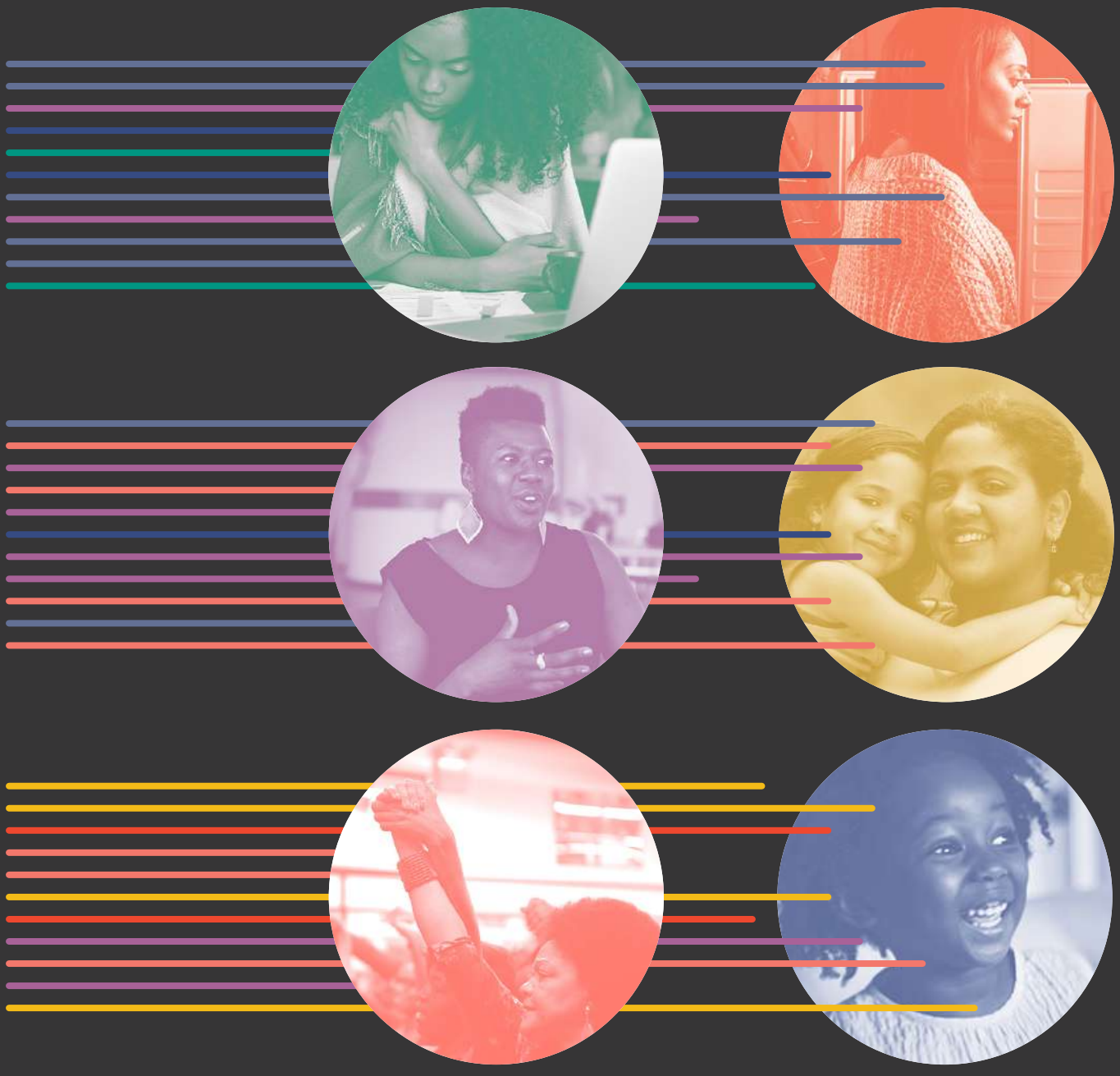
The Status of Black Women

in the United States



STATUS OF WOMEN IN THE STATES

INSTITUTE FOR WOMEN'S POLICY RESEARCH
Informing policy. Inspiring change. Improving lives.

NATIONAL DOMESTIC WORKERS ALLIANCE

ABOUT THIS REPORT

The Status of Black Women in the United States builds on IWPR's long-standing report series, **The Status of Women in the States,** which since 1996 has provided data on women nationally and for all 50 states and the District of Columbia. The Status of Black Women in the United States seeks to address the gap in research on Black women's well-being and to provide data that can inform policy and programmatic changes to benefit Black women and their families. The report was produced in collaboration with the National Domestic Workers Alliance's work to amplify the historical and current contributions of Black domestic workers to the broader domestic worker movement. The Status of Black Women in the United States analyzes data disaggregated by gender as well as by race and ethnicity for all 50 states and the District of Columbia across six topical areas: political participation, employment and earnings, work and family, poverty and opportunity, health and well-being, and violence and safety. In addition, the report includes basic demographic data for each state and a set of policy recommendations. It was funded by the National Domestic Workers Alliance, with additional funding provided by the NoVo Foundation and the Ford Foundation.

ABOUT THE INSTITUTE FOR WOMEN'S POLICY RESEARCH

The Institute for Women's Policy Research conducts and communicates research to inspire public dialogue, shape policy, and improve the lives and opportunities of women of diverse backgrounds, circumstances, and experiences. The Institute works with policymakers, scholars, and public interest groups to design, execute, and disseminate research and to build a diverse network of individuals and organizations that conduct and use women-oriented policy research. IWPR's work is supported by foundation grants, government grants and contracts, donations from individuals, and contributions from organizations and corporations. IWPR is a 501(c)(3) tax-exempt organization that also works in affiliation with the women's studies and public policy and public administration programs at The George Washington University.

Institute for Women's Policy Research
1200 18th Street NW, Suite 301 | Washington, DC 20036
202.785.5100 | iwpr@iwpr.org
www.iwpr.org
www.statusofwomendata.org

Board of Directors

Lorretta Johnson
Chair, American Federation of Teachers, AFL-CIO

Leslie Platt Zolov
Vice Chair, New York, NY

Katherine M. Kimpel
Secretary Shattering the Ceiling

Sylphiel Yip
Treasurer, INTL FCStone Financial Inc.

Martha Darling
Boeing (retired)

Hilary Doe
NationBuilder

Beth Grupp
Beth Grupp Associates

Ellen Karp
Anerca

Kai-yan LeeVanke

Esmeralda O. Lyn
Worldwide Capital Partners LLC

William Rodgers
Rutgers University

Kristin Rowe-Finkbeiner
MomsRising

Elizabeth Schuler
AFL-CIO

Marci B. Sternheim
Sternheim Consulting

Tahesha Way
Passaic County Board of Social Services

Sheila W. Wellington
NYU/Stern School of Business (Emerita)

Marcia Worthing
New York, NY

The Status of Black Women

in the United States

Asha DuMonthier, Chandra Childers, Ph.D., and Jessica Milli, Ph.D.

with support from:

NATIONAL DOMESTIC WORKERS ALLIANCE
NOVO FOUNDATION
FORD FOUNDATION

FOREWORD

Alicia Garza
Special Projects Director

The National Domestic Workers Alliance (NDWA) was founded in 2007 at the first United States Social Forum in Atlanta, Georgia. The creation of this Alliance in the same city where Dorothy Bolden initiated the powerful National Domestic Workers Union of America in 1968, was nothing short of historic--a multiracial group of women, multiple languages being spoken simultaneously, from nine different organizations, who decided that we were more powerful together than we were on our own.

For nearly ten years now, the NDWA has been supporting local organizations of domestic workers to amplify their voice and their impact at the national level. We are now 20,000 workers organized, in 36 cities in 17 states, powered by more than 50 local affiliate organizations and two local NDWA chapters in Atlanta, Georgia and Durham, North Carolina.

Through organizing, leadership development, and political education, domestic workers are building a powerful movement that advances the original vision of Dorothy Bolden's National Domestic Workers Union of America. Our work has focused largely on winning rights, respect and dignity for domestic workers. We have won seven statewide bills in six years that have guaranteed necessary protections for the workers who care for the ones we love the most. We have pushed government to sharpen the rules that protect those who make all other work possible. We have strengthened protections against trafficking and other abuses that women in the domestic work industry face.

Domestic work is rooted in the legacy of slavery. Enslaved Black women were forced to provide unpaid labor under brutal conditions for white landowners. While white women's work was relegated to inside the home, enslaved Black women's work was both inside and outside of the home. Outside the home, enslaved Black women were responsible for various aspects of agricultural labor. Inside the home, enslaved Black women were responsible for tending to white families as wet nurses, cooks, housekeepers, and caregivers, and were subject to multiple forms of violence--including sexual and emotional abuse.

Caring for the families of others often meant that enslaved Black women lacked agency and access to caregiving for their own families. Under slavery, Black women were not empowered to care for or make decisions for their own families, at the same time that they were forced to care for the families of their enslavers. Black women's children were sold from their arms. Marriages were tenuous as couples were sold and separated.

As women, Black women were not afforded the same protections as white women who were relegated to maintaining the family and the household. Black women performed agricultural work as well as work inside two homes—their own and that of their enslaver. As Black people, Black women were not afforded the same protections as white people, including the right to vote, the right to address grievances against the government, the right to property, and the right to freedom. Instead, Black people were designated by the United States Constitution as three fifths of a human being—for the purposes of apportioning power and influence to those who bought and sold enslaved people.

White women were able to enter and succeed in the workforce largely because of the work of Black women and other women of color. Without Black women's labor inside of white households, white women would not have been able to break (some) of the barriers of sexism that relegated the value of women's contributions to the sphere of the home.

Though slavery was legally abolished in the United States in 1865, the conditions that existed under slavery continue to persist today. Black women continue to be at a severe disadvantage in many aspects of our democracy and our economy. Whether one examines Black women's access to health care, Black women's earnings, or Black women's access to much needed social supports like childcare and eldercare, Black women are getting the short end of the stick--despite having contributed so much to the building of this nation.

The result is a racialized economy where Black women are losing ground. The care economy was built, in large part, from Black women's labor. Today, the care economy is one of the fastest growing sectors of the US economy, overall. Yet, in the fastest growing sector of the economy, wages are not growing. The people who care for those we care for the most are underpaid, undervalued, and under-protected. While the care workforce today is comprised largely of immigrant women from Central America, Latin America, the Caribbean, and Asia, Black immigrant and Black American women are still concentrated in the sector. Thirty percent of the workforce that cares for us are Black American women.

Three years ago, we had a vision to deepen our work amongst Black domestic workers, both US-born and immigrant, in order to help strengthen the domestic worker movement. Because domestic work is rooted in the legacy of slavery, we know we have more work to do to ensure that Black women are organized and contributing to the movement that we helped to shape, historically and in the contemporary moment. To reshape our economy and our democracy so that every care worker is cared for in return, we know we have to build a multiracial, multinational movement. Black domestic workers are critical to this movement because of our history in this sector, and because of shared history of struggle against racism, enslavement, and patriarchy.

In 2013, we dreamt of building an organizing project inside of the NDWA to organize and build the leadership capacity of Black domestic workers called We Dream in Black (WeDIB). If Black women are going to lead the fight to transform our democracy and our economy, we have to invest in their capacity to do so. In our work, we provide support for Black domestic workers to be effective organizers that write and change policy and culture, to break down the barriers that keep Black immigrants and Black Americans divided, and to build our power across the diaspora.

Today, WeDIB is comprised of four NDWA chapters in New York City, Seattle, Durham and Atlanta, alongside affiliate members in Miami and Boston. WeDIB provides a critical opportunity for Black women across the diaspora to join together to understand what connects us and how our differences can be leveraged for power. Our motto is "across the diaspora, our organizing is our power." Bringing together Black American and Black immigrant women to fight for each other can serve as a model for the rest of the domestic worker movement, as well as contribute to it.

In 2016, our team anchored an initiative to have half a million conversations with poor and low income women, women of color, and immigrant women across the country around an agenda of what we call "whole person politics." Together, we talked with more than one million people who share a different vision for our country, rooted in the empowerment of those upon whom we depend on to provide care for our families and the people we love. We have brought together Black women from across the diaspora to discuss what unites us; to be courageous enough to talk about what keeps us separated, and to devise plans to build our power. We have partnered with labor unions, grassroots organizations,

FOREWORD (cont.)

and other community institutions to build new relationships, to change the narrative about our lives and what we are facing, and to make the case for why Black women must be in the leadership of social movements in the 21st century. The Status of Black Women in the United States is one step in that journey.

This report, the Status of Black Women in the United States, is our first attempt to have a holistic view of the conditions that Black American women are experiencing across the country, with an eye towards Black women in the care industry. It is our hope that this research supports on the ground organizing work across the nation, and helps form the basis for new policy, practice and legislation that supports the well-being of Black caregivers, so that all caregivers can be cared for in return. Using available data, we have attempted to paint a picture of the lived experiences of millions of Black women across the United States.

There are also important gaps in this report--this data does not include the experiences of Black immigrant women, nor does it provide information on the experiences of Black transgender women in the care industry. Organizations like the Black Alliance for Just Immigration have contributed to the field by filling in these gaps and developing our understanding of what Black people in the United States are facing by making sure that Black immigrant life in the United States is being highlighted and is shaping our efforts to improve the lives of all Black people. Similarly, organizations like Transgender Gender Variant Intersex Justice Project have a focus on improving the lives of Black transgender women, particularly those who are currently or formerly incarcerated. As a result, the experiences highlighted here are merely a snapshot of the experiences of Black women born in the United States, and is not intended to be portrayed as the definitive experience of Black women. Instead, we hope that the data contained within this report can give us a better sense of what some Black women experience in the economy and in our democracy, and can provide an introduction to the conditions that some Black American families are facing. There is more work to do to bring together these experiences to create a more nuanced picture of Black life in the United States.

There is much at stake for all of us. A shifting political landscape has put Black women even more at risk for disenfranchisement and marginalization. A new movement has taken power at the state and federal level, and have quickly moved to dismantle already insufficient protections for cisgender women, transgender and gender nonconforming communities, immigrant communities, and Muslim communities. Domestic workers are vulnerable because of their exclusion from most federal labor protections, as well as ongoing attacks on labor regulations by a ultra-conservative political majority with an agenda to increase the power, influence, and profits of corporations. Black domestic workers are particularly vulnerable because of the ways in which racial disparities, gender discrimination, and immigration status serve to further marginalize and disempower the very people who power our economy and push our democracy to be the best that it can be.

The intention behind this report is to make visible the experiences of Black women in our economy and our democracy. We hope that the information and recommendations contained within can be a contribution to a social movement that works hard each day to bring forward the world we know that we all deserve. Ultimately, we aim to contribute to that movement by ensuring that Black women--cisgender, transgender, gender non conforming, immigrant, low income, disabled, US born, with children or without--are at the center of an economy and a democracy that works for all of us.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

This report was generously funded by the National Domestic Workers Alliance (NDWA); the authors are grateful to Alicia Garza, Special Projects Director at NDWA, and Celeste Faison, Black Organizing Coordinator, for providing helpful direction and guidance throughout the project. Linda Burnham, Senior Advisor, also offered invaluable support and expertise. Additional funding was provided by the NoVo Foundation and the Ford Foundation.

Many experts reviewed sections of the report and provided helpful input: Marc Bayard, Associate Fellow and Director of the Institute for Policy Studies' Black Worker Initiative; Linda Goler Blount, President & CEO of the Black Women's Health Imperative; Charmaine Davis, Chapter Director of 9to5 Georgia; Oleta Fitzgerald, Southern Regional Director of the Children's Defense Fund; Valerie Rochester, Director of Programs and Training at the Black Women's Health Imperative; Dr. William Spriggs, Chief Economist to the AFL-CIO and Professor of Economics at Howard University; and Dr. Doretha Walker, Program Director in the College of Business at South University. Gilda M. Morales, Project Manager for Information Services at the Center for American Women and Politics, kindly provided unpublished data on women officeholders.

IWPR wishes to acknowledge two reports that were especially helpful resources: ***Black Women in the United States 2016*** (Black Women's Roundtable 2016) and the Center for American Women and Politics and Higher Heights Leadership Fund's report ***Voices. Votes. Leadership. The Status of Black Women in American Politics*** (Dittmar 2015).

Dr. Heidi Hartmann, IWPR President, reviewed the report and provided helpful feedback. Dr. Barbara Gault, Vice President and Executive Director, and Dr. Cynthia Hess, Associate Director of Research, also reviewed the report and provided guidance throughout the project. Julie Anderson, Senior Research Associate, contributed to the data collection and assisted with project management. Elyse Shaw, Senior Research Associate, also offered helpful input on the report. Jennifer Clark, Director of Communications, and Mallory Mpare-Quarles, Communications Manager, Production & Website, provided editorial assistance. Dr. Jeffrey Hayes, Program Director of Job Quality and Income Security, conducted data analysis on access to paid sick days. Former IWPR Data Analyst Jenny Xia, Research Assistant Emma Williams-Baron, Mariam K. Chamberlain Fellows Melanie Kruvelis and Gladys McLean, and Research Interns Emily Molloy and Bo Donoghue provided research assistance.

Design: Aija Suuta & Gaïa Orain

Contents.

Introduction

Why The Status of Black Women in the United States? xv

About the Report xvi

Key Findings xviii

About the Data xx

How *The Status of Women in the States* Reports Are Used xxv

ONE

POLITICAL PARTICIPATION

Key Findings 1

Introduction 1

Black Women's Voting Activity 2

Voter Registration 2

Voter Turnout 2

FOCUS ON: EARLY VOTING 3

The Impact of Voter Identification Laws on Black Women 4

Black Women in Elected Office 4

Conclusion 8

Appendix 1. Political Participation Tables 12

TWO

EMPLOYMENT & EARNINGS

Key Findings 19

Introduction 19

Labor Force Participation 21

Black Women's Earnings 22

Gender Wage Gap by Race/Ethnicity 24

The Union Advantage 25

Unemployment 26

Occupational Segregation 28

FOCUS ON: DOMESTIC WORKERS 31

Managerial and Professional Occupations 32

Conclusion 35

Appendix 2. Employment & Earnings Tables 38

THREE

WORK & FAMILY

Key Findings 45

Introduction 45

Parents' Labor Force Participation 46

Mothers as Breadwinners 46

Black Women as Caregivers and Caregiving as Work 49

Child Care 49

FOCUS ON: CARE WORK 51

Elder and Dependent Care 53

Work-Family Supports 53

Conclusion 54

Appendix 3. Work & Family Tables 58

FOUR

POVERTY & OPPORTUNITY

Key Findings 65

Introduction 65

Access to Health Insurance 67

The Patient Protection and Affordable Care Act 67

Education 69

FOCUS ON: REPARATIONS 72

Black Women Business Owners 73

Poverty 74

FOCUS ON: IMMIGRANT BLACK WOMEN 76

Poverty and the Social Safety Net 76

Conclusion 79

Appendix 4. Poverty & Opportunity Tables 83

FIVE

HEALTH & WELL-BEING

Key Findings 89

Introduction 89

Chronic Disease 90

Sexual and Reproductive Health 94

Mental Health 98

Limitations on Women's Activities 99

Disabled Women 99

Obesity and Healthy Weight 100

FOCUS ON: FOOD INSECURITY 101

Conclusion 103

Appendix 5. Health & Well-Being Tables 107

SIX

VIOLENCE & SAFETY

Key Findings 119

Introduction 119

Intimate Partner Violence 120

Sexual Violence 120

Stalking 121

Homicide by Men 121

Black Women and the Criminal Justice System 122

Racial Profiling & Police Brutality 126

FOCUS ON: LGBTQ WOMEN 126

Conclusion 127

SEVEN

RECOMMENDATIONS

Strengthening Black Women's Political Participation 131

Supporting Employment and Increasing Earnings for Black Women 131

Creating a Policy Infrastructure to Support Work-Life Balance 132

Expanding Opportunities and Reducing Poverty Among Black Women 132

Improving Black Women's Health and Access to Health Care Services 133

Reducing Violence Against Black Women and Increasing Safety 133

Appendix A7. Demographics 138

Appendix B7. Methodology 145

References 148

Lists of Maps & Figures.

MAPS

Map 1.1 States That Have Sent a Black Woman to Congress, 1968-2016 — 6

Map 1.2 Percent of State Legislators Who are Black Women, 2016 — 7

Map 2.1 Black Women's Labor Force Participation Rate, 2014 — 22

Map 2.2 Black Women's Median Annual Earnings for Full-Time, Year-Round Workers, 2014 — 25

Map 2.3 Earnings Ratio Between Black Women and White Men, 2014 — 27

Map 2.4 Black Women in Managerial or Professional Occupations, 2014 — 34

Map 4.1 Health Coverage Among Black Women, 2014 — 68

Map 4.2 Where States Stand on Adopting Medicaid Expansion — 69

Map 4.3 Percent of Black Women with a Bachelor's Degree or Higher, 2014 — 71

Map 4.4 Black Women Living Below the Poverty Line, 2014 — 78

Map 5.1 Heart Disease Mortality Rates Among Black Women, 2013 — 91

Map 5.2 Infant Mortality Among Black Women, 2013 — 100

Map 5.3 Average Number of Days per Month That Black Women's Poor Mental or Physical Health Limited Activities, 2014 — 102

FIGURES

Figure 2.1 Women's Labor Force Participation Rate by Race/Ethnicity, United States, 2004 and 2014 — 21

Figure 2.2 Median Annual Earnings for Full-Time, Year-Round Workers by Race/Ethnicity, United States, 2014 — 23

Figure 2.3 Median Annual Earnings for Full-Time, Year-Round Women Workers by Educational Attainment and Race/Ethnicity, United States, 2014 — 24

Figure 2.4 Percent of Female Workers with a Pension Plan by Union Status and Race/Ethnicity, United States, 2014 — 30

Figure 2.5 Unemployment by Gender and Race/Ethnicity, United States, 2014 — 30

Figure 3.1 Labor Force Participation Rate of Parents with Children Under Six, United States, 2014 — 46

Figure 3.2 Percent of Married Couples with Children Under 18 with Breadwinner Mothers by Race/Ethnicity, United States, 2014 — 47

Figure 3.3 Percent of all Breadwinner Mothers Who are Single Mothers by Race/Ethnicity, United States, 2014 — 48

Figure 3.4 Percent of Black Mothers of Children Under 18 Who are Breadwinners by Race/Ethnicity, United States, 2014 — 48

Figure 3.5 Percent of Women Living with a Person Aged 15 and Older with a Disability by Race/Ethnicity, United States, 2014 — 52

Figure 3.6 Access to Paid Sick Days by Gender and Race/Ethnicity, United States, 2014 — 52

Figure 4.1 Health Insurance Coverage Rates by Gender and Race/Ethnicity, United States, 2014 — 67

Figure 4.2 Percent of Women Aged 25 and Older with a Bachelor's Degree or Higher, by Race/Ethnicity, United States, 2004 and 2014 — 70

Figure 4.3 Women's Highest level of Educational Attainment by Race/Ethnicity, United States, 2014 — 72

Figure 4.4 Women-Owned Businesses by Race, United States, 2012 — 75

Figure 4.5 Percent of Women Living in Poverty by Race/Ethnicity, United States, 2004 and 2014 — 77

Figure 5.1 Heart Disease Mortality Rates (per 100,000) Among Women, by Race and Ethnicity, United States, 2013 — 90

Figure 5.2 Average Annual Heart Disease Mortality Among Women (per 100,000), by Race/Ethnicity and State, 1999 through 2013 — 92

Figure 5.3 Average Annual Lung and Breast Cancer Mortality Rates (per 100,000) Among Women by Race and Ethnicity, United States, 2013 — 93

Figure 5.4 Percent of Women Who Have Ever Been Told They Have Diabetes by Race/Ethnicity, United States, 2014 — 94

Figure 5.5 Average Annual Incidence Rate of AIDS Among Women (per 100,000) by Race/Ethnicity, United States, 2013 — 95

Figure 5.6 Average Annual Incidence Rate of AIDS Among Women (per 100,000) by Race/Ethnicity, United States, 2000 through 2013 — 96

Figure 5.7 Percent of Women Who Have Ever Been Tested for HIV by Race/Ethnicity, United States, 2014 — 96

Figure 5.8 Infant Mortality Rate by Race/Ethnicity, United States, 2013 — 99

Figure 5.9 Average Number of Days per Month of Poor Mental Health Among Women by Race/Ethnicity, United States, 2014 — 101

Figure 5.10 Average Number of Days That Women's Poor Mental or Physical Health Limited Activities by Race/Ethnicity, United States, 2014 — 102

Figure 6.1 Lifetime Prevalence of Physical Violence and Psychological Aggression by an Intimate Partner Among Women, by Race/Ethnicity, United States, 2011 — 120

Figure 6.2 Lifetime Prevalence of Sexual Violence Victimization by Any Perpetrator Among Women, by Race and Ethnicity, United States, 2011 — 121

Figure 6.3 Imprisonment Rate of Sentenced State and Federal Female Prisoners (per 100,000 women) by Race, United States, 2014 — 124

Figure 6.4 Percent of Sentenced Prisoners in State Prisons by Offense as of December 31, 2013 by Gender, United States — 125

List of Tables.

TABLES

Table 1.1 Voter Registration and Turnout by Gender and Race/Ethnicity, United States, 2012 and 2014. — 3

Table 1.2 Women in Elected Office in the United States, 2016 — 5

Table 2.1 State-by-State Data on the Employment and Earnings of Black Women and All Women, 2014 — 20

Table 2.2 Median Annual Earnings and Percent Change in Real Earnings for Full-Time, Year-Round Workers by Race/Ethnicity, United States, 2004 and 2014 — 26

Table 2.3 Women's and Men's Median Annual Earnings and the Gender Earnings Ratio, Full-Time, Year-Round Workers, United States, 2014 — 27

Table 2.4 Union Membership Among Women by Race/Ethnicity, United States, 2014 — 28

Table 2.5 Union Wage Advantage by Gender and Race/Ethnicity, United States, 2014 — 29

Table 2.6 Distribution of Employed Women Across Broad Occupational Groups by Race/Ethnicity, 2014 — 32

Table 2.7 Black Women in Low-Wage, Female-Dominated Jobs, 2014 — 33

Table 3.1 Cost of Child Care Relative to Black Women's Earnings by State, 2014 — 50

Table 4.1 State-by-State Data on Poverty and Opportunity Among Black Women and All Women, 2014 — 66

Table 4.2 Growth in Firms by Gender and Race/Ethnicity, 2002-2012 — 74

Table 4.3 Top Ten States for Black Women's Business Ownership, 2012 — 77

Table 5.1 Prenatal Care and Low Birth Weight by Race/Ethnicity, United States — 98

Table 6.1 Percent of U.S. Residents Serving Sentences of at Least One Year in Prison as of December 2014, by Gender and Race/Ethnicity, United States — 124

APPENDIX TABLES

Appendix Table 1.1 Women in the U.S. House of Representatives by Race/Ethnicity and State, 2015 — 13

Appendix Table 1.2 Women in State Legislatures by Race/Ethnicity and State, 2016 — 14

Appendix Table 1.3 Women in Statewide Elected Executive Office by Race/Ethnicity and State, 2016 — 15

Appendix Table 1.4 Black Women's Political Representation Compared with Their Share of State Population, 2016 — 16

Appendix Table 2.1 Women's Labor Force Participation Rates by Race/Ethnicity and State, 2014 — 39

Appendix Table 2.2 Median Annual Earnings for Women Employed Full-Time, Year-Round by Race/Ethnicity and State, 2014 — 40

Appendix Table 2.3 State-by-State Median Annual Earnings and Gender Earnings Ratio Between Black Women and White Men, 2014 — 41

Appendix Table 2.4 Percent of Women Employed in Service Occupations by Race/Ethnicity and State, 2014 — 42

Appendix Table 2.5 Percent of Employed Women in Managerial or Professional Occupations by Race/Ethnicity and State, 2014 — 43

Appendix Table 3.1 Percent of Married Couple Households with Children with a Female Breadwinner by Race/Ethnicity and State, 2014 — 59

Appendix Table 3.2 Percent of Breadwinner Mothers Who Are Single Mothers by Race/Ethnicity and State, 2014 — 60

Appendix Table 3.3 Percent of All Households with Mothers of Children Under 18 That Have a Breadwinner Mother by Race/Ethnicity and State, 2014 — 61

Appendix Table 3.4 Percent of Women Living with a Person with a Disability by Race/Ethnicity and State, 2014 — 62

Appendix Table 4.1 Health Insurance Coverage Among Women by Race/Ethnicity and State, 2014 — 83

Appendix Table 4.2 Percent of Women with a Bachelor's Degree or Higher by Race/Ethnicity and State, 2014 — 84

Appendix Table 4.3 Women's Business Ownership by Race/Ethnicity and State, 2012 — 85

Appendix Table 4.4 Percent of Women Living Below the Poverty Line by Race/Ethnicity and State, 2014 — 86

Appendix Table 5.1 Average Annual Heart Disease Mortality Rate Among Women (per 100,000) by Race/Ethnicity and State, 2013 — 107

Appendix Table 5.2 Average Annual Lung Cancer Mortality Rate Among Women (per 100,000) by Race/Ethnicity and State, 2013 — 108

Appendix Table 5.3 Average Annual Breast Cancer Mortality Rate Among Women (per 100,000) by Race/Ethnicity and State, 2013 — 109

Appendix Table 5.4 Incidence of Women Ever Having Been Told They Have Diabetes by Race/Ethnicity and State, 2014 — 110

Appendix Table 5.5 Percent of Women Who Have Ever Been Tested for HIV by Race/Ethnicity and State, 2014 — 111

Appendix Table 5.6 Percent of Mothers with Low Birthweight Babies by Race/Ethnicity and State, 2013 — 112

Appendix Table 5.7 Infant Mortality Rate (deaths of infants under age one per 1,000 live births) by Race/Ethnicity of Mother and State, 2013 — 113

Appendix Table 5.8 Average Number of Days per Month That Women's Mental Health is Not Good by Race/Ethnicity and State, 2014 — 114

Appendix Table 5.9 Suicide Mortality Among Women (per 100,000) by Race/Ethnicity and State, 2014 — 115

Appendix Table 5.10 Average Number of Days per Month That Women's Poor Mental or Physical Health Limited Activities by Race/Ethnicity and State, 2014 — 116

Appendix Table 5.11 Percent of Women Who Are Overweight or Obese by Race/Ethnicity and State, 2014 — 117

Appendix Table 7.1 Basic Demographics of Women by Race/Ethnicity and State, 2014 — 139

Appendix Table 7.2 Distribution of Women by Race/Ethnicity and State, 2014 — 140

Appendix Table 7.3 Percent of Women Aged 65 and Older by Race/Ethnicity and State, 2014 — 141

Appendix Table 7.4 Percent of Women Under Age 35 by Race/Ethnicity and State, 2014 — 142

Appendix Table 7.5 Percent of Women Living in Rural Areas by Race/Ethnicity and State, 2014 — 143

Introduction.

Why the Status of Black Women in the United States?

Black women make essential contributions to the productivity, wealth, and success of the nation. For many years, Black women have supported their families and served as leaders in their communities and society at large.

Black women played an integral role in the fight to desegregate public schools in the 1950s and 1960s, the passage of the Voting Rights Act of 1965, and multiple movements to ensure equal treatment for Black and brown women and men. Today, Black women are one of the most active groups of voters in the country, and Black women and girls are creating greater opportunities for their communities through their leadership in social movements such as Black Lives Matter, Say Her Name, and the national domestic workers' movement for fair labor protections and dignified working conditions.

Yet, beginning with the stark exploitation of slavery in the seventeenth century, Black women's contributions to U.S. society and the economy have been undervalued and undercompensated. Black women, along with multiracial women, have the highest labor force participation rate in the nation among women, but at all educational levels Black women are concentrated in lower-paying jobs than most other groups of workers. When working full-time, year-round, Black women earn just 64 cents to every dollar earned by comparable White men. In addition, Black women are overrepresented in the service sector, doing crucial work to care for children, the elderly, and individuals with disabilities while earning low wages and receiving few benefits. Black women also experience high poverty rates as well as high rates of victimization from violence.

In the current political and economic context—which includes the spread of anti-union legislation and voter identification laws that can make it more difficult for people of color and low-income individuals to vote, the refusal of states to fully implement the Patient Protection and Affordable Care Act, and the disproportionate incarceration of Black women—it is essential to elevate Black women's voices and experiences. The Status of Black Women in the United States aims to provide critical data to identify the barriers that Black women face and suggest community investments, programs, and public policies that can lead to positive changes for Black women and their families.

About the Report

In the context of widespread economic inequality, the systematic disenfranchisement of Black communities, and blatant violence against and over-incarceration of Black and brown women, men, and children, Black women are demanding social and economic change with full and equal access to our social institutions and political power. As were their mothers and grandmothers before them, they are essential in building the movements to fight for civil rights, better education and health care, and against police violence and poverty.

Research on and by Black women has brought the challenges and triumphs of Black women's lives to the forefront, highlighting where Black women's hard work and dedication have resulted in increased representation in political office or improved educational attainment and where more needs to be done to lift families from poverty or improve women's working conditions (Collins 2000a; Guy-Sheftall 1995). IWPR's The Status of Black Women in the United States builds on this legacy by expanding what we know about Black women's status across states and across issue areas.

This report analyzes data for all 50 states and the District of Columbia across six topical areas that affect women's lives: political participation, employment and earnings, work and family, poverty and opportunity, health and well-being, and violence and safety. Within each of these areas, various indicators of well-being are explored. While the focus of the report is on the status of Black women, comparisons between Black women and other racial and ethnic groups of women (and men) are presented to contextualize the data. Basic demographic data for each state are also provided. The report concludes with recommendations to improve the status of Black women in the United States.

Key Findings.

The Status of Black Women in the United States identifies a number of key findings:

Black women vote at comparatively high rates and had a higher voting rate than all other groups of men and women during the last two presidential elections.

Black women remain underrepresented at every level of federal and state political office in the United States.

In 2014, Black women composed 6.4 percent of the United States population, but as of August 2016 held only 3.4 percent of seats in the United States Congress and no seats in the U.S. Senate. In state legislatures, Black women held just 3.5 percent of seats. Only two Black women in the country held a position in statewide executive elected office.

More than six in ten (62.2 percent) Black women are in the workforce,

making them one of the two racial/ethnic groups of women with the highest labor force participation rate among women and the only group of women with a higher labor force participation rate than their male counterparts.

Black women's median annual earnings ($34,000 for those who work full-time, year-round) lag behind most women's and men's earnings in the United States.

Between 2004 and 2014, Black women's real median annual earnings declined by 5.0 percent (Table 2.2). As of 2014, Black women who worked full-time, year-round had median annual earnings that were 64.6 percent of White men's ($53,000). In Louisiana, the state with the largest gap in earnings between Black women and White men, Black women earned less than half of White men's earnings (46.3 percent).

About 28 percent of employed Black women work in service occupations,

the occupational group with the lowest wages. Jobs in this broad occupational group often lack important benefits such as paid sick days.

Black families depend on Black women's earnings.

Eight out of ten (80.6 percent) Black mothers are breadwinners, who are either the sole earner or earn at least 40 percent of household income.

Quality child care is unaffordable for many Black women.

In all but two states in the country, the average costs of child care exceed 20 percent of Black women's median annual earnings.

While health insurance coverage rates have increased substantially due to the implementation of the 2010 Patient Protection and Affordable Care Act (ACA), 16.5 percent of nonelderly Black women in the United States still lacked coverage as of 2014.

Many of the states that place in the bottom third in the country in terms of Black women's health insurance coverage are states in which Medicaid expansion has not been adopted since the implementation of the ACA.

Between 2004 and 2014, the share of Black women with a bachelor's degree or higher increased by 23.9 percent, making Black women the group of women with the second-largest improvement in attainment of higher education during the decade.

In 2014, about 22 percent of Black women aged 25 and older had bachelor's degrees or higher. Black women had higher levels of education than Black men (17 percent), but lower levels of education than Asian/Pacific Islander men and women, men and women of another race or two or more races, and White men and women.

The number of businesses owned by Black women increased by 178 percent between 2002 and 2012, the largest increase among all racial and ethnic groups of women and men.

In 2012, Black women owned 15.4 percent of all women-owned businesses in the United States, a larger share than their share of the female population (12.7 percent). In the District of Columbia, Mississippi, and Georgia, Black women own more than 40 percent of all women-owned businesses. Yet, nationwide, businesses owned by Black women had the lowest average sales per firm among all racial and ethnic groups of women and men, at $27,753.

Black women experience poverty at higher rates than Black men and women from all other racial/ethnic groups except Native American women.

A quarter of Black women in the United States live in poverty (24.6 percent), compared with 18.9 percent of Black men and 10.8 percent of White women, who have the lowest poverty rate among women.

Black women's average annual heart disease mortality rate declined by 38.5 percent between 1999 and 2013,

although at 177.7 per 100,000 it remains the highest rate among the largest racial and ethnic groups of women.

Black women have the second highest lung cancer mortality rate among the largest racial and ethnic groups of women (35.7 per 100,000),

behind White women (39.9 per 100,000), while having the highest breast cancer mortality rate among all racial and ethnic groups of women (30.2 per 100,000).

Black women's average incidence of AIDS is five times higher than any other racial and ethnic group of women.

However, incidence of AIDS among Black women decreased by 45.1 percent between 2000 and 2013.

Black women experience intimate partner violence at higher rates than women overall.

More than 40 percent of Black women experience physical violence by an intimate partner during their lifetimes (41.2 percent), compared with 31.5 percent of all women.

From a young age, Black girls are disciplined at higher rates than all other groups of girls within public schools.

Black girls composed 45 percent of girls suspended from K-12 schools between 2011 and 2012.

Black women of all ages were twice as likely to be imprisoned as White women in 2014 (109 per 100,000 Black women were imprisoned in state and federal prisons compared with 53 per 100,000 White women).

Among young women, the disparity is especially pronounced: Black women aged 18-19 are four times as likely to be imprisoned as White women of the same age (32 per 100,000 compared with 8 per 100,000).

About the Data

The Status of Black Women in the United States builds on IWPR's long-standing The Status of Women in the States report series, which since 1996 has provided data on women nationally and for all 50 states and the District of Columbia.

When developing the project in the mid-1990s, IWPR referred to several sources for guidelines on what to include. The Beijing Declaration and Platform for Action from the U.N. Fourth World Conference on Women guided some of IWPR's choices of indicators. This document, the result of an official convocation of delegates from around the world, outlines issues of concern to women, rights fundamental to women achieving equality and autonomy, and remaining obstacles to women's advancement. IWPR also worked with state advisory committees between 1996 and 2004 to produce a report for each of the 50 states and the District of Columbia; these committees reviewed their state's report and provided input for improving the project as a whole. The selection of data for this report was informed both by IWPR's previous work on the status of women and by input received from experts in the field.

