota	19.4%	32
Kansas	19.4%	32	Tennessee	20.5%	37
Kentucky	19.0%	28	Texas (highest)	23.8%	50
Louisiana	21.7%	45	Utah	18.7%	26
Maine	12.3%	2	Vermont	14.5%	3
Maryland	17.7%	14	Virginia	18.1%	19
Massachusetts	14.5%	3	Washington	17.9%	16
Michigan	18.9%	27	West Virginia	17.6%	13
Minnesota	16.0%	10	Wisconsin	17.9%	16
Mississippi	22.9%	48	Wyoming	15.6%	7
Missouri	18.6%	24	United States	19.9%	
Montana	18.3%	20			

DEFINITION: Births that were second or higher order births to mothers who were under the age of 20 at the time of the birth.

FOOTNOTE: Updated March 2006. Birth certificates that did not contain information on birth order were not included in this calculation. For more detail on all reporting issues refer to Definitions, Data Sources, and Reporting Issues for States at: http://stateleveldata.velir.com/stateleveldata/rs_state_def.jsp.

DATA SOURCE: Child Trends analysis of 1990-2003 Natality Data Set CD Series 21, numbers 2-9, 11-12, 14-16 (SETS versions), and 16H (ASCII version), National Center for Health Statistics.

SOURCE: Annie E. Casey Foundation/KidsCount

Almost all single mothers face major challenges in raising their children alone, and teen mothers are especially disadvantaged. They are more likely to have dropped out of school and are less likely to be able to support themselves. According to the Brookings Institution, only one out of every five teen mothers receives any support from their child's father, and about 80 percent end up on welfare. Once on welfare, they are likely to remain there for a long time. In fact, half of all current welfare recipients had their first child as a teenager.⁵⁷

Teen Births to Women Who are Already Mothers

Not Going Well: Affordability of Infant Child Care

Average Cost of Infant Care

Poverty overshadows nearly all of the topics gathered under the heading of “social justice.” Whether it is a cause or effect can be debated, but clearly those who struggle in our society struggle all the more when they have inadequate income to support their families. Work and self-sufficiency are key components to escaping the hardships of poverty, and a key support to working women is child care.

State	Average Annual Cost of Infant Care	State	Average Annual Cost of Infant Care
Minnesota	\$11,796	Ohio*	\$7,036
Massachusetts	\$13,480	Florida	\$6,342
California	\$9,691	Utah	\$5,873
New York	\$10,185	Alaska	\$7,860
Virginia	\$9,854	Kentucky	\$5,552
Illinois	\$9,449	Wyoming	\$5,914
Rhode Island	\$9,464	Kansas	\$5,873
Washington	\$9,048	Idaho*	\$5,100
Arizona	\$7,644	West Virginia*	\$4,853
Wisconsin	\$8,372	Texas*	\$5,386
Colorado	\$8,892	Louisiana	\$5,320
Maryland	\$10,314	Missouri	\$5,564
Pennsylvania	\$8,000	Montana	\$4,836
New Jersey	\$10,507	South Dakota	\$5,331
Maine	\$7,592	North Dakota	\$5,252
North Carolina	\$6,916	Nebraska	\$5,400
Michigan	\$7,936	Tennessee	\$4,942
Connecticut	\$10,390	Oklahoma*	\$4,695
Indiana	\$6,985	Delaware	\$6,215
New Mexico	\$5,996	Mississippi	\$4,368
Vermont	\$7,328	Georgia	\$4,878
New Hampshire	\$8,755	Arkansas	\$4,020
Hawaii	\$8,105	Nevada	\$4,200
Iowa	\$6,677	South Carolina	\$4,712
Oregon	\$6,600	Alabama	\$3,803

NOTE: *Costs of child care are based on the price of care in a licensed child care center. The information was provided by the State R&R Network, except where noted, in early 2005. Median Income for Single Parent Family is based on State Median Income for Single Female Householder with Children under Age 18, American Community Survey, 2004. Median Income for Two-Parent Family based on State Median Income for a Two-Parent Married Couple Family with Children Under Age 18, American Community Survey, 2004. Cost of infant and Pre-School Care is based on information provided by local CCR&R agencies in 2005.

SOURCE: National Association of Child Care Resource and Referral Agencies.

When child care is safe and of high quality, mothers can relax and focus on work, knowing their children are in good hands. Unfortunately, quality costs and government subsidies and preschool programs, such as Head Start, are available only to the poorest families. Licensing standards in Arizona provide for physical safety, but little else. Child care is the single largest expense for many working families. Among the 22 percent of working poor families headed by single mothers who paid for child care, 40 percent spent at least half of their cash income on child care, and another 25 percent spent 40 to 50 percent.⁵⁸ Among the 9 percent of working poor families headed by married couples that paid for child care, 23 percent spent more than half their cash income on child care, and another 21 percent spent between 40 and 50 percent.⁵⁹

Not Going Well: Nursing Homes with Deficiencies

Along with children, the elderly are particularly vulnerable. Not surprisingly, women most often have the primary responsibility for the care of elders in their family, whether for an aging parent, or an elderly spouse. Like child care, care for the elderly is expensive, and quality settings are hard to identify, let alone afford.

Rank	State	Average	Rank	State	Average
1	District of Columbia	14.6	27	Georgia	7.2
2	California	10.8	28	Texas	7.1
3	Hawaii	10.6	29	Indiana	7.0
4	Arkansas	10.4	29	Tennessee	7.0
5	Arizona	10.1	31	Missouri	6.8
5	Kansas	10.1	32	Washington	6.7
7	Idaho	9.9	33	Massachusetts	5.8
8	Delaware	9.7	34	Virginia	5.7
9	Alabama	9.6	35	Utah	5.6
10	Minnesota	9.5	36	Alaska	5.5
10	Wyoming	9.5	36	North Carolina	5.5
12	Nevada	9.4	38	North Dakota	5.4
13	Maine	9.3	38	Ohio	5.4
14	Colorado	9.2	38	Oregon	5.4
14	Vermont	9.2	41	Pennsylvania	5.2
16	Connecticut	9.0	42	Illinois	4.9
16	South Carolina	9.0	42	Kentucky	4.9
18	Michigan	8.8	44	New Jersey	4.7
19	West Virginia	8.7	45	Nebraska	4.6
20	Louisiana	8.6	45	South Dakota	4.6
21	Oklahoma	8.5	47	Iowa	4.5
22	Florida	8.4	47	New York	4.5
22	Maryland	8.4	49	Rhode Island	4.4
24	New Mexico	8.1	50	Mississippi	4.1
25	Montana	7.9	50	Wisconsin	4.1
26	New Hampshire	7.3		United States	7.1

*Average Number of
Deficiencies per Certified
Nursing Facility*

NOTES: Data are for calendar year 2005. For full details about the data and data collection, please refer to the report, "Nursing, Facilities, Staffing, Residents, and Facility Deficiencies, 1997 Through 2005," cited below.

DEFINITIONS: Deficiency: Given to nursing facilities for problems which can result in a negative impact on the health and safety of residents. The Centers for Medicare and Medicaid Services define "actual harm" as a "deficiency that results in a negative outcome that has negatively affected the resident's ability to achieve the individual's highest functional status." "Immediate jeopardy" is defined as a deficiency that "has caused (or is likely to cause) serious injury, harm, impairment, or death to a resident receiving care in the nursing home."

SOURCES: C. Harrington, H. Carrillo, C. Crawford, and C. LaCava. Table 33, "Nursing, Facilities, Staffing, Residents, and Facility Deficiencies, 1999 Through 2005," Department of Social and Behavioral Sciences, University of California, San Francisco, accessed December 2006. Available at <http://www.pascenter.org>. Based on the Online Survey, Certification, and Reporting system (OSCAR), Centers for Medicare and Medicaid Services, U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, Kaiser via statehealthfacts.org

*Medicare Beneficiaries
Receiving Home
Health Care Services*

State	Percent	Rank	State	Percent	Rank
Alabama	7.8	15	Montana	4.8	41
Alaska	3.7	50	Nebraska	5.0	40
Arizona	3.9	49	Nevada	5.5	34
Arkansas	6.7	26	New Hampshire	8.2	13
California	5.1	39	New Jersey	7.3	21
Colorado	5.5	34	New Mexico	5.4	37
Connecticut	9.8	5	New York	6.5	29
Delaware	7.5	18	North Carolina	7.5	18
District of Columbia	5.7	32	North Dakota	5.6	33
Florida	9.2	9	Ohio	6.7	26
Georgia	7.3	21	Oklahoma	9.7	6
Hawaii	1.9	51	Oregon	4.5	45
Idaho	5.9	30	Pennsylvania	7.4	20
Illinois	8.3	12	Rhode Island	6.9	25
Indiana	5.8	31	South Carolina	6.6	28
Iowa	4.6	43	South Dakota	4.0	48
Kansas	5.3	38	Tennessee	8.5	10
Kentucky	7.7	16	Texas	11.3	2
Louisiana	11.4	1	Utah	8.0	14
Maine	8.5	10	Vermont	11.0	3
Maryland	7.0	24	Virginia	7.6	17
Massachusetts	9.9	4	Washington	4.8	41
Michigan	9.6	8	West Virginia	5.5	34
Minnesota	4.1	47	Wisconsin	4.3	46
Mississippi	9.7	6	Wyoming	4.6	43
Missouri	7.2	23	United States	7.3	

SOURCE: Kaiser via statehealthfacts.org.

A Word on Caregivers



As one can see combining the above two measures, Arizona's elderly and the people who care about them are in a special bind. The availability of long-term care facilities is tight, with quality being a question. At the same time, our ranking with regard to Medicare beneficiaries receiving in-home services calls into question just how available these home- and community-based services are. When quality nursing-home care is unavailable and the resources for in-home care are scarce, the responsibility of care falls to family members, most often women. These women may be elderly themselves and are often putting their own health at risk by shouldering a burden of care that is much too heavy.

Stuck in the Middle

Not reflected in these numbers is the number of "sandwich generation" women – those raising their grandchildren while coping with their own aging issues, and those of an elderly or infirm relative. Arizona is 18th in the nation for the number of grandparents raising grandchildren, according to the AARP.⁶⁰

Another Sobering Statistic: Women in Prison

The Bureau of Justice Statistics reports that the number of Arizona women under the jurisdiction of State or Federal correctional authorities is 2,765. This puts Arizona at number 6 in the nation for the number of female prisoners. Only Texas, California, Georgia, Ohio, and New York are higher.

Number of Women in State or Federal Correctional Facilities

Rank	State	Amount	Rank	State	Amount
1	Texas	13,958	26	Idaho	647
2	California	11,188	27	Kansas	620
3	Georgia	3,436	28	New Mexico	581
4	Ohio	3,185	29	Florida	566
5	New York	2,789	30	Delaware	557
6	Arizona	2,765	31	Minnesota	544
7	Virginia	2,706	32	Utah	510
8	Missouri	2,507	33	Montana	473
9	Louisiana	2,386	34	West Virginia	459
10	Oklahoma	2,361	35	Alaska	397
11	Michigan	2,113	36	Nebraska	369
12	Tennessee	1,905	37	South Dakota	292
13	Indiana	1,892	38	Illinois	275
14	Pennsylvania	1,827	39	North Carolina	243
15	Mississippi	1,796	40	Wyoming	210
16	Alabama	1,748	41	Rhode Island	208
17	South Carolina	1,562	42	Kentucky	156
18	Connecticut	1,488	43	New Jersey	147
19	Wisconsin	1,387	44	Vermont	143
20	Oregon	985	45	Washington	133
21	Arkansas	962	46	North Dakota	129
22	Nevada	878	47	Maine	125
23	Iowa	757	48	New Hampshire	119
24	Massachusetts	741	49	Maryland	118
25	Hawaii	699	50	Colorado	19

DEFINITION: Women under the jurisdiction of State or Federal correctional authorities, by gender, year end 2004

SOURCE: Bureau of Justice Statistics via StateMaster.com

A Word on Women in Prison

Although male convicts outnumber women by a large margin, the rate of growth for women in prison is staggering. From 1977 to 2003, for instance, New York State's female prison population increased by approximately 500 percent.⁶¹ The consequences for female offenders and their families go far beyond incarceration. In terms of social services, a conviction and time in jail may mean disenfranchisement for life, bans on public housing, and bars against receiving government financial aid for education. A provision in the 1996 welfare reform law mandates a lifetime ban on welfare and food stamps for drug offenders.