This report relies on multiple data sources, including data from federal government agencies and nonprofit organizations. The primary data source is the American Community Survey (ACS) from the Minnesota Population Center's Integrated Public Use Microdata Series. The ACS is a large annual survey conducted by the U.S. Census Bureau of a representative sample of the entire resident population in the United States, including both households and group quarter (GQ) facilities. The ACS has sufficiently large sample sizes to provide data on women disaggregated by race/ethnicity and age at the state level. For this report, IWPR used 2014 data, the most recent available, for most indicators and combined three years of data (2012, 2013, and 2014) when necessary to ensure large enough sample sizes to produce reliable estimates. When examining trends at the national level in Black women's status over the last decade, IWPR used 2004 ACS data for comparison.

Some of the differences reported among states—or between a state and the nation—are likely to be statistically significant. That is, they are unlikely to have occurred by chance and probably represent a true difference among states or between a state and the country as a whole. In other cases, these differences are too small to be statistically significant and are likely to have occurred by chance. IWPR did not calculate or report measures of statistical significance. Generally, the larger a difference between two values (for any given sample size or distribution), the more likely it is that the difference is statistically significant. Sample sizes differ among the indicators analyzed.

How The Status of Women in the States Reports Are Used

The Status of Women in the States reports have three primary goals:

to analyze and disseminate information about women's progress in achieving rights and opportunities;

to identify and measure the remaining barriers to equality; and

to provide baseline measures for monitoring women's progress.

The reports have been used throughout the country to highlight remaining obstacles facing women in the United States and to encourage policy changes designed to improve the status of women of all races and ethnicities. IWPR's state and local partners use the reports to educate the public; inform policies and programs; make the case for changes that benefit diverse women, including establishing commissions for women, expanding child care subsidies for low-income women, encouraging women to vote and run for office, strengthening supports for women-owned businesses, developing training programs for women to enter nontraditional occupations, and increasing women's access to health care; establish investment priorities; and inspire community efforts to strengthen area economies by increasing the participation of women and improving women's status.

This report was produced in partnership with the National Domestic Workers' Alliance's work to amplify the historical and current contributions of Black domestic workers to the broader domestic worker movement.

ONE

POLITICAL PARTICIPATION

The Status of Black Women

in the United States

Introduction

Throughout U.S. history, Black women have been active agents of political change despite facing obstacles that have often hindered their participation in the political process.

On the one hand, Black women have served as leaders of their communities, organizing for freedom from slavery, against racial segregation, for women's right to vote, and against many other forms of injustice (Crenshaw and Ritchie 2015; Dittmar 2015; Jones 2010; Williams 2004; Williams 2008; Yee 1992). Black women were instrumental in passing the Voting Rights Act of 1965 and today are engaged in activism to change restrictive voter identification laws that have passed in many states, making it more difficult for some individuals—especially Black and Latino voters, women and men with low incomes, and young and older individuals—to vote (Brennan Center for Social Justice 2006; Gaskins and Iyer 2012; Smith 2015; Sobel 2014; U.S. Government Accountability Office 2015). In addition, as of 2016, Black women were one of the most active groups of voters in the country.

On the other hand, Black women continue to face considerable barriers to reaching political office and are underrepresented at all major levels of political office in the United States compared with their share of the U.S. population. This underrepresentation has important implications for policymaking. Research shows that political representation is highly significant in determining which issues, policies, and communities' needs get prioritized. Several national studies suggest that women of color, and Black women in particular, legislate in different ways from other groups of women and Black men due to their particular locations at the intersections of race and gender (Bratton, Haynie, and Reingold 2006; Fraga et al. 2006; Reingold and Smith 2012; Smooth 2001). One study in Mississippi found that among Black and White male and female legislators, Black women were most likely to introduce bills representing women's interests and were also most likely to introduce bills representing Black communities' interests (Orey et al. 2006).

This chapter presents data on two aspects of Black women's political participation in the United States: voting activity and political representation.

Key Findings

Black women vote at comparatively high rates and had a higher voting rate than all other groups of men and women during the last two presidential elections.

Black women remain underrepresented at every level of federal and state political office in the United States.

In 2014, Black women composed 6.4 percent of the United States population, but as of August 2016 held only 3.4 percent of seats in the United States Congress and no seats in the U.S. Senate. In state legislatures, Black women held just 3.5 percent of seats. Only two Black women in the country held a position in statewide executive elected office.

Voter identification laws have been found to disproportionately reduce Black voter turnout in multiple states,

potentially due to the fact that fewer Blacks possess the specific forms of identification required by these laws compared with other racial and ethnic groups. In the South, where 52.6 percent of Black Americans reside, twelve out of thirteen states in the region have implemented voter identification laws, compared with about six out of ten states nationally.

Black Women's Voting Activity

Voting is one way that people express their concerns and ensure that their interests are taken into account in public policy.

Black women, however, have historically faced substantial obstacles to voting. While Black men were legally granted the right to vote by the 15th amendment in 1870, Black women, along with women of other racial and ethnic groups, were barred from voting until half a century later. Black women were active in the suffrage movement, founding at least 20 Black suffrage organizations across the country (Landry 2000). Yet even after the 19th Amendment was ratified in 1920 and women won the right to vote, Black women and the Black community as a whole faced racialized obstacles to registering to vote, such as literacy tests, poll taxes, and violence, especially in the South (Brown-Dean et al. 2015; Landry 2000). The Voting Rights Act of 1965 helped to address these systematic exclusionary tactics and allowed for much higher rates of Black voter registration and turnout than previously possible (Orey et al. 2006).

Black women today have a significant voice in deciding the outcomes of U.S. political elections and made history in the 2008 presidential election when they turned out to vote at a higher rate than all other groups of male and female voters for the first time (Lopez and Taylor 2009). Despite Black women's strong voter turnout, however, factors such as restrictive voter identification laws and the striking down of Section 4 of the Voting Rights Act (see below) may pose a growing threat to Black women's voting activity. Black women with low family incomes and young Black women may also face barriers to voting. Among all race/ethnic groups considered together, while 52 percent of those with family incomes above $150,000 voted in the 2014 midterm election, just one in four of those with family incomes less than $10,000 voted in the same election (McElwee 2015). In addition, turnout among low-income individuals is especially low for those between the ages of 18 and 24; only 12 percent of 18 to 24-year-olds earning less than $30,000 voted in 2014 (McElwee 2015).

Voter Registration

Black women had the second highest level of voter registration among women during the 2012 and 2014 elections and registered to vote at higher rates than their male counterparts in both elections. Like all other groups of voters, Black women registered to vote at lower rates during the 2014 midterm election than during the 2012 presidential election. Black women and Black men experienced the most substantial declines in voter registration between 2012 and 2014 among all racial and ethnic groups.

- During the 2012 presidential election, 71.8 percent of all Black women aged 18 and older were registered to vote—the second highest rate of voter registration among women (and men) of the largest racial and ethnic groups (Table 1.1).[1] White women had the highest rate of voter registration among all women (73.9 percent), while Asian women had the lowest (38.3 percent).
- During the 2014 midterm election, 63.0 percent of all Black women aged 18 or older were registered to vote, a considerably higher registration rate than among Black men (55.6 percent). Black women were less likely to be registered to vote than White women (68.4 percent), but more likely to be registered than Hispanic (37.8 percent) and Asian women (34.8 percent; Table 1.1).

Voter Turnout

Black women voted at higher rates than all other groups of women and all groups of men in the 2008 and 2012 presidential elections (Dittmar 2015), which may be due in part to the presence of the nation's first African American president on the ballot in these elections (Philpot, Shaw, and McGowen 2009).

- During the 2012 presidential election, two-thirds of Black women aged 18 and older (66.1 percent) voted (Table 1.1). Black women were considerably more likely than their male counterparts to vote (57.1 percent of all Black men voted) and slightly more likely than White women (64.5 percent) to go to the polls. The voter turnout rate among Black women was about double the rates for Hispanic (33.9 percent) and Asian women (32.0 percent).
- During the 2014 midterm election, Black women's voting rate dropped to 40.8 percent, making Black women the group with the third highest voting rate, behind White women and White men.

FOCUS ON: EARLY VOTING

Permitting early voting reduces lines at polling stations and allows individuals who are unable to vote in person on Election Day to cast a ballot.

Black women—who participate in the labor force at high rates, have substantial caregiving responsibilities, and often work in low-wage occupations with little control over their schedules—benefit from the flexibility that early voting options create. As of March 2016, 37 states and the District of Columbia offered some form of early voting, allowing voters to vote early without giving an excuse for why they might not be able to vote on Election Day (National Conference of State Legislatures 2016b). Early voting periods range from four days to 45 days. In 13 states, voters may not vote early unless they provide a valid excuse (National Conference of State Legislatures 2016b).

Research suggests that expanding early voting options benefits communities of color, while reducing early voting options lowers their voter turnout (Kasdan 2013). In 2012, 41 percent of Black voters in the South voted early compared with 35 percent of White voters (Gronke and Stewart 2013). One study found that when Florida temporarily reduced early voting rights in advance of the 2012 election, minority voters were disproportionately burdened (Gronke and Stewart 2013). Another suggests that states can make voting more accessible by offering early voting at least two weeks before Election Day, including options for weekend voting, which increase voter turnout and are particularly important for voters who work long hours during the week (Kasdan 2013).

Table 1.1

Voter Registration and Turnout by Gender and Race/Ethnicity, United States, 2012 and 2014

	Percent Registered to Vote, 2012		Percent Registered to Vote, 2014		Percent Voted, 2012		Percent Voted, 2014		Average Percent Who Registered to Vote, 2012 and 2014		Average Percent Who Voted, 2012 and 2014	
	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men
All	67.0%	63.1%	61.2%	57.2%	58.5%	54.4%	39.6%	37.2%	64.1%	60.2%	49.1%	45.8%
White	73.9%	70.9%	68.4%	65.3%	64.5%	61.5%	45.5%	44.4%	71.2%	68.1%	55.0%	53.0%
Hispanic	41.3%	36.5%	37.8%	32.1%	33.9%	29.6%	20.3%	16.5%	39.6%	34.3%	27.1%	23.1%
Black	71.8%	64.6%	63.0%	55.6%	66.1%	57.1%	40.8%	33.2%	67.4%	60.1%	53.5%	45.2%
Asian	38.3%	36.0%	34.8%	34.0%	32.0%	30.4%	19.9%	18.2%	36.6%	35.0%	26.0%	24.3%

Notes: Whites are non-Hispanic; Asians here do not include Pacific Islanders. Data are not available for Native American women.
Source: U.S. Department of Commerce (2013; 2015).

The Impact of Voter Identification Laws on Black Women

Recent changes in many states threaten the progress Black women have made in voting activity and political participation since the original passing of the Voting Rights Act of 1965. Despite the low prevalence of voter fraud in the United States (Levitt 2007), restrictive voter identification laws have increased markedly in the last decade, making it more difficult for some citizens to vote, especially low income, older, minority, and married women (Brennan Center for Social Justice 2006; Gaskins and Iyer 2012; Sobel 2014). In 2005, both Georgia and Indiana introduced the country's first strict voter identification laws, which require rather than request specific forms of identification to vote. Between 2005 and 2016, the number of states that have imposed strict identification laws has grown to eleven (National Conference of State Legislatures 2016a). As of August 2016, 34 states had passed voter identification laws requesting or requiring voters to show specific forms of identification at the polls (National Conference of State Legislatures 2016a).This wave of restrictive voter identification laws is due in part to the Supreme Court's decision in 2013 to strike down Section 4 of the Voting Rights Act, which was intended to prevent racial discrimination in voting by requiring states with a history of discrimination to receive federal approval before changing election laws (Liptak 2013). Without Section 4, states can change their election laws without federal oversight.

New voter identification laws may have a particularly negative impact on Black voter turnout. A report by the U.S. Government Accountability Office (2015) found that voter identification laws in Kansas and Tennessee have reduced voter turnout and disproportionately affected the turnout of African Americans and young people.[2] The disproportionate effects of voter identification laws on Black voter turnout may be due to the fact that on average, fewer Blacks possess the specific forms of identification that are required by the news laws for voting purposes (such as driver's licenses), compared with other racial and ethnic groups (U.S. Government Accountability Office 2015).

Voter identification laws are also concentrated in parts of the country with large Black populations. Of the ten states in which Black women compose the largest proportion of the female population, nine states had implemented voter identification laws as of March 2016 (National Conference of State Legislatures 2016a).[3] In comparison, about two-thirds of states nationally have implemented voter identification laws. Among the 13 southern states and the District of Columbia, where 52.6 percent of the nation's Black population resided in 2014, only the District of Columbia and West Virginia had not implemented voter identification laws as of March 2016 (Institute for Women's Policy Research 2015a; National Conference of State Legislatures 2016a).[4] One 2015 study of millennials found that 72.9 percent of young Black adults said that they had been asked for voter identification, compared with 50.8 percent of White millennials and 60.8 percent of Latino millennials (Rogowski and Cohen 2015).

While the nuanced effects of voter identification laws are under debate, research suggests that restrictive voter identification laws and other forms of voter suppression pose a serious threat to voters' ability to participate fully in the political process—especially low-income, Black, and/or female voters (Brennan Center for Social Justice 2006; Gaskins and Iyer 2012).

Black Women in Elected Office

Black women are significantly underrepresented in elected offices in the United States relative to their share of the population (6.4 percent; Table 1.2; Institute for Women's Policy Research 2015a). In the 114th Congress, there are just 18 Black women in the House of Representatives (4.1 percent) and no Black women in the Senate. In fact, only one Black woman has occupied a Senate seat in U.S. history (Center for American Women and Politics 2016a).[5] Black women have an even lower level of representation in state legislatures, where they held 3.5 percent of seats in 2016.

Many factors likely contribute to Black women's underrepresentation in elected office. While research on Black women candidates is sparse, studies suggest that fewer women overall run for office than men because of barriers they face at nearly every step of the process (Baer and Hartmann 2014; Lawless and Fox 2012). Women are less likely than men to decide to run for office on their own, and therefore need to be recruited to run (Carroll and Sanbonmatsu 2013; Sanbonmatsu, Carroll, and Walsh 2009). Yet, women are much less likely to be encouraged to run for office than men (Lawless and Fox 2010). Potential female candidates also report that fundraising challenges, lack of support from political parties, and lack of access to informal male political networks are barriers to their success (Baer and Hartmann 2014).

Women of color are even less likely to be recruited to run for office than White women (Carroll and Sanbonmatsu 2013). Once women of color have decided to run for office, they may also encounter more efforts to discourage their bids for office than their White counterparts (Carroll and Sanbonmatsu 2013). One case study of women involved with a campaign training program tailored to their race found that the scarcity of women of color role models and the prevalence of stereotypes unique to women's racial/ethnic identities were barriers to women of color's success in reaching political office (Sanbonmatsu 2015).

Women of color who run for office and win face other obstacles once in office. For example, Black congresswomen represent more minority and urban constituencies than other women; 12 out of the 14 Black female representatives in the 113th Congress represented majority-minority districts (Dittmar 2014), which are typically less affluent than other districts. Although these Black female representatives received higher percentages of their districts' votes than other female representatives, the limited financial resources within their districts created additional hurdles to fundraising (Dittmar 2014).

Table 1.2

Women in Elected Office in the United States, 2016

Number and Percent of Women in the U.S. Congress[a]	104 of 535	19.4%
Black women	18 of 535	3.4%
Number and Percent of Women in the U.S. Senate	20 of 100	20.0%
Black women	0 of 100	0.0%
Number and Percent of Women in the U.S. House	84 of 435	19.3%
Black women	18 of 435	4.1%
Number and Percent of State Legislature Seats Held by Women	1,814 of 7,383	24.6%
Black women	261 of 7,383	3.5%
Number and Percent of Women in Statewide Executive Elected Office	71 of 262	27.1%
Black women[b,c]	2 of 262	0.8%

Notes: A. Does not include U.S. House Delegates. B. Does not include officials in appointive state cabinet-level positions, officials elected to executive posts by the legislature, officials elected as commissioners or board members of the judicial branch, or elected members of university boards of trustees or boards of education, or governors. cDoes not include one multiracial woman who is Black and Asian/Pacific Islander.

Sources: Compiled by the Institute for Women's Policy Research, using data from Center for American Women and Politics (2016b; 2016c; 2016d).

- As of August 2016, women held 104 seats (19.4 percent) in the United States Congress (Table 1.2). Despite Black women's growing presence in political office, they held just 18 seats (3.4 percent) in the U.S. Congress while making up 6.4 percent of the U.S. population (Institute for Women's Policy Research 2016b). In addition, one Black woman, one Caribbean American woman, and one Asian/Pacific Islander woman served as non-voting delegates in Congress, representing the District of Columbia, the U.S. Virgin Islands, and American Samoa, respectively (Center for American Women and Politics 2016c).

- There are no Black women in the U.S. Senate; all 18 Black congresswomen serve in the U.S. House of Representatives (Appendix Table 1.1). In the 114th U.S. Congress there is only one woman of color in the Senate, Mazie Hirono of Hawaii, who identifies as Asian/Pacific Islander. In the 114th U.S. House of Representatives there are 15 other women of color in addition to the 18 Black female representatives (Center for American Women and Politics 2016b).

- Only 13 out of 50 states have Black congresswomen representing their populations (Appendix Table 1.1). One district each in Alabama, Illinois, Maryland, Michigan, New Jersey, New York, North Carolina, Utah, and Wisconsin is represented by a Black Congresswoman in the U.S. House of Representatives. Two districts in Florida, Oklahoma, and Texas and three districts in California are represented by Black congresswomen.

- Black women comprise 40.9 percent of Black representatives to the U.S. House of Representatives, while White women comprise just 15.7 percent of White representatives (Dittmar 2015).

- Only 16 states sent a Black woman to serve in the U.S. Congress between 1968 and 2016 (Map 1.1).

In most states, the percentage of congressional seats held by Black women is substantially below Black women's share of the population.

- Mississippi, Louisiana, and Georgia have the widest gaps between Black women's share of the population and their representation in U.S. Congress (Appendix Table 1.4). While Black women in these states make up 20 percent, 16.9 percent, and 16.3 percent of these states' populations, respectively, there are no Black female members of Congress from these states.

- In five states—California, New Jersey, Oklahoma, Utah, and Wisconsin— Black women's representation in the U.S. Congress actually surpasses Black women's share of the state population.

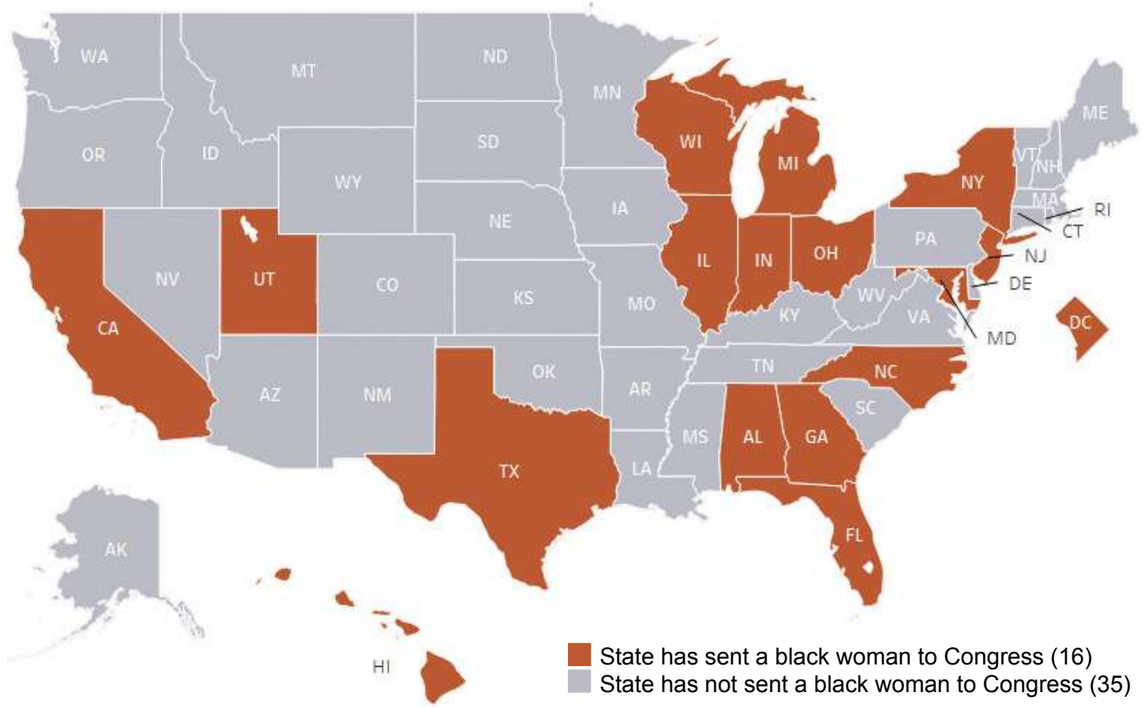
Black women are also significantly underrepresented in state legislatures (Appendix Table 1.2). As of August 2016, women occupied 24.6 percent of the 7,383 seats in state legislatures across the nation; 261 of these women were Black. Black women, therefore, comprised 3.5 percent of state legislators.

The representation of Black women in state legislatures varies across the country (Map 1.2; Appendix Table 1.2).

- As of August 2016, thirty-nine out of 50 states had at least one Black woman in their state legislatures (Appendix Table 1.2). Georgia and Maryland had the highest proportions of Black women in their state legislatures at 11.9 and 10.6 percent, respectively (Center for American Women and Politics 2016e).[6]
- Among the state legislatures, the widest gaps in Black women's proportionate representation were in Mississippi, South Carolina, and Louisiana. While each of these states had some Black women in their state legislature, they composed a far smaller proportion of the state legislatures than their share of the population.
- There were twelve states in which Black women composed a higher proportion of state legislators than Black women's share of the state population. These states were California, Colorado, Idaho, Illinois, Iowa, New Jersey, New Mexico, New York, Ohio, Oregon, Utah, and Vermont.

Map 1.1

States That Have Sent a Black Woman to Congress, 1968–2016



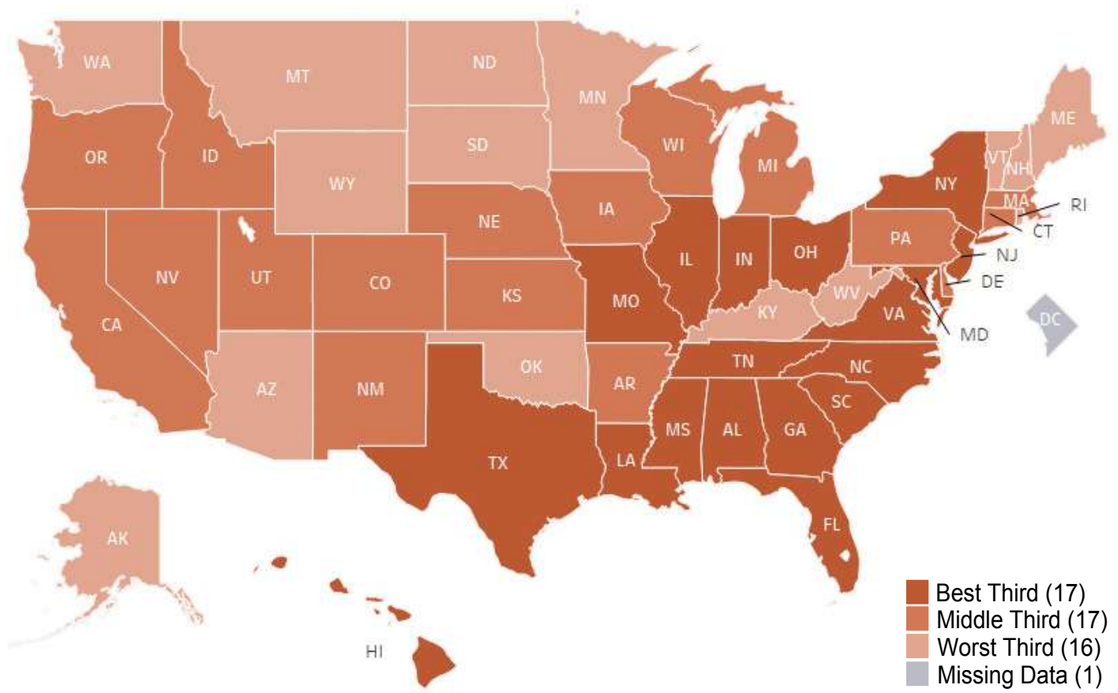
Note: Includes the delegate of the 114th Congress from the District of Columbia, who is a Black woman.
Source: IWPR compilation of data from (Center for American Woman and Politics 2016a; Center for American Women and Politics 2016b).

The representation of Black women is even lower in statewide elective executive offices (Table 1.2).

- As of August 2016, six states had female governors: New Hampshire, New Mexico, Oklahoma, Oregon, Rhode Island, and South Carolina (Center for American Women and Politics 2016d). In South Carolina and New Mexico, the female governors were women of color: Nikki Haley (who is Indian American) and Susana Martinez (who is Latina; Center for American Women and Politics 2016b). These two women were the first women of color to serve as governors in U.S. history (Center for American Women and Politics 2016b). No state has ever had a Black female governor (Center for American Women and Politics 2016b).
- Women held 27.1 percent of statewide elected executive offices other than governorships (Appendix Table 1.3). Two Black woman; Denise Nappier and Jenean Hampton, held these offices (Connecticut State Treasurer and Kentucky Lieutenant Governor, respectively). One multiracial woman, Kamala Harris of California, served as the state's attorney general.

Map 1.2

Percent of State Legislators Who are Black Women, 2016



Sources: IWPR compilation of data from (Center for American Women and Politics 2016b; Center for American Women and Politics 2016c)

Conclusion

Black women play a powerful role in American democracy and politics through their high levels of voting and history of activism. Yet, they remain underrepresented in the U.S. Congress, in state legislatures, and in statewide elective executive offices relative to their share of the overall population.

In addition, policies such as voter identification laws and other restrictions on voting access are challenging the rights that Black women fought to obtain through the Voting Rights Act of 1965. Policies to protect voting rights can help ensure that Black women have full access to the polls; Black women's representation in government can be improved through campaign training programs and outreach to encourage Black women to run for office, as well as through investment in Black women leaders. Such efforts will be critical to increasing Black women's political participation in the years to come.

NOTES

1. IWPR includes all those aged 18 and older who reported registering and voting, including noncitizens who are ineligible. IWPR selected the larger population base for this indicator because the ineligibility of noncitizens to register and vote accurately reflects the lack of political voice for this population.

2. In July 2016, federal judges in Wisconsin, Texas, and North Carolina struck down parts of or entire voter identification laws. In Wisconsin, the 4th U.S. Court of Appeals ruled that parts of the state's voter identification laws were unconstitutional because they were racially discriminatory. Similarly, the 5th U.S. Circuit Court of Appeals in Texas ruled that the state's voter identification law violated the federal Voting Rights Act because it was racially discriminatory. In North Carolina the 4th U.S. Court of Appeals struck down the state's voter identification law, ruling that it intentionally discriminated against African Americans. Since one or more of the three states is likely to appeal to the U.S. Supreme Court, these decisions are not reflected in the number of states with voter ID laws given here (National Conference of State Legislatures 2016a).

3. The states in which Black women compose the largest proportion of the female population are Mississippi, Louisiana, Georgia, Maryland, South Carolina, Alabama, North Carolina, Delaware, Virginia, and Tennessee. Of these states only Maryland had not implemented voter identification laws as of March 2016.

4. These 13 states are: Alabama, Arkansas, Florida, Georgia, Kentucky, Louisiana, Mississippi, North Carolina, South Carolina, Tennessee, Texas, Virginia, and West Virginia.

5. Carol Moseley Braun, a Democrat from Illinois, served in the U.S. Senate from 1993 to 1999 (Center for American Women and Politics 2016a).

6. Thirteen states place both in the top third of states with the highest proportions of Black women in state legislatures, and in the top third of states where Black women make up the highest proportions of the female population: Georgia, Maryland, Alabama, Mississippi, Illinois, New York, New Jersey, North Carolina, Virginia, Florida, Louisiana, Tennessee, and South Carolina.

APPENDIX ONE

POLITICAL PARTICIPATION TABLES

Appendix Table 1.1: Women in the U.S. House of Representatives by Race/Ethnicity and State, 2016

	Proportion Women	All Women	White Women	Hispanic Women	Black Women	Asian/Pacific Islander Women	Native American Women	Multiracial Women
State	Percent	Number	Number	Number	Number	Number	Number	Number
Alabama	28.6%	2	1	0	1	0	0	0
Alaska	0.0%	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Arizona	33.3%	3	3	0	0	0	0	0
Arkansas	0.0%	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
California	35.8%	19	9	5	3	2	0	0
Colorado	14.3%	1	1	0	0	0	0	0
Connecticut	40.0%	2	2	0	0	0	0	0
Delaware	0.0%	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Florida	25.9%	7	4	1	2	0	0	0
Georgia	0.0%	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Hawaii	50.0%	1	0	0	0	1	0	0
Idaho	0.0%	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Illinois	22.2%	4	2	0	1	1	0	0
Indiana	22.2%	2	2	0	0	0	0	0
Iowa	0.0%	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Kansas	25.0%	1	1	0	0	0	0	0
Kentucky	0.0%	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Louisiana	0.0%	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Maine	50.0%	1	1	0	0	0	0	0
Maryland	12.5%	1	0	0	1	0	0	0
Massachusetts	22.2%	2	2	0	0	0	0	0
Michigan	21.4%	3	2	0	1	0	0	0
Minnesota	12.5%	1	1	0	0	0	0	0
Mississippi	0.0%	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Missouri	25.0%	2	2	0	0	0	0	0
Montana	0.0%	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Nebraska	0.0%	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Nevada	25.0%	1	1	0	0	0	0	0
New Hampshire	50.0%	1	1	0	0	0	0	0
New Jersey	8.3%	1	0	0	1	0	0	0
New Mexico	33.3%	1	0	1	0	0	0	0
New York	29.6%	8	5	1	1	1	0	0
North Carolina	23.1%	3	2	0	1	0	0	0
North Dakota	0.0%	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Ohio	18.8%	3	1	0	0	0	0	0
Oklahoma	0.0%	0	0	0	2	0	0	0
Oregon	20.0%	1	1	0	0	0	0	0
Pennsylvania	0.0%	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Rhode Island	0.0%	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
South Carolina	0.0%	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
South Dakota	100.0%	1	1	0	0	0	0	0
Tennessee	22.2%	2	2	0	0	0	0	0
Texas	8.3%	3	1	0	2	0	0	0
Utah	25.0%	1	0	0	1	0	0	0
Vermont	0.0%	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Virginia	9.1%	1	1	0	0	0	0	0
Washington	30.0%	3	2	1	0	0	0	0
West Virginia	0.0%	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Wisconsin	12.5%	1	0	0	1	0	0	0
Wyoming	100.0%	1	1	0	0	0	0	0
United States	**19.3%**	**84**	**52**	**9**	**18**	**5**	**0**	**0**

Source: Center for American Women and Politics (2016b; 2016c). Compiled by the Institute for Women's Policy Research.

Appendix Table 1.2: Women in State Legislatures by Race/Ethnicity and State, 2016

State	Proportion Women	All Women	White Women	Hispanic Women	Black Women	Asian/Pacific Islander Women	Native American Women	Multiracial Women
	Percent	Number	Number	Number	Number	Number	Number	Number
Alabama	14.3%	20	8	0	12	0	0	0
Alaska	30.0%	18	17	1	0	0	0	0
Arizona	35.6%	32	22	7	0	1	1	1
Arkansas	20.0%	27	23	0	4	0	0	0
California	25.8%	31	17	6	4	4	0	0
Colorado	42.0%	42	34	5	3	0	0	0
Connecticut	27.8%	52	46	2	4	0	0	0
Delaware	24.2%	15	13	0	2	0	0	0
Florida	25.0%	40	27	3	10	0	0	0
Georgia	24.6%	58	30	0	28	0	0	0
Hawaii	28.9%	22	6	0	0	15	0	1
Idaho	27.6%	29	25	0	1	2	1	0
Illinois	32.8%	58	39	5	14	0	0	0
Indiana	20.7%	31	24	1	6	0	0	0
Iowa	22.7%	34	30	0	4	0	0	0
Kansas	24.2%	40	35	0	4	0	0	1
Kentucky	15.9%	22	22	0	0	0	0	0
Louisiana	14.6%	21	11	0	10	0	0	0
Maine	29.6%	55	55	0	0	0	0	0
Maryland	31.9%	60	34	3	20	3	0	0
Massachusetts	25.0%	50	46	1	2	1	0	0
Michigan	20.9%	31	23	2	5	1	0	0
Minnesota	33.3%	67	63	1	1	0	1	1
Mississippi	13.8%	24	11	0	13	0	0	0
Missouri	24.9%	49	39	0	10	0	0	0
Montana	31.3%	47	43	0	0	0	4	0
Nebraska	22.4%	11	10	0	1	0	0	0
Nevada	31.7%	20	15	3	2	0	0	0
New Hampshire	28.8%	122	120	0	1	1	0	0
New Jersey	30.0%	36	20	7	9	0	0	0
New Mexico	26.8%	30	12	13	2	0	3	0
New York	26.3%	56	33	3	19	0	0	1
North Carolina	22.9%	39	26	1	12	0	0	0
North Dakota	19.1%	27	27	0	0	0	0	0
Ohio	25.8%	34	25	0	9	0	0	0
Oklahoma	14.1%	21	18	0	1	1	1	0
Oregon	31.1%	28	26	1	1	0	0	0
Pennsylvania	18.6%	47	37	1	8	1	0	0
Rhode Island	27.4%	31	28	2	0	0	0	1
South Carolina	14.1%	24	17	0	7	0	0	0
South Dakota	21.0%	22	22	0	0	0	0	0
Tennessee	16.7%	22	14	1	7	0	0	0
Texas	19.9%	36	19	8	8	1	0	0
Utah	15.4%	16	10	4	1	1	0	0
Vermont	41.1%	74	71	1	1	1	0	0
Virginia	19.3%	27	16	0	11	0	0	0
Washington	34.0%	50	45	1	0	4	0	0
West Virginia	14.9%	20	19	0	1	0	0	0
Wisconsin	25.8%	34	29	2	3	0	0	0
Wyoming	13.3%	12	12	0	0	0	0	0
United States	**24.6%**	**1814**	**1414**	**85**	**261**	**37**	**11**	**6**

Source: Center for American Women and Politics (2016b; 2016c). Compiled by the Institute for Women's Policy Research.

Appendix Table 1.3: Women in Statewide Elected Executive Office by Race/Ethnicity and State, 2016

State	Proportion Women	All Women	White Women	Hispanic Women	Black Women	Asian/Pacific Islander Women	Native American Women	Multiracial Women
	Percent	Number	Number	Number	Number	Number	Number	Number
Alabama	22.2%	2	2	0	0	0	0	0
Alaska	0.0%	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Arizona	30.0%	3	3	0	0	0	0	0
Arkansas	33.3%	2	2	0	0	0	0	0
California	28.6%	2	0	0	0	1	0	1
Colorado	50.0%	2	2	0	0	0	0	0
Connecticut	60.0%	3	2	0	1	0	0	0
Delaware	20.0%	1	1	0	0	0	0	0
Florida	25.0%	1	1	0	0	0	0	0
Georgia	0.0%	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Hawaii	0.0%	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Idaho	16.7%	1	1	0	0	0	0	0
Illinois	60.0%	3	2	1	0	0	0	0
Indiana	66.7%	4	4	0	0	0	0	0
Iowa	33.3%	2	2	0	0	0	0	0
Kansas	0.0%	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Kentucky	50.0%	3	2	0	1	0	0	0
Louisiana	0.0%	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Maine	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
Maryland	0.0%	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Massachusetts	80.0%	4	4	0	0	0	0	0
Michigan	33.3%	1	1	0	0	0	0	0
Minnesota	75.0%	3	3	0	0	0	0	0
Mississippi	28.6%	2	2	0	0	0	0	0
Missouri	20.0%	1	1	0	0	0	0	0
Montana	60.0%	3	2	0	0	0	1	0
Nebraska	0.0%	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Nevada	20.0%	1	1	0	0	0	0	0
New Hampshire	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
New Jersey	100.0%	1	1	0	0	0	0	0
New Mexico	0.0%	0	0		0	0	0	0
New York	33.3%	1	1	0	0	0	0	0
North Carolina	55.6%	5	5	0	0	0	0	0
North Dakota	25.0%	3	3	0	0	0	0	0
Ohio	20.0%	1	1	0	0	0	0	0
Oklahoma	20.0%	2	2	0	0	0	0	0
Oregon	50.0%	2	2	0	0	0	0	0
Pennsylvania	25.0%	1	1	0	0	0	0	0
Rhode Island	25.0%	1	0	1	0	0	0	0
South Carolina	12.5%	1	1	0	0	0	0	0
South Dakota	22.2%	2	2	0	0	0	0	0
Tennessee	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
Texas	12.5%	1	1	0	0	0	0	0
Utah	0.0%	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Vermont	20.0%	1	1	0	0	0	0	0
Virginia	0.0%	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Washington	12.5%	1	1	0	0	0	0	0
West Virginia	20.0%	1	1	0	0	0	0	0
Wisconsin	20.0%	1	1	0	0	0	0	0
Wyoming	50.0%	2	2	0	0	0	0	0
United States	**27.1%**	**71**	**64**	**2**	**2**	**1**	**1**	**1**

Notes: Data do not include: governorships, officials in appointive state cabinet-level positions; officials elected to executive posts by the legislature; officials elected as commissioners or board members from districts rather than statewide; members of the judicial branch; or elected members of university boards of trustees or boards of education. Maine, New Hampshire, and Tennessee do not have statewide elected executive offices aside from the governorship.

Source: Center for American Women and Politics (2016b; 2016c). Compiled by the Institute for Women's Policy Research.