In an article published in *The Nation*, Tamar Kraft-Stolar, director of the Correctional Association of New York's Women in Prison Project, says: "Most women who commit minor crimes are perfect for diversion to alternatives to incarceration, such as treatment programs and counseling. Locking women up also has an especially deleterious effect on society, since about 75 percent of women inmates are mothers and their children's primary caregivers." This results in children being shuffled around to relatives or put into the foster care system, which wreaks havoc on a child's development, not to mention the additional taxpayer costs incurred.⁶²



A Problem Without a Ranking: Domestic Violence

According to the National Coalition Against Domestic Violence, one in four women will experience domestic violence in her lifetime. The Coalition reports that, in 2001, 20 percent of violent crime against women was intimate partner violence, (compared with 3 percent of violent crime against men), and that marital rape accounts for 25 percent of all rapes, affecting over 75,000 women each year.⁶³



Also in 2000, according to the coalition, 1,247 women were killed by an intimate partner; this represents 32 percent of all murders of females (1999 data). The costs of intimate partner violence annually exceeds \$5.8 billion, including \$4.1 billion in direct health care expenses, \$900 million in lost productivity, and \$900 million in lifetime earnings. Domestic violence has been estimated to cost employers in the United States anywhere from \$3-13 billion each year.⁶⁴

Public Policy History

Domestic violence has been considered a public policy issue since at least the 16th century. However, it was not until 1900 that states imposed specific penalties for wife abusers (Maryland, Delaware, and Oregon).⁶⁵ A federal law was considered by the U.S. Congress in 1906, but ultimately rejected, and it took nine decades before the Congress finally passed the first federal law, the Violence Against Women Act (VAWA) in 1994.⁶⁶ Public awareness, especially in the last 10 years, has risen dramatically. People realize that violence anywhere, even in the home, is not a private matter – it is a crime. National public policy mirrors this change in attitude: The 1994 Violence Against Women Act was landmark legislation, and allowed the federal government to assist states in many ways:

VAWA funding allowed states to hire more prosecutors. VAWA quadrupled the resources for battered women’s shelters. It created the national toll-free domestic violence hotline (1-800-799-SAFE). The act expanded efforts to raise awareness of domestic violence in the workplace and among healthcare providers.



Hard to Rank Arizona

Though the Bureau of Justice Statistics maintains data on crime victims, there are no national rankings and few bases of comparison because intimate partner violence laws vary from jurisdiction to jurisdiction, as do the reporting practices of local law enforcement authorities. We do know that Arizona has a serious problem with domestic violence. It was only two years ago that our state legislature passed a measure to punish the rape of a spouse as severely as the rape of a stranger. Even when the “right” laws are on the books, the response of the civil and criminal justice systems often differs depending on the status of the victim – in other words, you can do to a spouse, a child or an intimate partner, what you can’t do to a stranger.

Shelter – The Most Pressing Problem

In Arizona, two out of every three women who seek shelter will be turned away.⁶⁷ As a public safety issue, the lack of shelter for women in Arizona fleeing abuse is truly tragic. In 2006, a Maricopa Association of Governments study quantified the size of the need (325 shelter beds for Arizona’s largest county). Inability to accurately quantify the unmet need had stymied previous efforts toward full funding – once the size of the problem could be verified (approximately 375 beds are needed statewide), the advocacy community was galvanized and fought for full funding for domestic violence shelter. The Governor proposed a 4-year plan to fully fund the system, and the legislature responded with first-year funding. Beyond shelter, victims most often need employment and legal assistance, and ultimately sustainable housing.

Law Enforcement Attitudes Need Work

Society's attitudes toward "private matters" and a woman's sense of shame often means she waits until her situation becomes desperate before she seeks help. Even then, it may take many incidents and separations before she finally musters the will to leave for good. When an intimate partner threatens a woman, she relies on law enforcement for help. A recent study by the Morrison Institute indicates that, though law enforcement officers understand and enforce domestic violence laws, they still hold outdated attitudes about victims and the reasons they may stay in, or return to, abusive situations. "Layers of Meaning: Domestic Violence and Law Enforcement Attitudes in Arizona" documents the attitudes of law enforcement officers and provided an in-depth, statewide exploration of their outlooks. The City of Phoenix Police Department quickly followed up with the development of an innovative online training program for its officers – "DV101," which uses videos and interactive learning to provide depth and understanding to officers dealing with the criminal justice aspect of this pressing social problem. The community eagerly anticipates much success from this effort.

Alternative Options: Helping Parents With the Cost of Care

Arizona struggles, as all states do, to maintain an adequate social safety net so that the most needy among us can become independent and productive citizens. Welfare reform, Medicare changes, new drug treatment initiatives, all seek to reduce social ills. One potential solution for working parents is described below.



Tax Credits to Offset the High Cost of Child Care

Quality Matters

Most every parent can find child care, but what kind? Every parent wants a nurturing and stimulating environment for his or her children. Federal groups such as the National Association for the Education of Young Children (NAEYC) accredit preschools, but their process is lengthy and many child care centers catering to moderate- and low-income families cannot afford the kind of physical facilities, curriculum and specially trained staff that accrediting organizations require. To provide them, they would have to charge families more. As we have examined in this report, families struggle to pay for child care at all, let alone a high-quality learning environment that prepares their children for school.

Can Tax Credits Help?

Arizona ranks among the 14 worst in the nation when it comes to providing tax assistance to help working families meet the high costs of caring for children, according to a study released in April by the National Women's Law Center. "Paying for child or dependent care can take a huge bite out of a family's budget," said Nancy Duff Campbell, a lead author of the report, quoted in a press release from the Center. "A state child- and dependent-care tax credit would help offset the high costs of care and would allow struggling Arizona residents to continue to work and support their families," she said. Currently there are no local initiatives to enact a child- and dependent-care tax credit.

CHAPTER FIVE

WOMEN'S POLITICAL PARTICIPATION IN ARIZONA

Presented by

STEPTOE AND JOHNSON, LLP

ARIZONA IS

47TH

FOR WOMEN'S VOTER REGISTRATION

50TH

FOR WOMEN'S VOTER TURNOUT

10TH

FOR WOMEN IN ELECTED OFFICE

Perhaps no right is more important on the road to equality than the right to vote. So much of our response to social issues as a nation is funneled through the political process. Legislation at the state and local level has garnered family leave, anti-discrimination laws, funding for women's health research...the list is endless. Through the political process, we can express our values and priorities and effect social change at every level.

The juxtapositions in Arizona's political landscape could not be starker. Arizona has a storied history of early voting and office holding by women, going back to the pioneer days prior to statehood. This happy trend continues today as Arizona is near the top of the heap, at number 10, for women in elected office. At the same time, political participation among voters in Arizona is low. Arizona is near at the bottom, in female voter registration. Even worse is the number of Arizona women actually going to the polls; our voter turnout is nearly the lowest in the nation.

Though nationally women "got the vote" in 1920, the history of women's suffrage actually begins late in the 18th century, with women *losing* the right to vote in several states where they had previously held it. According to the Women's History Project of Lexington Area National Organization for Women, women lost the vote first in New York, Massachusetts, and New Hampshire. After a Constitutional Convention that gave the right to determine voting qualifications to the states, women in every state soon lost the right to vote. Despite progress on slavery and suffrage for African Americans, Congress failed to include women in the grant of voting rights in the 15th Amendment. Then, slowly, the tide turned, and western states began granting women the right to vote: Idaho, Washington, and California granted suffrage in this period, followed by Oregon, Kansas, and Arizona in 1912. Several states followed, but it is not until 1920 that the 19th Amendment is ratified, assuring every woman in America the right to vote, though minority voters of both genders continued to encounter barriers to voting across the nation.

Despite our early progress, many Arizona women are not exercising their hard-won right to vote. According to the Institute for Women's Policy Research, in 1998 and 2000, 54.2 percent of Arizona women were registered to vote, placing Arizona at 47th among the states. Lower still is the number of women actually voting: in 1998 and 2000, 41.3 percent voted – pushing Arizona almost to the bottom, at number 50 out of 51. One possible explanation may lie in Arizona's racial demographics. Due perhaps to institutional barriers, minority voters historically register and vote in lower numbers than white voters. A Scripps Howard study found voter participation tends to decline in areas that have high degrees of poverty and relatively large numbers of foreign-born immigrants. Yet there is no simple answer. In Arizona, 53 percent of the residents of eligible age in Greenlee County voted in 2000, compared with only 26 percent of the people in Yuma County. Overall, Arizona has low voter turnout among men *and* women, tying with Hawaii for last place in the most recent election. The one positive note is that there seem to be no specific barriers to women voting. For Arizona to improve female voter registration and turnout, it's going to have to turn around voting behavior for all.

What's Going Well: Women in Elected Office

Arizona is in the top 10 states in the country for women in elected office. Arizona has a female executive, in the person of Governor Janet Napolitano, who is serving her second term. In 1993, President Clinton nominated her to serve as United States Attorney for the District of Arizona. In 1998, Arizona voters elected her Attorney General. Janet Napolitano was the first woman to hold this position.

Napolitano was preceded by another woman, former legislator, Speaker of the House and Secretary of State Jane Hull. Hull's political career began in 1965 as Republican precinct committeeman and deputy registrar.

In 1978, Hull was elected to the Arizona House of Representatives, serving until 1993. Her legislative career included several committee chairmanships and leadership positions, which included a term as Majority Whip and two terms as Speaker of the House from 1989 to 1992. In 1993, Hull resigned her House seat to run a successful campaign for Secretary of State. Jane Dee Hull became the twentieth Governor of the State of Arizona on September 5, 1997, ascending to the Governorship upon the criminal conviction of then-Governor Fife Symington, serving the remainder of his term. She was elected in 1998 to serve a second term, a historic first for Arizona, as she was the first female governor to be elected in her own right. Rose Mofford helped pave the way for both Hull and Napolitano. In 1977, Governor Bolin appointed Mofford Secretary of State. She was elected Secretary of State in 1978 and 1982, and ran unopposed in 1986. Ms. Mofford was one of the first women in any state to be elected Secretary of State. As Secretary of State, she was first in the line of succession for the Governor's position, and replaced Evan Mecham, who was impeached and removed from office in 1988.⁶⁸

The "Fab Five"

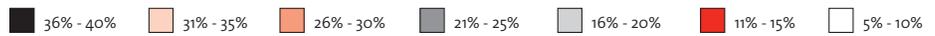
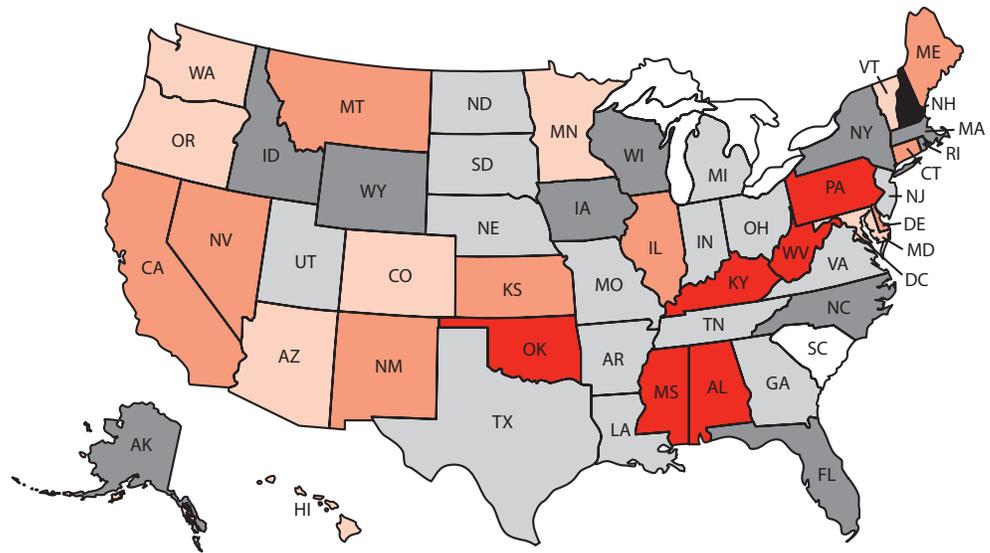
The 1998 election was notable in the history of women in politics in Arizona for another reason. Arizona became a political trailblazer by installing women in its top five elected posts – a first among the 50 states.⁶⁹ Arizona made national news when, in addition to Hull, Arizona voters elected four other women to statewide office. Secretary of State Betsey Bayless, Attorney General Janet Napolitano, Superintendent of Public Instruction Lisa Graham Keegan and State Treasurer Carol Springer, were all elected along with Hull. Justice Sandra Day O'Connor, an Arizonan who became the first woman on the U.S. Supreme Court, swore them in.

Also Going Well: Women in the State Legislature

Arizona is in the top third of the country, in terms of female representation in the state legislature.⁷⁰

With 13 out of 30 members in the State Senate, and 18 out of 60 members in the House, women certainly have a voice in Arizona state government.

*Percent of Women
in State Legislatures
(2007)*



Source: The National Conference of State Legislatures

Congress

According to the Arizona Political Women's Caucus, in 2006, women held 81 of the 535 seats in the 109th U.S. Congress. The Senate had 14 women members, and the House, 67. Of the 81 women serving, 20 were women of color (12 African Americans, 7 Latinas, 1 Asian American); 52 were Democrats; 29 were Republicans. Of the 67 women in the House, 51 held previous elective office, ranging from school board member to statewide office.

Less than 2 percent (225) of the people who have ever served in Congress have been women. Rep. Nancy Pelosi (D-CA), former House Democratic Leader, and now Speaker of the House, is the highest-ranking woman ever to serve in Congress.

In 2006, twenty-four states, including Arizona had no female representation in the House. At that time, five states had never sent a woman to Congress at all. Arizona has sent three women to the House: Isabella Selmes Greenway (D) 1933-36, Karan English (D) 1992-04, and most recently, Gabrielle Giffords (D), who began her first term in 2007.⁷¹

At the State Level

Nationally, women hold 78 of the 315 (24.8 percent) statewide elective executive positions. Eight women, including Janet Napolitano, serve as governors of their states. Fifteen serve as lieutenant governors; three serve as attorneys general; twelve as secretaries of state, including Jan Brewer; eight as treasurers; and ten as chief education officials. Of the nation's 7,382 state legislators, 1,686 are women.⁷² 1,061 are Democrats, 609 are Republicans, and 16 affiliated outside the two parties. 331 are women of color. Maryland ranks first in the percentage of women legislators at 35.6 percent. South Carolina ranks last at 8.2 percent. Only three women serve as presidents of state senates; two serve as speakers of state houses.⁷³ Arizona is tied with three other states for third place in the percentage of women legislators (34.4 percent). Women hold 31 of the 90 legislative seats (13 out of 30 in the Senate; 18 out of 60 in the House).