Appendix Table 1.4: Black Women's Political Representation Compared with Their Share of State Population, 2016

	Black Women as Percentage of State Population (all ages)	Proportion of Members of Congress that are Black Women	Number of All Members of Congress	Proportion of State Legislators that are Black Women	Number of All State Legislators
Alabama	14.2%	11.1%	9	8.6%	140
Alaska	1.2%	0.0%	3	0.0%	60
Arizona	1.9%	0.0%	11	0.0%	90
Arkansas	8.1%	0.0%	6	3.0%	135
California	2.8%	5.5%	55	3.3%	120
Colorado	1.8%	0.0%	9	3.0%	100
Connecticut	5.1%	0.0%	7	2.1%	187
Delaware	11.1%	0.0%	3	3.2%	62
Florida	8.1%	6.9%	29	6.3%	160
Georgia	16.3%	0.0%	16	11.9%	236
Hawaii	0.7%	0.0%	4	0.0%	76
Idaho	0.2%	0.0%	4	1.0%	105
Illinois	7.5%	5.0%	20	7.9%	177
Indiana	4.7%	0.0%	11	4.0%	150
Iowa	1.5%	0.0%	6	2.7%	150
Kansas	2.8%	0.0%	6	2.4%	165
Kentucky	4.0%	0.0%	8	0.0%	138
Louisiana	16.9%	0.0%	8	6.9%	144
Maine	0.5%	0.0%	4	0.0%	186
Maryland	15.5%	10.0%	10	10.6%	188
Massachusetts	3.4%	0.0%	11	1.0%	200
Michigan	7.3%	6.3%	16	3.4%	148
Minnesota	2.7%	0.0%	10	0.5%	201
Mississippi	20.0%	0.0%	6	7.5%	174
Missouri	6.1%	0.0%	10	5.1%	197
Montana	N/A	0.0%	3	0.0%	150
Nebraska	2.3%	0.0%	5	2.0%	49
Nevada	4.0%	0.0%	6	3.2%	63
New Hampshire	0.5%	0.0%	4	0.2%	424
New Jersey	6.8%	7.1%	14	7.5%	120
New Mexico	0.8%	0.0%	5	1.8%	112
New York	7.7%	3.4%	29	8.9%	213
North Carolina	11.4%	6.7%	15	7.1%	170
North Dakota	0.7%	0.0%	3	0.0%	141
Ohio	6.3%	0.0%	18	6.8%	132
Oklahoma	3.6%	28.6%	7	0.7%	149
Oregon	0.8%	0.0%	7	1.1%	90
Pennsylvania	5.5%	0.0%	20	3.2%	253
Rhode Island	2.7%	0.0%	4	0.0%	113
South Carolina	14.6%	0.0%	9	4.1%	170
South Dakota	0.6%	0.0%	3	0.0%	105
Tennessee	8.9%	0.0%	11	5.3%	132
Texas	6.0%	5.3%	38	4.4%	181
Utah	0.4%	16.7%	6	1.0%	104
Vermont	0.4%	0.0%	3	0.6%	180
Virginia	9.9%	0.0%	13	7.9%	140
Washington	1.6%	0.0%	12	0.0%	147
West Virginia	1.7%	0.0%	5	0.7%	134
Wisconsin	3.1%	10.0%	10	2.3%	132
Wyoming	0.5%	0.0%	3	0.0%	90
United States	**6.4%**	**3.4%**	**535**	**3.5%**	**7383**

Notes: N/A=not available

Source: Center for American Women and Politics (2016b; 2016c). Compiled by the Institute for Women's Policy Research.

TWO

EMPLOYMENT & EARNINGS

The Status of Black Women

in the United States

Introduction

Black women have one of the highest labor force participation rates among women (along with multiracial women; Table 2.1), yet experience significant economic disparities.

According to IWPR analysis, Black women who work full-time, year-round earn just 64 cents on the dollar compared with White men, the largest group in the labor force. Black women also experience high unemployment and are overrepresented in jobs with little job security, few benefits, and limited opportunity for advancement (Chang 2010; Samuel 2012).

The inequalities in employment and earnings that Black women face were accentuated by the effects of the 2008 recession. Much of job growth during the recovery through 2013 was concentrated in low-wage sectors, such as retail, hospitality, and temporary help services, which offer less economic stability, fewer benefits, and fewer opportunities for advancement than higher wage jobs (Hartmann, Shaw, and Pandya 2013). The rise of these poorer quality jobs, in combination with restricted access to unions in the states in which Black workers are concentrated, hinders Black women's access to economic security and overall well-being.

This chapter considers Black women's earnings, labor force participation, and the occupations in which Black women work across the United States.

Key Findings

More than six in ten (62.2 percent) Black women are in the workforce,

making them one of the two groups of women with the highest labor force participation rate among women and the only group of women with a higher labor force participation rate than their male counterparts.

Black women's median annual earnings ($34,000 for those who work full-time, year-round) lag behind most women's and men's earnings in the United States.

Between 2004 and 2014, Black women's real median annual earnings declined by 5.0 percent (Table 2.2). As of 2014, Black women who worked full-time, year-round had median annual earnings that were 64.2 percent of White men's ($53,000). In Louisiana, the state with the largest gap in earnings between Black women and White men, Black women earned less than half of White men's earnings (46.3 percent).

More than one-third of Black women (34.1 percent) are in the bottom earnings quartile, while just 12.4 percent are in the top quartile.

Union representation boosts Black women's earnings and reduces gaps in earnings between Black women and other workers.

Black women represented by a union earn an average of $192.10, or 32.2 percent, more per week than Black women in non-union jobs. In the South, where right-to-work laws are twice as common as the rest of the country, unionized Black women experience an even greater union advantage and earn 34.5 percent more than their non-union counterparts.

About 28 percent (27.7 percent) of employed Black women work in service occupations,

the occupational group with the lowest wages. Jobs in this broad occupational group often lack important benefits such as paid sick days.

In 2015, black women's unemployment rate was the highest among women from all of the largest racial and ethnic groups (8.9 percent).

Table 2.1: State-by-State Data on the Employment and Earnings of Black Women and All Women, 2014

	Percent in Labor Force		Median Annual Earnings (Full-Time, Year-Round)		Earnings Ratio Between Women and White Men (Full-Time, Year-Round)		Percent of All Employed Women in Managerial or Professional Occupations	
State	Black Women	All Women	Black Women	All Women	Black Women	All Women	Black Women	All Women
Alabama	58.2%	52.7%	$28,000	$32,000	57.1%	65.3%	29.2%	37.4%
Alaska	62.8%	66.1%	N/A	$42,300	N/A	65.1%	N/A	41.8%
Arizona	61.6%	54.4%	$35,000	$36,000	67.3%	69.2%	35.0%	38.3%
Arkansas	59.3%	53.6%	$27,900	$30,000	68.0%	73.2%	32.5%	37.0%
California	58.4%	57.2%	$43,000	$42,000	62.3%	60.9%	38.8%	39.8%
Colorado	65.5%	62.8%	$35,000	$40,000	62.5%	71.4%	31.5%	42.9%
Connecticut	68.9%	62.6%	$40,000	$48,000	59.7%	71.6%	34.5%	44.7%
Delaware	64.8%	59.9%	$38,000	$41,000	71.7%	77.4%	37.2%	42.7%
District of Columbia	56.7%	66.1%	$48,000	$60,000	55.2%	69.0%	43.1%	61.3%
Florida	63.3%	54.6%	$30,000	$34,000	62.5%	70.8%	31.0%	37.1%
Georgia	63.0%	57.7%	$32,000	$35,000	64.0%	70.0%	33.5%	39.9%
Hawaii	70.1%	59.5%	N/A	$40,000	N/A	80.0%	N/A	37.4%
Idaho	N/A	56.8%	N/A	$30,000	N/A	66.7%	N/A	35.5%
Illinois	61.0%	61.1%	$36,000	$40,000	61.0%	67.8%	32.5%	40.1%
Indiana	63.7%	59.0%	$32,000	$34,000	66.7%	70.8%	28.8%	36.6%
Iowa	61.8%	63.1%	$28,000	$35,000	60.6%	75.8%	25.3%	38.7%
Kansas	63.7%	61.0%	$31,400	$35,000	65.4%	72.9%	31.4%	41.2%
Kentucky	62.7%	54.7%	$29,000	$33,000	64.4%	73.3%	27.0%	38.0%
Louisiana	59.7%	56.2%	$25,000	$31,500	46.3%	58.3%	28.3%	37.2%
Maine	58.5%	59.4%	N/A	$35,500	N/A	79.6%	N/A	40.4%
Maryland	68.1%	64.7%	$45,000	$49,000	68.2%	74.2%	42.4%	48.0%
Massachusetts	66.6%	63.3%	$40,000	$48,800	61.5%	75.1%	34.4%	47.5%
Michigan	58.3%	57.1%	$33,000	$36,800	66.0%	73.6%	27.9%	37.2%
Minnesota	68.0%	66.2%	$34,000	$40,000	65.4%	76.9%	31.3%	42.9%
Mississippi	59.2%	54.4%	$25,000	$30,000	55.6%	66.7%	29.4%	36.5%
Missouri	64.1%	59.3%	$30,000	$34,000	66.7%	75.6%	29.7%	39.0%
Montana	N/A	59.4%	N/A	$31,000	N/A	73.8%	N/A	38.4%
Nebraska	64.4%	65.6%	$26,500	$34,000	56.4%	72.3%	32.9%	39.2%
Nevada	61.9%	59.3%	$33,000	$35,000	63.5%	67.3%	26.8%	31.0%
New Hampshire	75.7%	63.7%	N/A	$41,000	N/A	74.5%	N/A	43.6%
New Jersey	64.4%	60.6%	$42,000	$48,000	60.0%	68.6%	35.3%	43.3%
New Mexico	60.7%	55.1%	N/A	$33,800	N/A	66.3%	N/A	39.2%
New York	61.0%	58.9%	$40,000	$43,800	66.7%	73.0%	34.1%	43.1%
North Carolina	62.7%	57.8%	$30,000	$35,000	63.8%	74.5%	32.2%	40.4%
North Dakota	N/A	64.2%	N/A	$35,000	N/A	70.0%	N/A	36.6%
Ohio	62.3%	59.0%	$31,400	$36,000	64.3%	73.8%	30.1%	38.5%
Oklahoma	62.9%	56.0%	$30,000	$32,000	65.2%	69.6%	30.8%	38.4%
Oregon	60.3%	57.6%	$36,000	$38,000	72.0%	76.0%	N/A	39.4%
Pennsylvania	59.8%	58.3%	$35,000	$38,000	70.0%	76.0%	33.7%	40.5%
Rhode Island	66.9%	61.6%	$30,400	$40,300	55.3%	73.3%	27.8%	40.0%
South Carolina	60.6%	56.6%	$27,000	$32,800	57.4%	69.8%	26.9%	36.8%
South Dakota	N/A	65.4%	N/A	$30,500	N/A	74.4%	N/A	36.9%
Tennessee	63.4%	56.2%	$30,000	$33,000	66.7%	73.3%	30.8%	38.1%
Texas	65.2%	57.9%	$35,000	$35,000	58.3%	58.3%	36.5%	39.0%
Utah	63.8%	59.8%	N/A	$34,700	N/A	66.7%	N/A	37.9%
Vermont	N/A	63.2%	N/A	$38,900	N/A	86.4%	N/A	44.3%
Virginia	65.1%	61.4%	$35,000	$41,000	58.8%	68.9%	34.8%	44.8%
Washington	63.1%	58.7%	$35,000	$41,000	60.3%	70.7%	29.5%	41.1%
West Virginia	52.6%	49.0%	$30,000	$30,000	66.7%	66.7%	33.8%	37.7%
Wisconsin	60.5%	63.3%	$30,000	$36,000	61.1%	73.3%	27.7%	38.5%
Wyoming	N/A	62.9%	N/A	$35,000	N/A	63.6%	N/A	37.6%
United States	**62.3%**	**58.5%**	**$33,600**	**$38,000**	**64.6%**	**73.1%**	**33.0%**	**40.1%**

Notes: Aged 16 and older. Median annual earnings for full-time, year-round workers. Blacks are non-Hispanic. N/A=not available.
Source: IWPR analysis of 2012-2014 American Community Survey microdata (Integrated Public Use Microdata Series, Version 6.0).

Labor Force Participation

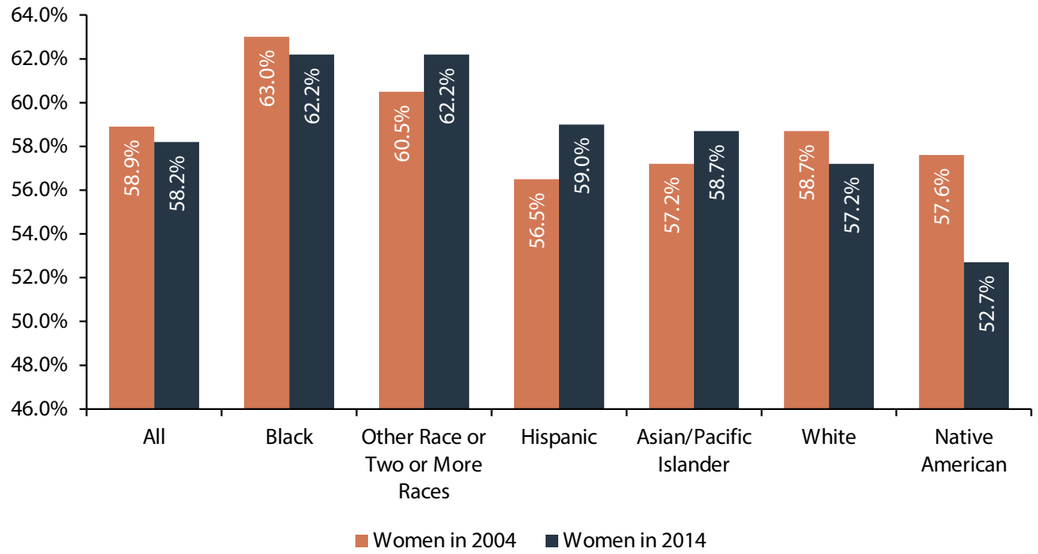
The labor force participation rate measures the percentage of workers who are either employed or unemployed but looking for work. Historically in the United States, Black women have participated in the labor force at higher rates than White women (Goldin 1977). Black women's higher labor force participation rate can be attributed to economic and social factors, including enslaved labor during the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries (Goldin 1977) and sharecropping in the nineteenth and twentieth. After the abolition of slavery, Black women continued to participate in the labor force at higher rates than White women due to Black men's lower earnings relative to White men's, distinct social norms within Black and White communities, and the higher prevalence of female-headed households among Black families than among White families (Boustan and Collins 2013; Collins 2000b; Goldin 1977; Landry 2000).

Since the 1920s, White women's labor force participation has increased substantially due to the entrance of married White women into the workforce (Boustan and Collins 2013), but has only exceeded Black women's participation once, briefly, in 1994 (Bureau of Labor Statistics 2015a). Over the last decade, Black women's labor force participation has remained fairly steady, decreasing by 1.3 percent between 2004 and 2014 (Figure 2.1; Appendix Tables 2.1-2.2). Similarly, women's labor force participation overall changed very little during this time period, falling by 1.2 percent.

As of 2014, Black women's labor force participation was tied for the highest among the largest racial and ethnic groups with women who identify with another race or two or more races (62.2 percent; Figure 2.1). Among the racial and ethnic groups shown in Figure 2.1, Black women are the only group of women with a higher labor force participation rate than their male counterparts (61.9 percent; Institute for Women's Policy Research 2015a). In 2014, Hispanic women had the lowest labor force participation rate among women, at 56.5 percent. Black women's labor force participation rates vary by state (Map 2.1; Appendix Table 2.1).

Figure 2.1

Women's Labor Force Participation Rate by Race/Ethnicity, United States, 2004 and 2014



Notes: Percent of all women aged 16 and older who are employed or looking for work. Racial categories are non-Hispanic.
Source: IWPR analysis of 2004 and 2014 American Community Survey microdata (Integrated Public Use Microdata Series, Version 6.0).

- Black women's labor force participation rate is highest in New Hampshire at 75.7 percent, the second highest of any group of women in any state or the District of Columbia (White women's labor force participation rate in the District of Columbia is higher, at 76.6 percent). Hawaii and Connecticut have the second- and third-highest Black female labor force participation rates at 70.1 and 68.9 percent, respectively.[7]

- Black women have the lowest labor force participation rate in West Virginia (52.6 percent)—the state with the lowest labor force participation rate for women overall (49.0 percent). The District of Columbia has the second-lowest Black female labor force participation rate at 56.7 percent, despite having one of the highest labor force participation rates among all women in the country. Alabama has the third-lowest Black female labor force participation rate at 58.2 percent.

Black Women's Earnings

Despite Black women's high level of participation in the labor force, the median annual earnings of Black women who work full-time, year-round in the United States are just $33,600, nearly 12 percent lower than the median annual earnings of women of all racial and ethnic groups combined ($38,000). Among the racial and ethnic groups shown in Figure 2.2, Asian/Pacific Islander women have the highest earnings ($47,000) and Hispanic women have the lowest ($28,000).

Black women's unequal earnings may be partially attributed to the fact that they are disproportionately concentrated in jobs that pay the federal minimum wage and subminimum wage (which has remained at $2.13 since 1991; Cooper 2015; Vogtman, Gallagher Robbins, and Bergeron 2015). As discussed below, Black women disproportionately work in service jobs, which offer the lowest wages among all occupational groups (U.S. Department of Labor 2015). Black women are also underrepresented in higher-paying occupations such as professional occupations and management occupations (Table 2.5), experience higher unemployment than all other working women (Figure 2.5), and experience employment and labor market discrimination (see below).

Although Black women's levels of educational attainment have increased in recent years (National Center for Educational Statistics 2015), Black women remain less likely than White or Asian/Pacific Islander women to have a bachelor's degree (Hess et al. 2015). As Figure 2.3 shows, having a bachelor's degree significantly increases earnings for women of all racial and ethnic groups. These gains, however, are greater for some groups than for others. Black women with a bachelor's degree or higher working full-time, year-round have median annual earnings of $50,000, which is nine percent lower than women of all racial and ethnic groups combined ($55,000). Among women with at least a bachelor's degree, Asian/Pacific Islander women have the highest earnings ($65,000), while Native American women have the lowest earnings ($47,000).

Just 12.4 percent of Black women who work full-time, year-round are in the top earnings quartile, and 34.1 percent are in the bottom earnings quartile (Institute for Women's Policy Research 2015b). Black women's lower earnings can affect their ability to provide for themselves and their families. Research indicates that Black women, on average, have less retirement savings than either White women or Black men (Fischer and Hayes 2013). In addition, Black women aged 65 or older are more than twice as likely to live in poverty as White women in the same age group, and more likely to live in poverty than their Black male counterparts (Institute for Women's Policy Research 2015a).

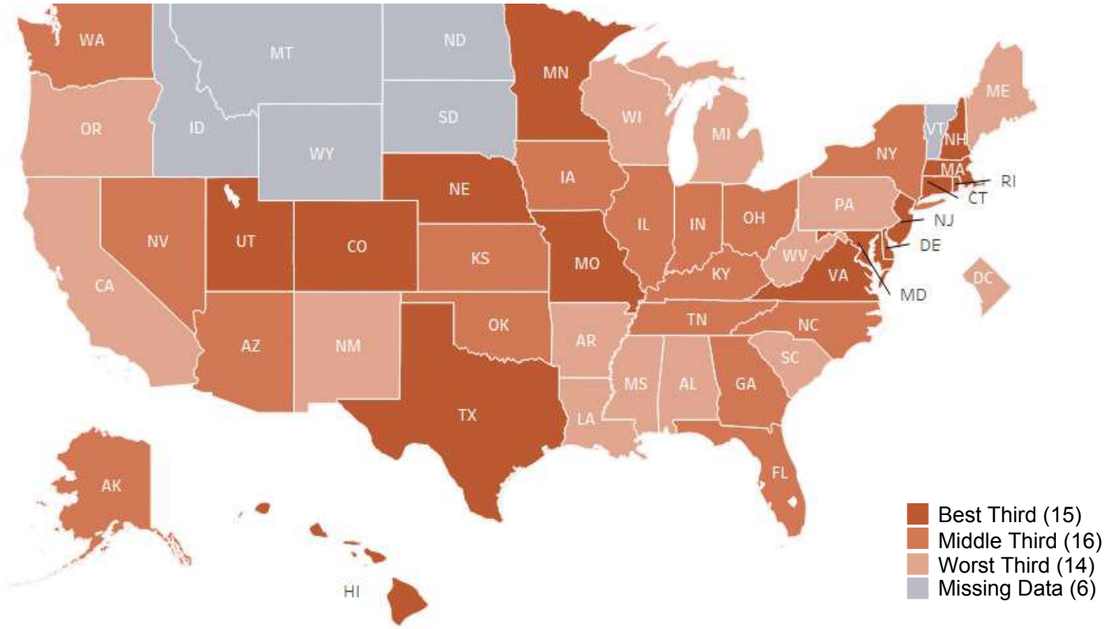
Black women's earnings vary across the United States (Map 2.2; Table 2.1; Appendix Table 2.2).

- Black women working full-time, year-round have the highest median annual earnings in the District of Columbia ($48,000), followed by Maryland ($45,000) and California ($43,000). [8]

- Black women's median annual earnings are lowest in Louisiana and Mississippi, at just $25,000. Across the country, Black women's earnings tend to be lowest in the South, where earnings for women overall are also generally low (Map 2.2).

Map 2.1

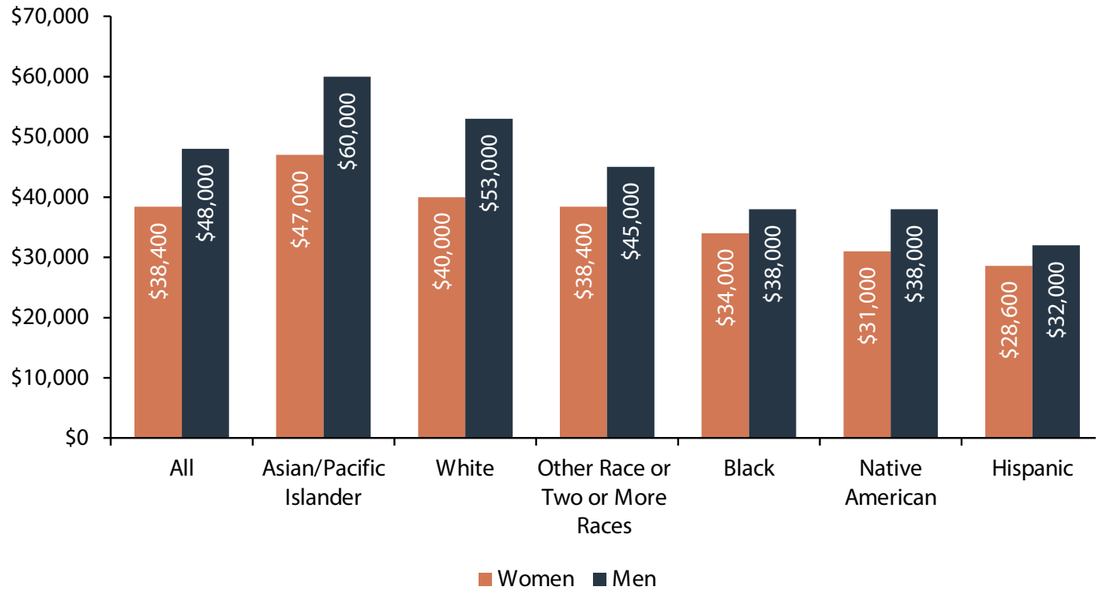
Black Women's Labor Force Participation Rate, 2014



Notes: Data include women aged 16 and older who are employed or looking for work. Black women are non-Hispanic.
Source: IWPR analysis of 2012-2014 American Community Survey microdata (Integrated Public Use Microdata Series, Version 6.0).

Figure 2.2

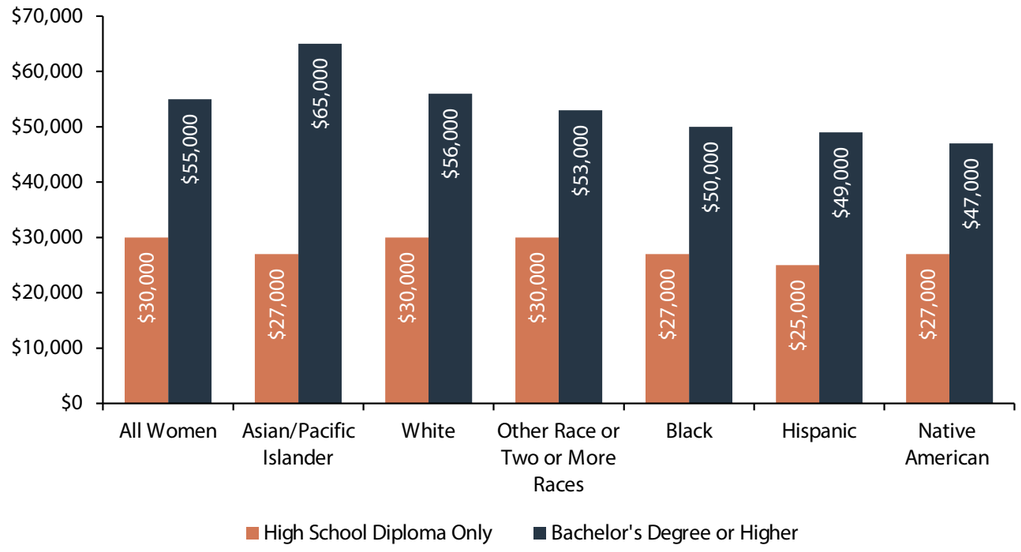
Median Annual Earnings for Full-Time, Year-Round Workers by Race/Ethnicity, United States, 2014



Notes: Data include women and men aged 16 and older. Racial groups are non-Hispanic.
Source: IWPR analysis of 2014 American Community Survey microdata (Integrated Public Use Microdata Series, Version 6.0).

Figure 2.3

Median Annual Earnings for Full-Time, Year-Round Women Workers by Educational Attainment and Race/Ethnicity,



Notes: Data include women and men aged 16 and older. Racial groups are non-Hispanic.
Source: IWPR analysis of 2012-2014 American Community Survey microdata (Integrated Public Use Microdata Series, Version 6.0).

Gender Wage Gap by Race/ Ethnicity

In the United States in 2014, women aged 16 and older working full-time, year-round earned 80.0 percent of men's earnings, resulting in a wage gap of 20.0 percent. [9] While women of all the largest racial and ethnic groups earn less than their male counterparts, the gender wage gap varies by race and ethnicity. The gap between the earnings of Black women and Black men is somewhat smaller than the gap between women and men overall, due partly to the comparatively low earnings of Black men (the earnings ratio between Black women and Black men is 88.4 percent; Table 2.2; Table 2.3). This gap between Black women's and Black men's earnings persists despite the fact that Black women, like women of most race/ethnic groups, are more likely than their male counterparts to have at least a bachelor's degree (Institute for Women's Policy Research 2015a).

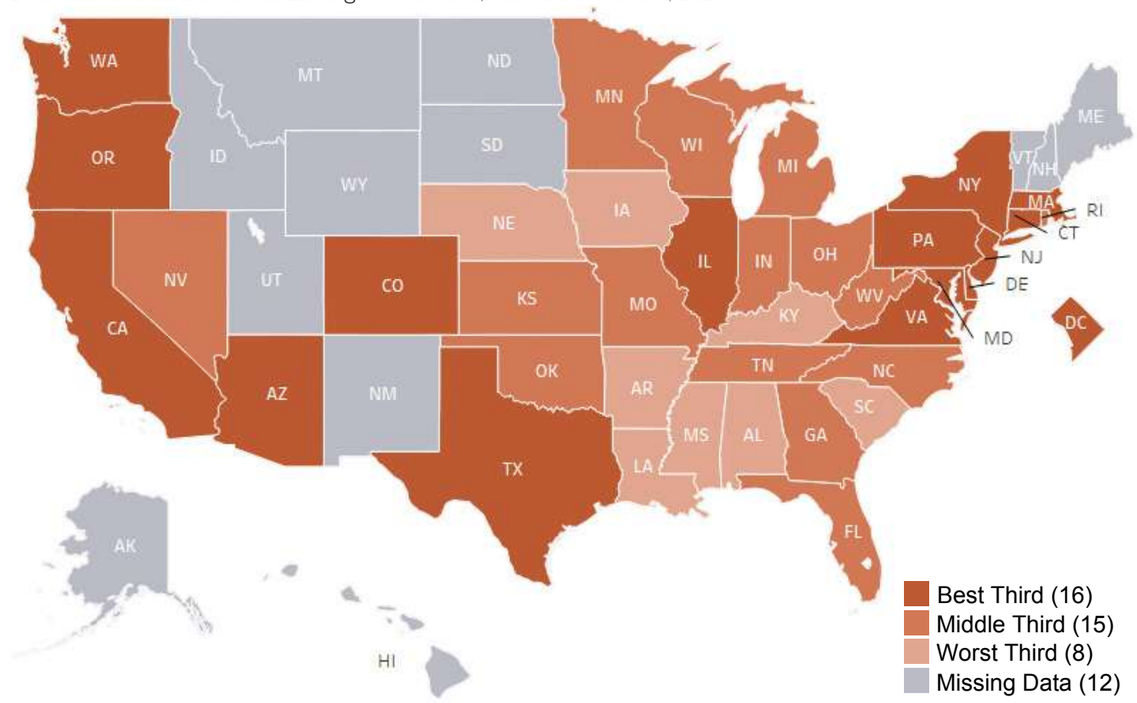
While the gender wage gap in the United States narrowed during the 1980s and 1990s, the ratio between women's and men's earnings has remained virtually unchanged over the last fifteen years. Much of the changes that have occurred have been due to declines in men's earnings, rather than increases in women's earnings (Davis and Gould 2015). This is also true for Black workers. Between 2004 and 2014, the gender earnings gap between Black women and Black men working full-time, year-round increased by 1.9 percent. During this time, however, both Black women and men experienced declines in their real median annual earnings (5.0 percent and 6.9 percent, respectively; Table 2.2).

One way to assess inequality in earnings is to compare the earnings of different racial and ethnic groups of women to those of White men, the largest group in the labor force. Black women's median earnings are only 64.6 percent of White men's median earnings. Hispanic women face the largest earnings gap with White men, with median annual earnings that are slightly more than half of those of White men's (53.8 percent), while Asian/Pacific Islander women face the smallest gap, but still earn only 86.5 percent of White men's earnings (Table 2.3). Between 2004 and 2014, the earnings ratio between Black women and White men increased by 3.0 percent (Table 2.2). Asian/Pacific Islander women experienced the most substantial improvement in their earnings ratio with White men (9.7 percent), while Native American women experienced the smallest improvement (2.2 percent) during the decade.

The disparities in earnings that Black women face are evident across all age groups. Nationally, millennial Black women aged 16-34 earned 69.2 percent of same-aged White men's earnings in 2014. Black women over 65 earned just 55.9 percent of the amount White men of this age range earned (Institute for Women's Policy Research 2015a).

Map 2.2

Black Women's Median Annual Earnings for Full-Time, Year-Round Workers, 2014



Notes: Data include women aged 16 and older. Black women are non-Hispanic.
Source: IWPR analysis of 2012-2014 American Community Survey microdata (Integrated Public Use Microdata Series, Version 6.0).

Earnings gaps between Black women and White men also vary by state (Map 2.3; Table 2.1; Appendix Table 2.3).

- The best states for Black women's earnings equality are Oregon, Delaware, and Pennsylvania, where Black women earn 72.0, 71.7, and 70.0 percent of White men's earnings, respectively. [10]
- The largest gap between Black women's and White men's earnings is in Louisiana, where Black women earn less than half of White men's earnings (46.3 percent). Following Louisiana are the District of Columbia, Rhode Island, and Mississippi, where Black women's earnings are just 55.2, 55.3, and 55.6 percent of White men's, respectively.

The Union Advantage

Union representation brings wage setting into the open and helps ensure that employers set wages based on objective criteria, such as skill, effort, and responsibility. Research shows that labor unions tend to raise wages and improve benefits for all represented workers, especially those at the middle and bottom of the wage distribution, who are disproportionately women and people of color (Jones, Schmitt, and Woo 2014). Unions can also help close wage gaps related to gender and race, in part by reducing pay secrecy. Transparency in decisions related to recruitment, compensation, and promotions can prevent bias and help women and people of color advance in their careers (Anderson, Hegewisch, and Hayes 2015).

Just 11.5 percent of employed women are represented by a union (Table 2.4).[11] The share of employed Black women who are unionized is the same as the share of all employed women. Black women are concentrated, however, in states with "right-to-work" laws, which remove the obligation of workers covered by a union contract to pay dues and are associated with lower wages for both union and nonunion workers (Gould and Kimball 2015). [12] Right-to-work laws lower union density and result in lower union representation (Moore 1998; Plumer 2012). In addition, many

Table 2.2

Median Annual Earnings and Percent Change in Real Earnings for Full-Time, Year-Round Workers by Race/Ethnicity,

		2004	2014	Percent Change in Real Earnings
Women	**All**	**$38,601**	**$38,000**	**-1.6%**
	White	$40,107	$40,000	-0.3%
	Hispanic	$29,328	$28,000	-4.5%
	Black	$35,384	$33,600	-5.0%
	Asian/Pacific Islander	$44,482	$45,000	1.2%
	Native American	$32,901	$31,000	-5.8%
	Other Race or Two or More Races	$37,600	$38,000	1.1%
Men	**All**	**$51,387**	**$48,000**	**-6.6%**
	White	$56,400	$52,000	-7.8%
	Hispanic	$32,901	$31,000	-5.8%
	Black	$40,797	$38,000	-6.9%
	Asian/Pacific Islander	$57,901	$58,000	0.2%
	Native American	$40,797	$37,000	-9.3%
	Other Race or Two or More Races	$46,322	$45,000	-2.9%

Notes: Data include women and men aged 16 and older. Racial groups are non-Hispanic. 2004 data are adjusted using the Consumer Price Index Research Series (CPI-U-RS) published by the U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics (Bureau of Labor Statistics 2015b).
Source: IWPR analysis of American Community Survey microdata (Integrated Public Use Microdata Series, Version 6.0).

of the low-wage occupations in which Black women are concentrated have low unionization rates; in 2015, just 8.4 percent of workers in health care support occupations were union members or covered by a union contract and just 6.8 percent of workers in personal care and service occupations were union members or covered by a union contract (Bureau of Labor Statistics 2016a). [13]

Women who are represented by unions experience a range of benefits.

- Among full-time workers aged 16 and older, Black women represented by labor unions earn an average of $192.10, or 32.2 percent, more per week than Black women who are not unionized (Table 2.5). [14] Black women's union wage advantage (in percent) is greater than the union advantage among all women (31.3 percent). Hispanic women have the largest union wage advantage (48.3 percent), while Asian/Pacific Islander women have the smallest union wage advantage (20.8 percent).
- Union women also experience smaller gender wage gaps than nonunion women. Black women in unions earn 73.3 percent of White union men's earnings, which is considerably better than the earnings ratio between all Black women and all White men (64.6 percent).
- In the South, unionized Black women experience an even greater union advantage than in the rest of the country. [15] Black women union members in the South earn 34.5 percent more than their non-union counterparts (J. Anderson et al. 2016).

Women who are union members or covered by a union contract are also more likely to participate in a pension plan than those who are not unionized (Figure 2.2). This is particularly important to Black women, who are less likely than White women to have a pension, and more likely to live in poverty at older ages (Fischer and Hayes 2013). Union representation helps to address this inequity; 60.9 percent of Black women in unions have a pension plan, compared with only 39.6 percent of nonunion Black women (Figure 2.2).

Unemployment

Research indicates that Black women are especially vulnerable to unemployment. During the Great Recession and following recovery, Black women's employment was hit particularly hard. Between December 2007 and June 2011, Black women lost more jobs than Black men and lost jobs disproportionately compared to all groups of women combined (National Women's Law Center 2011). During the recovery between June 2009 and June 2013, Black women experienced the greatest rise in unemployment of any racial

Table 2.3

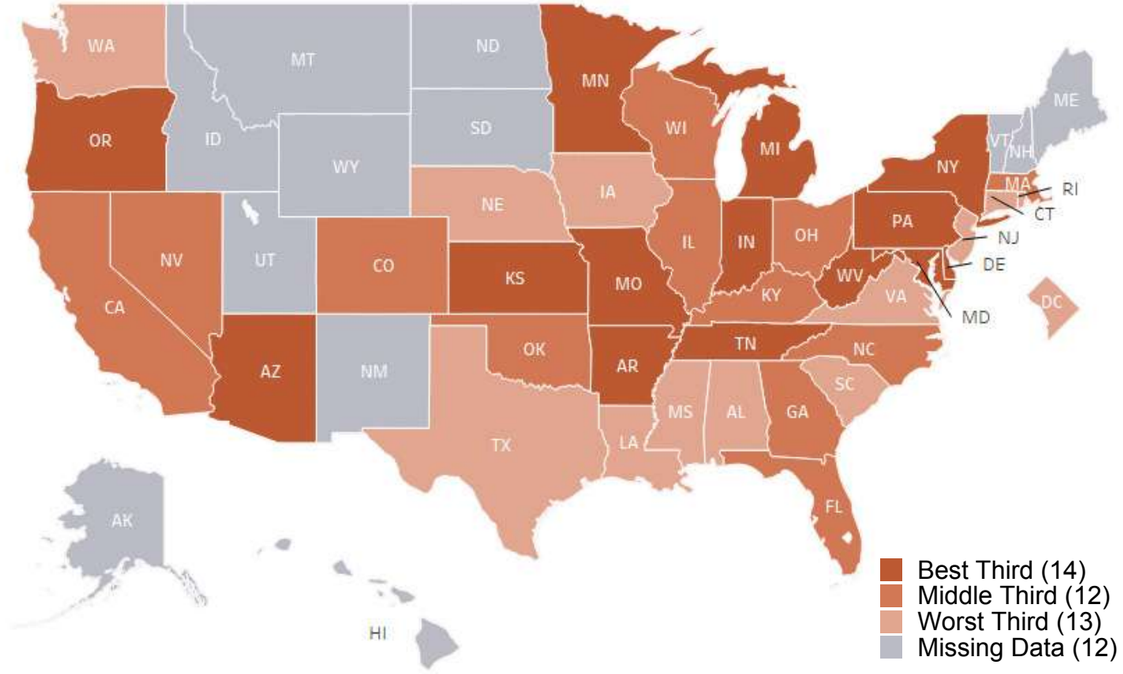
Women's and Men's Median Annual Earnings and the Gender Earnings Ratio, Full-Time, Year-Round Workers, United

	Median Annual Earnings for Women Employed Full Time, Year-Round	Median Annual Earnings for Men Employed Full Time, Year Round	Ratio of Women's Earning to Men's of the Same Racial/ Ethnic Group	Ratio of Women's Earnings to White Men's Earnings
All	$38,400	$48,000	80.0%	73.8%
White	$40,000	$52,000	76.9%	76.9%
Hispanic	$28,000	$31,000	90.3%	53.8%
Black	$33,600	$38,000	88.4%	64.6%
Asian/Pacific Islander	$45,000	$58,000	77.6%	86.5%
Native American	$31,000	$37,000	83.8%	59.6%
Other Race or Two or More Races	$38,000	$45,000	84.4%	73.1%

Notes: Data on women aged 16 and older. Racial groups are non-Hispanic.
Source: IWPR analysis of 2012-2014 American Community Survey microdata (Integrated Public Use Microdata Series, Version 6.0).

Map 2.3

Earnings Ratio Between Black Women and White Men, 2014



Notes: Data include women and men aged 16 and older. Racial groups are non-Hispanic.
Source: IWPR analysis of 2012-2014 American Community Survey microdata (Integrated Public Use Microdata Series, Version 6.0).

and ethnic group of men or women (National Women's Law Center 2011). In 2015, Black women's unemployment rate was higher than the rate for women from any of the other largest racial and ethnic groups (Figure 2.5), and higher than the rate for men from all major racial groups except for Black men (8.9 percent for Black women compared with 10.3 percent for Black men).