At the Local Level

As of January 2006, mayors of 12 of the 100 largest U.S. cities were women. Arizona has two, Elaine Scruggs of Glendale and Mary Manross of Scottsdale. Of the 243 mayors of cities with over 100,000 residents, 35 (14.4 percent) were women. Women comprised 197, or 17.3 percent, of the 1,137 mayors of cities over 30,000, including Joan Shafer of Surprise and Diane Vick of Bullhead City. Mayors of cities under 30,000 included Monica Gates of Kingman, Guillermina Fuentes of San Luis and Wendy Feldman-Kerr of Queen Creek.⁷⁴

Not Going Well: Voter Registration

Arizona's voter registration numbers for 1998 and 2000 (the latest years available) came in at 54.2 percent, ranking Arizona 47th in the nation, according to the Institute for Women's Policy Research (IWPR) Political Participation index of 2004, updated for 2006. Nationally, women register and vote slightly more often than men.⁷⁵ Women voters have constituted a majority of voters since 1964.

Arizona is no exception to this rule; however, Arizona has a much lower voter turnout than the nation overall, for men and women. Arizona's ranking is near the bottom in the nation for women's voting, at 47th. This is doubly disappointing, as Arizona's ranking has dropped since 2000 when the percentage of women registered to vote ranked Arizona at 38th in the nation.

Also Not Going Well: Voter Turnout



Women are not registering to vote in great numbers in Arizona, and it appears that they are even less likely to vote. Voter turnout in 1998 and 2000 showed that 41.4 percent of Arizona women voted, putting Arizona at 50th in the nation, out of 51.

This is also a decline from the IWPR 2000 rankings, which put Arizona at 36th in the nation for voter turnout.

As we have seen in the preceding, though Arizona's voter turnout for women is low, Arizona general voter turnout is also low, in proportion to the rest of the country. With that said, it should be noted that voting turnout overall for the United States is low, compared to democracies elsewhere in the world. Only about 44.9 percent of Americans voted in national elections, both presidential and congressional, during the 1990s, according to a survey by the International Institute for Democracy and Electoral Assistance, a Stockholm-based organization that analyzes global voter turnout. By comparison, the island nation of Malta led the world, with an average of 96.7 percent casting ballots, and Italy led Europe with 90.2 percent participation.⁷⁶

Registration Difficult

Experts believe that because registration in the United States is voluntary and often difficult or inconvenient, citizens here register in lower numbers than in other nations.⁷⁷

Weekday Voting a Problem

The U.S. tradition of holding elections on a weekday may also be a factor. Of 86 countries considered to be democracies that hold their election on one single day, almost half held their latest election on a Sunday. Saturday and Monday were the second most frequent days around the world, while the United States holds its elections on Tuesdays.⁷⁸

Single-Day Voting May Hurt as Well

About 10 percent of the democracies in the world practice several-day polling for at least some of their elections. Other countries, like Australia and Belgium, have more than 80 percent participation, but voting there is mandatory. The United States also asks its citizens to vote more often than nearly all other countries, experts say.⁷⁹ The only European country with lower turnout – Switzerland, with an average of 37.7 percent participation over the last 10 years – also had more elections, with an election or referendum about six or seven times a year.⁸⁰

Reforms

Whether the United States moves its elections to weekends, or holds elections over several days, seems a long way off. However, several states have experimented with same-day registration and vote-by-mail. Thirty states allow absentee ballots to be cast for any reason, with mixed results. Ballots arriving early must be kept secret, and are more cumbersome to count, meaning that election results increasingly are not available on election night, as Americans have grown accustomed to. States likely will continue to struggle, and voter turnout is likely to be an issue, for men and women, for the foreseeable future.

Alternative Options

Though Arizona ranks very high in the number of female elected officials, we can see from our other rankings across the measures in this report that this fact somehow does not translate uniformly into government policies which allow all Arizona women to enjoy good health, comfortably support their families, live in safety and dignity, and engage meaningfully in our democracy at the grassroots level. However, several individuals and organizations appear to be operating under the theory that Arizona should build upon its successes. WISH and EMILY's List are two organizations that are working in Arizona and nationally to post winning candidates at every level. In addition, several individuals are working to form a Women's Caucus at the Arizona State Legislature.

EMILY's List

EMILY is an acronym for "Early Money Is Like Yeast" (it helps the dough rise). When EMILY's List was founded, its founders believed that early money made women credible candidates and gave them the best shot at winning. That is still their organization's goal: to help elect pro-choice Democratic women.⁸¹ According to their Web site, EMILY's List is the nation's largest grassroots political network, and is "dedicated to taking back our country from the radical right wing by electing pro-choice Democratic women to federal, state, and local office." They have a network of more than 100,000 volunteers committed to recruiting and funding viable women candidates; helping them build and run effective campaign organizations; training the next generation of activists; and mobilizing women voters to help elect progressive candidates across the nation. In Arizona, EMILY's List includes over 1,900 members. Their latest Arizona success was successfully boosting former state legislator Gabrielle Giffords in her bid for Arizona's 8th Congressional District.

WISH

The WISH List was founded in 1992 by "a forward-thinking group of Republicans determined to transform America's political landscape."⁸² The WISH acronym stands for "Women In the Senate and House." According to their Web site, WISH looks for intelligent candidates at the local, state and federal levels who confront today's issues with a fresh perspective and a solid belief in core Republican principles, which they articulate as: individual freedoms and responsibilities, a sound economy, limited government, healthy communities, an educated citizenry, and a strong and secure nation. In 1993, the WISH List helped Christine Todd Whitman win election as the first woman governor in New Jersey history. Four years later, in 1997, WISH again played a critical role in Governor Whitman's re-election, a victory that made her the first Republican woman in the nation to be re-elected governor.⁸³ Locally, the Arizona branch of WISH periodically runs a "campaign college," recruiting and training candidates for state office. Among their recent successes is Michele Regan, State Representative for District 8.

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- 3 See Note 1
- 4 See Note 1
- 5 <http://www.azdhs.gov/phs/owch/healthstart.htm>
- 6 <http://www.azdhs.gov/phs/owch/cpbg.htm>
- 7 <http://www.unitedhealthfoundation.org/shr2004/states/Arizona.html>
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- 24 <http://www.womensmedia.com/new/Lips-Hilary-gender-wage-gap.shtml>
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- 26 <http://www.infoplease.com/ipa/A0763170.html>
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- 30 See Note 24
- 31 See Note 24
- 32 See Note 24
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- 39 <http://www.azcentral.com/news/articles/1229biz-minwage1229blomo.html>
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- 41 <http://www.sfgate.com/cgi-bin/article.cgi?f=/c/a/2005/09/15/BUG8OENLE61.DTL>
- 42 <http://www.dol.gov>
- 43 See Note 42
- 44 "Teens who are high school dropouts: Percent: 2005, Annie E. Casey Foundation *KidsCount Data Book*.
- 45 "The School Connection to Teen Pregnancy", *The Arizona Adolescent Pregnancy and Parenting*, April 2003.
- 46 "Teens who are high school dropouts: Percent: 2003, Annie E. Casey Foundation *Kids Count Data Book*.
- 47 Blum, R., Rhinehart, P. (1998) *Reducing the Risk: Connections That Make a Difference in the Lives of Youth*.
- 48 "The School Connection to Teen Pregnancy", *The Arizona Adolescent Pregnancy and Parenting*, April 2003.
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53 The School Connection to Teen Pregnancy", The Arizona Adolescent Pregnancy and Parenting, April 2003
54 "The English Only for the Children" Ballot Initiatives, National Conference of State Legislatures, Bilingual Education, www.ncsl.org
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APPENDIX

THE ECONOMIC STATUS OF WOMEN IN ARIZONA

By Erica Williams and Olga Sorokina

Institute for Women's Policy Research

Commissioned by the Arizona Foundation for Women

INTRODUCTION

Women have made tremendous gains toward economic equality during the last several decades. Nonetheless, women throughout the United States still 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 1995 and 2005, women would not achieve wage parity for nearly 50 years.¹

Women of color are particularly disadvantaged in the United 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.

The economic status of all women is intimately linked to women's well-being in other areas of life. For example, a woman's earnings, access to health insurance, and likelihood of poverty may affect her ability to provide a decent quality of life for her family, to maintain her and her family's health, or to move out of a violent or abusive relationship.

The economic status of women is also critical to the success and growth of every state and the entire country. When women can contribute as full and equal participants in society, they enable cities, states, and the nation as a whole to achieve their full social and economic potential.

This briefing paper on the *Economic Status of Women in Arizona* assesses women's economic status in the state, in comparison with women in other states and with women nationally. The paper highlights what is most promising and disappointing about women's economic progress in Arizona and outlines recommendations for policy change that would benefit women in the state.

OVERVIEW

While Arizona's women, like all women in the United States, have witnessed real improvements in their economic and social status, barriers to their economic equality remain embedded in the state's social and economic fabric. Nationally, Arizona ranks above average for women's employment and earnings, at 17th, and below average for their social and economic autonomy, at 33rd (see Table 1; for more information about the methodology for the composite indices see Appendix I). These rankings place Arizona in the middle third of all states for employment and earnings and just above the bottom third for social and economic autonomy (Maps 1 and 2).

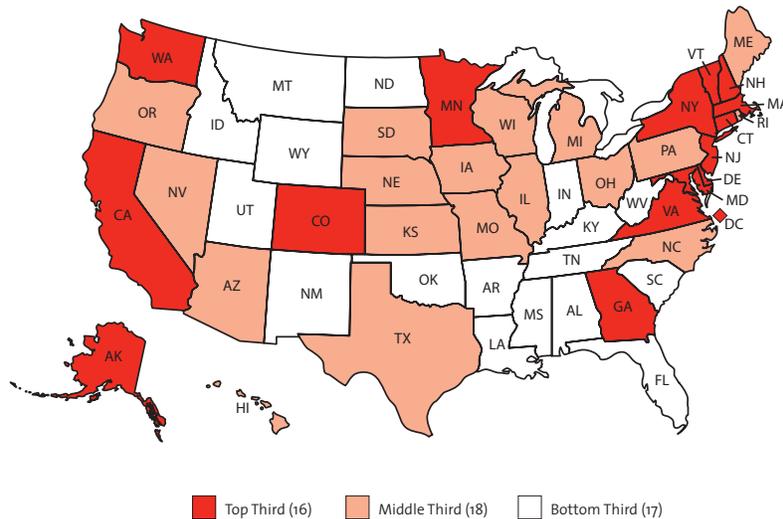
¹) This figure was calculated by taking the average yearly percent change in the wage ratio between 1995 and 2005 and calculating how many years it would take for that percent change to bring the ratio to 100 percent (Institute for Women's Policy Research 2006a).

	National Rank*	Regional Rank*	Grade
Composite Employment and Earnings	17	2	C+
Women's Median Annual Earnings, 2005 ^a (\$32,000)	16	2	
Ratio of Women's to Men's Earnings, 2005 ^a (83.8%)	2	1	
Labor Force Participation, 2004 ^b (57.4%)	42	8	
Percent in Managerial/Professional Occupations, 2002 ^c (32.9%)	27	2	
Composite Social and Economic Autonomy Index	33	3	D+
Percent of Women with Health Insurance, 2005 ^a (78.6%)	42	6	
Percent of Women 25 and Older with a Four-Year College Degree or More, 2005 ^a (25.2%)	26	3	
Women's Business Ownership, 2002 ^d (28.8%)	14	3	
Percent of Women Above the Poverty Line, 2005 ^a (85.7%)	37	6	

Notes: *The national rankings are of a possible 51, referring to the 50 states and the District of Columbia. The regional rankings are a maximum of 8 and refer to the states in the Mountain West region (AZ, CO, ID, MT, NM, UT, NV, and WY).

Source: a) Institute for Women's Policy Research 2006b; b) U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics 2006a; c) U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics 2004; d) U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census 2006b

Calculated by the Institute for Women's Policy Research.

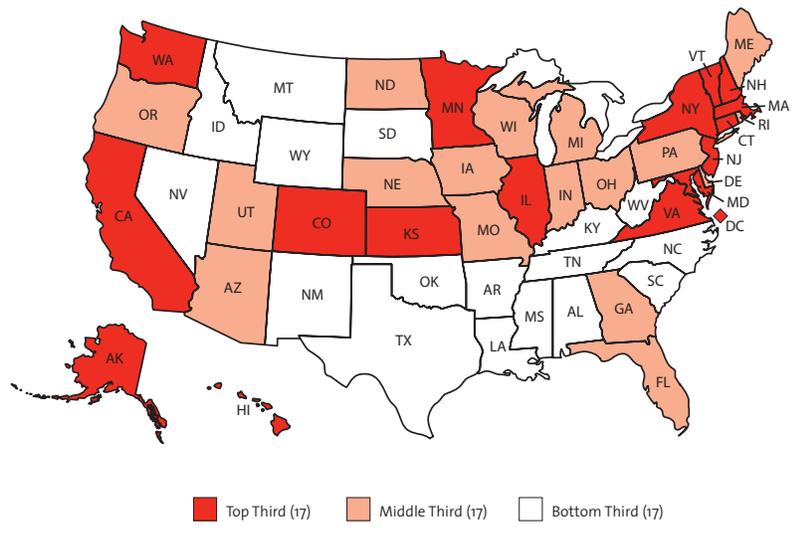


Note: For methodology and sources, see Appendix I.
 Source: Institute for Women's Policy Research 2006.
 Calculated by the Institute for Women's Policy Research.

TABLE 1:
 Overview of the
 Economic Status of
 Women in Arizona

MAP 1:
 Employment and
 Earnings Composite

MAP 2:
Social and Economic
Autonomy Composite



Note: For methodology and sources, see Appendix I.
Source: Institute for Women's Policy Research 2006b.
Calculated by the Institute for Women's Policy Research.

Arizona joins Colorado, Idaho, Montana, Nevada, New Mexico, Utah, and Wyoming as part of the Mountain West region. Among these eight states, Arizona ranks highly. It is 2nd in the region for employment and earnings and 3rd in the region for social and economic autonomy.

In Arizona, disparities along racial and ethnic lines impede women's economic progress. Women of color who work full-time, year-round earn less than white women and have larger wage gaps with white men. African American, Native American, and Hispanic women are all less likely to be in managerial or professional occupations than white and Asian American women. Additionally, Arizona's women of color are much less likely to have health insurance and much more likely to be poor than white women in the state.

	White, Non-Hispanic Women	African American Women	Asian American Women	Native American Women	Hispanic Women
Employment and Earnings					
Median Annual Earnings (for full-time, year-round employed women), 2005 ^a	\$36,400	\$30,300	\$33,700	N/A	\$24,200
Earnings Ratio Between Women and White Men, 2005 ^a	77.4%	64.5%	71.7%	N/A	51.5%
Women's Labor Force Participation, 2005 ^b	55.6%	60.3%	57.4%	50.7%	56.2%
Women in Managerial and Professional Occupations, 2005 ^c	41.9%	34.1%	42.1%	35.7%	21.0%
Social and Economic Autonomy					
Percent of Women with a College Education, 2005 ^d	28.6%	N/A	44.1%	N/A	8.1%
Percent of Women Above the Poverty Level, 2005 ^e	90.7%	77.5%	88.6%	65.0%	77.5%
Percent of Women with Health Insurance, 2005 ^f	86.1%	78.6%	75.7%	N/A	63.4%

Notes: N/A = Not Available.

Hispanics may be of any race or two or more races. Racial categories (Whites, African Americans, Asian Americans, and Native Americans) do not include Hispanics. Data for women's business ownership are not available by race and ethnicity.

Source: a) U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census 2006c; b) U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census 2006d; c) U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census 2006e; d) U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census 2006f; e) U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census 2006g; f) Institute for Women's Policy Research 2006b. Compiled by the Institute for Women's Policy Research.

TABLE 2:
*Overview of the
Economic Status
of Women of
Color in Arizona*

With below average rankings on many indicators—and large disparities by race and ethnicity—Arizona's women face significant challenges that demand attention from policymakers, advocates, and researchers.

Women in Arizona: What's Promising

- Arizona ranks 2nd in the nation and 1st in the Mountain West region for the ratio of women's to men's median annual earnings.
- White, African American, Asian American, and Native American women are more likely to be in managerial and professional occupations in Arizona than their national counterparts.
- Arizona ranks high among all states (14th) and in the Mountain West region (3rd) for the proportion of businesses owned by women.

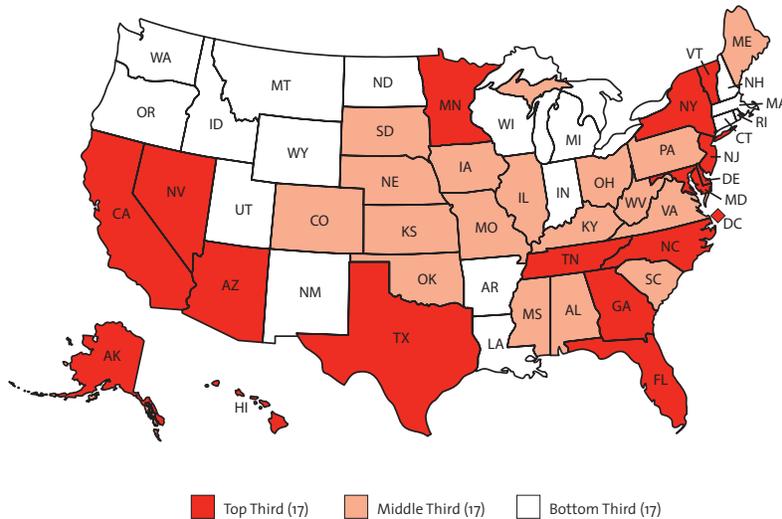
Women in Arizona: What's Disappointing

- Arizona ranks in the bottom ten states on two of eight indicators of women's economic status: women's labor force participation (42nd) and women's health insurance coverage (42nd).
- It ranks in the bottom half of states on three others: the proportion of women 25 and older with a college degree or more (26th), the proportion of women in managerial and professional occupations (27th), and the percent of women above the poverty line (37th).
- Hispanic women in Arizona, who make up nearly 30 percent of the female population, are far less likely to hold a four-year college degree or more, to have health insurance, and to be in managerial or professional occupations than other women in the state.

EMPLOYMENT AND EARNINGS

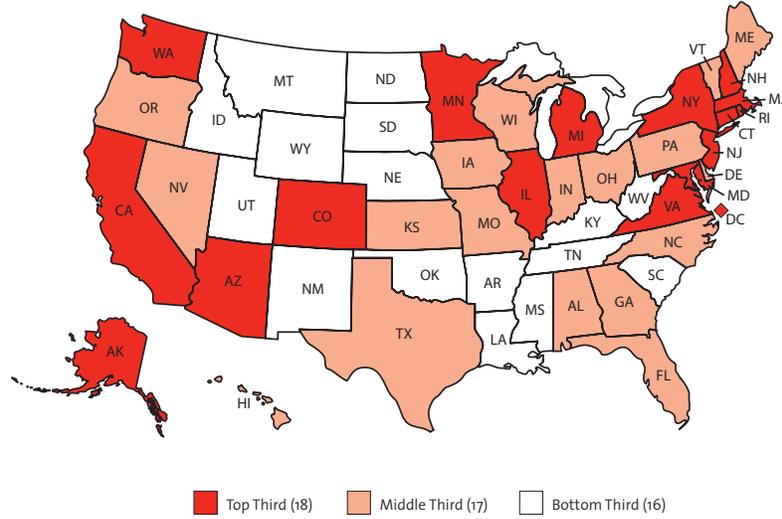
Women in Arizona rank 17th overall on the employment and earnings composite index, earning the state a grade of C+ on this measure of women's economic status (Table 1). Arizona ranks in the top ten for its ratio of women's to men's earnings, at 2nd in the nation, and in the top third of all states for women's median annual earnings, at 16th (Maps 3 and 4). The state is in the middle third for the percent of women in managerial and professional occupations, at 27th in the nation, and in the bottom tenth for women's labor force participation, at 42nd (Maps 5 and 6). These four indicators reflect women's ability to enter and secure equal standing in the labor market.

Arizona's rankings in the bottom half of states for women's labor force participation and the proportion of women in managerial and professional occupations indicate that Arizona women continue to face barriers to employment and good-paying jobs. Its higher ranking for the ratio of women's earnings to men's suggests that the state has made some strides toward gender equality.



Note: Ratio of median annual earnings between women and men aged 16 and older who work full-time, year-round, 2003-2005.
 Source: Institute for Women's Policy Research 2006b.
 Calculated by the Institute for Women's Policy Research.

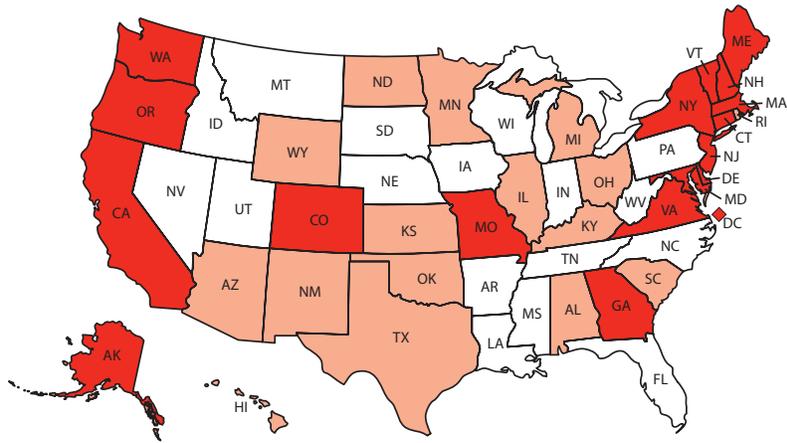
MAP 3:
 Earnings Ratio
 Between Employed
 Women and Men



Note: Median annual earnings for full-time, year-round workers aged 16 and older, 2003-2005.
 Source: Institute for Women's Policy Research 2006b.
 Calculated by the Institute for Women's Policy Research.

MAP 4:
 Women's Median
 Annual Earnings

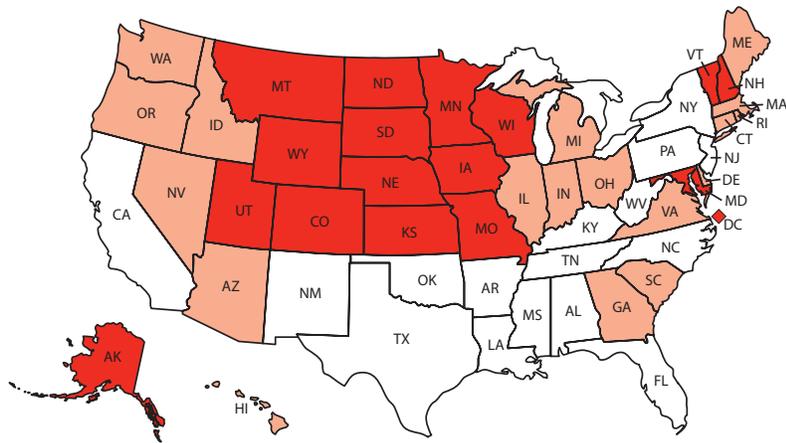
MAP 5:
Women in
Professional
and Managerial
Occupations



■ Top Third (17) ■ Middle Third (17) □ Bottom Third (17)

Note: Percent of all women workers aged 16 and older who are employed in managerial or professional specialty occupations, 2002.
Source: US Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2004.
Compiled by the Institute for Women's Policy Research.

MAP 6:
Women's Labor
Force Participation



■ Top Third (17) ■ Middle Third (17) □ Bottom Third (17)

Note: Labor force participation for the civilian non-institutionalized population aged 16 and older, 2004.
Source: US Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2006a.
Compiled by the Institute for Women's Policy Research.

Women's Earnings in Arizona

Earnings are the largest source of income for most families, and for dual-earner and single-parent families, women's earnings are crucial to economic well-being. In fact, over the years, women's earnings have become increasingly important to families' financial status, often helping to keep them above 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). Despite the importance of women's earnings to family well-being, women continue to earn less on average than men in every state in the nation.

Arizona women working full-time, year-round earned slightly more than women in the United States as a whole in 2005, at \$32,000 compared with \$31,800 (Table 1).² Their earnings are far lower than those of women in the District of Columbia (\$42,400) and Maryland (\$39,300), which rank first and second in the nation, but much higher than the earnings of women in Arkansas and Montana (\$24,800), which tied for last place (see Appendix III). Arizona ranks 2nd in the Mountain West region for women's earnings, behind Colorado, where women earned \$34,000 per year.

Women of color in the state have lower earnings than white women. In 2005, white women's median annual earnings were \$36,400.³ Asian American, African American, and Hispanic women's median annual earnings fell below that level at \$33,700, \$30,300, and \$24,200 per year, respectively (see Table 2). As shown in Figure 1, white women and African American women in Arizona earned more than their national counterparts in 2005. Asian American women earned much less in Arizona than nationally, while Hispanic women in Arizona earned slightly less than they did nationally.

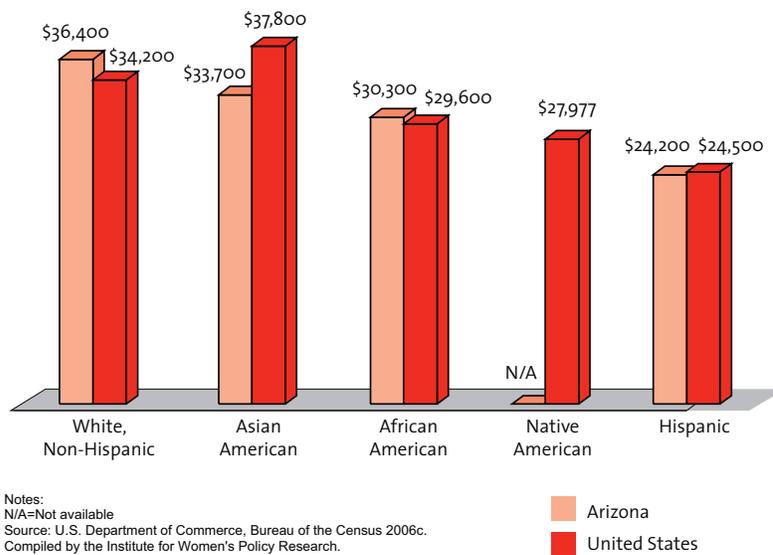


FIGURE 1:
 Women's Median Annual
 Earnings for Full-Time/Year
 Round Work in Arizona, by
 Race and Ethnicity, 2005,
 American Community
 Survey.