Between December 2014 and November 2015, the unemployment rate for Black workers aged 25 or older was nearly twice as high as the rate for White workers aged 25 or older, regardless of education level (Wilson 2015). This challenges the notion that racial disparities in educational attainment drive racial disparities in unemployment. In fact, in April 2015, the unemployment rate for Black workers with bachelor's degrees was equal to the unemployment rate of White workers with high school diplomas only (Spriggs 2016). There is also evidence that, once unemployed, Blacks are less likely to find jobs and are more likely to stay unemployed for longer periods of time compared with White or Hispanic workers (U.S. Department of Labor 2012). For example, one report found that Black women in New York City in 2011 were unemployed for an average of 47.4 weeks, compared with 33.7 weeks for White, non-Hispanic women (Holder 2012). [16]

Researchers have suggested that race-based labor market discrimination, differential access to employment opportunities by the location of residence, occupational segregation, the concentration of Black workers in the public sector, and weak enforcement of anti-discrimination laws drive racial inequality in unemployment rates, among other factors (Conrad et al. 2005; U.S. Department of Labor 2012; Raphael 1998; Wilson, Tienda, and Wu 1995). For example, public sector employment has long been a source of high quality employment for Black workers, in part because of its more formal hiring practices and greater accountability in human resource decisions, which may reduce bias (Cooper, Gable, and Austin 2012; Stainback, Tomaskovic-Devey, and Skaggs 2010). However, following the Great Recession, there were substantial losses in state and government jobs, which disproportionately affected Black women (Laird 2015).

Unemployment among Black youth is also particularly high (I. Jones 2014; Rogowski and Cohen 2015) and deepens income inequality (I. Jones 2014). During the first quarter of 2016, the unemployment rate for Black women aged 16-19 was 19.7 percent, the highest among women in all of the largest racial and ethnic groups (Bureau of Labor Statistics 2016b). In comparison, the unemployment rate was 11.9 percent for Asian women aged 16-19, 12.8 percent for White women, and 17.0 percent for Hispanic or Latina women.

Underemployment—which includes those who work part-time but would rather work full-time, workers who would like to work but cannot find jobs, and workers who are working in jobs far below their skill-level—is also a threat to Black women's well-being. An Urban League report found that Black Americans were underemployed at almost twice the rate of White workers (20.5 percent compared with 11.8 percent; Holland 2014). Like unemployment, there is evidence that underemployment is more common among Black workers than White workers across all levels of educational attainment (Carnevale and Smith 2015). One 2013 report found that more than half of employed Black recent college graduates were working in an occupation that did not require a four-year college degree (55.9 percent), compared with 45.0 percent of all recent college graduates (Jones and Schmitt 2014). The report also found that Black graduates were more likely to be underemployed than all graduates across all age levels and across most fields of study (Jones and Schmitt 2014). These findings suggest that racial discrimination in the labor market is pervasive and influences the quality of employment that Black workers are able to access.

Table 2.4

Union Membership Among Women by **Race/Ethnicity, United States, 2014**

Race/Ethnicity	Percent
All Women	11.5%
Hispanic	12.0%
Asian/Pacific Islander	11.9%
Black	11.5%
White	11.5%
Other Race or Two or More Races	7.9%
Native American	5.8%

Occupational segregation

Occupational segregation—the concentration of women in one set of jobs and men in another—is one factor that contributes to the gender wage gap. At every skill level—low, medium, and high—median earnings are highest in male-dominated occupations and lowest in female-dominated occupations (Hegewisch et al. 2010). One national study found that differences in employment by occupation and industry account for approximately half of the overall gender wage gap (Blau and Kahn 2007). Black women's concentration in particular occupations that offer poor quality jobs with low pay contributes to their vulnerability to unemployment and low income.

Black women are more likely to work in service occupations than any other broad occupational group (Table 2.6). Service occupations—which include personal care aides, maids and housekeeping cleaners, nursing assistants, cooks, and food service staff—tend to have the jobs with the lowest pay (U.S. Department of Labor 2015). In 2014, median weekly earnings for full-time, year-round women workers in service occupations were $461. In comparison, median weekly earnings for women workers across all occupations for full-time, year-round work were $719 (Bureau of Labor Statistics 2015c). While 21.6 percent of employed women work in service occupations, 27.7 percent of employed Black women and 31.8 percent of employed Hispanic women work in these occupations (Table 2.6). White women are least likely to work in service occupations, at 18.0 percent.

The percentage of employed Black women working in service occupations varies by state (Appendix Table 2.4).

- About 40 percent of employed Black women in Rhode Island work in service occupations, making it the state with the largest share of Black women in the service sector. [17] Minnesota (36.3 percent) and Louisiana and Massachusetts (35.0 percent each) also have large shares of Black women in service occupations.

- Maryland has the smallest share of Black women in service occupations at 22.7 percent, followed by the District of Columbia (23.0 percent) and California and Georgia (23.2 percent each).

The concentration of Black women in service occupations has negative implications for their earnings and economic security. One report on low-wage, female-dominated jobs found that 78.8 percent of female personal and home care aides, one-fifth of whom are Black, earned less than $15 an hour in 2014 (Table 2.7). Almost one quarter of the women working in these jobs lived in poverty. The poor returns that women in service occupations receive from their work have serious implications for poverty and inequality, given that the number of personal and home care aide jobs is expected to grow by a considerable 25.9 percent by 2024 (Table 2.7).

Service occupations are also the occupations least likely to offer important benefits like paid sick time, which are particularly important to women who have caregiving responsibilities (O'Connor, Hayes, and Gault 2014). Workers in low-wage service jobs are also more likely than other workers to have unpredictable schedules (Entmacher et al. 2014) and to live in poverty (Allegretto et al. 2013; Luce, Hammad, and Sipe 2015; Restaurant Opportunities Centers United 2015; Shierholz 2014).

In addition to improved enforcement of anti-discrimination and equal opportunity laws, another approach to reducing the concentration of Black women in low-paying jobs is to increase training and recruitment of Black women for specific well-paid occupations that are facing shortages of workers. A 2016 report found that women are just 29 percent of workers in growing middle-skill IT occupations, and less than 10 percent of workers in growing advanced manufacturing, or transportation, distribution, and logistics occupations (Hegewisch, Gault, and Hartmann 2016). These occupations are projected to grow and have substantial job openings in the coming decade. Education and workforce development systems can target Black women in training and recruitment to both fill these job openings and enable Black women to enter better paying occupations.

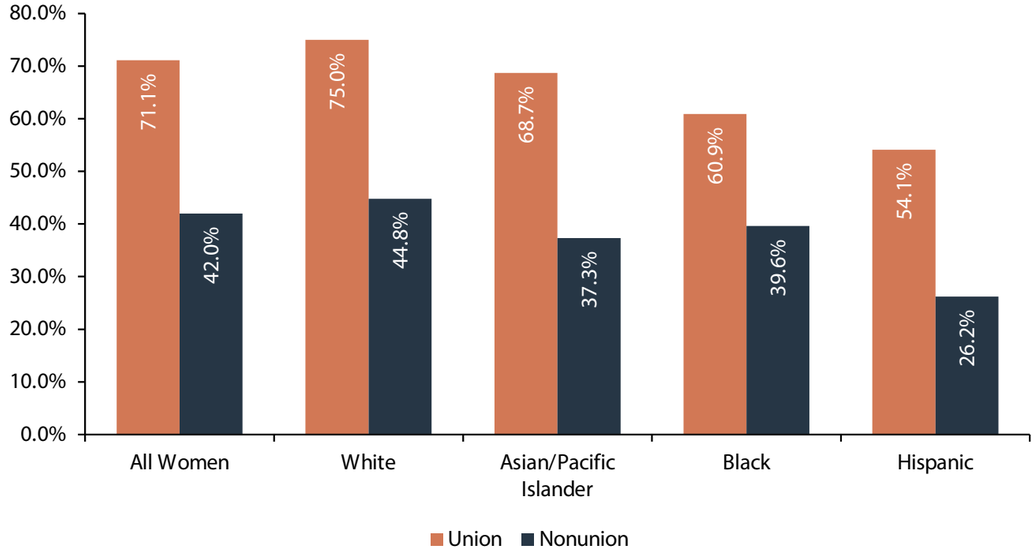
Table 2.5

Union Wage Advantage by Gender and Race/Ethnicity, United States, 2014

	Union	Nonunion	Union Wage Advantage	Union Wage Advantage (Percent)
All Women	**$910.80**	**$693.90**	**$216.90**	**31.3%**
Hispanic	$774.30	$522.20	$252.10	48.3%
Native American	$833.80	$612.10	$221.70	36.2%
Black	$789.60	$597.50	$192.10	32.2%
White	$962.80	$752.70	$210.10	27.9%
Other Race or Two or More Races	$826.20	$677.70	$148.50	21.9%
Asian/Pacific Islander	$962.90	$797.10	$165.80	20.8%
All Men	**$1,019.50**	**$847.30**	**$172.20**	**20.3%**
Hispanic	$881.70	$583.90	$297.80	51.0%
Native American	$952.60	$681.20	$271.40	39.8%
Black	$837.70	$662.10	$175.60	26.5%
White	$1,077.10	$973.70	$103.40	10.6%
Other Race or Two or More Races	$1,036.10	$799.50	$236.60	29.6%

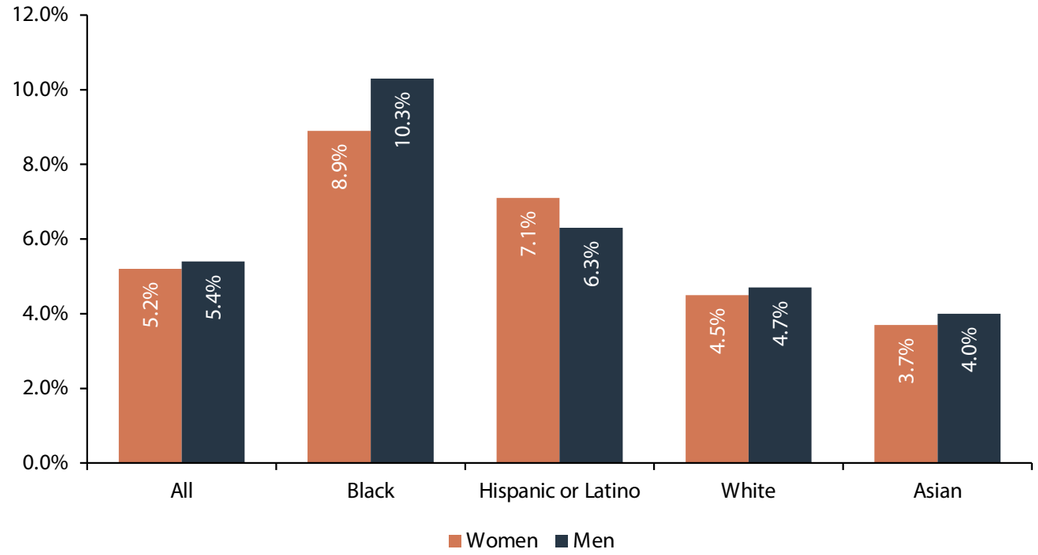
Notes: Percent of employed women aged 16 and older. Racial groups are non-Hispanic.
Source: IWPR analysis of 2011-2014 CPS ORG (2015b).

Figure 2.4
Percent of Female Workers With a Pension Plan by Union Status and Race/Ethnicity, United States, 2014



Notes: Racial categories are non-Hispanic. Data include all workers aged 15 and older. Sample sizes are insufficient to report estimates for other racial and ethnic groups.
Source: IWPR analysis of the 2012-2014 Current Population Survey Annual Social and Economic Supplement (2015c).

Figure 2.5
Unemployment by Gender and Race/Ethnicity, United States, 2015



Notes: Men and women aged 16 and older. Data are not available for Native Americans. Those who identify as Hispanic or Latino may be of any race.
Source: Bureau of Labor Statistics (2016c).

FOCUS ON: DOMESTIC WORKERS

Within the broad category of service occupations, domestic workers—nannies, caregivers, and housecleaners—face particular barriers to economic security and well-being that are connected to the historical concentration of Black women in domestic work.

The 2011-2012 National Domestic Workers Survey of 2,086 domestic workers in the United States, 97 percent of whom were women, found that domestic workers' median hourly wages were $6.15 for live-in domestic workers and $10.82 for live-out domestic workers. Among all domestic workers, White domestic workers had the highest median wages at $12.13 per hour, followed by Black workers ($10.99/hour). Latina/o workers, Asian workers, and domestic workers of another race and ethnicity had the lowest median wages at $10.00.

Live-in domestic workers earned even less than other domestic workers overall, with wages of a mere $6.15 per hour. Earnings also varied by immigration status and citizenship status. Domestic workers' low earnings have negative effects on women's economic security and well-being; 20 percent of workers surveyed reported having had no food to eat in their own homes at some time during the previous month and 60 percent reported spending more than half of their income on rent or mortgage payments (Burnham and Theodore 2012). [18]

In addition to low earnings, domestic workers are excluded from coverage by most labor protection laws and regulations and often work without a contract, leaving them vulnerable to exploitation and abuse by employers (Burnham and Theodore 2012). Given the highly intimate nature of their jobs, live-in domestic workers are especially subject to exploitative employer practices and report working exceedingly long hours and experiencing abuse at higher rates than other workers (Burnham and Theodore 2012; Theodore, Gutelius, and Burnham 2013).

The low earnings and lack of labor protections experienced by women in domestic work may be attributed to the historic devaluation of "women's work" in the United States (Hess 2013; England, Budig, and Folbre 2002), as well as the racialization of paid care work (Burnham and Theodore 2012).[19] Indeed, some of the first domestic workers in the country were enslaved Black women who were forced to provide care work for White families (Garza 2016).

Today, the majority of domestic workers continue to be women of color and are increasingly immigrants (Burnham and Theodore 2012). Latinas/os in particular are overrepresented among domestic workers; one report using 2005-2009 American Community Survey data found that 10 percent of domestic workers in the United States were Black, 46 percent were White, 38 percent were Latina/o, and 6 percent were Asian or of other races or ethnicities (Burnham and Theodore 2012). In comparison, non-Hispanic Blacks compose 12.3 percent of the U.S. population, non-Hispanic Whites 62.4 percent, Hispanics 17.1 percent, and all other racial and ethnic groups 8.2 percent (Institute for Women's Policy Research 2015a).

The low pay and poor treatment that these women workers experience, combined with their omission from many labor protections, place domestic workers at a sharp disadvantage within the U.S economy and deepen gender and racial inequities.

Managerial and Professional Occupations

Black women are underrepresented in managerial and professional occupations, which offer the highest paying jobs (U.S. Department of Labor 2015). This category includes a range of occupations—from managers, lawyers, doctors, nurses, teachers, and accountants to engineers and software developers—that mostly require at least a college degree. Between 2004 and 2014, the percentage of Black women employed in managerial or professional occupations increased by 8 percent, while the percentage of all women in managerial or professional occupations increased by 10.2 percent (Figure 2.6). Between 2004 and 2014, Native American women were the only racial/ethnic group of women to experience a decline in the share of women in managerial or professional occupations. As of 2014, Asian/Pacific Islander women were best represented in managerial and professional occupations among women (48.8 percent), while Hispanic women were least well-represented in these positions (25.2 percent).

Black women's representation in managerial and professional occupations also varies across the country (Map 2.4; Appendix Table 2.5).

- The District of Columbia has the highest proportion of employed Black women in managerial or professional occupations in the country (43.1 percent).[20] Maryland and California have the second- and third-highest proportions of employed Black women in managerial or professional occupations (42.4 and 38.8 percent, respectively). While the District of Columbia and Maryland are also among the top third jurisdictions with the highest proportions of women overall in managerial or professional occupations, California places in the middle third (39.8 percent).

- Iowa has the smallest proportion of employed Black women in managerial or professional occupations, at 25.3 percent. Nevada and South Carolina have the second- and third smallest proportions (26.8 and 26.9 percent, respectively). Iowa places among the middle third of states with for proportion of all women in managerial or professional occupations (38.7 percent), while Nevada and South Carolina both place in the bottom third of states on this indicator.

Black women often have limited opportunities to advance in the labor market due to race and gender-based discrimination (Conrad 2008; Hughes and Dodge 1997; Ortiz and Roscigno 2009) and occupational segregation (Childers 2014; Reskin and Roos 1990; Restaurant Opportunities Centers United 2015), which may contribute to their underrepresentation in managerial and professional occupations. One 2014 study of 273 fine-dining restaurants in major U.S. cities found that discrimination in hiring on the basis of race was pervasive; applicants of color who were as qualified as White candidates were considerably less likely to receive a job interview and less likely to receive a job offer than their White counterparts (Restaurant Opportunities Centers United 2014). The study also found that informal hiring and promotion practices in restaurants resulted in implicit and explicit discrimination against workers of color and perpetuated occupational segregation (Restaurant Opportunities Centers United 2014). Another 2014 study found evidence of strong differential treatment by race in hiring practices of recent college graduates in the business sector; black job applicants received about 14 percent fewer interview requests than their otherwise identical White counterparts (Nunley et al. 2014). Black women are especially vulnerable to discrimination due to their particular location at the intersections of race and gender. For example, one study on Black millennials found that 35.6 percent of young Black women surveyed reported experiencing employment discrimination based on race and/or gender, compared with 27.7 percent of Black men and 13.9 percent of White women (Rogowski and Cohen 2015).

Table 2.6

Distribution of Employed Women Across Broad Occupational Groups by Race/Ethnicity, United States, 2014

	Total Number of Women	Management, Business, and Financial Occupations	Professional and Related Occupations	Service Occupations	Sales and Related Occupations	Office and Administrative Support Occupations	Natural Resources, Construction, and Maintenance Occupations	Production, Transportation, and Material Moving Occupations	Armed Forces
All Women	**70,376,256**	**14.0%**	**26.9%**	**21.6%**	**11.3%**	**19.6%**	**0.9%**	**5.7%**	**0.1%**
White	45,315,880	15.5%	29.8%	18.0%	11.1%	20.4%	0.7%	4.5%	0.1%
Hispanic	10,389,123	9.1%	16.1%	31.8%	12.7%	18.6%	2.2%	9.5%	0.1%
Black	8,866,772	11.2%	22.4%	27.7%	11.4%	19.4%	0.6%	7.3%	0.1%
Asian/Pacific Islander	4,096,721	16.1%	32.7%	20.6%	10.2%	13.5%	0.6%	6.3%	0.1%
Native American	380,395	11.3%	21.5%	28.8%	11.4%	18.9%	1.5%	6.4%	N/A
Other Race or Two or More Races	1,327,365	13.6%	26.4%	23.8%	11.9%	18.6%	0.7%	4.6%	0.3%

Notes: Women aged 16 and older. Racial categories are non-Hispanic.
Source: IWPR analysis of 2012-2014 American Community Survey microdata (Integrated Public Use Microdata Series, Version 6.0).

Table 2.7

Women in Low-Wage, Female-Dominated Occupations and Proportion Black, United States, 2014

Occupation	Percent of Women Workers Who are Black	Percent of Women Workers Who Earn Less than $15/Hour	Percent of Women Workers Living in Poverty	Percent Projected Job Growth 2014-2024
Preschool and kindergarten teachers	13.5%	56.6%	8.2%	6.5%
Teacher assistants	13.0%	72.3%	8.7%	6.4%
Nursing, psychiatric, and home health aides	35.9%	72.0%	21.2%	24.5%
Medical assistants	14.1%	60.1%	11.8%	23.5%
Phlebotomists	N/A	57.0%	11.3%	24.9%
Miscellaneous healthcare support occupations, including medical equipment preparers	20.4%	65.0%	17.7%	12.5%
Combined food preparation and serving workers, including fast food	18.1%	82.5%	28.9%	10.9%
Counter attendants, cafeteria, food concession, and coffee shop	14.0%	91.4%	22.4%	6.0%
Waiters and waitresses	7.9%	78.3%	24.1%	2.8%
Food servers, non-restaurant	22.6%	77.1%	18.3%	13.4%
Hosts and hostesses, restaurant, lounge, and coffee shop	9.1%	85.9%	19.7%	4.5%
Maids and housekeeping cleaners	14.7%	81.3%	29.3%	7.7%
Nonfarm animal caretakers	2.2%	73.0%	14.8%	10.5%
Hairdressers, hairstylists, and cosmetologists	12.9%	69.6%	17.0%	9.8%
Miscellaneous personal appearance workers	6.6%	76.0%	21.4%	10.9%
Child care workers	13.0%	79.4%	19.3%	5.5%
Personal and home care aides	20.8%	78.8%	24.6%	25.9%
Recreation and fitness workers	8.6%	57.8%	10.1%	9.5%
Cashiers	19.8%	82.2%	25.6%	1.9%
Customer service representatives	17.9%	53.0%	10.6%	9.8%
Receptionists and information clerks	11.4%	61.5%	11.1%	9.5%

Notes: Black workers are non-Hispanic.
Source: IWPR calculations based on the U.S. Census Bureau's 2013-2015 Current Population Survey Annual Social and Economic Supplements (ASEC; King et al. 2010). For growth projections of these occupations, IWPR used the U.S. Department of Labor Bureau of Labor Statistics' 2014-2024 Employment Projections (Bureau of Labor Statistics 2015d).

Map 2.4
Black Women in Managerial or Professional Occupations, 2014

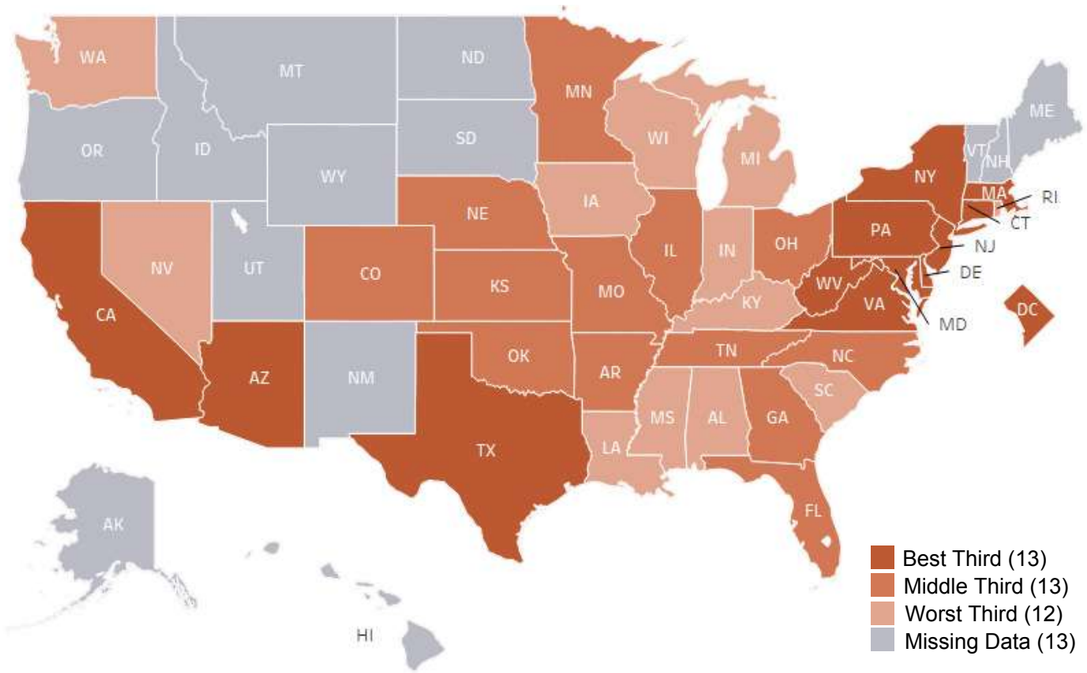
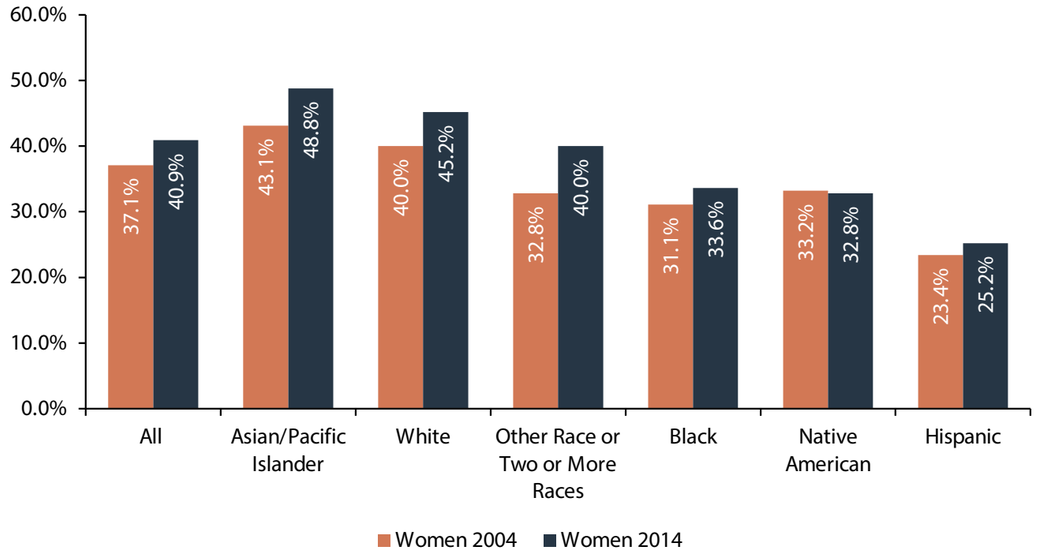


Figure 2.6

Percent of Women in Managerial and Professional Occupations by Race/Ethnicity, United States, 2004 and 2014



Notes: Women aged 16 and older. Racial categories are non-Hispanic.
Source: IWPR analysis of 2004 and 2014 American Community Survey microdata (Integrated Public Use Microdata Series, Version 6.0).

Conclusion

Black women make substantial contributions to the U.S. economy, yet face striking disparities in the labor market. Too often, Black women experience discrimination in the workplace, preventing them from advancing in their careers.

Black women are also concentrated in occupations that offer low wages and few benefits. While Black women who are represented by unions experience a substantial wage advantage and have greater access to pensions and other benefits compared with nonunion Black women, Black women's access to union jobs varies. In addition, the industry and occupation in which Black women work also affect their chances of joining a union; women working in the care industry as domestic workers, for example, experience substantial barriers to unionization. These challenges highlight the need for policies and practices that improve the quality of jobs and provide all women, especially women of color, access to education and jobs that pay family-sustaining wages. Increases in the minimum wage, pay equity legislation, the right and ability to form unions, and anti-discrimination laws are all ways to improve employment and economic opportunity for Black women in the United States.

NOTES

7. Due to small sample sizes, data on Black women's labor force participation rates are not available in Idaho, Montana, North Dakota, South Dakota, Vermont, and Wyoming.

8.Data on Black women's earnings are not available in Alaska, Hawaii, Idaho, Maine, Montana, New Hampshire, New Mexico, North Dakota, South Dakota, Utah, Vermont, and Wyoming due to small sample sizes.

9. This estimation differs from the U.S. Census Bureau's official wage gap of 79 percent because DeNavas-Walt and Proctor (2015) use the Current Population Survey, while the wage gap data in this report are based on the American Community Survey. For a description of the differences between ACS and CPS, see Appendix B7.

10. Data on the earnings ratio between Black women and White men are not available in Alaska, Hawaii, Idaho, Maine, Montana, New Hampshire, New Mexico, South Dakota, Utah, and Vermont.

11. Includes union members and individuals covered by a union contract.

12. Among the 16 jurisdictions that place in the top third with the highest percentage of women who are Black plus the District of Columbia with the highest percentage of women who are black in the country (Map 7.1), only the District of Columbia, Maryland, Delaware, New York, Illinois, and New Jersey have not implemented "right-to-work" legislation (National Conference of State Legislatures 2015).

13. Black women compose 20.4 percent of women working in miscellaneous healthcare support occupations, including medical equipment preparers, and compose 20.8 percent of women working as personal home care aides. Both of these occupational groups are female-dominated (Table 2.7).

14. The earnings and pension data in this section are calculated for all workers and are not controlled for age, education, or industry; when controlled for these factors, the union advantage is smaller but still significant, especially for women and minorities (Jones, Schmitt, and Woo 2014).

15. This report's definition of the South includes 13 states plus the District of Columbia: Alabama, Arkansas, Florida, Georgia, Kentucky, Louisiana, Mississippi, North Carolina, South Carolina, Tennessee, Texas, Virginia, and West Virginia.

16. Black men in New York City in 2011 were unemployed for an average of 46.8 weeks, while White men were unemployed for an average of 39.4 weeks (Holder 2012).

17. Data on the percentage of employed Black women in service occupations are not available for Alaska, Hawaii, Idaho, Maine, Montana, New Hampshire, New Mexico, North Dakota, Oregon, South Dakota, Utah, Vermont, and Wyoming due to insufficient sample sizes.

18. In the 2011-2012 survey of 2,086 domestic workers, Burnham and Theodore (2012) found that 58 percent of live-in workers were required to work during their scheduled time off and 25 percent of live-in workers had not been able to get at least five hours of uninterrupted sleep in the previous week.

19. During the 1930's New Deal era when important labor protections such as the Fair Labor Standards Act were being discussed and implemented, Black women in the South were disproportionately concentrated in domestic labor (Perea 2010). Policymakers decided that excluding domestic workers and agricultural workers (most of whom were Black in the southern states) was a necessary concession to Southern states that depended economically on low-wage Black workers, in order to pass New Deal legislation (Burnham and Theodore 2012; Perea 2010).

20.Due to small sample sizes, data on Black women in managerial or professional occupations are not available for Alaska, Hawaii, Idaho, Maine, Montana, New Hampshire, New Mexico, North Dakota, Oregon, South Dakota, Utah, Vermont, and Wyoming.

APPENDIX TWO

EMPLOYMENT & EARNINGS TABLES

Appendix Table 2.1: Women's Labor Force Participation Rates by Race/Ethnicity and State, 2014

	All Women	White	Hispanic	Black	Asian/Pacific Islander	Native American	Other Race or Two or More Races
Alabama	52.7%	50.7%	49.8%	58.2%	51.4%	47.2%	51.6%
Alaska	66.1%	67.0%	72.3%	62.8%	68.1%	55.9%	73.6%
Arizona	54.4%	53.1%	56.1%	61.6%	58.3%	52.2%	58.8%
Arkansas	53.6%	52.2%	57.2%	59.3%	57.6%	43.6%	54.5%
California	57.2%	55.8%	57.9%	58.4%	58.3%	49.9%	61.3%
Colorado	62.8%	63.0%	62.1%	65.5%	59.0%	60.7%	65.8%
Connecticut	62.6%	61.4%	64.5%	68.9%	62.2%	N/A	69.3%
Delaware	59.9%	57.9%	64.2%	64.8%	58.4%	N/A	63.5%
District of Columbia	66.1%	76.6%	72.1%	56.7%	74.1%	N/A	64.2%
Florida	54.6%	50.6%	58.5%	63.3%	57.6%	48.0%	63.3%
Georgia	57.7%	54.7%	58.5%	63.0%	55.7%	57.0%	58.7%
Hawaii	59.5%	57.6%	62.2%	70.1%	58.0%	N/A	64.4%
Idaho	56.8%	56.4%	61.9%	N/A	52.9%	51.6%	56.8%
Illinois	61.1%	61.0%	62.2%	61.0%	59.3%	56.9%	62.7%
Indiana	59.0%	58.5%	60.1%	63.7%	53.9%	50.0%	59.8%
Iowa	63.1%	62.9%	68.3%	61.8%	61.3%	48.0%	69.5%
Kansas	61.0%	60.8%	61.4%	63.7%	55.5%	58.2%	68.1%
Kentucky	54.7%	53.8%	60.8%	62.7%	57.7%	55.1%	57.2%
Louisiana	56.2%	54.2%	60.5%	59.7%	57.1%	42.8%	55.5%
Maine	59.4%	59.3%	67.0%	58.5%	59.8%	52.4%	64.1%
Maryland	64.7%	62.2%	70.6%	68.1%	63.0%	61.6%	67.5%
Massachusetts	63.3%	63.1%	61.9%	66.6%	62.2%	61.5%	69.7%
Michigan	57.1%	56.7%	61.6%	58.3%	53.3%	54.1%	58.0%
Minnesota	66.2%	65.9%	69.3%	68.0%	68.0%	60.2%	68.6%
Mississippi	54.4%	51.2%	54.3%	59.2%	59.4%	54.2%	50.8%
Missouri	59.3%	58.5%	64.3%	64.1%	56.8%	54.9%	63.2%
Montana	59.4%	59.6%	57.6%	N/A	72.1%	56.0%	59.6%
Nebraska	65.6%	65.8%	65.6%	64.4%	62.3%	58.4%	65.0%
Nevada	59.3%	57.0%	62.4%	61.9%	60.8%	57.7%	65.8%
New Hampshire	63.7%	63.7%	64.8%	75.7%	57.6%	N/A	64.2%
New Jersey	60.6%	58.9%	63.5%	64.4%	59.7%	45.0%	68.1%
New Mexico	55.1%	52.9%	56.9%	60.7%	55.3%	54.8%	65.6%
New York	58.9%	59.0%	57.7%	61.0%	56.8%	51.5%	62.3%
North Carolina	57.8%	56.1%	59.5%	62.7%	58.9%	49.8%	61.0%
North Dakota	64.2%	64.4%	66.8%	N/A	N/A	55.5%	69.5%
Ohio	59.0%	58.4%	63.2%	62.3%	57.2%	50.5%	63.7%
Oklahoma	56.0%	54.7%	59.5%	62.9%	55.3%	57.0%	58.8%
Oregon	57.6%	56.4%	65.9%	60.3%	60.6%	52.3%	58.7%
Pennsylvania	58.3%	58.1%	58.7%	59.8%	57.6%	63.6%	59.8%
Rhode Island	61.6%	61.1%	63.1%	66.9%	58.9%	N/A	65.3%
South Carolina	56.6%	54.7%	58.7%	60.6%	60.0%	50.5%	59.4%
South Dakota	65.4%	66.2%	70.3%	N/A	57.6%	55.7%	59.8%
Tennessee	56.2%	54.6%	55.9%	63.4%	58.0%	51.8%	56.6%
Texas	57.9%	56.8%	56.7%	65.2%	58.9%	53.8%	60.9%
Utah	59.8%	59.1%	64.9%	63.8%	59.5%	53.0%	62.0%
Vermont	63.2%	63.3%	65.0%	N/A	64.9%	N/A	61.2%
Virginia	61.4%	59.3%	68.8%	65.1%	62.5%	59.6%	63.9%
Washington	58.7%	57.9%	63.2%	63.1%	58.2%	52.6%	64.5%
West Virginia	49.0%	48.9%	50.1%	52.6%	49.4%	N/A	47.9%
Wisconsin	63.3%	63.5%	63.6%	60.5%	63.6%	59.4%	64.4%
Wyoming	62.9%	62.9%	63.2%	N/A	N/A	57.1%	65.9%
United States	**58.5%**	**57.6%**	**59.1%**	**62.3%**	**58.7%**	**53.9%**	**62.2%**

Notes: Percent of all women aged 16 and older who are employed or looking for work. Racial categories are non-Hispanic. N/A = not available.
Source: IWPR analysis of 2012-2014 American Community Survey microdata (Integrated Public Use Microdata Series, Version 6.0).

Appendix Table 2.2: Median Annual Earnings for Women Employed Full-Time, Year-Round by **Race/Ethnicity and State, 2014**

	All Women	White	Hispanic	Black	Asian/Pacific Islander	Native American	Other Race or Two or More Races
Alabama	$32,000	$35,000	$21,000	$28,000	$38,000	N/A	$40,000
Alaska	$42,300	$46,000	N/A	N/A	$28,300	$35,000	$43,000
Arizona	$36,000	$40,000	$29,000	$35,000	$42,500	$31,000	$39,200
Arkansas	$30,000	$32,000	$22,000	$27,900	$29,000	N/A	$28,000
California	$42,000	$52,000	$30,000	$43,000	$50,000	$38,000	$45,000
Colorado	$40,000	$44,000	$30,000	$35,000	$40,000	$32,000	$38,000
Connecticut	$48,000	$50,000	$30,000	$40,000	$55,000	N/A	$40,000
Delaware	$41,000	$44,000	$30,000	$38,000	$50,000	N/A	N/A
District of Columbia	$60,000	$74,000	$47,000	$48,000	$60,000	N/A	N/A
Florida	$34,000	$38,000	$28,000	$30,000	$36,000	$33,700	$33,300
Georgia	$35,000	$40,000	$24,000	$32,000	$38,000	N/A	$35,000
Hawaii	$40,000	$45,000	$37,000	N/A	$37,500	N/A	$38,000
Idaho	$30,000	$32,000	$23,000	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
Illinois	$40,000	$42,000	$27,000	$36,000	$50,000	N/A	$40,000
Indiana	$34,000	$35,000	$25,000	$32,000	$35,000	N/A	$34,000
Iowa	$35,000	$36,000	$27,000	$28,000	$30,800	N/A	N/A
Kansas	$35,000	$36,000	$25,000	$31,400	$35,000	N/A	$30,000
Kentucky	$33,000	$34,000	$26,000	$29,000	$31,200	N/A	$39,000
Louisiana	$31,500	$36,000	$28,000	$25,000	$32,000	N/A	$35,000
Maine	$35,500	$36,000	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
Maryland	$49,000	$52,000	$32,000	$45,000	$55,000	N/A	$50,000
Massachusetts	$48,800	$50,000	$32,000	$40,000	$50,000	N/A	$39,700
Michigan	$36,800	$38,000	$29,000	$33,000	$48,000	$30,300	$32,000
Minnesota	$40,000	$42,000	$27,000	$34,000	$38,000	$32,000	$37,000
Mississippi	$30,000	$34,000	$24,000	$25,000	N/A	N/A	N/A
Missouri	$34,000	$35,000	$26,500	$30,000	$36,000	N/A	$33,000
Montana	$31,000	$32,000	N/A	N/A	N/A	$29,000	N/A
Nebraska	$34,000	$35,000	$25,000	$26,500	$30,000	N/A	N/A
Nevada	$35,000	$40,000	$28,600	$33,000	$35,000	$33,000	$35,000
New Hampshire	$41,000	$41,200	N/A	N/A	$35,000	N/A	N/A
New Jersey	$48,000	$52,000	$30,000	$42,000	$60,000	N/A	$45,000
New Mexico	$33,800	$41,800	$29,000	N/A	$35,000	$27,000	N/A
New York	$43,800	$48,900	$33,000	$40,000	$50,000	$41,000	$40,500
North Carolina	$35,000	$37,000	$23,000	$30,000	$35,000	$28,000	$32,000
North Dakota	$35,000	$35,000	N/A	N/A	N/A	$28,000	N/A
Ohio	$36,000	$37,000	$30,000	$31,400	$42,000	N/A	$34,000
Oklahoma	$32,000	$33,000	$23,500	$30,000	$35,000	$30,000	$30,000
Oregon	$38,000	$40,000	$25,000	$36,000	$37,500	$32,000	$34,300
Pennsylvania	$38,000	$40,000	$29,000	$35,000	$42,000	N/A	$37,900
Rhode Island	$40,300	$44,200	$26,100	$30,400	$44,000	N/A	N/A
South Carolina	$32,800	$36,000	$26,000	$27,000	$34,000	N/A	$31,000
South Dakota	$30,500	$31,000	N/A	N/A	N/A	$27,000	N/A
Tennessee	$33,000	$35,000	$22,800	$30,000	$38,000	N/A	$30,000
Texas	$35,000	$42,000	$25,100	$35,000	$47,500	$35,000	$37,500
Utah	$34,700	$35,000	$25,000	N/A	$33,700	$28,000	$27,000
Vermont	$38,900	$39,000	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
Virginia	$41,000	$45,000	$30,000	$35,000	$50,000	N/A	$40,000
Washington	$41,000	$44,000	$27,500	$35,000	$42,000	$34,700	$40,000
West Virginia	$30,000	$30,000	N/A	$30,000	N/A	N/A	N/A
Wisconsin	$36,000	$38,000	$25,000	$30,000	$33,000	$30,000	$33,000
Wyoming	$35,000	$35,200	$26,000	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
United States	**$38,000**	**$40,000**	**$28,000**	**$33,600**	**$45,000**	**$31,000**	**$38,000**

Notes: For full-time, year-round workers aged 16 and older. Racial groups are non-Hispanic. N/A=not available.
Source: IWPR analysis of 2012-2014 American Community Survey microdata (Integrated Public Use Microdata Series, Version 6.0).