2) Data used to rank and grade the states for women's earnings and the wage ratio, health insurance coverage, educational attainment, and poverty levels come from the Current Population Survey of the Bureau of Labor Statistics (BLS). In order to allow for cross-state comparisons with the Current Population Survey, IWPR merged three years of survey data referencing the years 2003-2005. Data used to rank and grade the states for women's labor force participation and women in managerial and professional occupations come from the BLS' 2004 and 2002 Geographic Profile of Employment and Unemployment. Data for women's business ownership come from the Census Bureau's 2002 Economic Census. See Appendix I for more on data sources and methodology.

3) With the exception of data on health insurance coverage, data disaggregated by race and ethnicity come from the Census Bureau's American Community Survey. These data differ from the data used to rank and grade the states. They are also not comparable with the 2000 Census data used for racial and ethnic breakdowns in IWPR's 2004 Status of Women in the States reports. The data broken down by race and ethnicity for health insurance coverage are from the Current Population data, and are therefore directly comparable to the health insurance data for all women and men used to rank and grade the states. For more on sources and methodology, see Appendix II.

The Wage Gap in Arizona

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 these experiences 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. These differences in human capital and job characteristics may also result from discrimination, as women face greater barriers to obtaining education or experience or are discouraged or prevented from entering certain occupations or industries.

Research by the U.S. Government Accountability 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. An additional study found that most of the gap in earnings between men and women in 2000 occurred within given occupations (Cotter, Hermsen, and Vanneman 2004). These findings suggest that sex discrimination continues to play a role in maintaining the gap between women's and men's earnings.

In Arizona, the wage ratio between women and men in 2005 was 83.8 percent, ranking the state 2nd in the nation on this indicator. Only the District of Columbia had a better ratio, at 85.5 percent (Appendix III). Arizona ranks 1st among the Mountain West states for the ratio of women's to men's earnings (see Figure 2).

States in the Mountain West Region

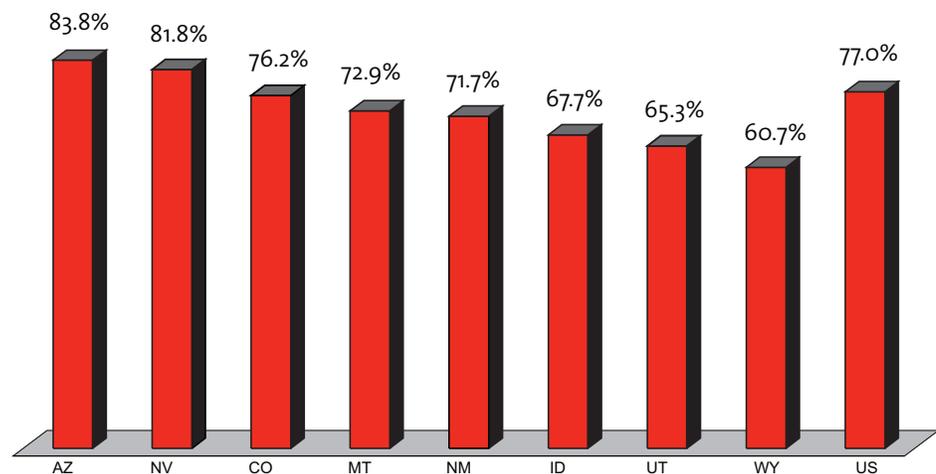


FIGURE 2:
Ratio of Women's
to Men's Full-Time/
Year-Round Median
Annual Earnings
in the Mountain
West Region, 2005,
Current Population
Survey

Source: Institute for Women's Policy Research 2006b.
Calculated by the Institute for Women's Policy Research.

Arizona's high ranking on the wage ratio indicator primarily reflects the relatively lower earnings of men in the state, compared with men in other states and in the nation as a whole. While Arizona's women have similar earnings to women nationwide, the same is not true for Arizona's men. In Arizona, men who worked full-time, year-round in 2005 earned \$38,200, placing the state at 34th in the nation, in the bottom third of all states for men's earnings (see Appendix III).

Men's lower earnings in Arizona are partly attributable to the low earnings of Hispanic men, who in 2005 made up 29.3 percent of all men in the state's labor force and earned only 57.4 percent of what white men earned (U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census 2006a and 2006d; data not shown). This disparity is less than the gap between Hispanic and white women in the states.

Overall, Arizona's high wage ratio between women and men is due more to the low earnings of its men than to the high earnings of its women.

Arizona's race- and gender-based disparities are even clearer when the wages of women workers are compared to those of white men, typically the most privileged. White and Asian American women, who are at the upper end of the distribution of earnings for women in Arizona, earned only 77.4 and 71.7 percent, respectively of what white men earned in 2005. African American women earned less than two-thirds of what white men earned, at 64.5 percent, and Hispanic women earned little more than half, at 51.5 percent. These disparities underscore the ways in which gender and race intersect to disadvantage women of color.

Women's Participation in the Labor Force in Arizona

The rise in women's labor force participation over the past half century constitutes one of the most remarkable changes in women's position in the United States. Women from all social, racial/ethnic, educational backgrounds look for and find work outside of the home. Women's access to the labor market can affect their access to other resources that result from employment, like earnings, health benefits, and Social Security benefits.

Arizona falls near the bottom of all states (42nd) for its percent of women in the labor force (in other words, women who are employed or unemployed but looking for work) in 2004, at 57.4 percent (Table 1), again below the national average for women of 59.2 percent (Appendix III). Arizona ranks last among the Mountain West states for the percent of women in the labor force. Most of this region has participation rates above the national average. Men in Arizona also participate in the labor force at lower rates than men nationally.

Labor force participation rates differ by women's race and ethnicity as well. In 2005, Native American women had the lowest labor force participation rates among Arizona's women, at 50.7 percent. African American women had the highest, at 60.3 percent. Asian American (57.4 percent), Hispanic women (56.2 percent), and white women (55.6 percent) fell between these groups.

Arizona Women in Managerial and Professional Occupations

The occupations and industries in which women work have a strong influence on their earnings, benefits, and opportunities 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 2006b; McCrate 2002). Lower-wage occupations often lack basic benefits, such as health insurance and paid sick leave, which are critical to economic security.

Arizona ranks in the bottom half of states for its proportion of women in managerial and professional occupations, at 32.9 percent in 2002. This puts Arizona somewhat behind the national average of 35.5 percent, and far behind the highest-ranked states: the District of Columbia (52.5 percent), Maryland (43.1 percent), and Virginia (40.3 percent) (Appendix III). Arizona ranks highly in the Mountain West region for the percent of women in managerial and professional occupations, 2nd only to Colorado, which boasts 37.1 percent of women in such occupations.

Women's access to employment in professional and managerial jobs also varies by race and ethnicity. As Figure 3 shows, Arizona's white, African American, and Native American women were more likely to be in managerial and professional jobs than their national counterparts in 2005. Asian American and Hispanic women were less likely.

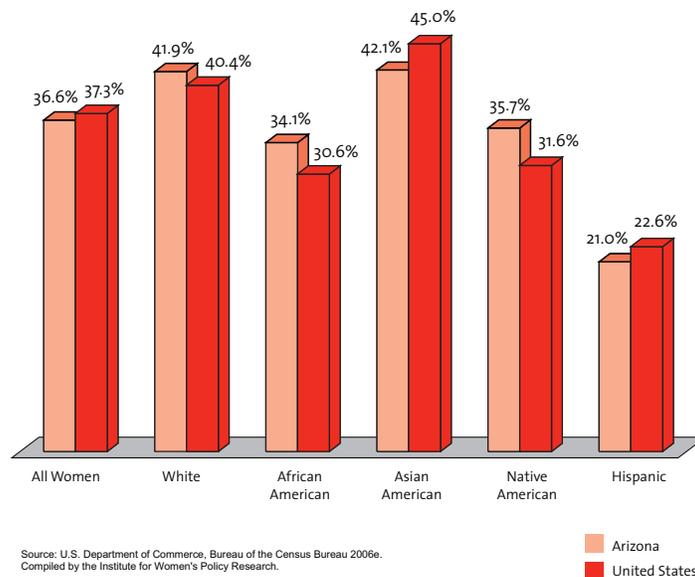


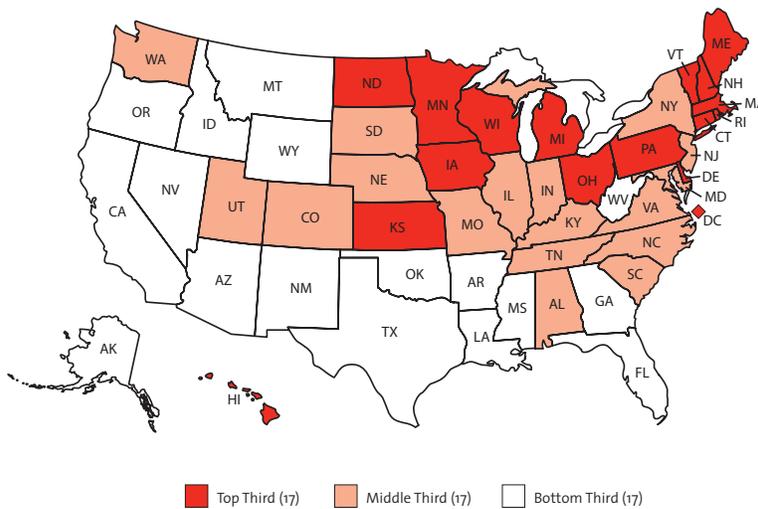
FIGURE 3:
Percent of Women in Professional and Managerial Occupations in Arizona and the United States, by Race and Ethnicity, 2005, American Community Survey.

Disparities among women in the state by race and ethnicity are striking. Figure 3 also shows that Hispanic women in Arizona are about half as likely as white and Asian American women to hold a managerial or professional job, at 21.0 percent compared with 41.9 and 42.1 percent, respectively, for white and Asian American women. African American women (34.1 percent) and Native American women (35.7 percent) in Arizona also had lower percentages of managerial and professional jobs than white and Asian American women. In other words, African American, Native American, and Hispanic women in Arizona are less likely to obtain positions that provide good pay, professional growth, and a host of benefits that would positively impact their economic well-being.

SOCIAL AND ECONOMIC AUTONOMY

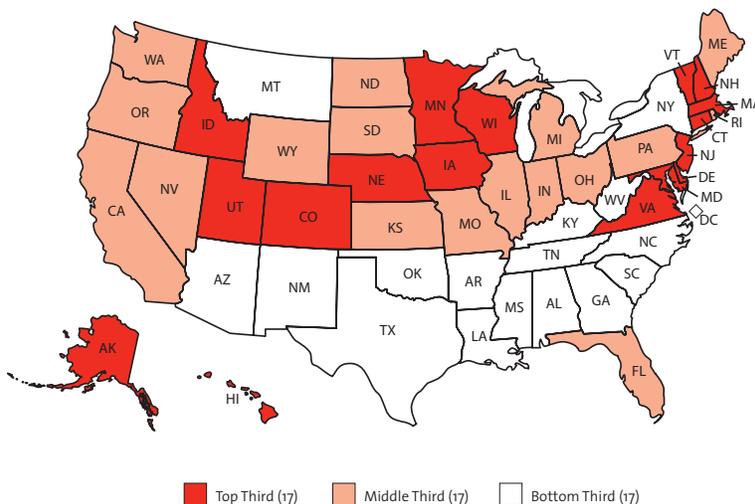
Women in Arizona rank 33rd in the nation on the Social and Economic Autonomy index, earning a grade of D+. The state falls in the bottom ten of all states for women's health insurance coverage, at 42nd (Map 7). It ranks in the bottom third for women's poverty levels, at 37th, and the middle third for women's educational attainment, at 26th (Maps 8 and 9). Arizona ranks in the top third of all states on just one indicator of women's social and economic autonomy: women's business ownership, where it is 14th in the nation (Map 10).

Combined, these indicators reflect women's access to economic opportunity and stability. Arizona's ranking and grade in this area make clear the need for increased investments in women's health care coverage, educational access, entrepreneurship, poverty reduction, and putting women on the road to economic independence.



Note: Percent of all women aged 18 to 64 with health insurance, 2003-2005.
 Source: Institute for Women's Policy Research 2006b.
 Calculated by the Institute for Women's Policy Research.

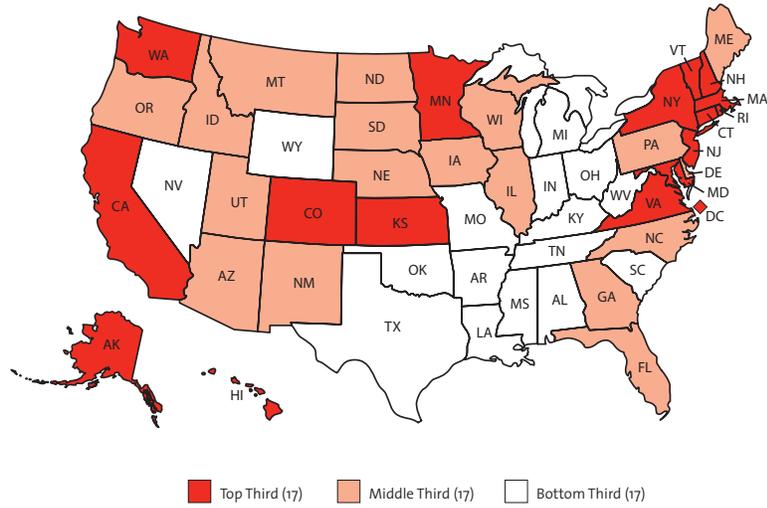
MAP 7:
 Women with
 Health Insurance



Note: Percent of women living above the official poverty threshold, 2003-2005.
 Source: Institute for Women's Policy Research 2006b.
 Calculated by the Institute for Women's Policy Research.

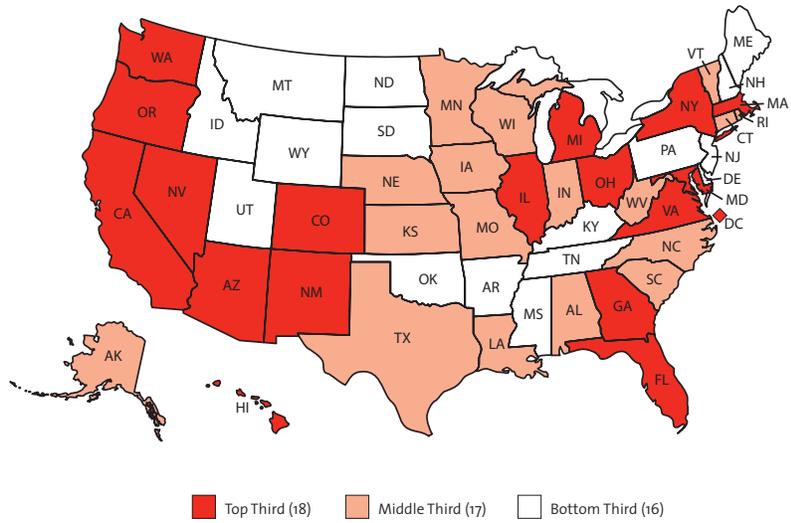
MAP 8:
 Women Above
 Poverty

MAP 9:
Women with
Higher Education



Note: Percent of women aged 25 and older with a four-year college degree or more, 2003-2005.
Source: Institute for Women's Policy Research 2006b.
Calculated by the Institute for Women's Policy Research.

MAP 10:
Women-Owned
Businesses



Note: Percent of all firms owned by women, 2002.
Source: US Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, 2006b.
Compiled by the Institute for Women's Policy Research.

Arizona Women and Health Insurance

Health insurance coverage is critical to women's economic stability. Health problems can create major obstacles to women's ability to work, and employer-provided health insurance coverage improves women's job retention (Lee 2004).

Arizona ranks 42nd in the nation for the percent of women with health insurance coverage, at 78.6 percent in 2005 (Table 1). This rate of coverage falls below the national average of 81.4 percent, and far below the top states in the nation. Minnesota ranks first at 91.0 percent and Hawaii ranks second at 88.6 percent (Appendix III). Arizona ranks 6th of 8 among the Mountain West states on this indicator, with a coverage rate that exceeds only Montana's and New Mexico's.

Women of color were less likely to be insured than white women in Arizona. As Figure 4 shows, while 86.1 percent of white women had health insurance in 2005, only 78.6 percent of African American women, 75.7 percent of Asian American women, and 63.4 percent of Hispanic women were insured (data for Native American women were not included due to unreliable sample sizes). Lower rates of insurance coverage for women of color may be attributable to their greater prevalence in jobs that lack health benefits, like lower-level service jobs. An examination of 2000 Census data by the Institute for Women's Policy Research shows that around a quarter of African American, Hispanic, and Native American women worked in service occupations nationally, compared with 16 percent of white and Asian American women (Caiazza, Shaw, Werschkul 2004).

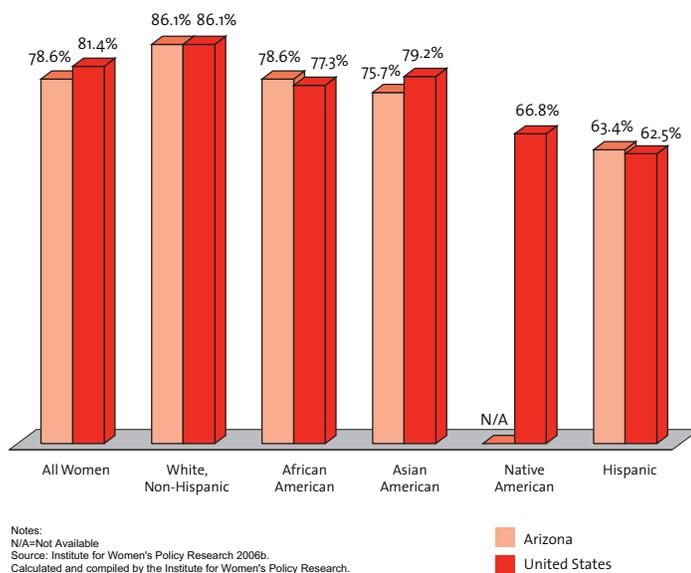


FIGURE 4:
Percent of Women
18 to 64 with
Health Insurance by
Race and Ethnicity, 2005,
Current Population
Survey.

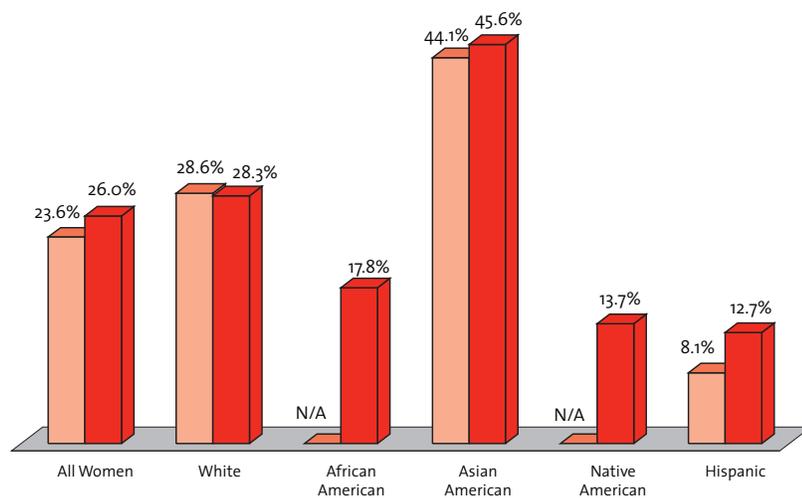
Women's Educational Attainment in Arizona

Women's access to education influences their access to the labor market, earnings, and career advancement. Women in the United States have made steady progress in increasing their levels of education. The proportion of women 25 and older with a college degree or more has nearly doubled from 13.6 percent in 1980 (compared with 20.9 percent of men) to 26.5 percent in 2005 (compared with 28.9 percent of men; U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census 2006h). Despite women's progress on this indicator, there is still room for improvement, particularly among women of color.

Arizona ranks 26th in the nation for the proportion of its women aged 25 and older with a four-year college degree or more (25.2 percent in 2005). This puts women in the state slightly behind their national counterparts (26.5 percent of whom hold a college degree or more), and far behind the nation's frontrunners, such as the District of Columbia (45.3 percent and 1st in the nation) and Massachusetts (35.6 percent and 2nd). Arizona ranks 3rd in the Mountain West region for women's educational attainment, behind Colorado and Utah.

Arizona women's educational attainment differs greatly by race and ethnicity, with 28.6 percent of white women, 44.1 percent of Asian American women, and only 8.1 percent of Hispanic women holding a four-year college degree or more in 2005 (data for African American and Native American women were excluded due to unreliability of sample sizes; see Figure 5). These data are similar to national trends for white and Asian American women, while Hispanic women do worse than their national counterparts. While approximately one in four white women and one in two Asian American women holds a college degree in Arizona, less than one in ten Hispanic women does. This low rate of educational attainment for Hispanic women has serious implications for their ability to move out of low-wage jobs, which they are more likely to hold, and poverty, which they are more likely to experience. For Hispanic women in Arizona who are also immigrants to the United States, accessing education and social and economic mobility can be particularly problematic.

FIGURE 5:
Percent of Women
Age 25 and Older with
a Four-Year College
Degree or More, by Race
and Ethnicity, 2005,
American Community
Survey.



Notes:
N/A=Not Available
Source: U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census 2006f.
Compiled by the Institute for Women's Policy Research.

Arizona
United States

Women's Business Ownership in Arizona

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 being a large shareholder in 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.

Arizona ranks in the top third of all states for women's business ownership at 14th. In 2002, 28.8 percent of businesses in the state were women-owned, slightly better than the national average of 28.2 percent but behind the nation's frontrunners: the District of Columbia at 33.2 percent, Maryland at 31.0 percent, and New Mexico at 30.9 percent (Appendix III). The state ranks 3rd in its region on this indicator, behind New Mexico and Colorado.

Arizona Women and Poverty

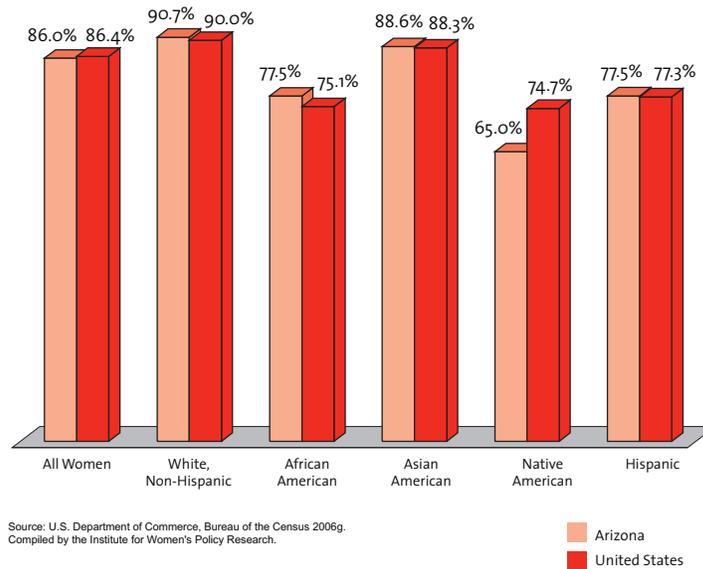
Women bear substantial responsibility for their families' economic well-being, and factors such as the wage gap, women's prevalence in low-paid, female-dominated occupations, and their low relative hours of paid work all impede their ability to ensure their families' financial security, particularly for single-mothers. In 2002 single mother families were half of all families living in poverty (Institute for Women's Policy Research 2003).

Arizona ranks 37th in the nation for the proportion of women who live above the poverty line, at 85.7 percent in 2005. The percentage of women's poverty in Arizona is worse than in the nation on a whole, where 87.3 percent are above poverty, and far worse than in New Hampshire, 1st in the nation at 93.4 percent of women above poverty (Appendix III).

Poverty disproportionately affects women of color in Arizona, as it does in the United States. In 2005, 90.7 percent of white women in Arizona were above the federal poverty line, and Asian American women followed close behind at 88.6 percent (see Figure 6).⁴ In contrast, only 77.5 percent of African American and Hispanic women and 65.0 percent of Native American women lived above the poverty line. In other words, more than one in five African American and Hispanic women in Arizona live in poverty, and one in three Native American women does. Their greater likelihood of being poor underscores the disadvantage they face in the job market.

⁴ The Federal Poverty Threshold for a family of four (with two children) in 2005 (2005 dollars) was \$19,805 (U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census 2006i).

FIGURE 6:
*Percent of Women
 16 and Older Living
 Above the Federal
 Poverty Limit by Race
 and Ethnicity, 2005,
 American Survey.*



**CONCLUSIONS
 AND POLICY
 RECOMMENDATIONS**

The economic status of Arizona’s women is mediocre to poor. The state ranks in the bottom half of all states for all but three indicators—women’s earnings, the wage ratio, and women’s business ownership. Disparities by race and ethnicity continue to keep women of color in the state from equal access to health care, higher education, and better-paying jobs. The state’s Hispanic women in particular lack access to opportunity and resources that allow for economic security and stability.

- Arizona should invest more in its women, to improve both their status and the economic well-being of the state as a whole. Policies and programs designed to diminish gender- and race-based inequities should be at the forefront of local and state policymaking efforts.
- Arizona should invest in policy options that support women as workers and mothers and as important contributors to the state’s economy. High-quality, affordable child care services are critical to women’s ability to enter the labor market and to find and retain employment. Expanded public funds and eligibility through Temporary Assistance to Needy Families and the Child Care Development Fund would help poor and low-income Arizona women access safe, reliable, and nurturing environments for their children without exhausting their income.
- Women workers in Arizona would benefit from paid time off programs including sick days, parental leave, and time for family care—benefits often least available to the lowest-paid workers. Access to these benefits can be expanded through federal and state policies such as minimum paid time off standards, new temporary disability programs, and extension of existing programs to include family care benefits.