Appendix Table 2.3: State-by-State Median Annual Earnings and Gender Earnings Ratio Between Black Women and White Men, 2014

	Black Women	White Men	Earnings Ratio Between Black Women and White Men
Alabama	$28,000	$49,000	57.1%
Alaska	N/A	$65,000	N/A
Arizona	$35,000	$52,000	67.3%
Arkansas	$27,900	$41,000	68.0%
California	$43,000	$69,000	62.3%
Colorado	$35,000	$56,000	62.5%
Connecticut	$40,000	$67,000	59.7%
Delaware	$38,000	$53,000	71.7%
District of Columbia	$48,000	$87,000	55.2%
Florida	$30,000	$48,000	62.5%
Georgia	$32,000	$50,000	64.0%
Hawaii	N/A	$50,000	N/A
Idaho	N/A	$45,000	N/A
Illinois	$36,000	$59,000	61.0%
Indiana	$32,000	$48,000	66.7%
Iowa	$28,000	$46,200	60.6%
Kansas	$31,400	$48,000	65.4%
Kentucky	$29,000	$45,000	64.4%
Louisiana	$25,000	$54,000	46.3%
Maine	N/A	$44,600	N/A
Maryland	$45,000	$66,000	68.2%
Massachusetts	$40,000	$65,000	61.5%
Michigan	$33,000	$50,000	66.0%
Minnesota	$34,000	$52,000	65.4%
Mississippi	$25,000	$45,000	55.6%
Missouri	$30,000	$45,000	66.7%
Montana	N/A	$42,000	N/A
Nebraska	$26,500	$47,000	56.4%
Nevada	$33,000	$52,000	63.5%
New Hampshire	N/A	$55,000	N/A
New Jersey	$42,000	$70,000	60.0%
New Mexico	N/A	$51,000	N/A
New York	$40,000	$60,000	66.7%
North Carolina	$30,000	$47,000	63.8%
North Dakota	N/A	$50,000	N/A
Ohio	$31,400	$48,800	64.3%
Oklahoma	$30,000	$46,000	65.2%
Oregon	$36,000	$50,000	72.0%
Pennsylvania	$35,000	$50,000	70.0%
Rhode Island	$30,400	$55,000	55.3%
South Carolina	$27,000	$47,000	57.4%
South Dakota	N/A	$41,000	N/A
Tennessee	$30,000	$45,000	66.7%
Texas	$35,000	$60,000	58.3%
Utah	N/A	$52,000	N/A
Vermont	N/A	$45,000	N/A
Virginia	$35,000	$59,500	58.8%
Washington	$35,000	$58,000	60.3%
West Virginia	$30,000	$45,000	66.7%
Wisconsin	$30,000	$49,100	61.1%
Wyoming	N/A	$55,000	N/A
United States	**$33,600**	**$52,000**	**64.6%**

Notes: For full-time, year-round workers aged 16 and older. Racial groups are non-Hispanic. N/A=not available.
Source: IWPR analysis of 2012-2014 American Community Survey microdata (Integrated Public Use Microdata Series, Version 6.0).

Appendix Table 2.4: Percent of Women Employed in Service Occupations by Race/Ethnicity and State, 2014

	All Women	White	Hispanic	Black	Asian/Pacific Islander	Native American	Other Race or Two or More Races
Alabama	20.3%	16.9%	30.7%	27.3%	23.1%	N/A	17.8%
Alaska	22.4%	18.1%	N/A	N/A	41.7%	28.8%	N/A
Arizona	22.4%	17.5%	32.8%	24.7%	21.8%	28.3%	23.2%
Arkansas	21.3%	18.9%	29.9%	29.6%	N/A	N/A	N/A
California	22.2%	16.1%	31.0%	23.2%	19.4%	23.3%	20.3%
Colorado	21.1%	17.6%	34.5%	26.7%	24.0%	N/A	22.5%
Connecticut	20.4%	16.3%	33.5%	32.2%	17.3%	N/A	36.5%
Delaware	20.2%	17.0%	32.0%	25.8%	N/A	N/A	N/A
District of Columbia	15.8%	4.9%	42.1%	23.0%	8.4%	N/A	N/A
Florida	22.7%	18.5%	27.1%	29.9%	26.4%	28.2%	23.0%
Georgia	19.8%	16.1%	31.5%	23.2%	22.4%	N/A	20.8%
Hawaii	22.8%	19.2%	21.8%	N/A	25.0%	N/A	21.8%
Idaho	24.3%	23.2%	31.3%	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
Illinois	20.7%	18.2%	28.6%	27.3%	16.5%	N/A	22.0%
Indiana	21.6%	20.3%	29.8%	27.9%	22.7%	N/A	28.7%
Iowa	22.1%	21.5%	25.9%	31.7%	17.3%	N/A	N/A
Kansas	20.9%	18.8%	34.6%	25.8%	21.7%	N/A	30.2%
Kentucky	21.1%	20.1%	27.9%	29.8%	26.6%	N/A	17.1%
Louisiana	24.5%	18.1%	34.3%	35.0%	33.4%	N/A	24.6%
Maine	22.9%	22.1%	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
Maryland	19.6%	14.9%	41.0%	22.7%	19.0%	N/A	21.3%
Massachusetts	19.9%	17.0%	35.8%	35.0%	16.9%	N/A	30.9%
Michigan	22.9%	21.4%	28.8%	30.6%	17.6%	29.6%	27.9%
Minnesota	21.0%	19.4%	31.5%	36.3%	24.3%	38.2%	23.4%
Mississippi	21.9%	16.2%	30.9%	29.2%	N/A	N/A	N/A
Missouri	21.3%	20.0%	28.6%	28.1%	24.3%	N/A	22.9%
Montana	25.1%	24.1%	N/A	N/A	N/A	31.8%	N/A
Nebraska	22.0%	20.6%	32.6%	26.7%	N/A	N/A	N/A
Nevada	28.4%	20.3%	42.9%	29.6%	34.5%	32.6%	30.1%
New Hampshire	19.4%	18.9%	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
New Jersey	19.2%	15.1%	30.4%	27.1%	12.7%	N/A	23.0%
New Mexico	24.7%	15.4%	32.8%	N/A	N/A	31.1%	N/A
New York	22.7%	16.3%	36.4%	34.4%	21.9%	27.4%	24.2%
North Carolina	21.0%	17.8%	33.4%	26.3%	22.3%	28.1%	25.4%
North Dakota	24.6%	23.7%	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
Ohio	21.8%	20.4%	26.7%	30.5%	18.3%	N/A	27.7%
Oklahoma	22.0%	19.0%	38.3%	30.6%	19.4%	25.3%	24.3%
Oregon	23.8%	21.6%	37.2%	N/A	28.6%	29.9%	27.4%
Pennsylvania	21.4%	19.8%	29.1%	31.6%	17.8%	N/A	25.3%
Rhode Island	22.4%	19.2%	36.8%	40.4%	N/A	N/A	N/A
South Carolina	21.6%	17.8%	36.1%	27.8%	27.0%	N/A	24.3%
South Dakota	22.7%	22.1%	N/A	N/A	N/A	27.2%	N/A
Tennessee	20.3%	18.7%	32.6%	24.0%	23.2%	N/A	23.1%
Texas	22.4%	14.9%	32.8%	24.8%	19.8%	18.5%	20.8%
Utah	19.1%	17.2%	30.8%	N/A	19.3%	N/A	N/A
Vermont	20.7%	19.9%	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
Virginia	20.1%	15.8%	40.4%	25.4%	21.6%	N/A	22.1%
Washington	22.1%	19.8%	32.3%	33.0%	25.2%	27.4%	24.7%
West Virginia	24.4%	24.0%	N/A	27.9%	N/A	N/A	N/A
Wisconsin	21.3%	20.0%	29.7%	33.4%	20.8%	29.6%	28.1%
Wyoming	25.5%	23.9%	37.5%	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
United States	**21.7%**	**18.2%**	**32.0%**	**27.9%**	**20.8%**	**27.6%**	**23.9%**

Notes: Median annual earnings for full-time, year-round workers aged 16 and older. Racial groups are non-Hispanic. N/A=not available.
Source: Source: IWPR analysis of 2012-2014 American Community Survey microdata (Integrated Public Use Microdata Series, Version 6.0).

Appendix Table 2.5: Percent of Employed Women in Managerial or Professional Occupations by Race/Ethnicity and State, 2014

	All Women	White	Hispanic	Black	Asian/Pacific Islander	Native American	Other Race or Two or More Races
Alabama	37.4%	41.3%	21.2%	29.2%	45.8%	N/A	43.5%
Alaska	41.8%	47.1%	N/A	N/A	20.0%	31.6%	N/A
Arizona	38.3%	43.9%	25.2%	35.0%	47.2%	32.4%	39.3%
Arkansas	37.0%	39.3%	20.3%	32.5%	N/A	N/A	N/A
California	39.8%	49.8%	23.1%	38.8%	48.6%	33.8%	44.5%
Colorado	42.9%	47.4%	25.4%	31.5%	45.6%	N/A	39.5%
Connecticut	44.7%	49.4%	24.6%	34.5%	49.8%	N/A	37.5%
Delaware	42.7%	45.3%	28.3%	37.2%	N/A	N/A	N/A
District of Columbia	61.3%	79.2%	42.4%	43.1%	71.8%	N/A	N/A
Florida	37.1%	41.9%	29.1%	31.0%	44.5%	33.0%	36.0%
Georgia	39.9%	45.8%	20.7%	33.5%	45.8%	N/A	35.1%
Hawaii	37.4%	48.8%	36.0%	N/A	34.8%	N/A	31.9%
Idaho	35.5%	37.3%	20.7%	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
Illinois	40.1%	44.1%	21.7%	32.5%	56.1%	N/A	39.5%
Indiana	36.6%	37.9%	24.3%	28.8%	46.1%	N/A	33.3%
Iowa	38.7%	39.9%	21.6%	25.3%	45.7%	N/A	N/A
Kansas	41.2%	43.9%	24.2%	31.4%	44.1%	N/A	31.0%
Kentucky	38.0%	39.2%	25.5%	27.0%	45.1%	N/A	39.7%
Louisiana	37.2%	42.5%	29.9%	28.3%	36.6%	N/A	38.0%
Maine	40.4%	40.8%	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
Maryland	48.0%	53.1%	26.7%	42.4%	56.9%	N/A	49.5%
Massachusetts	47.5%	50.4%	27.7%	34.4%	54.6%	N/A	37.4%
Michigan	37.2%	38.9%	24.6%	27.9%	55.4%	32.5%	32.3%
Minnesota	42.9%	44.7%	26.5%	31.3%	36.4%	30.3%	40.1%
Mississippi	36.5%	42.0%	25.3%	29.4%	N/A	N/A	N/A
Missouri	39.0%	40.4%	30.7%	29.7%	50.9%	N/A	35.7%
Montana	38.4%	39.6%	N/A	N/A	N/A	30.9%	N/A
Nebraska	39.2%	41.9%	14.3%	32.9%	N/A	N/A	N/A
Nevada	31.0%	38.3%	17.4%	26.8%	30.7%	26.2%	24.7%
New Hampshire	43.6%	44.0%	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
New Jersey	43.3%	48.0%	25.5%	35.3%	59.0%	N/A	39.3%
New Mexico	39.2%	50.4%	29.8%	N/A	N/A	27.7%	N/A
New York	43.1%	49.4%	26.0%	34.1%	47.2%	45.0%	41.2%
North Carolina	40.4%	45.2%	20.2%	32.2%	46.3%	32.1%	36.1%
North Dakota	36.6%	37.5%	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
Ohio	38.5%	39.8%	26.6%	30.1%	54.1%	N/A	34.4%
Oklahoma	38.4%	41.6%	18.4%	30.8%	43.8%	35.4%	35.7%
Oregon	39.4%	41.9%	22.6%	N/A	40.3%	32.7%	34.6%
Pennsylvania	40.5%	41.9%	24.7%	33.7%	50.1%	N/A	40.0%
Rhode Island	40.0%	43.4%	20.7%	27.8%	N/A	N/A	N/A
South Carolina	36.8%	42.1%	23.2%	26.9%	39.3%	N/A	28.5%
South Dakota	36.9%	38.0%	N/A	N/A	N/A	31.4%	N/A
Tennessee	38.1%	40.4%	22.1%	30.8%	45.5%	N/A	35.2%
Texas	39.0%	47.9%	25.5%	36.5%	51.8%	37.6%	42.6%
Utah	37.9%	40.5%	21.5%	N/A	38.3%	N/A	N/A
Vermont	44.3%	44.9%	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
Virginia	44.8%	49.6%	27.1%	34.8%	50.1%	N/A	45.0%
Washington	41.1%	44.2%	22.3%	29.5%	41.4%	33.5%	38.6%
West Virginia	37.7%	37.9%	N/A	33.8%	N/A	N/A	N/A
Wisconsin	38.5%	40.0%	23.3%	27.7%	40.5%	29.4%	32.1%
Wyoming	37.6%	38.9%	24.9%	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
United States	**40.1%**	**44.2%**	**24.8%**	**33.0%**	**47.9%**	**32.8%**	**38.6%**

Notes: For women aged 16 and older. Racial groups are non-Hispanic. N/A=not available.
Source: IWPR analysis of 2012-2014 American Community Survey microdata (Integrated Public Use Microdata Series, Version 6.0).

THREE

WORK & FAMILY

The Status of Black Women

in the United States

Introduction

Black women ensure their families' overall well-being not only through their participation in the workforce but also through their direct caregiving.

Research indicates that Black women have substantial caregiving responsibilities for their children and for disabled and elderly family members: over half of Black households with children under 18 are led by single women (Figure 3.4) and about one in six Black women under the age of 65 lives with a person with a disability (Figure 3.6). In addition, a study on baby boomers caring for their parents found that 20 percent of all caregivers between the ages of 50 and 55, most of whom are women, are Black (MetLife 2011).

The lack of a strong work-family support structure in the United States makes it difficult for many Black women to balance their considerable work and family responsibilities. Those who lack access to paid family leave and need to take time off from work to care for their children or elderly parents may risk losing their jobs and their families' primary source of income. In addition, Black women who do not have access to affordable child care or elder care may be forced to choose between giving up their jobs and caring for their loved ones.

Because Black women are disproportionately concentrated in low-earning jobs that offer few benefits, they are especially affected by the lack of a strong work-family support structure in the United States. This chapter examines data on the financial and caregiving responsibilities that Black women have and work supports that can support Black working women and their families.

Key Findings

Almost four out of five (77.7 percent) Black mothers with children under six years old participate in the workforce.

Black families depend on Black women's earnings. Eight out of ten (80.6 percent) Black mothers are breadwinners, who are either the sole earner or earn at least 40 percent of household income.

Quality child care is unaffordable for many Black women. In all but two states in the country, the average costs of child care exceed 20 percent of Black women's median annual earnings.

Nearly one in six (16.4 percent) Black women under the age of 65 lives with a person aged 15 and older with a disability.

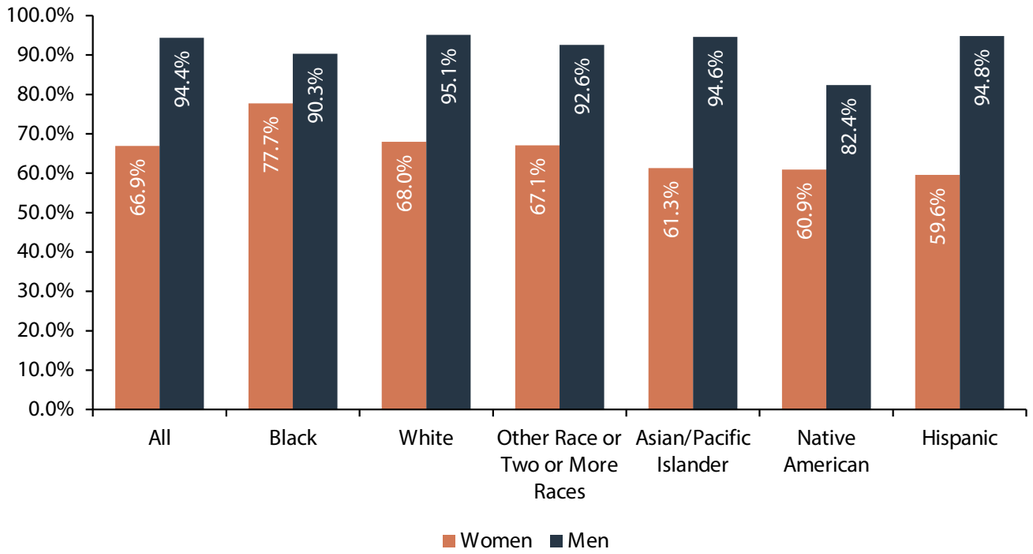
More than one-third (37.2 percent) of employed Black women do not have access to paid sick days.

Parents' Labor Force Participation

In the United States, one in three workers (32 percent) has children under 18, and of these, a quarter have children younger than six years old (U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics 2014). While mothers' earnings make a major contribution to their families' incomes and 62 percent of mothers who gave birth within the last 12 months are in the workforce (U.S. Department of Labor Women's Bureau 2015), a gender gap in labor force participation persists between men and women with children under six years old (Figure 3.1). This gender gap in labor force participation is smallest between Black women and men (Figure 3.1). Almost 78 percent of Black women with children under age six are in the labor force, compared with 90.3 percent of their male counterparts. Hispanic parents of children under six have the largest gap in labor force participation, with 59.6 percent of mothers in the labor force compared with 94.8 percent of fathers.

Figure 3.1

Labor Force Participation Rate of Parents With Children Under Six by Race/Ethnicity, United States, 2014



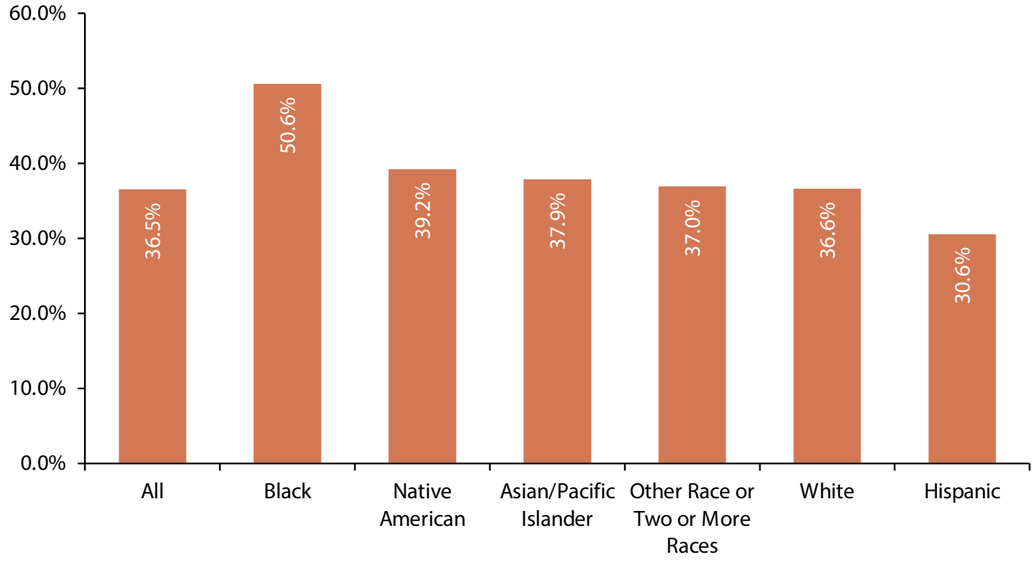
Notes: Data include women and men age 16 and older with children under the age of six. Racial groups are non-Hispanic.
Source: IWPR analysis of 2014 American Community Survey microdata (Integrated Public Use Microdata Series, Version 6.0).

Mothers as Breadwinners

In this report, female breadwinners are defined as single mothers of children under 18 years of age, irrespective of earnings, and as married mothers of children under 18 years of age who earn at least 40 percent of the couple's joint earnings. Single mothers who live in someone else's household (such as with their parents) are not included in this definition. By this definition, half of Black mothers in married couples with children under 18 years old are breadwinners, which is the largest share among women of any of the largest racial and ethnic groups (50.6 percent; Figure 3.2). Married Hispanic women with children under 18 are least likely to be breadwinners, at 30.6 percent.

Figure 3.2

Percent of Married Couples with Children Under 18 with Breadwinner Mothers by Race/Ethnicity, United States, 2014



Notes: Breadwinner mothers shown here are married mothers who earn at least 40 percent of couple's joint earnings. Racial groups are non-Hispanic.
Source: IWPR analysis of 2014 American Community Survey microdata (Integrated Public Use Microdata Series, Version 6.0).

The share of married-couple households with women breadwinners and children under 18 varies considerably among states (Appendix Table 3.1).[21]

- Delaware, Maryland, and Missouri have the largest shares of Black married-couple households with women breadwinners (59.0, 56.4, and 55.4 percent, respectively).
- The states with the lowest proportions of Black women as breadwinners in married-couple households are Wisconsin, Nevada, and Colorado (43.0, 45.1, and 46.5percent; Appendix Table 3.1).

Three quarters (75.4 percent) of all Black breadwinner mothers are single mothers, which is the highest among the largest racial and ethnic groups (Figure 3.3). The share of female breadwinners who are single mothers is smallest among Asian/Pacific Islander women (24.2 percent).

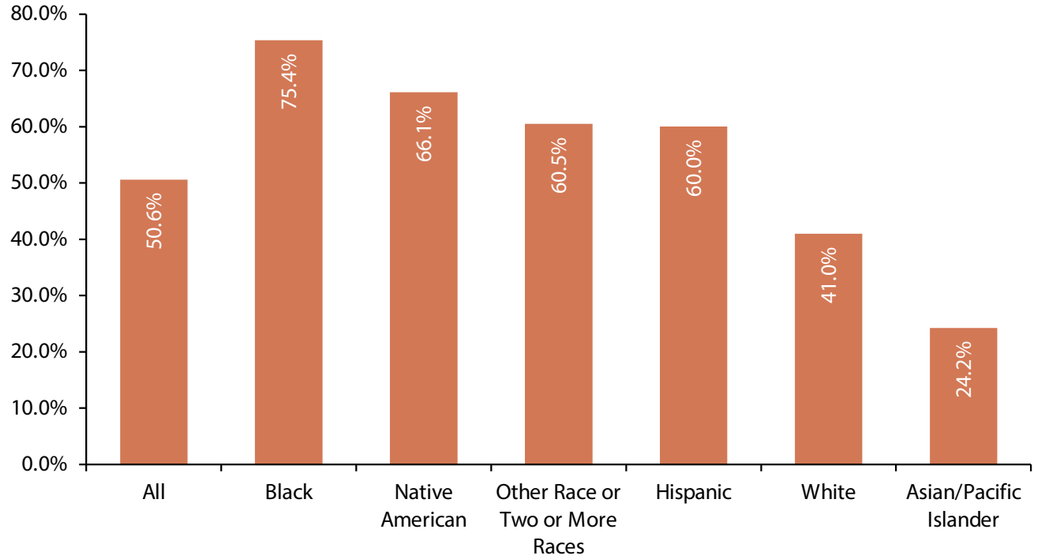
The share of breadwinner mothers who are single mothers also varies across the country (Appendix Table 3.2).

- Single mothers make up the largest percentage of Black female breadwinner households in Wisconsin, where 89.9 percent of Black female breadwinner households are single-mother households.[22] The District of Columbia and Michigan have the second and third largest shares (82.8 and 82.0 percent, respectively).
- The states with the lowest proportions of single-mother households among households with Black female breadwinners are Washington, Delaware, and Maryland (64.5, 67.2, and 67.3 percent, respectively).

Another way to measure the prevalence of mothers as breadwinners is to examine the percentage of all households with mothers of children under 18 in which mothers are breadwinners. Across the country, mothers are breadwinners in eight in ten (80.6 percent) households with Black mothers (Figure 3.4). Asian/Pacific Islander mothers are least likely to be breadwinners among all racial/ethnic groups of women, at 44.6 percent.

Figure 3.3

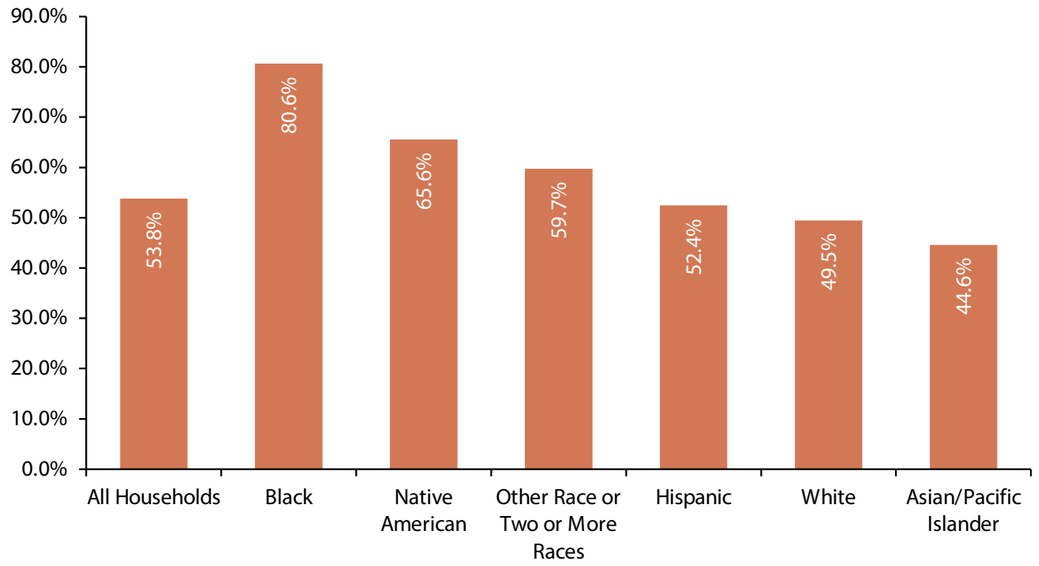
Percent of all Breadwinner Mothers Who are Single Mothers by Race/Ethnicity, United States, 2014



Notes: Breadwinner mothers are defined as single mothers who are the main householder (irrespective of earnings) and married mothers who earn at least 40 percent of the couple's joint earnings; single mothers who live in someone else's household (such as with their parents) are not included in breadwinners. Racial groups are non-Hispanic. N/A= not available.
Source: IWPR analysis of 2014 American Community Survey microdata (Integrated Public Use Microdata Series, Version 6.0).

Figure 3.4

Percent of Mothers of Children Under 18 Who are Breadwinners by Race/Ethnicity, United States, 2014



Notes: For definition of breadwinner mothers see note in Figure 3.3. Racial groups are non-Hispanic.
Source: IWPR analysis of 2014 American Community Survey microdata (Integrated Public Use Microdata Series, Version 6.0).

The percentage of black mothers who are breadwinners also varies across the country (Appendix Table 3.3).

- Wisconsin, the District of Columbia, and Missouri have the largest proportions of Black mothers of children under 18 who are breadwinners (88.1, 87.8, and 85.5 percent, respectively).[23]
- Washington, Colorado, and Kansas have the smallest proportions of black mothers of children under 18 who are breadwinners (71.9, 73.0, and 75.7 percent, respectively).

Black Women as Caregivers and Caregiving as Work

Child Care

Reliable child care is an essential—yet often prohibitively expensive—support for women in the labor force. About four in ten (40.6 percent) Black preschoolers are cared for in organized facilities and about three-quarters (76.0 percent) are cared for by a relative, suggesting that many preschool children are in more than one form of care and that a significant need for child care exists among Black families. Child care is expensive and growing by more than the rate of inflation. Between 1985 and 2011, the real weekly out-of-pocket costs for child care among families with an employed mother almost doubled (U.S. Census Bureau 2013).

The U.S. Department of Health and Human Services has determined that spending 10 percent of family income on child care is a benchmark for affordability (Office of the President of the United States 2014). Families with children who have incomes below the poverty line, however, spent 30 percent of their income on child care in 2011, almost four times the proportion that families with above-poverty income spent (U.S. Census Bureau 2013). In addition, a report by Child Care Aware of America (2014) indicates that the average cost of center-based infant care exceeds 40 percent of single mothers' income in every state. The high cost of child care is especially detrimental to mothers in low-wage jobs,[24] who depend on child care to maintain employment and advance at work (Lee 2007).

Black women's low earnings make accessing affordable child care a real challenge. In all but two states in the country, the average costs of child care exceed 20 percent of Black women's median annual earnings (Table 3.1). Given the fact that many Black mothers are breadwinners for their families, the relatively high costs of child care compared with Black women's earnings pose a risk to the economic security of Black women and their families as well as their ability to secure reliable and quality child care.

Despite the rising costs of child care to families, child care workers are some of the lowest-paid workers in the country (Gould 2015). As with other occupations involving care work, child care workers are disproportionately women, 13.0 percent of whom are Black (Table 2.7). One study has found that child care workers' median hourly wages are $10.31 (Gould 2015), and IWPR research indicates that 19.3 percent of female child care workers have earnings that place their families below the poverty line (Table 2.7). Child care workers rarely receive benefits such as health insurance or pension plans through their employers. As a consequence of their low earnings and benefits, many child care workers cannot afford child care for their own children (Gould 2015).

- The states with the lowest cost of full-time, center-based infant care relative to Black women's median annual earnings are Mississippi, Tennessee, and Alabama, where the average annual cost of full-time infant center care is 19.3, 19.5, and 20.1 percent of median annual earnings for Black women working full-time, year-round.
- The average annual cost of full-time, center-based infant care as a percentage of Black women's median annual earnings is highest in the District of Columbia,[25] at 47.1 percent.[26] Massachusetts comes in second, where the average cost of full-time infant center care is 42.7 percent of Black women's median annual earnings, followed by Rhode Island and Minnesota (42.3 percent each).

These relative measures of the costs of child care do not capture the quality of center-based infant care. Lower relative costs may simply reflect lower quality, such as high ratios of children to staff and lack of requirements for teacher certification. Still, child care costs across the country are high relative to Black women's earnings. By its nature, quality child care is labor-intensive with limited scope for labor-saving technologies or other cost-saving innovations. Without significant public funding, quality child care will remain out of reach for the majority of families (D. Blau 2001).

Table 3.1

Cost of Child Care Relative to Black Women's Earnings by State, 2014

	Average Annual Cost of Full-Time Infant Center Care, 2014	Median Annual Earnings for Black Women Employed Full-Time, Year-Round, 2014	Cost of Child Care as Percentage of Black Women's Earnings
Alabama	$5,637	$28,000	20.1%
Alaska	$10,957	N/A	N/A
Arizona	$9,437	$35,000	27.0%
Arkansas	$5,995	$27,900	21.5%
California	$11,817	$43,000	27.5%
Colorado	$13,154	$35,000	37.6%
Connecticut	$13,880	$40,000	34.7%
Delaware	$11,000	$38,000	28.9%
District of Columbia	$22,631	$48,000	47.1%
Florida	$8,694	$30,000	29.0%
Georgia	$7,644	$32,000	23.9%
Hawaii	$8,280	N/A	N/A
Idaho	$7,200	N/A	N/A
Illinois	$12,964	$36,000	36.0%
Indiana	$8,918	$32,000	27.9%
Iowa	$9,485	$28,000	33.9%
Kansas	$11,201	$31,400	35.7%
Kentucky	$6,294	$29,000	21.7%
Louisiana	$5,747	$25,000	23.0%
Maine	$9,512	N/A	N/A
Maryland	$13,932	$45,000	31.0%
Massachusetts	$17,062	$40,000	42.7%
Michigan	$9,882	$33,000	29.9%
Minnesota	$14,366	$34,000	42.3%
Mississippi	$4,822	$25,000	19.3%
Missouri	$8,632	$30,000	28.8%
Montana	$9,062	N/A	N/A
Nebraska	$7,926	$26,500	29.9%
Nevada	$9,852	$33,000	29.9%
New Hampshire	$11,810	N/A	N/A
New Jersey	$11,534	$42,000	27.5%
New Mexico	$7,942	N/A	N/A
New York	$14,144	$40,000	35.4%
North Carolina	$9,255	$30,000	30.9%
North Dakota	$8,217	N/A	N/A
Ohio	$8,977	$31,400	28.6%
Oklahoma	$6,788	$30,000	22.6%
Oregon	$11,322	$36,000	31.5%
Pennsylvania	$10,640	$35,000	30.4%
Rhode Island	$12,867	$30,400	42.3%
South Carolina	$6,475	$27,000	24.0%
South Dakota	$5,661	N/A	N/A
Tennessee	$5,857	$30,000	19.5%
Texas	$8,759	$35,000	25.0%
Utah	$8,641	N/A	N/A
Vermont	$11,270	N/A	N/A
Virginia	$10,458	$35,000	29.9%
Washington	$12,733	$35,000	36.4%
West Virginia	$7,926	$30,000	26.4%
Wisconsin	$11,579	$30,000	38.6%
Wyoming	$6,541	N/A	N/A

Notes: Data on Black women's earnings are on women aged 16 and older. N/A = not available. Black women are non-Hispanic.
Source: Data on child care costs from Child Care Aware of America's 2015 report using the January 2015 survey of Child Care Resource and Referral State Networks. Data on earnings are from IWPR analysis of 2012-2014 American Community Survey microdata (Integrated Public Use Microdata Series, Version 6.0).

FOCUS ON: CARE WORK

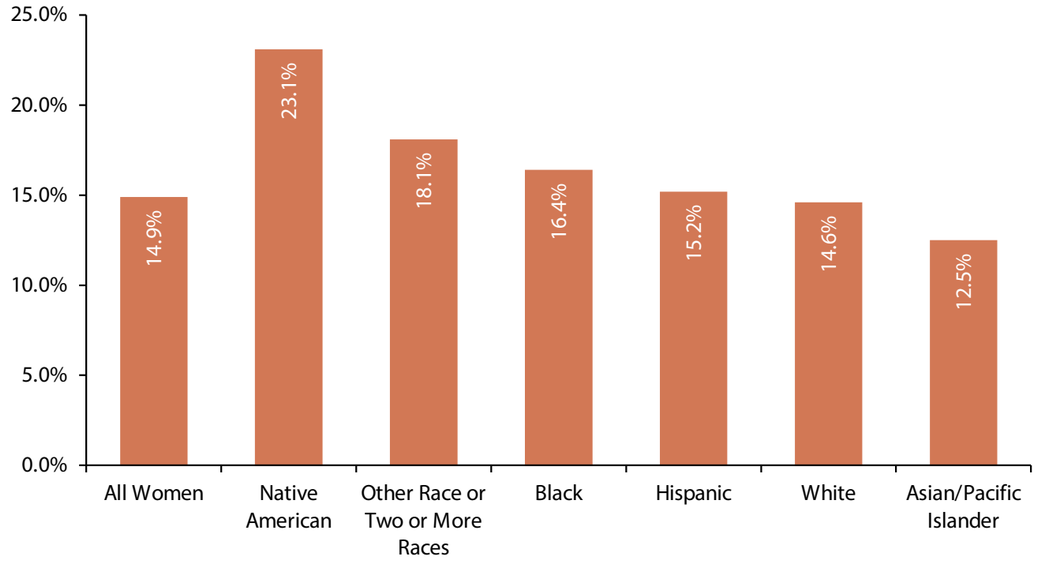
Black women disproportionately hold paid caregiving jobs in many sectors of the care economy. Over one-third of female "nursing, psychiatric, and home health aide" workers are Black women (Institute for Women's Policy Research 2015g).

In addition, 21 percent of women working as "personal and home care aides" are Black. These jobs, like all caregiving work, are generally undercompensated and undervalued. For example, despite the urgent and growing need for paid caregivers' services to care for the elderly and disabled in the United States (Hess 2013), about a quarter of women working as "personal and home care aides" live in poverty and over three-quarters earn less than $15 per hour (Institute for Women's Policy Research 2015g).

The women who perform paid caregiving work also face unique challenges with regard to work-life balance. Due to the highly personal nature of caregiving work, workers may form emotional bonds with employers and the individuals they care for (Burnham and Theodore 2012; Romero 1992). At the same time, the informal dynamics of paid caregivers' employment make caregivers vulnerable to exploitative working conditions that can prevent them from achieving a stable work-life or work-family balance.[27] One study found that most domestic workers[28] (82 percent) report that they do not have access to paid sick leave, and over two-thirds of these workers do not receive unpaid time off to see a doctor (Burnham and Theodore 2012). This lack of protection means workers are vulnerable to job loss and economic insecurity in the event of illness. Of those workers who were fired from a domestic-work job, 20 percent were discharged for missing work to take care of themselves or a family member (Burnham and Theodore 2012).