- Women in Arizona need policies that will help to keep them and their families safe from financial hardship due to health problems or accidents. Public health programs should be expanded to reach a wider range of at-risk and uninsured women, including non-English speakers and lower-income women not eligible for Medicaid but still in need of public services. Arizona's Medicaid coverage for working parents with incomes of up to 200 percent of the Federal Poverty Limit via SCHIP funds is to be commended (Ross and Cox 2005). Outreach efforts must be multiplied to ensure all who are eligible for this coverage through Medicaid have the information they need to access the service.
- Raising the state minimum wage, as recently voted for by ballot initiative, and implementing state and local living-wage laws for public employees and contractors would benefit women workers. An increase in the minimum wage to \$6.75, as proposed, would particularly help women of color, as they are more likely to be in low-wage jobs and to live in poverty (Pollin and Wicks-Lim 2006).
- Women in Arizona would benefit from a change in the way poverty is measured. Federal, state, and local policymakers should develop a measure of poverty that accurately reflects the experiences of working families. This measure should include housing and child care, two major costs that can greatly diminish a family's income. Arizona's policymakers should also adopt the Arizona Self-Sufficiency Standard developed by the state's Children's Action Alliance in conjunction with Wider Opportunities for Women in 2002 (Wider Opportunities for Women 2003), which calculates the wage actually needed for a basic standard of living that can be used as an income eligibility guideline for programs and policies designed to help families achieve economic security.
- Arizona's policies should ensure better access to education, which brings with it opportunities for better jobs and better pay for women. Educational attainment should be encouraged among all women in the state, and especially women of color. Affirmative action policies encouraging women's enrollment in higher education and increased federal and state financial aid and scholarship programs designed to reduce economic barriers would open up doors for women of color in Arizona. Hispanic women's educational opportunities in the state should be a particular focus of investment and scholarship and grant programs.
- 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, state, or local 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.

The Institute for Women's Policy Research conducts rigorous research and disseminates its findings to address the needs of women, promote public dialogue, and strengthen families, communities, and societies. IWPR focuses on issues of poverty and welfare, employment and earnings, work and family issues, health and safety, and women's civic and political participation. The Institute works with policymakers, scholars, and public interest groups around the country to design, execute, and disseminate research that illuminates economics and social policy issues affecting women and families, and to build a network of individuals and organizations that conduct and use women-oriented policy research.

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

To construct this composite index, each of the four component indicators was first standardized. For each of the four indicators, the observed value for the state was divided by the comparable value for the entire United States. The resulting values were summed for each state to create a composite score. Each of the four component indicators has equal weight in the composite. The states were ranked from the highest to the lowest score.

To grade the states on this composite index, values for each of the components were set at desired levels to produce an "ideal score." Women's earnings were set at the median annual earnings for men in the United States as a whole; the wage ratio was set at 100 percent, as if women earned as much as men; women's labor force participation was set at the national figure for men; and women in managerial and professional positions was set at the highest score for all states. Each state's score was then compared with the ideal score to determine the state's grade.

Women's Median Annual Earnings:

Median yearly earnings (in 2005 dollars) of noninstitutionalized women aged 16 and older who worked full-time, year-round (more than 49 weeks during the year and more than 34 hours per week) in 2003-05. Earnings were converted to constant dollars using the Consumer Price Index Research Series (CPI-U-RS), and the median was selected from the merged data file for the three years. Three years of data were used in order to ensure a sufficiently large sample for each state. Sample sizes for women range from 800 in Montana to 6,834 in California; for men, sample sizes range from 1,087 in Louisiana to 10,401 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. Although all the data presented combine data from 2003, 2004, and 2005, they are labeled 2005 in the report. Source: Calculations of the 2004-06 Annual Social and Economic Supplement Demographic Files from the Current Population Survey for calendar years 2003-05; Institute for Women's Policy Research 2006b.

Ratio of Women's to Men's Earnings:

Median yearly earnings (in 2005 dollars) of noninstitutionalized women aged 16 and older who worked full-time, year-round (more than 49 weeks during the year and more than 34 hours per week) in 2003-05 divided by the median yearly earnings (in 2005 dollars) of noninstitutionalized men aged 16 and older who worked full-time, year-round (more than 49 weeks during the year and more than 34 hours per week) in 2003-05. See the description of women's median annual earnings, above, for a more detailed description of the methodology and for sample sizes. Source: Calculations of the 2004-06 Annual Social and Economic Supplement Demographic Files from the Current Population Survey for calendar years 2003-05; Institute for Women's Policy Research 2006b.

Women's Labor Force Participation (proportion of the adult female population in the labor force):

Percent of civilian noninstitutionalized women aged 16 and older who were employed or looking for work (in 2004). This includes those employed full-time, part-time voluntarily, or part-time involuntarily, and those who are unemployed. Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics 2006a (based on the Current Population Survey).

Women in Managerial and Professional Occupations:

Percent of civilian noninstitutionalized women aged 16 and older who were employed in executive, administrative, managerial, or professional specialty occupations (in 2002). Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics 2004 (based on the Current Population Survey).

Composite Social and Economic Autonomy Index

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

To construct this composite index, each of the four component indicators was first standardized. For each indicator, the observed value for the state was divided by the comparable value for the United States as a whole. The resulting values were summed for each state to create a composite score. To create the composite score, women's health insurance coverage, educational attainment, and business ownership were given a weight of 1.0, while poverty was given a weight of 4.0 (in the first three series of reports, published in 1996, 1998, and 2000, this indicator was given a weight of 1.0, but in 2002 IWPR began weighting it at 4.0). The states were ranked from the highest to the lowest score.

To grade the states on this composite index, values for each of the components were set at desired levels to produce an "ideal score." The percentage of women with health insurance was set at the highest value for all states; the percentage of women with higher education was set at the national value for men; the percentage of businesses owned by women was set as if 50 percent of businesses were owned by women; and the percentage of women in poverty was set at the national value for men. Each state's score was then compared with the ideal score to determine its grade.

Percent with Health Insurance:

Percent of civilian noninstitutionalized women aged 18 through 64 who are insured. Following the methodology used by the Census Bureau, individuals who reported no coverage other than the Indian Health Plan are considered uninsured. Three years of data were used in order to ensure a sufficiently large sample for each state. Although all the data presented combine data from 2003, 2004, and 2005, they are labeled 2005 in the report. Data for this indicator were also disaggregated by race and ethnicity. The data for whites, African Americans, Asian Americans, and Native Americans do not include Hispanics, and Hispanics, who may be of any race, are reported separately. Native Hawaiians and Pacific Islanders were included within Asian American. Source: Calculations of the 2004-06 Annual Social and Economic Supplement Demographic Files from the Current Population Survey for calendar years 2003-05; Institute for Women's Policy Research 2006b.

Educational Attainment:

Percent of civilian noninstitutionalized women from ages 25 and older with a four-year college degree or higher. Three years of data were used in order to ensure a sufficiently large sample for each state. Although all the data presented combine data from 2003, 2004, and 2005, they are labeled 2005 in the report.

Source: Calculations of the 2004-06 Annual Social and Economic Supplement Demographic Files from the Current Population Survey for calendar years 2003-05; Institute for Women's Policy Research 2006b.

Women's Business Ownership:

In 2002, the percent of all firms (legal entities engaged in economic activity during any part of 2002 that filed an IRS Form 1040, Schedule C; 1065; any 1120; or 941) owned by women. This indicator includes five legal forms of organization: C corporations (any legally incorporated business, except subchapter S, under state laws), Subchapter 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 2006b, based on the 2002 Economic Census.

Percent of Women Above Poverty:

In 2003-05, the percent of women living above the official poverty threshold, which varies by family size and composition. In 2004, the poverty threshold for the family of four (with two children) was \$19,806 (in 2005 dollars). Although all the data presented combine data from 2003, 2004, and 2005, they are labeled 2005 in the report. Source: Calculations of the 2004-06 Annual Social and Economic Supplement Demographic Files from the Current Population Survey for the calendar years 2003-05; Institute for Women's Policy Research 2006b.

Using 2005 American Community Survey data published by the Census Bureau, IWPR is able to provide statistics disaggregated by race and ethnicity on a variety of indicators of women's economic status, including earnings, the gender wage ratio, labor force participation, education, and poverty in this report.

The data included in this report for whites, African Americans, Asian Americans, and Native Americans do not include Hispanics, and Hispanics, who may be of any race, are reported separately. In contrast, most data produced by the Census Bureau include Hispanics in whatever racial group they report and then, in addition, note the number who also report being Hispanic. As a result, the numbers in this report for the various racial groups generally differ from Census Bureau numbers.

The Asian American category in this report includes Native Hawaiians and Pacific Islanders. The Census Bureau does not combine these two groups, and as a result Census Bureau numbers for Asian Americans may differ from those reported here.

APPENDIX III:
*How the States Measure Up:
 Women's Status on the
 Employment and Earnings
 Composite Index
 and Its Components*

State	Composite Index			Median Annual Earnings Full-Time, Year-Round for Employed Women		Earnings Ratio between Full-Time, Year-Round Employed Women and Men		Percent of Women in the Labor Force		Percent of Employed Women, Managerial or Professional Occupations	
	Score	Rank	Grade	Dollars	Rank	Percent	Rank	Percent	Rank	Percent	Rank
Alabama	3.77	39	D	\$29,700	34	74.3%	32	55.8%	45	33.1%	25
Alaska	4.22	6	B	\$36,100	67	7.6%	16	65.6%	7	34.4%	17
Arizona	3.99	17	C+	\$32,000	16	83.8%	2	57.4%	42	32.9%	27
Arkansas	3.47	51	F	\$24,800	50	71.5%	43	54.9%	49	29.5%	48
California	4.14	11	B-	\$35,100	7	82.6%	4	57.6%	39	35.1%	12
Colorado	4.21	8	B	\$34,000	10	76.2%	19	65.3%	9	37.1%	7
Connecticut	4.20	9	B	\$38,200	4	71.9%	40	60.0%	28	37.2%	6
Delaware	4.00	16	C+	\$32,000	16	77.5%	17	61.1%	22	33.8%	20
District of Columbia	4.98	1	A-	\$42,400	1	85.5%	1	62.3%	15	52.5%	1
Florida	3.81	35	D+	\$30,000	29	80.6%	7	55.4%	47	31.3%	36
Georgia	4.06	13	B-	\$31,700	23	83.0%	3	59.2%	33	35.1%	12
Hawaii	3.99	17	C+	\$31,800	19	79.5%	10	60.1%	27	33.4%	23
Idaho	3.53	49	F	\$27,000	43	67.7%	48	61.3%	20	27.1%	51
Illinois	3.97	20	C+	\$33,100	14	76.1%	23	59.7%	29	33.0%	26
Indiana	3.79	38	D+	\$30,000	29	72.6%	38	61.0%	23	30.9%	40
Iowa	3.86	30	C-	\$29,700	34	75.2%	28	65.4%	8	30.1%	43
Kansas	3.96	21	C	\$30,000	29	75.0%	29	64.5%	12	33.8%	20
Kentucky	3.74	41	D	\$28,900	37	76.1%	23	55.4%	47	32.3%	29
Louisiana	3.50	50	F	\$26,500	45	66.3%	49	54.9%	49	31.1%	38
Maine	3.96	21	C	\$30,300	28	75.8%	25	61.0%	23	35.1%	12
Maryland	4.57	2	B+	\$39,300	2	82.2%	5	62.3%	15	43.1%	2
Massachusetts	4.27	4	B	\$37,200	5	72.0%	39	61.9%	18	39.7%	4
Michigan	3.86	30	C-	\$32,600	15	69.8%	47	59.7%	29	32.5%	28
Minnesota	4.23	5	B	\$35,000	8	77.8%	14	69.0%	2	33.9%	19
Mississippi	3.56	47	F	\$25,800	47	73.7%	33	55.5%	46	30.3%	41
Missouri	3.98	19	C+	\$30,800	27	75.3%	27	62.7%	13	34.7%	16
Montana	3.63	43	D-	\$24,800	50	72.9%	36	62.0%	17	30.3%	41
Nebraska	3.89	25	C	\$28,900	37	75.7%	26	68.5%	3	29.9%	45
Nevada	3.87	29	C	\$31,000	24	81.8%	6	59.3%	32	29.6%	47
New Hampshire	4.07	12	B-	\$34,000	10	71.1%	45	64.7%	11	34.9%	15
New Jersey	4.28	3	B	\$38,900	3	77.8%	14	58.4%	36	37.6%	5
New Mexico	3.61	44	D-	\$25,800	47	71.7%	42	57.5%	41	31.9%	33
New York	4.01	15	C+	\$33,300	13	78.4%	12	56.2%	44	35.4%	9
North Carolina	3.85	33	C-	\$29,800	33	79.7%	9	58.8%	35	31.3%	36
North Dakota	3.80	36	D+	\$26,000	46	71.8%	41	67.6%	4	32.1%	32
Ohio	3.89	25	C	\$31,800	19	74.8%	30	60.4%	26	31.8%	34
Oklahoma	3.77	39	D	\$27,600	41	76.2%	19	57.6%	39	33.3%	24
Oregon	3.91	24	C	\$31,000	24	73.1%	35	59.0%	34	35.2%	11
Pennsylvania	3.84	34	C-	\$31,800	19	74.8%	30	58.1%	38	31.5%	35

State	Composite Index			Median Annual Earnings Full-Time, Year-Round for Employed Women		Earnings Ratio between Full-Time, Year-Round Employed Women and Men		Percent of Women in the Labor Force		Percent of Employed Women, Managerial or Professional Occupations	
	Score	Rank	Grade	Dollars	Rank	Percent	Rank	Percent	Rank	Percent	Rank
Rhode Island	3.92	23	C	\$32,000	16	71.1%	45	61.7%	19	33.6%	22
South Carolina	3.80	36	D+	\$27,700	40	73.7%	33	59.5%	31	34.2%	18
South Dakota	3.86	30	C-	\$26,900	44	76.9%	18	69.4%	1	30.0%	44
Tennessee	3.70	42	D	\$29,000	36	78.0%	13	57.4%	42	28.7%	50
Texas	3.88	28	C	\$30,000	29	80.6%	7	58.2%	37	32.3%	29
Utah	3.60	46	D-	\$28,000	39	65.3%	50	62.7%	13	28.8%	49
Vermont	4.18	10	B	\$31,800	19	79.5%	10	65.8%	6	36.7%	8
Virginia	4.22	6	B	\$34,000	10	76.2%	19	60.8%	25	40.3%	3
Washington	4.03	14	C+	\$34,100	9	71.3%	44	61.2%	21	35.3%	10
West Virginia	3.56	47	F	\$27,600	41	76.2%	19	49.1%	51	31.0%	39
Wisconsin	3.89	25	C	\$31,000	24	72.9%	36	66.6%	5	29.8%	46
Wyoming	3.61	44	D-	\$25,800	47	60.7%	51	65.3%	9	32.3%	29
United States	4.00			\$31,800		77.0%		59.2%		35.5%	

See Appendix I for Methodology.

APPENDIX III:
*How the States Measure Up:
 Women's Status on the Social
 and Economic Autonomy
 Composite Index
 and Its Components*

State	Composite Index			Percent of Women with Health Insurance		Percent of Women with Four or More Years of College		Percent of Businesses that are Women-Owned		Percent of Women Living Above Poverty	
	Score	Rank	Grade	Percent	Rank	Percent	Rank	Percent	Rank	Percent	Rank
Alabama	6.48	47	D-	81.5%	32	19.6%	48	26.4%	31	83.1%	47
Alaska	7.13	15	C+	79.3%	39	29.1%	13	26.2%	34	90.0%	9
Arizona	6.87	33	D+	78.6%	42	25.2%	26	28.8%	14	85.7%	37
Arkansas	6.28	51	F	76.1%	47	17.6%	50	23.7%	48	83.8%	44
California	7.12	16	C+	78.0%	43	28.8%	15	29.9%	5	87.5%	31
Colorado	7.40	9	B-	81.0%	33	34.2%	6	29.1%	12	89.2%	14
Connecticut	7.48	6	B	87.5%	8	34.9%	4	27.2%	23	89.9%	12
Delaware	7.04	22	C	86.4%	13	25.4%	24	24.1%	46	90.9%	6
District of Columbia	7.72	1	B+	86.9%	10	45.3%	1	33.2%	1	82.2%	49
Florida	6.89	31	D+	76.4%	46	24.2%	32	28.4%	16	88.0%	29
Georgia	7.02	25	C	79.6%	38	27.5%	20	29.1%	12	86.7%	36
Hawaii	7.46	7	B	88.6%	2	30.4%	11	30.1%	4	90.7%	7
Idaho	6.79	36	D+	79.8%	37	22.5%	40	23.7%	48	90.0%	9
Illinois	7.16	13	C+	83.2%	26	27.7%	18	29.7%	6	88.1%	27
Indiana	6.82	34	D+	82.6%	30	21.2%	45	27.4%	21	88.1%	27
Iowa	7.03	23	C	87.9%	6	24.0%	34	27.0%	26	89.2%	14
Kansas	7.14	14	C+	86.1%	14	28.2%	16	27.2%	23	88.5%	19
Kentucky	6.50	46	D-	82.8%	28	19.5%	49	25.7%	39	83.7%	46
Louisiana	6.37	49	F	73.2%	50	20.9%	47	26.4%	31	81.6%	51
Maine	6.88	32	D+	87.9%	6	25.3%	25	24.0%	47	87.2%	34
Maryland	7.55	3	B	83.5%	25	34.6%	5	31.0%	2	89.9%	12
Massachusetts	7.54	4	B	88.3%	4	35.6%	2	28.7%	15	89.2%	14
Michigan	7.02	25	C	86.0%	15	23.5%	38	29.6%	8	87.8%	30
Minnesota	7.57	2	B	91.0%	1	32.3%	8	27.9%	19	92.6%	2
Mississippi	6.47	48	D-	78.9%	40	21.8%	42	25.1%	41	82.7%	48
Missouri	6.96	29	C-	84.9%	20	23.7%	35	27.4%	21	88.5%	19
Montana	6.68	42	D	77.3%	44	24.9%	28	24.4%	44	85.6%	38
Nebraska	7.09	19	C	85.2%	19	25.5%	23	26.6%	28	90.3%	8
Nevada	6.81	35	D+	78.7%	41	21.4%	44	28.1%	17	88.2%	26
New Hampshire	7.42	8	B-	86.0%	15	31.9%	9	24.7%	43	93.4%	1
New Jersey	7.40	9	B-	82.8%	28	33.6%	7	26.1%	36	91.4%	4
New Mexico	6.69	41	D	73.8%	49	24.4%	30	30.9%	3	82.2%	49
New York	7.12	16	C+	83.7%	23	30.6%	10	29.6%	8	84.8%	40
North Carolina	6.76	38	D+	81.6%	31	24.2%	32	27.1%	25	84.7%	41
North Dakota	7.01	27	C	88.1%	5	27.6%	19	23.3%	50	88.5%	19
Ohio	6.96	29	C-	85.9%	17	22.7%	39	28.1%	17	88.5%	19
Oklahoma	6.64	43	D	75.3%	48	21.6%	43	25.7%	39	86.9%	35
Oregon	7.09	19	C	79.9%	35	27.0%	21	29.5%	10	88.3%	25
Pennsylvania	6.97	28	C-	86.6%	12	24.5%	29	26.0%	37	88.5%	19
Rhode Island	7.11	18	C	86.8%	11	28.9%	14	26.5%	29	87.5%	31

State	Composite Index			Percent of Women with Health Insurance		Percent of Women with Four or More Years of College		Percent of Businesses that are Women-Owned		Percent of Women Living Above Poverty	
	Score	Rank	Grade	Percent	Rank	Percent	Rank	Percent	Rank	Percent	Rank
South Carolina	6.71	39	D	80.7%	34	23.6%	37	26.2%	34	85.0%	39
South Dakota	6.79	36	D+	85.6%	18	25.0%	27	22.4%	51	87.3%	33
Tennessee	6.63	44	D	84.7%	21	21.9%	41	26.0%	37	83.9%	43
Texas	6.57	45	D-	70.8%	51	23.7%	35	27.0%	26	84.1%	42
Utah	7.09	19	C	83.0%	27	25.9%	22	25.1%	41	91.7%	3
Vermont	7.53	5	B	87.2%	9	35.5%	3	26.3%	33	91.4%	4
Virginia	7.36	11	B-	84.2%	22	30.4%	11	29.7%	6	90.0%	9
Washington	7.18	12	C+	83.7%	23	28.0%	17	29.4%	11	88.5%	19
West Virginia	6.34	50	F	77.1%	45	15.2%	51	27.7%	20	83.8%	44
Wisconsin	7.03	23	C	88.6%	2	24.3%	31	26.5%	29	89.2%	14
Wyoming	6.71	39	D	79.9%	35	21.0%	46	24.4%	44	88.8%	18
United States	7.00			81.4%		26.5%		28.2%		87.3%	

See Appendix I for Methodology.

APPENDIX III:
*Selected State-by-State
 Indicators of Men's Economic
 Status*

State	Median Annual Earnings for Full-Time, Year-Round Employed Men, 2005	Percent of Men Living Above Poverty, 2005	Percent of Men in the Labor Force, 2004	Percent of Men with Four or More Years of College, 2005
Alabama	\$40,000	89.5%	70.0%	22.3%
Alaska	\$46,500	92.3%	76.6%	25.4%
Arizona	\$38,200	89.7%	73.1%	28.2%
Arkansas	\$34,700	89.5%	70.1%	19.3%
California	\$42,500	89.9%	73.9%	32.4%
Colorado	\$44,600	91.5%	80.5%	37.3%
Connecticut	\$53,100	93.2%	73.3%	36.8%
Delaware	\$41,300	94.2%	72.0%	27.0%
District of Columbia	\$49,600	87.9%	73.9%	48.9%
Florida	\$37,200	91.4%	69.6%	28.4%
Georgia	\$38,200	91.1%	76.0%	27.5%
Hawaii	\$40,000	92.9%	69.7%	28.8%
Idaho	\$39,900	92.1%	74.8%	27.4%
Illinois	\$43,500	90.9%	73.3%	31.1%
Indiana	\$41,300	93.2%	73.1%	22.4%
Iowa	\$39,500	92.0%	75.3%	25.0%
Kansas	\$40,000	91.2%	78.9%	32.8%
Kentucky	\$38,000	88.3%	68.9%	20.8%
Louisiana	\$40,000	88.1%	67.7%	21.2%
Maine	\$40,000	90.6%	71.4%	24.9%
Maryland	\$47,800	92.9%	75.0%	36.8%
Massachusetts	\$51,700	91.9%	73.7%	40.5%
Michigan	\$46,700	90.7%	72.8%	26.7%
Minnesota	\$45,000	93.5%	80.3%	34.6%
Mississippi	\$35,000	86.3%	68.4%	19.9%
Missouri	\$40,900	91.7%	74.1%	27.9%
Montana	\$34,000	88.3%	71.2%	26.0%
Nebraska	\$38,200	91.7%	80.7%	25.9%
Nevada	\$37,900	92.2%	74.2%	24.3%
New Hampshire	\$47,800	96.1%	77.9%	28.2%
New Jersey	\$50,000	94.1%	74.0%	31.5%
New Mexico	\$36,000	87.9%	69.9%	35.1%
New York	\$42,500	89.6%	70.3%	37.6%
North Carolina	\$37,400	90.2%	73.6%	25.2%
North Dakota	\$36,200	92.3%	77.1%	26.6%
Ohio	\$42,500	91.9%	73.5%	24.6%
Oklahoma	\$36,200	89.9%	71.3%	24.9%
Oregon	\$42,400	91.0%	73.5%	28.6%
Pennsylvania	\$42,500	92.6%	71.6%	27.5%
Rhode Island	\$45,000	92.4%	71.5%	29.1%
South Carolina	\$37,600	89.6%	71.2%	24.3%
South Dakota	\$35,000	89.7%	78.1%	25.5%

State	Median Annual Earnings for Full-Time, Year-Round Employed Men, 2005	Percent of Men Living Above Poverty, 2005	Percent of Men in the Labor Force, 2004	Percent of Men with Four or More Years of College, 2005
Tennessee	\$37,200	89.0%	69.9%	23.6%
Texas	\$37,200	87.8%	76.4%	26.7%
Utah	\$42,900	92.5%	79.5%	32.2%
Vermont	\$40,000	93.5%	75.9%	32.8%
Virginia	\$44,600	92.9%	74.3%	33.3%
Washington	\$47,800	91.7%	74.7%	33.6%
West Virginia	\$36,200	88.4%	60.8%	15.6%
Wisconsin	\$42,500	92.2%	77.2%	25.9%
Wyoming	\$42,500	93.1%	77.3%	22.0%
United States	\$41,300	90.8%	71.8%	29.1%

See Appendix I for Methodology.

APPENDIX IV:
Basic Demographics
for Arizona and
the United States

	Arizona	United States
Total Population, 2005 ^a	5,829,839	288,378,137
Number of Women, All Ages, 2005 ^b	2,926,906	147,103,173
Sex Ratio (women to men, aged 18 and older), 2005 ^b	1.01	1.04
Median Age, 2005 ^c	35.6	37.6
Proportion of Women Over Age 65, 2005 ^b	13.8%	13.5%
Distribution of Women by Race and Ethnicity, All Ages, 2005 ^d		
White, Non-Hispanic	61.0%	66.8%
Black or African American	2.9%	12.5%
American Indian and Alaska Native	4.5%	0.7%
Asian alone	2.3%	4.3%
Native Hawaiian and Other Pacific Islander	N/A	0.1%
Some other race	N/A	0.3%
Two or more races	1.4%	1.4%
Hispanic	27.6%	13.9%
Distribution of Households by Type, 2005 ^e		
Total Number of Family and Nonfamily Households	2,204,013	111,090,617
Married-Couple Families (with and without their own children)	48.9%	49.7%
Female-Headed Families (with and without their own children)	12.3%	12.6%
Male-Headed Families (with and without their own children)	5.0%	4.6%
Nonfamily Households	33.8%	33.1%
Distribution of Women Aged 15 and Older by Marital Status, 2005 ^f		
Never married	24.7%	25.5%
Now married	53.7%	53.6%
Separated	2.2%	2.6%
Other	2.4%	2.0%
Widowed	8.3%	9.4%
Divorced	13.3%	11.5%
Number of Lesbian Unmarried Partner Households, 2000 ^g	6,054	293,365
Proportion of Women Aged 21-64 with a Disability, 2005 ^h	12.3%	12.9%
Percent of Families with Children Under Age 18 Headed by Women, 2005 ⁱ	24.2%	24.5%
Proportion of Women Living in Metropolitan Areas, All Ages, 2000 ^j	88.5%	82.8%
Proportion of Women Who Are Foreign-Born, All Ages, 2005 ^k	14.0%	12.1%
Percent of Federal and State Prison Population Who Are Women, 2005 ^l	N/A	7.0%

Notes:

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

Source: a) U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census 2006j; b) U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census 2006k; c) U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census 2006l; d) U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census 2006m; e) U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census 2006n; f) U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census 2006o; g) U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census 2000; h) U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census 2006p; i) U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census 2006q; j) Population Reference Bureau 2000; k) U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census 2006r; l) U.S. Department of Justice, Bureau of Justice Statistics 2006. Compiled by the Institute for Women's Policy Research.

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