Figure 3.5

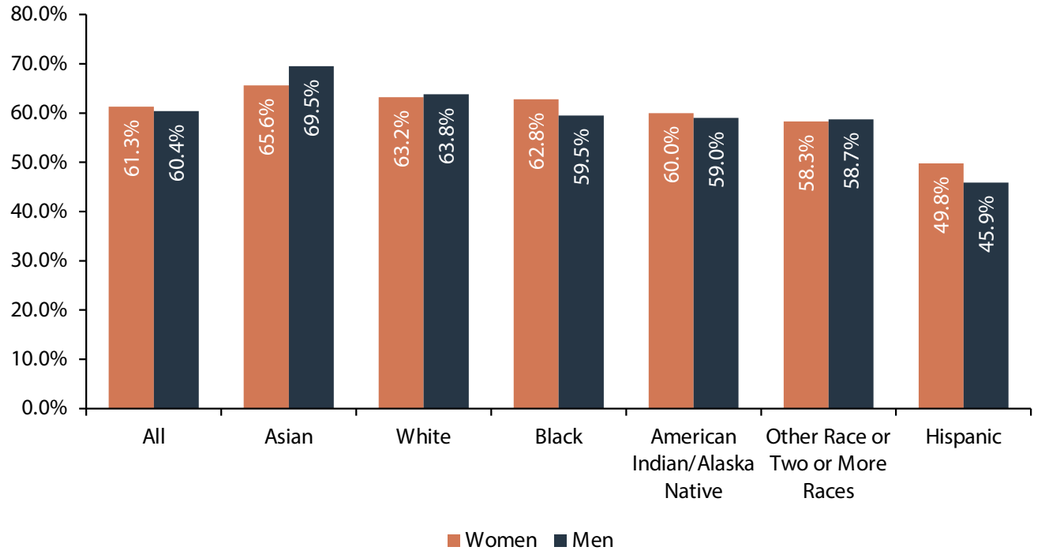
Percent of Women Living with a Person Aged 15 and Older with a Disability by Race/Ethnicity, United States, 2014



Notes: Data on women aged 16-64. Persons with one or more disabilities are aged 15 and older and need assistance with one or more of the following: hearing; vision; cognitive tasks because of difficulty remembering, concentrating, or making decisions; walking or climbing stairs; bathing or dressing; and doing errands such as visiting a doctor's office or shopping because of a physical, mental, or emotional problem. Racial categories are non-Hispanic.
Source: IWPR analysis of 2014 American Community Survey microdata (Integrated Public Use Microdata Series, Version 6.0).

Figure 3.6

Access to Paid Sick Days by Gender and Race/Ethnicity, United States, 2014



Notes: Access rates are calculated for employed individuals age 18 years and older who responded yes or no to the question: "Do you have paid sick leave on your main job or business?" Racial categories do not include Hispanics. Asians do not include Pacific Islanders. Self-employed workers are excluded.
Source: IWPR analysis of the 2012-2014 National Health Interview Survey (2015c).

Elder and Dependent Care

Black women are often responsible for elder and dependent caregiving within their families. While many elderly people and people with disabilities live healthy and independent lives, others rely on the care of family members. As the American population ages—the share of the population aged 65 and older grew from 9.9 percent in 1970 to 13.0 percent in 2010 and is projected to reach 20 percent by 2030 (West et al. 2014)—the demand for informal care will continue to increase. In 2014, 14.9 percent of Black women and 11.2 percent of Black men were 65 or older (Institute for Women's Policy Research 2015b).

Across racial and ethnic groups, women are the majority of those who provide care for adult family members needing assistance, whether the person who needs care lives with them or elsewhere.[29] Among women, Black and Hispanic women are most likely to have unpaid caregiving responsibilities (National Alliance for Caregiving and AARP 2015). A National Alliance for Caregivers and AARP study (2015) found that on average, caregivers spend 24.4 hours per week providing care. The study also found that 56 percent of caregivers worked full-time in addition to their caregiving responsibilities. Balancing employment and caregiving responsibilities significantly increases stress levels (MetLife 2011). In addition, caregiving often results in reductions in caregivers' earnings due to taking reduced hours, missing work, or leaving the workforce to fulfill caregiving responsibilities (MetLife 2011).

Nationally, about one in six Black women under the age of 65 lives with a person aged 15 or older with one or more disabilities (16.4 percent; Figure 3.6).[30] Native American women are considerably more likely than other women to live with a person with a disability (23.1 percent), while Asian/Pacific Islander women are least likely to live with a person with a disability (12.3 percent). The share of Black women who live with someone with a disability also varies among states, from less than 5 percent of Black women in Hawaii to almost 20.6 percent in Oregon (Appendix Table 3.4).[31]

Work-Family Supports

Access to paid leave is vital to women, who are the majority of those providing care for children, elderly, and disabled adult family members. Women occasionally need to take time off at unpredictable moments to fulfill caregiving responsibilities, or they may need to take leave due to issues related to pregnancy and childbirth (Miller, Helmuth, and Farabee-Siers 2009). The United States, however, is one of only two countries in the world without a national paid maternity leave law, and one of a small minority of high-income countries that do not require employers to provide paid sick days (Earle, Mokomane, and Heymann 2011; Addati, Cassirer, and Gilchrist 2014; Ray, Sanes, and Schmitt 2013).

The Family and Medical Leave Act (FMLA) of 1993 provides up to 12 weeks of unpaid, job-protected leave in a given year to care for a newborn or a newly adopted or fostered child, to address one's own serious health condition, or to care for a family member with a serious health condition; 26 weeks of leave are available for care of an injured service member (Gault et al. 2014). However, due to restrictions in coverage and eligibility of employees working for public and private employers with 50 or more employees within 75 miles of their worksite, and who have worked at least 1,250 hours in the past year, it is estimated that only 59 percent of employees are eligible to take FMLA leave (Klerman, Daley, and Pozniak 2014). While employers can choose to provide job protected paid and unpaid family leave and paid sick days voluntarily, many do not.

Substantial differences in access to paid sick days exist by race and ethnicity, occupation, immigrant status, sexual orientation, earnings levels, and work schedules (Institute for Women's Policy Research 2015d). In 2014, 86 percent of workers who earned $65,000 or more had access to paid sick days, compared with just 33 percent of workers who earned below $15,000 (Institute for Women's Policy Research 2015d). Public sector employees also had greater access to paid sick days than private sector employees (Institute for Women's Policy Research 2015d). Between 2012 and 2014, women had slightly higher access to paid sick days than men (61.3 percent of women; 60.4 percent of men; Figure 3.7). Black women (62.8 percent) were less likely to have paid sick days than Asian women (65.6 percent) or White women (63.2 percent; Figure 3.7). Hispanic women were least likely to have access to paid sick days among women (49.8 percent).

Access to paid sick days also varies by occupation. One reason Black women are less likely to have paid sick days than Asian and White women is that Black women are disproportionately represented in service sector jobs. Only one-fourth (25 percent) of workers in personal care and service occupations have access to paid sick days (Institute for Women's Policy Research 2015d). The fact that many of these service sector workers have frequent contact with the public makes the lack of access to paid sick days an important issue with considerable negative public health implications (Gault et al. 2014).

Conclusion

Black women bear considerable responsibility for the well-being of their families.

They are likely to care for children, elders, and other dependents and are often responsible for their households' economic security; the majority of black women work, including those with young children, and eight in ten black mothers of children under 18 years old are breadwinners for their households. Given their family responsibilities, black women are especially likely to feel the effects of the lack of supports for those with family care responsibilities in the workforce, including the high cost of child care and the lack of paid family leave and paid sick days policies. Implementing policies that extend family leave and paid sick days to all workers and that protect workers' scheduling stability can help Black women who must balance work demands with family caregiving responsibilities. In addition, expanding access to affordable child care and compensating care work fairly could help many Black women and their families to thrive.

NOTES

21. Data are not available for Alaska, Hawaii, Idaho, Iowa, Maine, Montana, Nebraska, New Hampshire, New Mexico, North Dakota, Oregon, Rhode Island, South Dakota, Utah, Vermont, West Virginia, and Wyoming.

22. Due to small sample sizes, data on Black female breadwinners are not available in Alaska, Hawaii, Idaho, Iowa, Maine, Montana, Nebraska, New Hampshire, New Mexico, North Dakota, Oregon, Rhode Island, South Dakota, Utah, Vermont, West Virginia, and Wyoming.

23. Due to small sample sizes, data are not available for Alaska, Hawaii, Idaho, Iowa, Maine, Montana, Nebraska, New Hampshire, New Mexico, North Dakota, Oregon, Rhode Island, South Dakota, Utah, Vermont, West Virginia, and Wyoming.

24. Many workers in low-wage jobs have nonstandard or unpredictable scheduling. Mothers in these jobs face special strains in securing child care at late notice and at unpredictable hours (Child Care Aware of America 2014; Hegewisch et al. 2015).

25. The District of Columbia has a particularly high median income for two-parent families, and a particularly low median income for single parent families, making it an unusual case and difficult to compare with other states (Child Care Aware of America 2015).

26. Due to small sample sizes, data on Black women's median annual earnings are not available in Alaska, Hawaii, Idaho, Maine, Montana, New Hampshire, New Mexico, North Dakota, South Dakota, Utah, Vermont, and Wyoming.

27. The vast majority of nannies, housecleaners, and caregivers (domestic workers) do not have a written contract with their employer that outlines the parameters of their work agreement (Burnham and Theodore 2012).

28. The vast majority of nannies, housecleaners, and caregivers (domestic workers) do not have a written contract with their employer that outlines the parameters of their work agreement (Burnham and Theodore 2012).

29. Estimates vary according to the source of data and the type of caregiving that is considered, but all find women to be the majority of those who provide unpaid family care; see Bianchi, Folbre, and Wolf (2012) and National Alliance for Caregiving and AARP (2015).

30. The ACS defines a person with a disability as someone who has one or more of the following: hearing difficulty, vision difficulty, cognitive difficulty (having difficulty remembering, concentrating, or making decisions because of a physical, mental, or emotional problem), having serious difficulty walking or climbing stairs, having difficulty bathing or dressing, or independent living difficulty (having difficulty doing errands alone such as visiting a doctor's office or shopping because of a physical, mental, or emotional problem; U.S. Census Bureau 2015).

31. Due to small sample sizes, data on the proportion of Black women living with a person with a disability are not available in Utah, Vermont, Virginia, Washington, West Virginia, Wisconsin, and Wyoming.

APPENDIX THREE

WORK & FAMILY TABLES

Appendix Table 3.1. Percent of Married Couple Households with Children with a Female Breadwinner by Race/Ethnicity and State, 2014

	All Households	White	Hispanic	Black	Asian/Pacific Islander	Native American	Other Race or Two or More Races
Alabama	35.4%	33.6%	23.2%	49.9%	29.3%	N/A	40.0%
Alaska	35.3%	31.6%	N/A	N/A	46.0%	50.9%	N/A
Arizona	33.9%	35.9%	28.9%	50.0%	33.4%	46.2%	32.3%
Arkansas	37.0%	36.4%	35.2%	51.8%	N/A	N/A	N/A
California	34.4%	34.0%	30.7%	50.9%	40.4%	37.7%	38.1%
Colorado	34.5%	35.3%	31.2%	46.5%	32.7%	N/A	29.3%
Connecticut	37.5%	36.8%	35.4%	55.1%	34.5%	N/A	40.2%
Delaware	46.3%	46.0%	36.4%	59.0%	N/A	N/A	N/A
District of Columbia	45.2%	42.1%	N/A	55.3%	N/A	N/A	N/A
Florida	39.7%	38.6%	36.7%	52.9%	39.1%	N/A	44.1%
Georgia	36.9%	35.1%	25.5%	50.6%	34.5%	N/A	30.9%
Hawaii	38.2%	26.0%	34.8%	N/A	43.2%	N/A	43.0%
Idaho	32.1%	31.2%	37.6%	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
Illinois	36.6%	36.7%	31.8%	50.2%	38.2%	N/A	34.3%
Indiana	35.3%	35.0%	29.2%	53.2%	30.4%	N/A	38.3%
Iowa	41.9%	43.1%	31.3%	N/A	31.7%	N/A	N/A
Kansas	35.6%	36.6%	28.6%	47.0%	25.6%	N/A	N/A
Kentucky	38.8%	39.0%	28.6%	52.3%	23.2%	N/A	42.7%
Louisiana	33.5%	30.8%	26.1%	47.0%	41.7%	N/A	N/A
Maine	42.6%	42.0%	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
Maryland	42.0%	39.8%	33.7%	56.4%	38.6%	N/A	39.0%
Massachusetts	38.7%	37.7%	39.8%	52.6%	39.2%	N/A	39.4%
Michigan	37.1%	36.9%	31.0%	49.9%	33.2%	50.2%	32.8%
Minnesota	43.1%	43.7%	29.7%	47.2%	40.9%	N/A	46.1%
Mississippi	39.6%	36.4%	29.5%	51.2%	35.3%	N/A	N/A
Missouri	40.1%	39.8%	29.2%	55.4%	33.5%	N/A	40.5%
Montana	38.0%	37.9%	N/A	N/A	N/A	48.3%	N/A
Nebraska	38.6%	39.5%	31.6%	N/A	38.0%	N/A	N/A
Nevada	38.9%	37.9%	36.0%	45.1%	48.3%	N/A	43.2%
New Hampshire	36.0%	36.2%	N/A	N/A	34.4%	N/A	N/A
New Jersey	35.7%	35.0%	32.7%	49.7%	35.7%	N/A	29.6%
New Mexico	35.1%	35.1%	34.5%	N/A	N/A	39.5%	N/A
New York	38.5%	38.0%	34.9%	53.3%	35.6%	N/A	39.1%
North Carolina	39.1%	38.8%	25.4%	54.1%	34.1%	47.4%	40.1%
North Dakota	34.6%	34.5%	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
Ohio	38.7%	38.0%	35.7%	52.7%	36.8%	N/A	34.0%
Oklahoma	34.6%	35.4%	25.8%	53.4%	21.1%	38.3%	37.1%
Oregon	35.8%	36.3%	34.0%	N/A	36.9%	N/A	23.2%
Pennsylvania	37.6%	37.0%	31.3%	55.2%	36.9%	N/A	36.6%
Rhode Island	41.7%	42.8%	37.2%	N/A	38.9%	N/A	N/A
South Carolina	37.8%	36.1%	25.5%	52.2%	34.3%	N/A	41.6%
South Dakota	43.7%	44.0%	N/A	N/A	N/A	59.2%	N/A
Tennessee	37.6%	37.2%	24.5%	52.5%	30.5%	N/A	38.6%
Texas	32.4%	33.0%	28.0%	51.5%	36.3%	32.3%	33.0%
Utah	25.2%	23.7%	31.9%	N/A	32.7%	N/A	N/A
Vermont	45.4%	45.7%	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
Virginia	37.8%	36.8%	30.7%	52.1%	36.6%	N/A	31.9%
Washington	33.1%	32.8%	30.7%	47.7%	33.4%	43.1%	36.1%
West Virginia	34.0%	34.0%	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
Wisconsin	41.7%	42.6%	33.4%	43.0%	37.5%	N/A	40.0%
Wyoming	32.5%	31.3%	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
United States	**36.7%**	**36.6%**	**31.0%**	**51.7%**	**37.4%**	**41.0%**	**36.8%**

Notes: Breadwinner mothers shown here are married mothers who earn at least 40 percent of couple's joint earnings. Racial groups are non-Hispanic. Racial groups are non-Hispanic.
Source: IWPR analysis of 2012-2014 American Community Survey microdata (Integrated Public Use Microdata Series, Version 6.0).

Appendix Table 3.2. Percent of Breadwinner Mothers Who Are Single Mothers by Race/Ethnicity and State, 2014

	All Households	White	Hispanic	Black	Asian/Pacific Islander	Native American	Other Race or Two or More Races
Alabama	57.8%	43.6%	55.4%	78.4%	N/A	N/A	54.8%
Alaska	46.5%	39.8%	N/A	N/A	N/A	54.6%	N/A
Arizona	53.8%	45.0%	63.0%	69.8%	27.4%	69.8%	56.7%
Arkansas	53.1%	44.5%	46.1%	78.5%	N/A	N/A	N/A
California	48.5%	41.9%	56.4%	74.2%	24.9%	66.3%	54.7%
Colorado	46.8%	40.2%	60.2%	67.8%	29.1%	N/A	58.7%
Connecticut	49.5%	38.0%	71.1%	71.7%	20.2%	N/A	58.0%
Delaware	48.4%	38.9%	55.8%	67.2%	N/A	N/A	N/A
District of Columbia	65.3%	23.7%	N/A	82.8%	N/A	N/A	N/A
Florida	53.2%	45.0%	54.2%	70.9%	27.1%	N/A	55.3%
Georgia	54.6%	38.4%	56.4%	72.5%	25.2%	N/A	65.8%
Hawaii	40.2%	41.6%	50.2%	N/A	34.2%	N/A	49.4%
Idaho	45.1%	45.9%	41.8%	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
Illinois	48.9%	38.1%	52.2%	80.5%	17.9%	N/A	60.6%
Indiana	52.7%	46.6%	57.1%	80.2%	N/A	N/A	70.2%
Iowa	41.8%	38.1%	61.7%	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
Kansas	46.0%	40.1%	58.9%	71.5%	N/A	N/A	N/A
Kentucky	50.6%	45.8%	59.2%	80.6%	N/A	N/A	60.3%
Louisiana	63.6%	48.0%	65.0%	81.0%	N/A	N/A	N/A
Maine	47.9%	47.2%	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
Maryland	47.8%	33.5%	51.4%	67.3%	18.5%	N/A	48.6%
Massachusetts	48.8%	40.2%	74.5%	72.1%	22.7%	N/A	64.1%
Michigan	52.1%	42.9%	62.4%	82.0%	17.6%	61.9%	69.6%
Minnesota	40.5%	34.9%	60.2%	73.8%	34.7%	N/A	58.5%
Mississippi	61.5%	42.2%	53.4%	78.6%	N/A	N/A	N/A
Missouri	49.3%	42.1%	61.7%	78.9%	N/A	N/A	64.7%
Montana	43.6%	39.0%	N/A	N/A	N/A	68.1%	N/A
Nebraska	44.9%	39.8%	56.4%	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
Nevada	51.4%	45.7%	54.7%	80.4%	29.2%	N/A	51.7%
New Hampshire	46.6%	46.0%	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
New Jersey	46.7%	33.2%	64.9%	72.3%	13.2%	N/A	61.0%
New Mexico	58.1%	47.7%	61.5%	N/A	N/A	74.0%	N/A
New York	51.8%	38.0%	69.7%	72.8%	24.6%	N/A	56.9%
North Carolina	52.1%	39.3%	62.8%	73.4%	23.7%	62.6%	69.9%
North Dakota	44.7%	40.3%	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
Ohio	53.0%	44.6%	65.8%	80.9%	23.0%	N/A	79.2%
Oklahoma	53.5%	46.8%	58.0%	79.7%	N/A	57.7%	62.0%
Oregon	49.6%	47.1%	55.0%	N/A	34.1%	N/A	75.3%
Pennsylvania	49.3%	40.2%	74.6%	77.8%	20.8%	N/A	67.4%
Rhode Island	54.5%	45.2%	74.9%	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
South Carolina	57.0%	43.6%	60.8%	76.0%	N/A	N/A	59.7%
South Dakota	45.0%	38.3%	N/A	N/A	N/A	78.1%	N/A
Tennessee	52.2%	42.2%	60.6%	76.9%	28.0%	N/A	61.7%
Texas	53.3%	42.0%	59.3%	71.2%	21.4%	50.2%	62.6%
Utah	42.3%	40.2%	50.0%	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
Vermont	43.3%	42.8%	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
Virginia	46.7%	36.7%	52.7%	70.2%	17.5%	N/A	61.0%
Washington	47.6%	44.5%	59.7%	64.5%	30.9%	64.4%	61.3%
West Virginia	53.7%	51.9%	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
Wisconsin	45.9%	38.3%	58.5%	89.9%	38.1%	N/A	58.6%
Wyoming	47.2%	46.3%	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
United States	**50.7%**	**41.4%**	**59.4%**	**75.0%**	**24.5%**	**65.9%**	**61.1%**

Notes: Data on households with children under 18 and single female breadwinners are as percent of all households with children under 18 with female breadwinners in the state. A breadwinner mother is defined as a single mother who is the main householder (irrespective of earnings) or a married mother who earns at least 40 percent of the couple's joint earnings; single mothers who live in someone else's household (such as with their parents) are not included as breadwinners. Racial groups are non-Hispanic. N/A= not available.
Source: IWPR analysis of 2012-2014 American Community Survey microdata (Integrated Public Use Microdata Series, Version 6.0).

Appendix Table 3.3. Percent of All Households with Mothers of Children Under 18 That Have a Breadwinner

	All Households	White	Hispanic	Black	Asian/Pacific Islander	Native American	Other Race or Two or More Races
Alabama	56.5%	47.3%	40.4%	82.2%	N/A	N/A	59.6%
Alaska	50.5%	43.4%	N/A	N/A	N/A	69.5%	N/A
Arizona	52.6%	50.5%	52.3%	76.8%	40.8%	74.0%	52.4%
Arkansas	55.6%	50.8%	50.2%	83.4%	N/A	N/A	N/A
California	50.5%	47.0%	50.4%	80.1%	47.4%	64.3%	57.6%
Colorado	49.7%	47.7%	53.2%	73.0%	40.6%	N/A	50.1%
Connecticut	54.3%	48.4%	65.5%	81.3%	39.8%	N/A	61.5%
Delaware	62.5%	58.3%	56.4%	81.5%	N/A	N/A	N/A
District of Columbia	70.4%	48.8%	N/A	87.8%	N/A	N/A	N/A
Florida	58.4%	53.3%	55.9%	79.4%	46.8%	N/A	63.8%
Georgia	56.2%	46.8%	44.0%	78.8%	41.3%	N/A	56.6%
Hawaii	50.8%	37.5%	51.8%	N/A	53.6%	N/A	59.9%
Idaho	46.3%	45.6%	50.9%	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
Illinois	53.0%	48.3%	49.4%	83.8%	42.9%	N/A	57.0%
Indiana	53.5%	50.3%	49.0%	85.2%	N/A	N/A	67.6%
Iowa	55.4%	55.0%	54.3%	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
Kansas	50.6%	49.1%	49.4%	75.7%	N/A	N/A	N/A
Kentucky	56.2%	54.1%	49.6%	85.0%	N/A	N/A	65.3%
Louisiana	58.1%	46.1%	50.3%	82.3%	N/A	N/A	N/A
Maine	58.8%	57.8%	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
Maryland	58.2%	49.8%	51.1%	79.8%	43.5%	N/A	55.5%
Massachusetts	55.2%	50.4%	72.2%	79.9%	45.5%	N/A	64.4%
Michigan	55.2%	50.6%	54.4%	84.7%	37.6%	72.6%	61.6%
Minnesota	56.0%	54.4%	51.5%	77.3%	51.4%	N/A	67.3%
Mississippi	63.0%	49.8%	47.3%	83.1%	N/A	N/A	N/A
Missouri	56.9%	53.3%	51.8%	85.5%	N/A	N/A	65.9%
Montana	52.1%	50.0%	N/A	N/A	N/A	74.5%	N/A
Nebraska	53.4%	52.0%	51.5%	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
Nevada	56.7%	52.9%	55.4%	80.7%	56.9%	N/A	61.2%
New Hampshire	51.3%	51.2%	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
New Jersey	50.9%	44.6%	58.1%	78.2%	39.0%	N/A	51.9%
New Mexico	56.4%	50.8%	57.8%	N/A	N/A	71.6%	N/A
New York	56.5%	49.7%	63.9%	80.7%	42.2%	N/A	59.8%
North Carolina	57.3%	51.1%	47.8%	81.6%	40.4%	70.6%	69.0%
North Dakota	48.9%	46.9%	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
Ohio	57.3%	52.6%	61.9%	85.4%	43.0%	N/A	71.3%
Oklahoma	53.3%	50.7%	45.3%	84.9%	N/A	59.5%	60.8%
Oregon	52.5%	51.8%	53.3%	N/A	47.0%	N/A	55.0%
Pennsylvania	54.3%	49.6%	64.2%	84.7%	42.5%	N/A	64.0%
Rhode Island	61.1%	57.7%	70.2%	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
South Carolina	58.6%	50.0%	46.6%	82.0%	N/A	N/A	63.8%
South Dakota	58.5%	56.0%	N/A	N/A	N/A	86.9%	N/A
Tennessee	55.7%	50.6%	45.2%	82.8%	37.8%	N/A	62.2%
Texas	50.6%	45.9%	48.8%	78.7%	42.0%	49.0%	56.9%
Utah	36.9%	34.2%	48.3%	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
Vermont	59.4%	59.5%	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
Virginia	53.3%	47.9%	48.3%	78.5%	41.2%	N/A	54.6%
Washington	48.6%	46.8%	52.3%	71.9%	42.1%	68.0%	59.4%
West Virginia	52.7%	51.8%	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
Wisconsin	57.0%	54.6%	54.7%	88.1%	49.2%	N/A	61.7%
Wyoming	47.7%	45.9%	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
United States	**54.0%**	**49.6%**	**52.6%**	**81.1%**	**44.2%**	**67.1%**	**59.9%**

Notes: Data on households with children under 18 and breadwinner mothers are as a percent of all households with children under 18 in the state. A breadwinner mother is defined as a single mother who is the main householder (irrespective of earnings) or a married mother who earns at least 40 percent of the couple's joint earnings; single mothers who live in someone else's household (such as with their parents) are not included as breadwinners. Racial groups are non-Hispanic. N/A= not available.
Source: IWPR analysis of 2012-2014 American Community Survey microdata (Integrated Public Use Microdata Series, Version 6.0).

Appendix Table 3.4. Percent of Women Living with a Person with a Disability by Race/Ethnicity and State, 2014

	All Women	White	Hispanic	Black	Asian/Pacific Islander	Native American	Other Race or Two or More Races
Alabama	18.0%	18.0%	10.1%	18.9%	8.8%	30.7%	22.1%
Alaska	15.3%	13.0%	15.8%	N/A	16.9%	23.7%	15.6%
Arizona	14.8%	14.2%	14.9%	14.6%	11.8%	23.4%	18.2%
Arkansas	18.8%	19.3%	10.9%	18.8%	11.6%	23.2%	29.5%
California	14.9%	13.4%	16.2%	17.8%	13.7%	24.1%	16.8%
Colorado	11.6%	10.8%	14.1%	13.3%	10.1%	15.6%	14.1%
Connecticut	11.8%	11.3%	13.2%	13.6%	8.9%	N/A	17.4%
Delaware	14.6%	14.9%	11.6%	16.1%	6.7%	N/A	14.2%
District of Columbia	10.5%	3.0%	7.2%	18.1%	4.0%	N/A	8.1%
Florida	15.2%	15.6%	14.5%	15.1%	12.9%	29.7%	17.1%
Georgia	15.3%	15.9%	9.5%	16.3%	9.1%	25.8%	17.1%
Hawaii	19.0%	13.1%	22.5%	4.7%	20.8%	N/A	20.5%
Idaho	14.6%	14.4%	14.0%	N/A	17.4%	28.2%	16.5%
Illinois	12.5%	11.6%	12.5%	16.5%	11.5%	15.3%	15.8%
Indiana	14.8%	15.1%	12.9%	15.4%	6.7%	24.1%	15.6%
Iowa	11.4%	11.1%	13.7%	17.4%	7.1%	27.0%	14.3%
Kansas	13.0%	13.2%	10.9%	14.2%	10.1%	18.4%	14.9%
Kentucky	18.6%	19.2%	8.6%	15.8%	10.5%	21.9%	24.9%
Louisiana	16.8%	16.6%	10.7%	17.7%	14.0%	28.2%	20.9%
Maine	16.6%	16.5%	15.6%	15.7%	12.9%	32.0%	24.9%
Maryland	13.0%	12.8%	10.0%	14.3%	10.8%	24.2%	16.4%
Massachusetts	12.6%	11.7%	17.7%	17.0%	9.1%	22.4%	14.8%
Michigan	15.8%	15.0%	15.7%	20.1%	9.1%	27.2%	23.6%
Minnesota	10.8%	10.1%	11.3%	14.2%	15.6%	18.9%	14.2%
Mississippi	19.5%	19.9%	14.0%	19.4%	7.3%	26.8%	23.8%
Missouri	15.8%	16.0%	12.7%	15.9%	11.3%	22.1%	18.0%
Montana	14.0%	13.3%	17.9%	N/A	6.8%	18.5%	23.4%
Nebraska	10.3%	10.1%	9.7%	14.1%	11.4%	14.6%	10.4%
Nevada	16.0%	16.1%	15.2%	16.5%	15.0%	23.8%	20.2%
New Hampshire	13.9%	14.0%	11.3%	14.1%	9.7%	N/A	20.4%
New Jersey	13.1%	12.9%	13.2%	16.3%	9.2%	21.4%	16.4%
New Mexico	17.5%	16.4%	17.7%	16.3%	8.3%	23.9%	13.1%
New York	13.0%	12.1%	14.8%	14.4%	11.0%	22.9%	16.3%
North Carolina	14.8%	14.7%	9.2%	16.8%	8.8%	25.6%	21.1%
North Dakota	9.6%	9.3%	5.6%	N/A	N/A	12.9%	15.3%
Ohio	14.5%	14.5%	13.2%	14.7%	10.2%	22.6%	20.0%
Oklahoma	17.6%	17.5%	13.9%	16.4%	15.2%	23.5%	19.1%
Oregon	16.3%	16.2%	16.2%	20.6%	13.6%	23.2%	20.6%
Pennsylvania	14.8%	13.9%	21.6%	17.3%	11.7%	24.3%	18.5%
Rhode Island	14.2%	13.5%	17.5%	13.4%	14.2%	N/A	20.1%
South Carolina	16.7%	16.2%	9.7%	18.6%	14.3%	23.9%	24.3%
South Dakota	12.8%	12.0%	10.9%	N/A	N/A	22.0%	16.2%
Tennessee	17.6%	18.4%	11.4%	16.0%	13.6%	28.3%	18.4%
Texas	15.2%	14.3%	16.4%	16.3%	10.5%	21.2%	19.3%
Utah	13.9%	13.8%	13.1%	17.5%	12.5%	14.9%	21.6%
Vermont	13.9%	13.8%	11.2%	N/A	22.1%	N/A	15.3%
Virginia	12.9%	12.8%	10.0%	15.4%	9.9%	22.8%	13.7%
Washington	14.4%	14.3%	13.2%	17.7%	13.4%	22.3%	17.0%
West Virginia	20.9%	21.2%	16.8%	15.9%	7.7%	N/A	23.7%
Wisconsin	11.8%	11.2%	12.3%	15.6%	14.2%	23.7%	16.8%
Wyoming	13.4%	13.5%	12.3%	N/A	N/A	26.7%	8.1%
United States	**14.6%**	**14.2%**	**15.0%**	**16.4%**	**12.3%**	**23.1%**	**17.9%**

Notes: Data on households with children under 18 and breadwinner mothers are as a percent of all households with children under 18 in the state. A breadwinner mother is defined as a single mother who is the main householder (irrespective of earnings) or a married mother who earns at least 40 percent of the couple's joint earnings; single mothers who live in someone else's household (such as with their parents) are not included as breadwinners. Racial groups are non-Hispanic. N/A= not available.
Source: IWPR analysis of 2012-2014 American Community Survey microdata (Integrated Public Use Microdata Series, Version 6.0).

FOUR

POVERTY & OPPORTUNITY

The Status of Black Women

in the United States

Introduction

Black women are creating and pursuing opportunities for economic advancement despite facing structural inequalities that leave them disproportionately vulnerable to poverty and, in some cases, limit their access to health care and education.

In recent years, Black women have completed higher education and started their own businesses at increasing rates (Anderson et al. 2016). Yet, their continued high unemployment, low earnings, and concentration in occupations that offer few benefits leave many facing economic instability and inadequate access to resources and opportunities. This chapter analyzes four topics that are integral to Black women's economic security: poverty, access to health insurance coverage, educational attainment, and business ownership.

Key Findings

While health insurance coverage rates have increased substantially due to the implementation of the 2010 Patient Protection and Affordable Care Act (ACA), 16.5 percent of nonelderly Black women in the United States still lacked coverage as of 2014.

Many of the states that place in the bottom third in the country in terms of Black women's health insurance coverage are states in which Medicaid expansion has not been adopted since the implementation of the ACA.

Between 2004 and 2014, the share of Black women with a bachelor's degree or higher increased by 23.9 percent, making Black women the group of women with the second-largest improvement in attainment of higher education during the decade.

In 2014, about one in five Black women aged 25 and older had bachelor's degrees or higher (21.8 percent). Black women had higher levels of education than Black men (17.3 percent), but lower levels of education than Asian/Pacific Islander men and women, men and women of another race or two or more races, and White men and women.

The number of businesses owned by Black women increased by 178.1 percent between 2002 and 2012, the largest increase among all racial and ethnic groups of women and men.

In 2012, Black women owned 15.4 percent of all women-owned businesses in the United States, a larger share than their share of the female population (12.7 percent). In the District of Columbia, Mississippi, and Georgia, Black women own more than 40 percent of all women-owned businesses. Yet, businesses owned by Black women had the lowest average sales per firm among all racial and ethnic groups of women and men, at $27,753.

Black women experience poverty at higher rates than Black men and women from all other racial/ethnic groups except Native American women.

A quarter of Black women in the United States live in poverty (24.6 percent), compared with 18.9 percent of Black men and 10.8 percent of White women, who have the lowest poverty rate among women.

Table 4.1.
State-by-State Data on Poverty and Opportunity Among Black Women and All Women, 2014

	Percent of Women 18-64 Years Old with Health Insurance		Percent of Women with a Bachelor's Degree or Higher, Aged 25 and Older		Percent of Women Living Below Poverty, Aged 18 and Older	
	Black Women	All Women	Black Women	All Women	Black women	All Women
Alabama	78.7%	82.0%	18.0%	23.4%	30.0%	18.6%
Alaska	N/A	77.8%	N/A	32.9%	9.0%	10.2%
Arizona	83.3%	80.5%	24.3%	26.8%	25.0%	17.0%
Arkansas	78.2%	79.5%	16.5%	21.5%	31.1%	18.3%
California	84.4%	80.4%	23.8%	31.0%	23.8%	15.7%
Colorado	85.5%	84.8%	26.7%	37.9%	22.5%	12.5%
Connecticut	87.1%	90.1%	22.1%	37.4%	18.5%	10.6%
Delaware	90.1%	90.0%	25.1%	30.6%	18.2%	12.7%
District of Columbia	93.1%	94.4%	26.2%	53.7%	24.7%	17.4%
Florida	72.7%	75.3%	19.0%	26.4%	25.2%	16.0%
Georgia	75.4%	77.1%	23.3%	28.9%	25.5%	18.0%
Hawaii	94.8%	92.1%	N/A	32.5%	10.0%	11.3%
Idaho	N/A	79.0%	N/A	24.8%	N/A	14.9%
Illinois	81.9%	85.3%	22.6%	32.6%	29.9%	14.2%
Indiana	76.5%	82.5%	17.5%	24.2%	30.0%	15.4%
Iowa	82.1%	90.5%	19.3%	27.5%	32.1%	13.0%
Kansas	78.9%	84.0%	19.7%	31.2%	22.9%	13.2%
Kentucky	79.8%	83.7%	16.4%	22.8%	30.8%	18.7%
Louisiana	72.3%	77.7%	16.8%	23.6%	31.3%	19.8%
Maine	86.1%	87.3%	N/A	29.8%	66.0%	14.0%
Maryland	88.8%	88.9%	28.5%	37.8%	14.1%	10.1%
Massachusetts	92.8%	96.2%	23.7%	40.4%	20.3%	12.0%
Michigan	82.9%	86.9%	19.2%	26.9%	30.8%	16.1%
Minnesota	83.9%	91.7%	16.3%	34.2%	34.3%	11.1%
Mississippi	75.3%	77.7%	18.5%	22.1%	34.7%	23.1%
Missouri	76.4%	83.2%	18.8%	27.3%	27.3%	15.7%
Montana	N/A	79.0%	N/A	29.3%	N/A	16.1%
Nebraska	76.3%	86.1%	21.9%	30.6%	28.6%	12.7%
Nevada	76.7%	76.6%	17.3%	22.4%	25.2%	14.3%
New Hampshire	78.2%	87.2%	N/A	35.9%	19.3%	9.2%
New Jersey	82.4%	84.5%	24.0%	36.2%	18.9%	10.8%
New Mexico	82.3%	76.8%	30.5%	27.0%	22.7%	20.1%
New York	87.6%	88.3%	24.7%	34.5%	21.1%	15.4%
North Carolina	78.3%	80.4%	21.0%	28.6%	25.8%	17.1%
North Dakota	N/A	88.2%	N/A	28.7%	N/A	12.8%
Ohio	83.0%	87.2%	17.6%	25.7%	31.2%	15.5%
Oklahoma	73.8%	77.3%	20.0%	24.3%	28.2%	16.4%
Oregon	84.7%	83.3%	20.8%	30.3%	35.8%	15.8%
Pennsylvania	83.3%	88.6%	18.5%	28.4%	26.7%	13.3%
Rhode Island	81.9%	88.5%	19.6%	30.7%	23.9%	14.0%
South Carolina	77.4%	79.9%	17.0%	25.7%	27.7%	17.6%
South Dakota	N/A	85.1%	N/A	27.4%	N/A	14.2%
Tennessee	82.9%	83.3%	20.3%	25.0%	26.7%	17.5%
Texas	76.6%	72.8%	23.9%	27.4%	22.6%	16.6%
Utah	81.0%	83.5%	N/A	28.6%	20.6%	12.6%
Vermont	N/A	94.0%	N/A	37.1%	N/A	11.7%
Virginia	81.2%	85.2%	22.9%	35.9%	19.7%	11.9%
Washington	83.2%	84.6%	19.1%	32.0%	22.1%	13.3%
West Virginia	80.3%	82.4%	16.3%	19.4%	28.6%	17.8%
Wisconsin	84.2%	89.9%	14.2%	28.7%	33.4%	13.0%
Wyoming	N/A	82.2%	N/A	26.5%	N/A	12.3%
United States	**80.3%**	**82.8%**	**21.4%**	**29.7%**	**25.4%**	**15.2%**

Notes: Racial groups are non-Hispanic. N/A = not available.
Source: IWPR analysis of 2012-2014 American Community Survey microdata (Integrated Public Use Microdata Series, Version 6.0).

Access to Health Insurance

Health insurance can give individuals access to critical health services that can improve their economic and employment status. The passage of the 2010 Patient Protection and Affordable Care Act (ACA) has greatly increased the number of Americans with health insurance coverage (Austin 2015), but as of 2014, 14.6 percent of nonelderly women in the nation still lacked coverage (Figure 4.1). The majority of those without insurance were people of color and members of low-income working families (Kaiser Family Foundation 2015). [32] The costs of not having health insurance can be substantial: individuals without insurance often face high health care expenses that can quickly translate into debt. They may also be unable to access health services (Kaiser Family Foundation 2015).

Women from all racial and ethnic groups have higher health insurance coverage rates than their male counterparts. About five in six Black women had health insurance coverage in 2014 (83.5 percent; Figure 4.2). White women had the highest level of coverage among women at 89.8 percent, while Hispanic women had the lowest level of coverage at 70.4 percent.

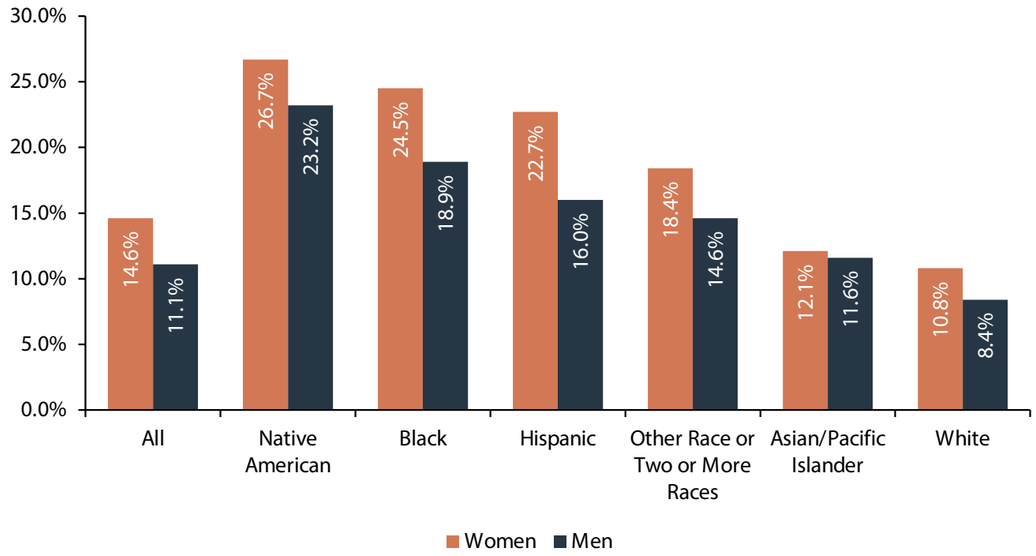
Black women's health insurance coverage varies across the country (Map 4.1; Table 4.1; Appendix Table 4.1).

- Hawaii, the District of Columbia, and Massachusetts have the highest proportions of Black women with health insurance (94.8, 93.1 and 92.8 percent, respectively). [33]
- The states with the lowest proportions of Black women with health insurance are Louisiana, Florida, and Oklahoma (72.3, 72.7, and 73.8 percent).

The Patient Protection and Affordable Care Act

The 2010 Patient Protection and Affordable Care Act (ACA) dramatically reduced uninsured rates among women and people of color (Austin 2015; Hess et al. 2015). Between 2013 and 2015, the uninsured rate for Black individuals declined by 9.2 percentage points, with 2.3 million Black adults gaining health coverage during this time (U. S. Department of Health & Human Services 2015). The ACA has led to state-based exchanges through which individuals can purchase coverage, with premium and cost-sharing benefits available to those with low incomes. It also has established separate

Figure 4.1
Health Insurance Coverage Rates by Gender and Race/Ethnicity, United States, 2014



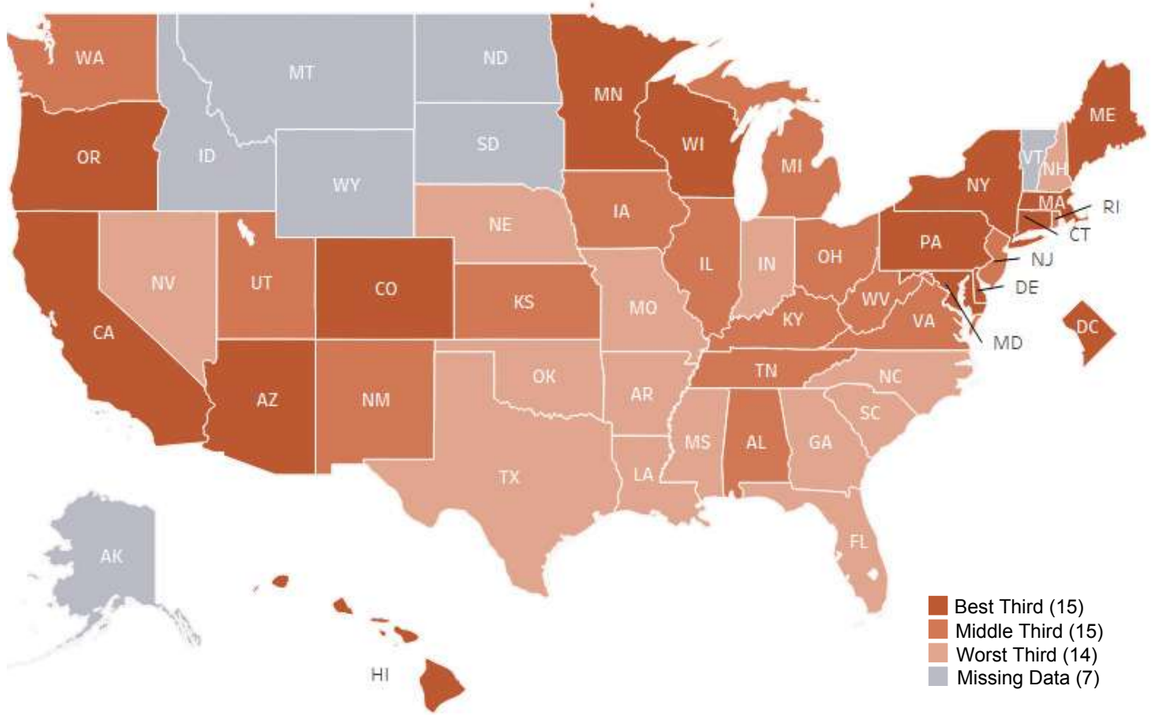
Notes: Data include women and men aged 18-64. Racial groups are non-Hispanic.
Source: IWPR analysis of 2014 American Community Survey microdata (Integrated Public Use Microdata Series, Version 6.0).

exchanges through which small businesses can purchase health insurance coverage for their employees.

To help those who may have struggled in the past to afford insurance, the ACA seeks to expand Medicaid eligibility to all individuals under the age of 65 who are not eligible for Medicare and have incomes up to 138 percent of the federal poverty line (individuals were previously eligible only if they were pregnant, the parent of a dependent child, 65 years of age or older, or disabled, in addition to meeting income requirements; National Conference of State Legislatures 2011).[34] However, states can choose to opt out of this Medicaid expansion. As of July 2016, more than one-third of states had not expanded their Medicaid programs (19 states had not adopted Medicaid expansion, while 31 states and the District of Columbia had adopted the Medicaid expansion; Map 4.2). Under the ACA, states also have the option to expand eligibility for Medicaid family planning services. As of July 2016, 28 states had federal approval to extend Medicaid eligibility for family planning services to individuals who would otherwise not be eligible (Guttmacher Institute 2016).

Low-income adults are negatively affected by states' decisions not to expand Medicaid. In states not expanding Medicaid, the median eligibility cutoff for the program is just 44 percent of the federal poverty level for parents of children (an annual income of $8,840 for a family of three in 2016; Garfield and Damico 2016). Other adults living below the poverty line in states without Medicaid expansion are left without alternative means of accessing health coverage. Most do not have access to coverage through an employer and cannot afford ACA coverage without assistance (Garfield and Damico 2016). These individuals with incomes above Medicaid eligibility limits but below the lower limits for Marketplace subsidies[35] fall into a coverage gap. The Kaiser Family Foundation estimates that almost three million adults fall into the coverage gap that results from states opting out of Medicaid expansion (Garfield and Damico 2016).

Map 4.1
Health Coverage Among Black Women, 2014



Notes: Data include women aged 18-64. Racial groups are non-Hispanic.
Source: IWPR analysis of 2012-2014 American Community Survey microdata (Integrated Public Use Microdata Series, Version 6.0).

32 Federal law allows for the expansion of Medicaid to individuals of with incomes at or below 133 percent of the federal poverty line. The law also includes a five percent "income disregard," which effectively makes the limit 138 percent of poverty (Center for Mississippi Health Policy 2012).

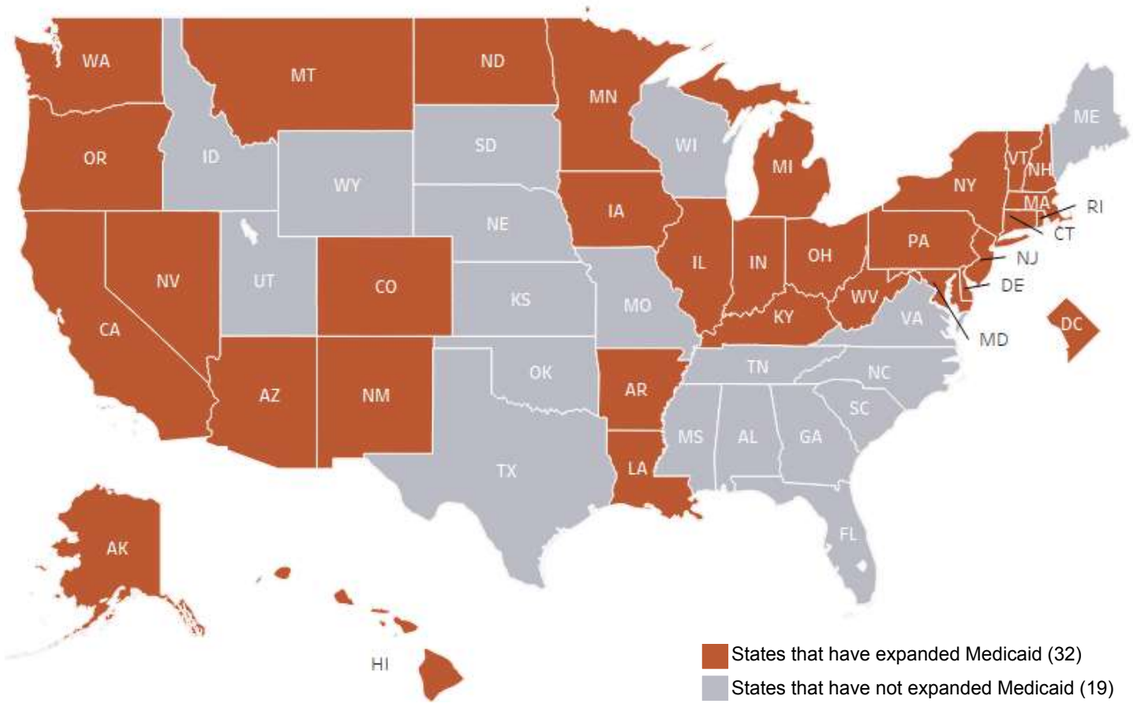
States' decisions not to expand Medicaid especially affect Black women. Many of the states with the largest Black populations, as well as large poor and uninsured populations, have not expanded Medicaid (Map 4.1; Map 4.2; Map 4.4). Black adults are overrepresented in the coverage gap, composing 28 percent of uninsured adults in the gap (Garfield and Damico 2016). In addition, women are slightly more than half of those who fall into the gap (52 percent).

States' decisions not to expand Medicaid have implications for racial and gender equity as well as for low-income individuals' health. Seven out of the ten states where Black women compose the largest proportions of state populations have not adapted Medicaid expansion.[36] One report found that between 2013 and 2014, Blacks had the lowest increase in government insurance coverage of any racial and ethnic group (Austin 2015), which may stem from the fact that so many states with large Black populations had not expanded Medicaid (Austin 2015). Ten of the fourteen states that placed in the bottom third in the country in terms of Black women's health insurance coverage in 2014 were states in which Medicaid expansion had not been adopted (Map 4.1; Map 4.2).[37]

Education

Education protects women (and men) against poverty. In the United States, the risk of living in poverty is six times higher for women who have not completed high school than for those who have a bachelor's degree or higher (Hegewisch et al. 2015). More than one in five Black women has at least a bachelor's degree (21.8 percent; Figure 4.2), compared with almost half of Asian/Pacific Islander women (48.3 percent), the group with the highest educational attainment among women. Native American women have the smallest share of those with a bachelor's degree or higher among women (15.1 percent).

Map 4.2
Where States Stand on Adopting Medicaid Expansion, 2016



Notes: Data as of July 2016.
Source: IWPR compilation of data from Kaiser Family Foundation (2016).

33 Marketplace subsidies cover individuals earning between $11,770 (100 percent of the federal poverty line) and $47,080 (400 percent of the federal poverty line). Medicaid in states that have not adopted expansion is only available to parents earning less than $8,840 for a family of three in 2016 (44 percent of the federal poverty line). This leaves individuals with earnings between $8,840 and $11,770 without affordable coverage options under the ACA (Garfield and Damico 2016).

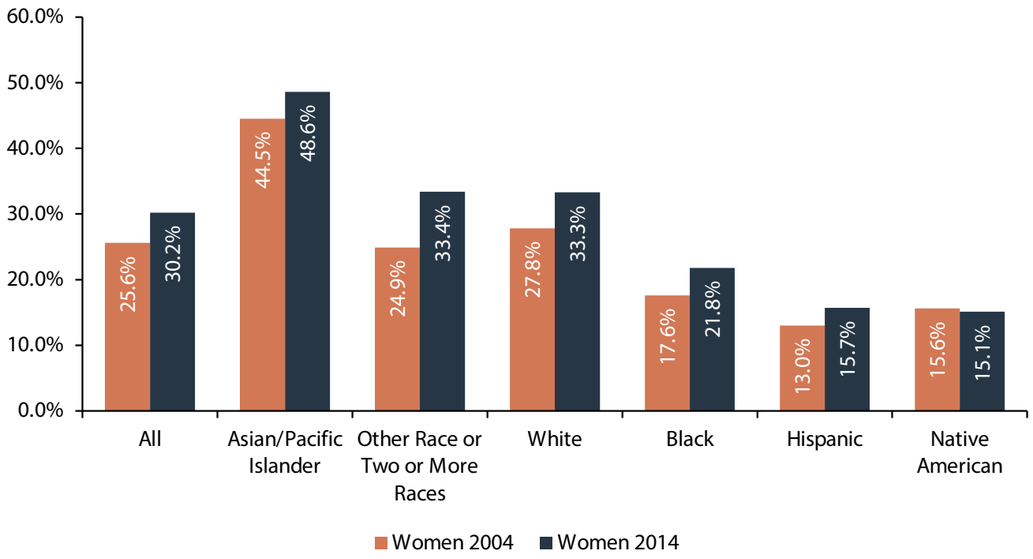
Women overall are slightly more likely to have a bachelor's degree or higher than men (30.2 percent compared with 29.9 percent). Among the Black population, the difference is larger; Black women are 4.5 percentage points more likely to have bachelor's degrees than their male counterparts. Asian/Pacific Islander women and White women are the only two groups of women who have lower levels of attainment than same-race men.

Between 2004 and 2014, the share of Black women aged 25 and older with a bachelor's degree or higher increased by 23.9 percent, making them the group of women with the second-largest improvement in attainment of higher education during the decade. In contrast, Black men experienced the second-smallest increase in share with a bachelor's degree between 2004 and 2014 among the largest racial/ethnic groups of men (1.8 percent). During this time period, the percentage of women with a bachelor's degree or higher increased among all racial/ethnic groups of women except for Native American women, whose share with a bachelor's degree decreased slightly by 3.2 percent. Native American men were also the only racial/ethnic group of men whose bachelor's degree attainment fell, with a decrease of 4.9 percent.

Education increases earnings. For Black women across the country, those with a bachelor's degree or higher have median annual earnings of $50,000 compared with $27,000 for those with a high school diploma only (Institute for Women's Policy Research 2015b).[38] The financial returns to education are important for Black women, whose college debt takes up a higher proportion of their earnings than women or men from all of the largest racial and ethnic groups (Hegewisch et al. 2015). Lower family incomes and savings mean that Black college students rely more on student loans than other students (Goldrick-Rab, Kelchen, and Houle 2014). As a result, Black college graduates, especially women, are significantly more likely to graduate with student loan debt than their White counterparts, which has long-term negative effects on Black students' health, happiness, and wealth (Dugan and Vanderbilt 2014; Goldrick-Rab, Kelchen, and Houle 2014).

Figure 4.2

Percent of Women Aged 25 and Older with a Bachelor's Degree or Higher, by Race/Ethnicity, United States, 2004 and 2014



Notes: Racial categories are non-Hispanic.
Source: IWPR analysis of 2014 American Community Survey microdata (Integrated Public Use Microdata Series, Version 6.0).

While the share of Black women aged 25 and older attaining bachelor's degrees has increased over the last decade, child care needs can pose a barrier to Black women's success in higher education. Almost half of Black women in college have dependent children (47 percent), compared with 32 percent of all women (Gault et al. 2014a). However, college campus-based child care has declined in recent years; the proportion of community colleges with child care on campus dropped from 53 to 46 percent between 2003 and 2013 while the proportion of public four-year campuses with child care decreased from 54 to 51 percent between 2002 and 2013 (Gault et al. 2014b).

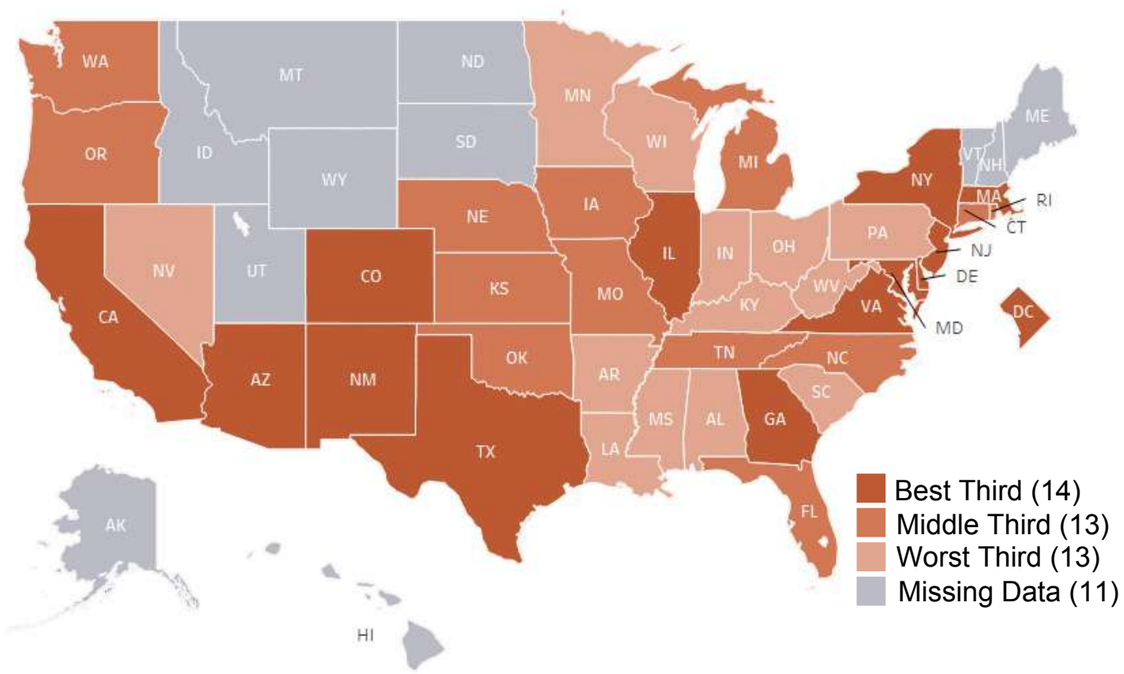
Among those who do enter into higher education, research has found that Black women face barriers to full participation and success due to widespread systematic racism on college campuses, as well as the lack of Black women in faculty and staff positions on university campuses who could act as role models and/or provide support for students (Hughes and Howard-Hamilton 2003).

The proportion of Black women aged 25 and older with bachelor's degrees or higher varies across states (Map 4.3; Table 4.1; Appendix Table 4.2):

- Black women are most likely to have a bachelor's degree or higher in New Mexico (30.5 percent), a state that places in the middle third of states with the highest percentages of all women with bachelor's degrees in the country (27.0 percent). Maryland and Colorado follow New Mexico with the highest proportions of Black women with bachelor's degrees or higher (28.5 and 26.7 percent).[39]
- Black women are least likely to have a bachelor's degree or higher in Wisconsin, Minnesota, and West Virginia (14.2, 16.3, and 16.3 percent, respectively). Despite the small share of Black women with a bachelor's degree or higher, Minnesota places in the top third of states with the highest percentages of all women with at least a bachelor's degree (34.2 percent).

Map 4.3

Percent of Black Women with a Bachelor's Degree or Higher, 2014



Notes: Women aged 25 and older. Black women are non-Hispanic.
Source: IWPR analysis of 2012-2014 American Community Survey microdata (Integrated Public Use Microdata Series, Version 6.0).

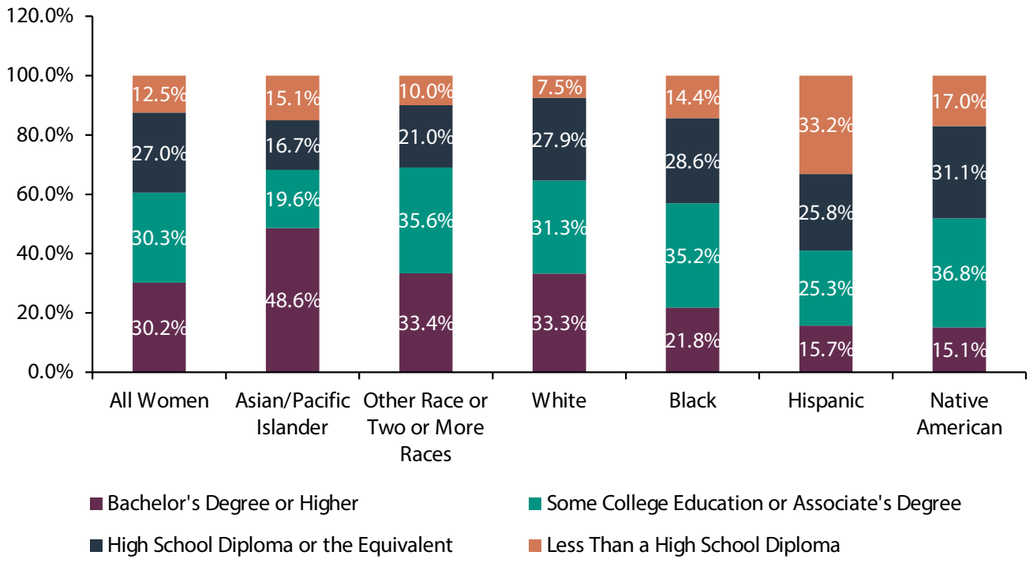
Educational attainment at other levels also varies by race, ethnicity, and geographic location (Appendix Table 4.2; Figure 4.3). Nationally, 14.4 percent of Black women aged 25 or older have less than a high school diploma. This rate is about twice as high as the rate for White women (7.5 percent), the group with the smallest share of those with less than a high school diploma. However, it is considerably lower than the proportion of Hispanic women with less than a high school diploma (33.2 percent), the group with the highest share.

Black Women Business Owners

Black women's business ownership has increased substantially over the last decade. According to IWPR analysis of the 2002 and 2012 Survey of Business Owners, the number of businesses owned by Black women increased by 178.1 percent between 2002 and 2012, the largest increase of any of the largest racial and ethnic groups of women and men (Table 4.2). White women had the lowest growth among women, at 28.3 percent. As of 2012, women owned about 36 percent of all firms, and Black women owned about 15.4 percent of all women-owned businesses, a larger share than their share of the female population (12.7 percent; Figure 4.4). [40] Black women also owned 60.0 percent of all Black-owned businesses. Overall, Black women owned 6.2 percent of all firms, slightly less than their share of the U.S. population (6.4 percent).

Figure 4.3

Women's Highest level of Educational Attainment by Race/Ethnicity, United States, 2014



Notes: Women aged 25 and older. Racial categories are non-Hispanic.
Source: IWPR analysis of 2014 American Community Survey microdata (Integrated Public Use Microdata Series, Version 6.0).

FOCUS ON: REPARATIONS

The current inequalities in opportunity that Black women and men experience are in part a result of government and corporate policies ranging from slavery to discriminatory housing policies to the disproportionate incarceration of Black women and men.

To acknowledge and address the lasting effects of these policies and practices on Black Americans' socioeconomic status and well-being, some have called for reparations, a strategy that the U.S. government has implemented several times in the past (Darity and Frank 2005; The Movement for Black Lives 2016). For example, the government made $20,000 payments to each of sixty thousand identified victims of Japanese American internment during World War II and has issued reparations payments to Native American tribes for atrocities and treaty violations in the past (Darity and Frank 2005). In the case of reparations for Japanese internment, the United States also issued a formal apology to Japanese Americans, publicly acknowledging the injustices committed against them (Darity and Frank 2005).

Despite this precedent, the United States has not issued any reparations towards Black Americans for almost 250 years of slavery, one hundred years of Jim Crow, or more recent systemic injustices committed against Black Americans—including employment discrimination, housing discrimination, the disproportionate incarceration of Black adults and youth, and the other institutionalized policies and practices that have prevented Black Americans from building wealth. One recent example of institutionalized racism was the targeting of Black communities for risky subprime loans in the years preceding the Great Recession (Rugh and Massey 2010). This racially-biased targeting by financial institutions resulted in Black households losing a larger percent of median net worth than White households, and widened the gap between Black and White household wealth (Kochhar, Fry, and Taylor 2011). As of 2013, median White household wealth was 20 times the median wealth of Black households—the largest racial wealth gap since 1989 (Kochhar, Fry, and Taylor 2011). Black women in particular have very little wealth: one report found that single Black women have a median wealth of $100, compared with $7,900 for their same-race male counterparts and $41,500 for single White women (Chang 2010). As a result, some have called for gender-sensitive conversations surrounding reparations for Black Americans (Balfour 2015).

Specific proposals for how to make reparations to Black Americans vary in size and scope. In the late 1800s, multiple plans to create pension funds for former slaves were proposed, but not realized (Laney 2007). Since the 1960s, various grassroots movement groups have called for cash and land payments to Black Americans (Laney 2007; N'COBRA 2016). Alternatively, some call for reparations that target access to important pillars of economic security and mobility such as education, health care, and housing (Bouie 2014). For example, Smith (2014) argues for a reparations plan that includes free college, free health care, and federal tax exemptions for Black Americans. The Movement for Black Lives (2016) proposes that all black people have free access to education, including open admissions to public universities and colleges, technical education programs, and more. Still others call for further study on the institution of slavery and its impacts on the lives of Black Americans in order to pave the way towards a policy plan for reparations (Coates 2014). In 1989, Representative John Conyers introduced a bill to establish a commission for the study of slavery and its repercussions for Black Americans, which did not pass through committee (Laney 2007). Since 1990, he has introduced similar bills every year (GovTrack.us 2016).

Business ownership can bring Black women increased control over their working lives and create financial opportunities for themselves and their communities. However, despite the substantial increase in Black women's entrepreneurship, Black women business owners experience a range of challenges and inequities. Businesses owned by women and racial minorities (especially Black and Hispanic individuals) tend to have less access to credit and lower personal wealth than other business owners (Kymn 2014). Inequities in access to capital results in businesses owned by women and racial minorities being smaller and less profitable than other businesses.

- In 2012 more than one in three businesses owned by Black women did not have any start-up capital (35.2 percent; Institute for Women's Policy Research 2015e). Hispanic women were least likely to have start-up capital (37.8 percent did not have any start-up capital) among women, while Asian women were most likely to have start-up capital (75.2 percent had start-up capital).

- In 2012, the average per business sales and receipts of businesses owned by Black women were $27,753, the lowest among all racial and ethnic groups of women (Institute for Women's Policy Research 2015e). Asian women had the highest sales at $181,096.

The proportion of businesses owned by Black women varies across the 50 states and the District of Columbia (Table 4.3; Appendix Table 4.3). The District of Columbia has the largest proportion of women-owned businesses owned by Black women at 45.9 percent, followed by Mississippi and Georgia at 43.8 percent and 40.8 percent, respectively.

Poverty

Black women's economic security is directly linked to their family income, which includes not only earnings from jobs and any other family members but also income from other sources, such as investments, retirement funds, Social Security, and government benefits. Many Black women in the United States enjoy comfortable family incomes, but others struggle to make ends meet (Chang 2010; Mason 2015). The official poverty threshold for a family of four with two children in 2014 was $24,008; in 2014, a quarter of Black women (24.6 percent) aged 18 and older had family incomes below this threshold (Figure 4.5). [42] [43], Native American women had the highest rate of poverty among all racial and ethnic groups of women and men, at 26.7 percent, while White women had the lowest rate (9.7 percent).

- Between 2004 and 2014, the share of women living in poverty declined slightly among Black women and women of another race or two or more races (Figure 4.1). In contrast, during this time period poverty increased among all other racial/ethnic groups of women and all racial/ethnic groups of men.

- Black women experience high levels of poverty across age groups. More than three of ten Black women millennials[44] live below the poverty line (31.5 percent). Native American millennial women are the only group with a higher rate, at 32.6 percent. About one-fifth of Black women aged 65 and older live below poverty (19.5 percent). Native American and Hispanic women over the age of 65 have slightly higher proportions of women living in poverty, at 20.7 percent and 20.6 percent, respectively (Institute for Women's Policy Research 2015b).

Higher poverty among women has been attributed to a lack of work-family supports, the challenges of accessing public benefits, and low benefit levels in many states, as well as to women's lower earnings than men's (Hess et al. 2015; Huber, Kassabian, and Cohen 2014; Waters Boots 2010). If the gender gap were closed through equal pay, the poverty rate among all working women would be cut in half (Institute for Women's Policy Research 2016). Black women, who earn less than women overall and experience comparatively high levels of poverty, would especially benefit from equal pay for women.

Poverty rates among Black women vary across the country (Map 4.4; Table 4.1; Appendix Table 4.4).

- The percentage of Black women aged 18 and older living below the poverty line is lowest in Alaska (9.0 percent), Hawaii (10.0 percent), and Maryland (14.1 percent). [45] In all three of these states, the poverty rate among all women falls below the national average.

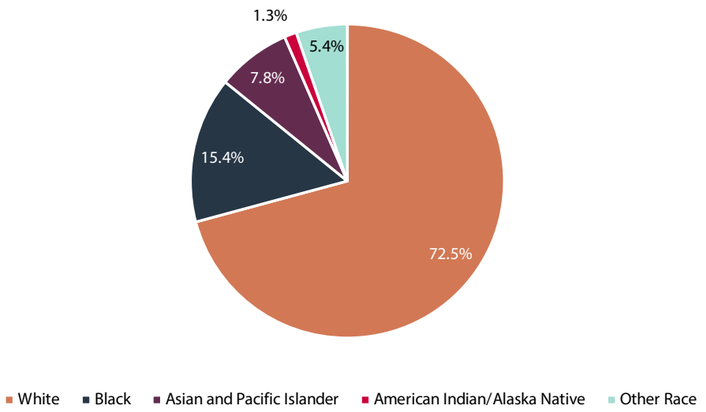
- The percentage of Black women living in poverty is highest in Maine (66.0 percent). [46] Oregon and Mississippi have the second- and third-highest rates of poverty among Black women, at 35.8 and 34.7 percent, respectively.

Table 4.2
Growth in Firms by Gender and Race/Ethnicity, United States, 2002–2012

	Women-Owned Firms, 2012	Men-Owned Firms, 2012	Growth in Women-Owned Firms, 2002-2012	Growth in Men-Owned Firms, 2002-2012
White	7,159,034	12,280,591	28.30%	3.00%
Hispanic	1,469,991	1,702,559	171.80%	84.80%
Black	1,521,494	1,014,767	178.10%	77.60%
Asian	749,197	996,606	120.60%	55.60%
Native Hawaiian and Other Pacific Islander	24,982	28,329	136.10%	75.10%
American Indian or Alaska Native	131,064	137,612	67.40%	18.20%
Other	535,176	606,150	N/A	N/A
All Races/Ethnicities	9,878,397	14,844,597	52.20%	12.60%

Note: Detail may not add to total due to rounding and because Hispanic businesses may be of any race. Moreover, each owner had the option of selecting more than one race and therefore is included in each race selected. Women's share of businesses is calculated only among businesses that are either women- or men-owned and exclude equally-owned businesses.
Source: IWPR calculations based on the 2002 and 2012 Survey of Business Owners (2015b; 2015c).

Figure 4.4
Women-Owned Businesses by Race [41], United States, 2012



Notes: Hispanic firms may be of any race. Distribution adds to more than 100 percent because firms can select more than one race. Women's share of businesses is calculated among businesses that are either women- or men-owned; equally-owned businesses are excluded.
Source: IWPR compilation of data from the 2012 Survey of Business Owners (U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census 2015).

FOCUS ON: IMMIGRANT BLACK WOMEN

According to IWPR analysis of the 2011-2013 American Community Survey, 8.7 percent of Black women in the United States are immigrants.

The states with the largest populations of Black immigrant women are New York (507,242), Florida (359,368), and New Jersey (116,865). The states in which immigrants compose the largest proportion of the Black female population are New Hampshire, Massachusetts, and Maine (33.4 percent, 33.1 percent, and 29.2 percent, respectively). Among male and female Black immigrants, 82 percent live in the Northeast and South of the United States. In comparison, just nine percent of Black immigrants live in the Midwest and West (Anderson 2015).

The U.S. Census Bureau projects that the Black immigrant population in the United States will compose 16.5 percent of the total Black population by 2060 (Brown 2015). According to a Pew Research Center report using data from the 2013 American Community Survey, half of all Black immigrants are from the Caribbean, but the number of immigrants from sub-Saharan Africa is rising rapidly (Anderson 2015). The report finds that Black immigrants in the United States fare differently on a number of indicators related to poverty and opportunity than U.S.-born Blacks and other Americans. For example, 26 percent of Black immigrants aged 25 and older hold a bachelor's degree or higher, compared with 19 percent of U.S.-born Blacks and 30 percent of the U.S. adult population as a whole.

In terms of poverty, Black immigrants again fare better than U.S.-born Blacks, but worse than the U.S. population as a whole—20 percent of immigrant Blacks live below the federal poverty line compared with 28 percent of U.S. Blacks and 16 percent of the U.S. population (Anderson 2015). Black immigrants' high poverty rate compared with the U.S. population overall may be in part attributed to racialized barriers that Black immigrants face to home ownership, stable employment, and occupational mobility (Fowler 2015; Showers 2015; Tesfai 2015; Thomas 2015).

Poverty and the Social Safety Net

The public programs that compose the social safety net have a substantial effect on Black women's lives due to the fact that Black women experience disproportionately high poverty rates. Programs such as Temporary Assistance for Needy Families (TANF), the Supplemental Nutrition Assistance Program (SNAP, formerly called food stamps), Medicaid, and the Earned Income Tax Credit (a refundable federal tax credit aimed at offsetting federal income taxes for low-income working families and individuals) can lessen the financial hardship that families living in poverty face. Such programs, however, often fail to reach women and families who could benefit from their assistance. In 2014, just 23 percent of poor families with children received TANF benefits (Floyd, Pavetti, and Schott 2015). In 12 states, less than 10 percent of families living in poverty received TANF assistance (Floyd, Pavetti, and Schott 2015). [47,48]

Limited access to assistance programs stems partly from complicated application and eligibility determination processes, lack of transportation and information about how to enroll in these programs, and inconvenient appointment scheduling (Waters Boots 2010). The limited reach of these programs is also a result of federal and state policy changes that have restricted states' abilities to support families. One study, for example, found that rates of extreme poverty grew sharply after 1996 welfare reform, after which it became more difficult to receive cash assistance from the government without having a job, even for those raising young children and without other sources of income (Shaefer and Edin 2014). This extreme poverty—defined as those households with incomes of $2.00 or less, per person, per day—disproportionately affects certain population groups: as of mid-2011, 46 percent of households living in extreme poverty were headed by Black or Hispanic individuals and one-third were headed by single women.[49] The study also concluded that following 1996 welfare reform, the percentage growth in extreme poverty among the population was greatest among single mothers, Black, and Hispanic households.

In addition, in recent years many states have made additional changes to programs like TANF that have resulted in significant cuts to their caseloads, including creating more stringent application requirements (Floyd, Pavetti, and Schott 2015). Even those individuals and families who do receive benefits may still experience severe economic hardships, since benefit levels for these programs are often quite low (Huber, Kassabian, and Cohen 2014).

Table 4.3

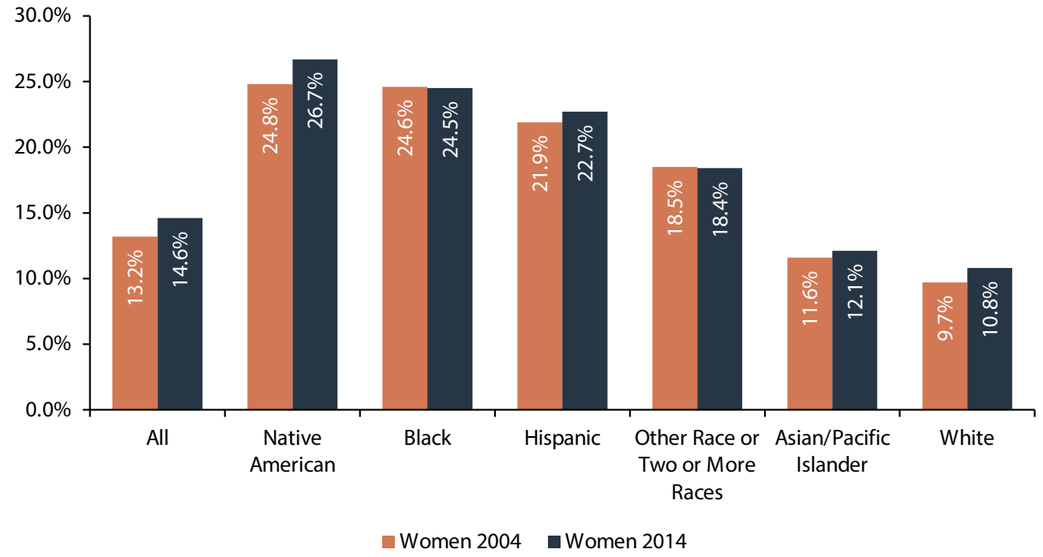
Top Ten States for Black Women's Business

Share of Women-Owned Firms Owned by Black Women		
State	Percent	National Rank
District of Columbia	45.9%	1
Mississippi	43.8%	2
Georgia	40.8%	3
Louisiana	37.6%	4
Maryland	33.5%	5
Alabama	32.6%	6
South Carolina	27.3%	7
Michigan	24.0%	8
Tennessee	23.3%	9
Illinois	22.7%	10

Note: Black women include Hispanics.
Source: Source: IWPR calculations based on data from the 2012 Survey of Business Owners (U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census 2015).

Figure 4.5

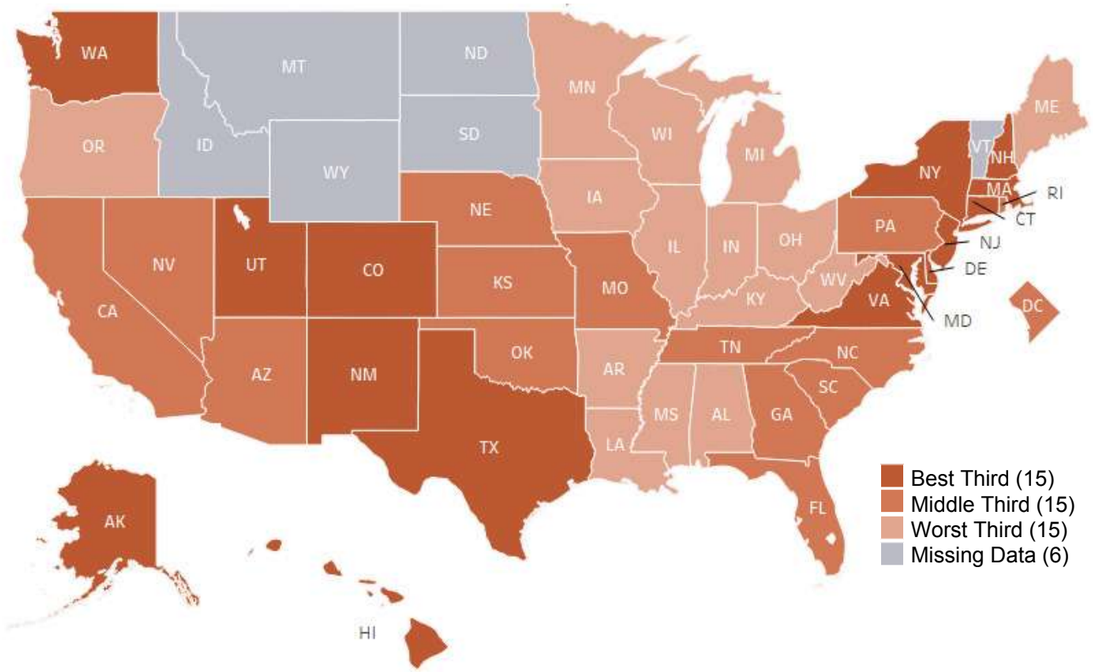
Percent of Women Living in Poverty by Race/Ethnicity, United States, 2004 and 2014



Notes: Data include women and men aged 18 and older. Racial groups are non-Hispanic.
Source: IWPR analysis of 2004 and 2014 American Community Survey microdata (Integrated Public Use Microdata Series, Version 6.0).

Map 4.4

Black Women Living Above The Poverty Line, 2014



Notes: The top third states have the smallest proportion of black women living below the poverty line; the bottom third have the largest proportions. Women aged 18 or older. Black women are non-Hispanic.

Conclusion

Black women are completing higher education and starting their own businesses in growing numbers, yet often face obstacles that can diminish their access to health care, educational opportunities, and other important supports that would allow them to achieve economic security.

Black women have lower health insurance coverage rates than white women, Asian/Pacific Islander women, and women of another race or two or more races and are overrepresented in the coverage gap left by states that have decided not to expand Medicaid. While black women have made gains in educational attainment, the percentage of black women with bachelor's degrees continues to lag behind most other groups of women. In addition, black women who are business owners tend to have less access to capital than white women or white men. Finally, the low share of women helped by TANF and several other programs, coupled with the disproportionate share of Black women in poverty, suggests that the U.S. social welfare system is not reaching women, especially Black women, and their families effectively.

Policy changes can help address these obstacles. For example, reducing the financial burdens of student debt, curbing the rise in college tuition, and expanding supports for student parents would make postsecondary education more accessible to all students, including Black women. Expanding Medicaid can ensure that Black women do not fall into the health insurance coverage gap and improve their access to quality, affordable health care. Increasing Black women's access to capital can facilitate their entrepreneurial success, and strengthening the social safety net can allow black women in poverty to access vital supports.

NOTES

32. Compared with non-Hispanic Whites.

33. Due to small sample sizes, data on Black women's health insurance coverage rates are not available in Alaska, Idaho, Montana, North Dakota, South Dakota, Vermont, and Wyoming.

34. Federal law allows for the expansion of Medicaid to individuals of with incomes at or below 133 percent of the federal poverty line. The law also includes a five percent "income disregard," which effectively makes the limit 138 percent of poverty (Center for Mississippi Health Policy 2012).

35. Marketplace subsidies cover individuals earning between $11,770 (100 percent of the federal poverty line) and $47,080 (400 percent of the federal poverty line). Medicaid in states that have not adopted expansion is only available to parents earning less than $8,840 for a family of three in 2016 (44 percent of the federal poverty line). This leaves individuals with earnings between $8,840 and $11,770 without affordable coverage options under the ACA (Garfield and Damico 2016).

36. Mississippi, Georgia, South Carolina, Alabama, North Carolina, Virginia, and Tennessee have not expanded Medicaid.

37. Out of the fourteen states that place in the bottom third of Black women's health insurance coverage, Florida, Georgia, Louisiana, Mississippi, Missouri, Nebraska, North Carolina, Oklahoma, South Carolina and Texas had not adopted and had no plans to adopt Medicaid expansion as of March 2016. Among the fourteen states with the lowest Black women's health insurance coverage, only Arkansas, Indiana, Nevada, and New Hampshire had expanded Medicaid.

38. For full-time, year-round workers.

39. Due to small sample sizes, data on Black women with a bachelor's degree or higher are not available in Alaska, Hawaii, Idaho, Maine, Montana, New Hampshire, North Dakota, South Dakota, Utah, Vermont, and Wyoming.

40. Women's share of businesses is calculated only among businesses that are either women- or men-owned and exclude equally-owned businesses. In 2012, equally-owned businesses made up 17.5 percent of all businesses classifiable by gender of the owner.

41. 14.9 percent of women-owned businesses are owned by Hispanics. Hispanics can be of any race.

42. The U.S. Census Bureau's 2014 official poverty rates for women aged 18 to 64 and women aged 65 and older were 15.3 percent and 12.1 percent, respectively (DeNavas-Walt and Proctor 2015). The Census Bureau's figures differ from the poverty rates presented in this report because IWPR uses microdata from the 2014 American Community Survey whereas DeNavas-Walt and Proctor (2015) rely on data from the 2015 CPS ASEC. For information on the differences between ACS and CPS measures of poverty, see Appendix B7.

43. The U.S. Census Bureau also calculates a Supplemental Poverty Measure (SPM), which uses a more detailed methodology to determine the amount of income needed to support a family and is based on out-of-pocket spending on basic needs, including food, clothing, shelter, and utilities with a small allowance for other needs that is updated over time. The SPM also includes additional resources when calculating a family's income. Unlike the official poverty measure, the SPM includes the value of all cash income and noncash benefits that can be used to buy basic necessities. In 2014, the SPM threshold for a family of four was $21,380 for homeowners without a mortgage, $25,460 for renters, and $25,844 for homeowners with a mortgage (Short 2015). For more information on the differences between the official poverty threshold and the SPM see Anderson et al. (2016).

44. Aged 18-34.

45. Due to small sample sizes, data on the percentage of Black women living below the poverty line are not available in Idaho, Montana, North Dakota, South Dakota, Vermont, and Wyoming.

46. This estimate is based on a sample of 118 Black women in Maine; while large enough to meet IWPR's criteria for reporting results (see Appendix B7), this estimate contains more sampling variability than the estimates for larger states and the nation as a whole.

47. Federal law prevents states from using TANF dollars to assist immigrants or their children until they have been in the United States legally for at least five years. No TANF funds can be used to assist undocumented immigrants (Center on Budget and Policy Priorities 2015).

48. In comparison, in the nation overall in 1996, prior to the implementation of welfare reform, 68 percent of families in poverty received cash assistance (Floyd, Pavetti, and Schott 2015).

49. These estimates use monthly pretax cash income values, which include cash assistance (such as benefits from TANF) and take family size into account.

APPENDIX FOUR

POVERTY & OPPORTUNITY TABLES

Appendix Table 4.1. Health Insurance Coverage Among Women by Race/Ethnicity and State, 2014

	All Women	White	Hispanic	Black	Asian/Pacific Islander	Native American	Other Race or Two or More Races
Alabama	82.0%	85.2%	49.1%	78.7%	83.0%	75.1%	81.0%
Alaska	77.8%	82.5%	76.1%	N/A	76.8%	57.5%	72.5%
Arizona	80.5%	87.1%	68.4%	83.3%	84.5%	69.7%	85.2%
Arkansas	79.5%	81.8%	54.8%	78.2%	81.7%	73.4%	82.9%
California	80.4%	88.5%	69.0%	84.4%	84.9%	77.7%	84.3%
Colorado	84.8%	88.8%	69.7%	85.5%	87.0%	74.1%	87.3%
Connecticut	90.1%	92.9%	78.7%	87.1%	90.2%	N/A	87.5%
Delaware	90.0%	92.0%	78.1%	90.1%	82.0%	N/A	90.6%
District of Columbia	94.4%	97.6%	88.5%	93.1%	90.5%	N/A	97.6%
Florida	75.3%	81.7%	63.0%	72.7%	76.8%	69.6%	77.4%
Georgia	77.1%	82.7%	47.5%	75.4%	73.9%	76.6%	73.2%
Hawaii	92.1%	91.3%	91.7%	94.8%	92.3%	N/A	92.8%
Idaho	79.0%	82.2%	55.4%	N/A	79.4%	70.1%	74.0%
Illinois	85.3%	90.6%	67.4%	81.9%	85.1%	80.4%	84.7%
Indiana	82.5%	84.6%	64.4%	76.5%	80.4%	69.8%	77.1%
Iowa	90.5%	91.7%	76.3%	82.1%	90.3%	71.7%	83.3%
Kansas	84.0%	87.4%	60.4%	78.9%	87.2%	74.1%	81.1%
Kentucky	83.7%	85.0%	57.5%	79.8%	82.4%	66.8%	77.0%
Louisiana	77.7%	82.3%	56.6%	72.3%	73.8%	76.2%	76.6%
Maine	87.3%	87.6%	77.9%	86.1%	85.9%	83.6%	82.4%
Maryland	88.9%	93.2%	63.3%	88.8%	86.2%	92.7%	89.8%
Massachusetts	96.2%	97.0%	93.5%	92.8%	96.4%	97.9%	93.2%
Michigan	86.9%	88.5%	76.6%	82.9%	86.1%	78.4%	83.2%
Minnesota	91.7%	94.0%	65.0%	83.9%	89.1%	77.9%	88.0%
Mississippi	77.7%	80.7%	55.2%	75.3%	65.9%	55.5%	80.4%
Missouri	83.2%	85.2%	64.3%	76.4%	81.5%	75.0%	81.8%
Montana	79.0%	81.7%	67.3%	N/A	85.5%	51.6%	67.2%
Nebraska	86.1%	89.4%	63.5%	76.3%	86.3%	53.0%	79.8%
Nevada	76.6%	83.2%	62.4%	76.7%	79.9%	65.6%	77.2%
New Hampshire	87.2%	87.8%	78.0%	78.2%	84.5%	N/A	74.2%
New Jersey	84.5%	91.0%	67.4%	82.4%	84.5%	84.7%	79.0%
New Mexico	76.8%	86.7%	71.6%	82.3%	78.1%	58.5%	85.1%
New York	88.3%	92.6%	78.4%	87.6%	83.6%	85.8%	85.4%
North Carolina	80.4%	85.2%	46.5%	78.3%	80.9%	74.8%	80.3%
North Dakota	88.2%	90.4%	70.7%	N/A	N/A	65.5%	N/A
Ohio	87.2%	88.4%	76.0%	83.0%	86.2%	83.5%	82.2%
Oklahoma	77.3%	82.4%	54.3%	73.8%	80.9%	64.9%	69.8%
Oregon	83.3%	85.7%	65.1%	84.7%	86.0%	71.3%	83.2%
Pennsylvania	88.6%	90.4%	77.1%	83.3%	85.1%	87.8%	86.2%
Rhode Island	88.5%	91.9%	72.8%	81.9%	84.2%	N/A	88.2%
South Carolina	79.9%	83.2%	51.9%	77.4%	79.4%	68.5%	75.8%
South Dakota	85.1%	89.5%	58.1%	N/A	N/A	52.4%	71.2%
Tennessee	83.3%	85.3%	50.5%	82.9%	78.6%	65.1%	83.5%
Texas	72.8%	83.9%	56.7%	76.6%	79.2%	77.9%	77.9%
Utah	83.5%	88.0%	56.5%	81.0%	81.8%	68.8%	82.9%
Vermont	94.0%	94.2%	93.0%	N/A	90.0%	N/A	84.5%
Virginia	85.2%	89.5%	64.6%	81.2%	82.7%	77.8%	85.5%
Washington	84.6%	88.0%	62.3%	83.2%	85.2%	71.2%	86.0%
West Virginia	82.4%	82.6%	66.8%	80.3%	85.1%	N/A	81.9%
Wisconsin	89.9%	92.0%	70.8%	84.2%	84.4%	77.5%	87.8%
Wyoming	82.2%	83.8%	72.0%	N/A	N/A	51.3%	85.8%
United States	**82.8%**	**87.7%**	**65.9%**	**80.3%**	**84.2%**	**69.5%**	**82.8%**

Notes: Data include women aged 18-64. Racial groups are non-Hispanic. N/A = not available.
Source: IWPR analysis of 2012-2014 American Community Survey microdata (Integrated Public Use Microdata Series, Version 6.0).

Appendix Table 4.2 Percent of Women with a Bachelor's Degree or Higher by Race/Ethnicity and State, 2014

	All Women	White	Hispanic	Black	Asian/Pacific Islander	Native American	Other Race or Two or More Races
Alabama	23.4%	25.1%	17.5%	18.0%	48.1%	16.0%	31.3%
Alaska	32.9%	38.9%	30.7%	N/A	24.5%	10.0%	32.2%
Arizona	26.8%	32.1%	11.7%	24.3%	46.7%	12.0%	32.6%
Arkansas	21.5%	22.7%	10.6%	16.5%	43.3%	16.5%	26.5%
California	31.0%	39.3%	12.1%	23.8%	47.3%	16.9%	38.1%
Colorado	37.9%	43.3%	14.1%	26.7%	48.2%	21.6%	38.2%
Connecticut	37.4%	41.1%	17.4%	22.1%	62.2%	N/A	32.4%
Delaware	30.6%	31.6%	18.7%	25.1%	62.2%	N/A	N/A
District of Columbia	53.7%	90.1%	40.1%	26.2%	77.3%	N/A	72.8%
Florida	26.4%	28.6%	22.6%	19.0%	43.3%	16.8%	30.8%
Georgia	28.9%	32.0%	15.6%	23.3%	47.8%	25.8%	37.5%
Hawaii	32.5%	44.8%	24.9%	N/A	30.2%	N/A	25.3%
Idaho	24.8%	25.9%	11.5%	N/A	35.3%	17.0%	23.8%
Illinois	32.6%	35.7%	14.7%	22.6%	60.9%	17.5%	39.8%
Indiana	24.2%	24.8%	14.4%	17.5%	51.8%	12.2%	27.7%
Iowa	27.5%	27.8%	14.0%	19.3%	52.2%	N/A	19.1%
Kansas	31.2%	33.3%	13.0%	19.7%	46.6%	18.3%	28.5%
Kentucky	22.8%	23.0%	19.5%	16.4%	46.8%	N/A	28.8%
Louisiana	23.6%	26.7%	21.5%	16.8%	39.9%	16.3%	21.2%
Maine	29.8%	29.9%	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	25.5%
Maryland	37.8%	41.9%	24.9%	28.5%	58.1%	N/A	40.6%
Massachusetts	40.4%	42.9%	18.8%	23.7%	55.6%	N/A	33.3%
Michigan	26.9%	27.7%	17.0%	19.2%	57.3%	12.9%	27.0%
Minnesota	34.2%	35.4%	21.4%	16.3%	42.6%	12.0%	33.1%
Mississippi	22.1%	24.3%	14.9%	18.5%	32.3%	N/A	19.8%
Missouri	27.3%	28.2%	20.9%	18.8%	50.3%	13.9%	29.8%
Montana	29.3%	30.5%	17.6%	N/A	N/A	14.4%	N/A
Nebraska	30.6%	32.4%	10.0%	21.9%	45.3%	5.9%	31.9%
Nevada	22.4%	25.7%	9.7%	17.3%	34.9%	11.4%	24.0%
New Hampshire	35.9%	36.2%	23.0%	N/A	47.8%	N/A	28.5%
New Jersey	36.2%	38.9%	18.5%	24.0%	66.0%	N/A	36.7%
New Mexico	27.0%	38.8%	15.5%	30.5%	45.7%	12.1%	42.8%
New York	34.5%	39.9%	19.0%	24.7%	43.8%	23.4%	34.8%
North Carolina	28.6%	31.7%	14.3%	21.0%	47.7%	15.5%	30.6%
North Dakota	28.7%	29.5%	N/A	N/A	N/A	17.2%	N/A
Ohio	25.7%	26.4%	19.8%	17.6%	55.4%	19.1%	24.8%
Oklahoma	24.3%	26.2%	10.6%	20.0%	37.4%	17.4%	24.4%
Oregon	30.3%	31.7%	14.2%	20.8%	40.8%	10.4%	27.4%
Pennsylvania	28.4%	29.4%	16.6%	18.5%	51.8%	27.4%	31.3%
Rhode Island	30.7%	33.7%	10.7%	19.6%	38.2%	N/A	27.5%
South Carolina	25.7%	29.3%	18.3%	17.0%	39.3%	12.0%	26.3%
South Dakota	27.4%	28.9%	N/A	N/A	N/A	12.9%	N/A
Tennessee	25.0%	26.0%	14.6%	20.3%	45.7%	16.6%	25.5%
Texas	27.4%	34.8%	13.6%	23.9%	52.6%	25.4%	33.9%
Utah	28.6%	30.3%	13.7%	N/A	36.6%	11.2%	32.2%
Vermont	37.1%	37.4%	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
Virginia	35.9%	38.8%	24.9%	22.9%	54.8%	25.7%	42.7%
Washington	32.0%	33.4%	14.7%	19.1%	41.7%	14.3%	33.3%
West Virginia	19.4%	19.2%	17.1%	16.3%	56.9%	N/A	21.2%
Wisconsin	28.7%	30.0%	15.7%	14.2%	41.4%	18.7%	32.7%
Wyoming	26.5%	27.6%	14.4%	N/A	N/A	15.6%	N/A
United States	**29.7%**	**32.6%**	**15.4%**	**21.4%**	**48.3%**	**15.5%**	**32.7%**

Notes: Data include women aged 25 and older. Racial groups are non-Hispanic. N/A = not available.
Source: IWPR analysis of 2012-2014 American Community Survey microdata (Integrated Public Use Microdata Series, Version 6.0).

Appendix Table 4.3. Women's Business Ownership by Race/Ethnicity and State, 2012

	Percent of All Businesses Owned by Women	Percent Distribution of Women-Owned Businesses					
		White	Hispanic	Black	Asian/Pacific Islander	Native American Women	Other Race or Two or More Races
Alabama	36.8%	63.5%	2.1%	32.6%	2.8%	1.6%	0.9%
Alaska	32.5%	82.0%	4.7%	3.0%	7.0%	11.2%	2.1%
Arizona	36.5%	80.4%	22.9%	4.3%	5.5%	3.3%	9.0%
Arkansas	32.7%	79.7%	4.3%	16.2%	2.3%	1.7%	1.8%
California	37.2%	62.3%	27.7%	7.7%	19.3%	1.6%	13.2%
Colorado	35.5%	89.4%	11.8%	2.9%	4.7%	1.4%	3.8%
Connecticut	32.7%	82.0%	11.2%	9.3%	5.0%	0.7%	5.0%
Delaware	32.6%	74.7%	5.0%	19.4%	4.9%	0.7%	1.7%
District of Columbia	42.7%	47.1%	7.8%	45.9%	6.1%	1.0%	3.5%
Florida	38.5%	74.0%	32.4%	18.4%	4.2%	0.7%	5.0%
Georgia	40.5%	51.5%	6.4%	40.8%	6.3%	0.9%	2.5%
Hawaii	37.5%	44.9%	6.1%	1.2%	71.1%	1.9%	1.9%
Idaho	30.8%	95.1%	5.7%	0.4%	2.4%	1.4%	2.3%
Illinois	36.8%	68.0%	9.6%	22.7%	6.6%	0.7%	3.8%
Indiana	34.0%	82.8%	3.7%	13.8%	2.6%	0.7%	1.5%
Iowa	31.8%	93.6%	2.4%	3.5%	2.3%	0.6%	0.8%
Kansas	32.3%	90.0%	5.6%	5.2%	3.1%	1.4%	2.0%
Kentucky	32.0%	90.2%	1.9%	7.1%	2.5%	0.7%	0.7%
Louisiana	36.5%	57.4%	4.2%	37.6%	3.5%	1.0%	1.7%
Maine	30.1%	97.2%	1.0%	0.7%	1.9%	1.1%	0.4%
Maryland	39.3%	57.1%	8.1%	33.5%	7.6%	0.9%	3.5%
Massachusetts	32.8%	84.9%	7.2%	5.0%	7.3%	0.7%	4.2%
Michigan	36.8%	72.1%	3.2%	24.0%	3.5%	1.4%	1.1%
Minnesota	32.2%	89.4%	2.3%	5.5%	4.4%	1.2%	1.0%
Mississippi	37.9%	53.8%	1.5%	43.8%	2.1%	0.7%	0.7%
Missouri	33.1%	82.4%	2.3%	14.1%	3.5%	1.0%	0.7%
Montana	31.5%	96.2%	1.6%	0.2%	1.6%	3.7%	0.3%
Nebraska	31.7%	89.5%	5.1%	5.5%	3.1%	1.0%	2.4%
Nevada	36.3%	69.6%	18.7%	11.2%	12.5%	1.5%	8.8%
New Hampshire	29.3%	96.3%	1.8%	0.7%	2.7%	0.6%	0.6%
New Jersey	31.9%	70.4%	15.9%	13.6%	11.3%	0.7%	6.4%
New Mexico	39.0%	78.2%	34.4%	1.5%	3.8%	8.7%	11.3%
New York	36.1%	63.9%	18.9%	17.2%	11.6%	1.0%	9.5%
North Carolina	35.6%	71.1%	5.3%	22.5%	3.8%	2.0%	2.4%
North Dakota	29.8%	94.4%	1.1%	1.0%	1.5%	3.9%	0.3%
Ohio	33.9%	80.6%	2.3%	16.8%	2.4%	0.7%	0.9%
Oklahoma	32.1%	80.2%	5.4%	7.7%	4.0%	10.8%	2.6%
Oregon	36.3%	90.2%	5.7%	2.2%	6.2%	2.0%	2.2%
Pennsylvania	31.2%	83.2%	5.6%	10.6%	4.5%	0.7%	2.6%
Rhode Island	32.2%	83.4%	14.3%	6.1%	4.2%	1.4%	7.9%
South Carolina	35.9%	69.4%	3.2%	27.3%	2.7%	0.8%	1.1%
South Dakota	29.2%	95.3%	1.2%	0.7%	0.8%	4.1%	0.3%
Tennessee	35.6%	73.3%	3.0%	23.3%	2.7%	0.8%	1.2%
Texas	36.8%	69.8%	33.5%	14.5%	7.2%	1.1%	9.4%
Utah	30.3%	92.9%	8.0%	0.9%	3.4%	0.9%	3.6%
Vermont	30.9%	97.6%	1.4%	0.6%	1.6%	0.9%	0.2%
Virginia	36.2%	71.0%	7.8%	17.8%	9.7%	0.9%	3.1%
Washington	34.7%	84.8%	6.0%	3.5%	10.4%	2.0%	2.6%
West Virginia	34.1%	95.2%	0.9%	2.9%	2.1%	0.5%	0.3%
Wisconsin	30.9%	86.6%	3.3%	9.9%	2.7%	1.1%	1.2%
Wyoming	31.0%	96.0%	5.7%	0.6%	1.4%	1.9%	1.3%
United States	**35.8%**	**72.5%**	**14.9%**	**15.4%**	**7.8%**	**1.3%**	**5.4%**

Notes: Racial categories include Hispanics.
Source: 2012 Survey of Business Owners (U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census 2015).

Appendix Table 4.4. Percent of Women Living Below the Poverty Line by Race/Ethnicity and State, 2014

	All Women	White	Hispanic	Black	Asian/Pacific Islander	Native American	Other Race or Two or More Races
Alabama	18.6%	13.5%	32.8%	30.0%	15.9%	18.9%	20.2%
Alaska	10.2%	7.5%	15.7%	9.0%	9.1%	21.9%	10.1%
Arizona	17.0%	11.3%	27.3%	25.0%	14.8%	35.4%	19.2%
Arkansas	18.3%	15.1%	29.7%	31.1%	15.6%	18.2%	20.6%
California	15.7%	10.8%	21.8%	23.8%	12.2%	23.3%	16.9%
Colorado	12.5%	9.6%	22.4%	22.5%	9.6%	19.2%	15.2%
Connecticut	10.6%	6.8%	26.4%	18.5%	7.8%	N/A	14.9%
Delaware	12.7%	10.1%	23.1%	18.2%	8.0%	N/A	18.4%
District of Columbia	17.4%	8.5%	17.4%	24.7%	12.2%	N/A	13.7%
Florida	16.0%	11.9%	21.2%	25.2%	12.6%	21.4%	17.8%
Georgia	18.0%	12.9%	27.2%	25.5%	13.8%	23.3%	21.6%
Hawaii	11.3%	12.0%	14.5%	10.0%	10.4%	N/A	11.8%
Idaho	14.9%	13.6%	25.5%	N/A	14.2%	25.8%	20.9%
Illinois	14.2%	9.7%	19.7%	29.9%	11.7%	23.8%	17.7%
Indiana	15.4%	12.8%	28.8%	30.0%	19.0%	22.4%	25.0%
Iowa	13.0%	11.7%	20.7%	32.1%	18.8%	43.7%	26.6%
Kansas	13.2%	11.3%	23.4%	22.9%	14.5%	22.1%	19.3%
Kentucky	18.7%	17.3%	30.8%	30.8%	17.1%	27.9%	21.8%
Louisiana	19.8%	13.4%	25.4%	31.3%	18.0%	18.4%	27.1%
Maine	14.0%	13.2%	23.6%	66.0%	8.7%	43.4%	26.8%
Maryland	10.1%	7.4%	13.9%	14.1%	9.1%	23.9%	13.9%
Massachusetts	12.0%	8.7%	31.0%	20.3%	15.5%	25.8%	18.7%
Michigan	16.1%	12.7%	26.0%	30.8%	15.8%	23.5%	27.7%
Minnesota	11.1%	8.7%	25.2%	34.3%	14.5%	29.3%	19.4%
Mississippi	23.1%	15.5%	32.0%	34.7%	15.0%	32.6%	32.1%
Missouri	15.7%	13.4%	26.0%	27.3%	17.3%	26.6%	24.7%
Montana	16.1%	13.8%	35.1%	N/A	12.4%	38.5%	23.6%
Nebraska	12.7%	10.7%	24.2%	28.6%	12.2%	33.6%	17.7%
Nevada	14.3%	10.7%	20.6%	25.2%	10.2%	26.2%	14.4%
New Hampshire	9.2%	8.7%	18.2%	19.3%	10.0%	N/A	21.0%
New Jersey	10.8%	6.8%	21.0%	18.9%	6.5%	22.0%	15.3%
New Mexico	20.1%	13.0%	25.1%	22.7%	13.4%	32.5%	18.0%
New York	15.4%	10.0%	26.8%	21.1%	18.3%	23.0%	19.5%
North Carolina	17.1%	12.6%	32.9%	25.8%	13.0%	29.2%	26.7%
North Dakota	12.8%	10.8%	19.3%	N/A	N/A	36.0%	6.6%
Ohio	15.5%	12.7%	26.2%	31.2%	14.6%	28.9%	27.2%
Oklahoma	16.4%	13.7%	25.7%	28.2%	14.1%	21.3%	20.2%
Oregon	15.8%	13.8%	26.4%	35.8%	18.0%	25.3%	24.2%
Pennsylvania	13.3%	10.2%	32.5%	26.7%	17.5%	15.4%	19.7%
Rhode Island	14.0%	10.2%	35.7%	23.9%	13.2%	N/A	16.2%
South Carolina	17.6%	12.7%	27.5%	27.7%	15.2%	26.4%	22.1%
South Dakota	14.2%	10.5%	29.7%	N/A	N/A	47.5%	20.9%
Tennessee	17.5%	14.8%	33.5%	26.7%	11.0%	17.8%	28.8%
Texas	16.6%	10.0%	24.5%	22.6%	11.0%	15.1%	18.8%
Utah	12.6%	10.3%	23.9%	20.6%	20.5%	28.7%	22.3%
Vermont	11.7%	11.4%	13.7%	N/A	6.5%	N/A	20.2%
Virginia	11.9%	9.4%	16.4%	19.7%	8.6%	18.0%	12.5%
Washington	13.3%	11.3%	24.2%	22.1%	13.1%	27.5%	17.9%
West Virginia	17.8%	17.1%	36.0%	28.6%	19.2%	N/A	25.4%
Wisconsin	13.0%	10.5%	27.3%	33.4%	15.7%	26.7%	22.1%
Wyoming	12.3%	10.5%	25.0%	N/A	N/A	26.8%	15.1%
United States	**15.2%**	**11.3%**	**23.7%**	**25.4%**	**12.8%**	**27.4%**	**19.2%**

Notes: Women aged 18 and older. N/A= not available.
Source: IWPR analysis of 2012-2014 American Community Survey microdata (Integrated Public Use Microdata Series, Version 6.0).

FIVE

HEALTH & WELL-BEING

Introduction

Health is a critical component of economic security and overall well-being. In an upcoming study by the Black Women's Health Imperative, 60 percent of Black women surveyed described their health as very good or excellent (Black Women's Health Imperative 2016a).

Black women, however, experience disparities in health status, mortality, access to health care, quality of care received, and health insurance coverage. For example, one study found that Black women and Black men are less likely than others to have an annual visit to a primary care clinician due to a variety of structural factors. These include variations in availability of clinicians and quality of health care services in different areas of the country, as well as differences in access to transportation and knowledge of health topics among patients (Goodman et al. 2010). Factors such as economic insecurity, lack of access to affordable health care, poor housing quality, lack of safety, inadequate access to healthy food, sexism, and racism all influence health and the likelihood of experiencing health problems (Commission on the Social Determinants of Health 2008; Paradies et al. 2015; Zucker and Landry 2007).

This chapter provides data on Black women's health status in a variety of categories, including chronic disease, sexual and reproductive health, and mental health.

Key Findings

While health insurance coverage rates have increased substantially due to the implementation of the 2010 Patient Protection and Affordable Care Act (ACA), 16.5 percent of nonelderly Black women in the United States still lacked coverage as of 2014.

Black women's average annual heart disease mortality rate declined by 38.5 percent between 1999 and 2013, although at 177.7 per 100,000 it remains the highest rate among the largest racial and ethnic groups of women.

Black women have the second highest lung cancer mortality rate among the largest racial and ethnic groups of women (35.7 per 100,000), behind White women (39.9 per 100,000). Black women have the highest breast cancer mortality rate among all racial and ethnic groups of women (30.2 per 100,000).

Black women's average incidence of AIDS is five times higher than that of any other racial and ethnic group of women.

However, incidence of AIDS decreased by 45.1 percent between 2000 and 2013 among Black women.

Over one in seven Black women have been told they have diabetes (15.4 percent).

Diabetes is slightly more prevalent among Native American women (15.5 percent) and is less prevalent among all other women of the largest racial and ethnic groups.

About 13 percent of babies born to Black women are classified as low birth-weight (less than 5 lbs. 8 oz.), compared with 7.0 percent of babies born to White women and 7.1 percent of babies born to Hispanic women.

Chronic Disease

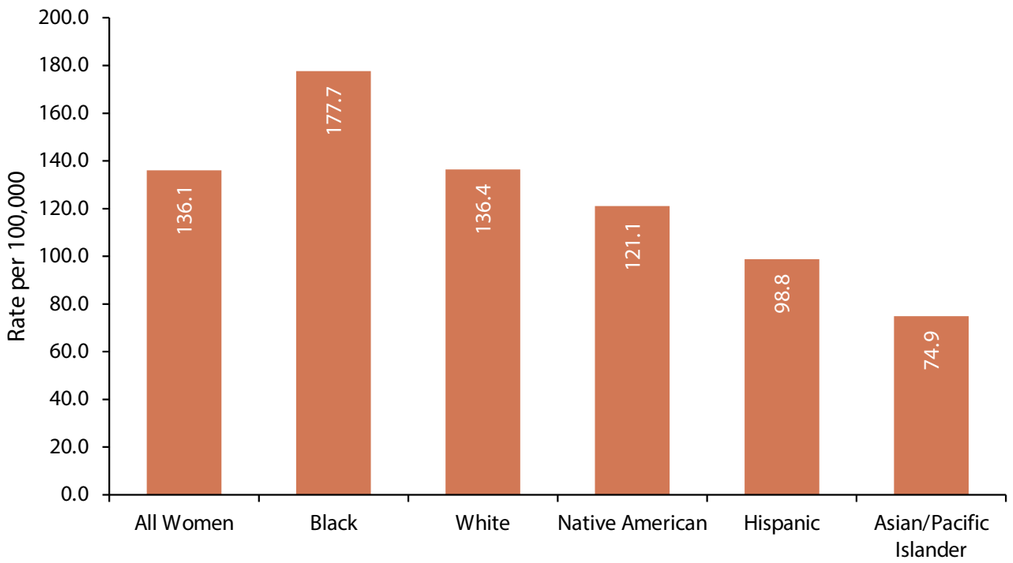
Heart Disease

Heart disease is the leading cause of death among Black women in the United States (Centers for Disease Control and Prevention 2015a). While approximately the same number of women and men die of heart disease in the United States each year (Centers for Disease Control and Prevention 2015a), women are at higher risk than men for some forms of heart disease, such as coronary microvascular disease (in which the walls of the heart's tiny arteries are damaged or diseased) and stress-induced cardiomyopathy (in which emotional stress leads to severe—but often temporary—heart muscle failure; U.S. Department of Health and Human Services 2014a). Risk factors associated with heart disease include diabetes, smoking, high cholesterol, high blood pressure, overweight and obesity, and more (U.S. Department of Health and Human Services 2014b). [50]

Among women from the largest racial and ethnic groups, Black women have the highest rate of heart disease mortality at 177.7 per 100,000 (Figure 5.1), meaning that more than 177 in 100,000 Black women die of heart disease each year. Black women's high rate of heart disease mortality is due in part to higher rates of diabetes, elevated cholesterol, high blood pressure, and obesity compared with other women (Black Women's Health Imperative 2015a; The National Coalition for Women with Heart Disease 2015). Research also suggests that bias among health providers in the United States results in unequal health outcomes for heart disease patients across racial lines (Fincher et al. 2004; Green et al. 2007). One study of women with heart disease found that Black women were less likely to receive appropriate preventive therapy than White women (Jha et al. 2003). In addition, the underrepresentation of women and racial and ethnic minorities in clinical studies related to heart disease may contribute to Black women's high heart disease mortality rate (Hoel et al. 2009; The National Coalition for Women with Heart Disease 2015).

Figure 5.1

Heart Disease Mortality Rates (per 100,000) Among Women, by Race/Ethnicity, United States, 2013



Notes: Data include women of all ages and are age-adjusted to the 2000 U.S. standard population. Racial groups are non-Hispanic. Data are not available for those who identify with another race or two or more races.
Source: IWPR compilation of 2011-2013 data from the Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (2015b).

46 Diabetes increases the risk of heart disease among women more than among men (U.S. Department of Health and Human Services 2014b).

Heart disease mortality among Black women varies across the country (Map 5.1; Appendix Table 5.1).

- Alaska, Minnesota, and Oregon have the lowest heart disease mortality rates for Black women at 70.3, 99.9, and 105.7 per 100,000, respectively. [51]
- The rate of heart disease mortality in the worst state for Black women, Michigan (226.0 per 100,000), is more than three times the rate of Alaska, the best state. Oklahoma and Mississippi have the second and third highest rates of heart disease mortality for Black women, at 224.9 and 221.1 per 100,000, respectively.

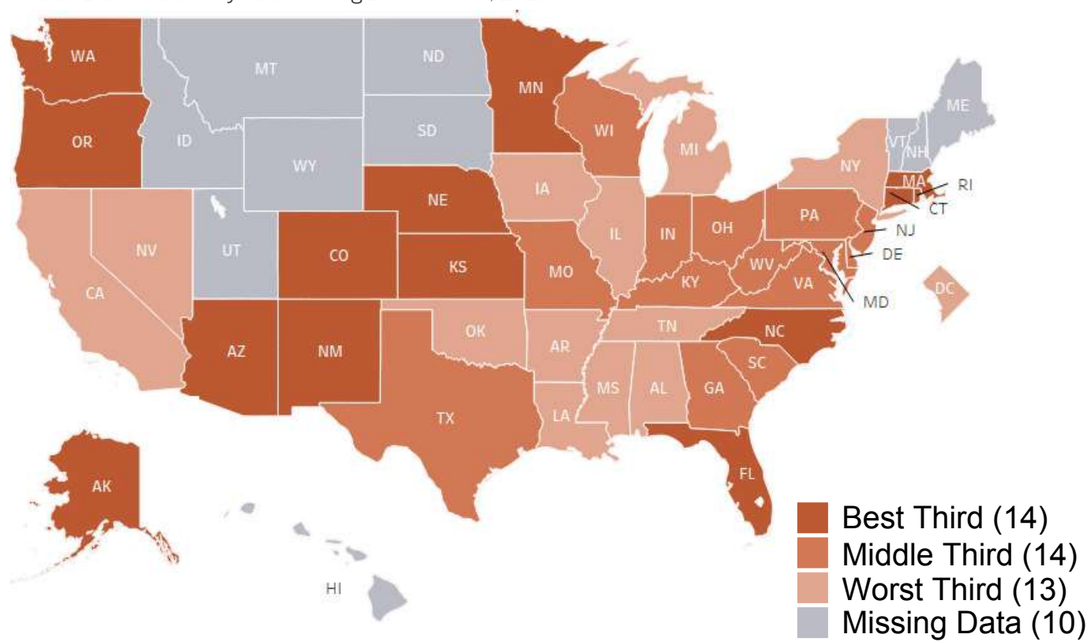
Between 1999 and 2013, heart disease mortality rates declined among all the largest racial and ethnic groups of women (Figure 5.2). Black women's heart disease mortality rate decreased from 286.7 per 100,000 women in 1999 to 176.4 per 100,000 women in 2013, representing a 38.5 percent decrease. During this time, Hispanic women experienced the largest percent decrease in heart disease mortality rate (43.7 percent), while Native American women experienced the smallest percent decrease (32.7 percent).

Cancer

Cancer is the second leading cause of death for all women, including Black women, in the United States (Centers for Disease Control and Prevention 2013). Among women, cancer incidence and death rates vary across racial and ethnic groups. While incidence rates for all cancers combined are highest among White women (416.7 per 100,000 White women compared with 391.5 per 100,000 Black women), death rates for all cancers combined are highest among Black women (161.9 per 100,000 Black women compared with 142.1 per 100,000 White women; Centers for Disease Control and Prevention 2015c). Lung cancer and breast cancer are the forms of cancer from which all women, including Black women, are most likely to die (Centers for Disease Control and Prevention 2015d).

Map 5.1

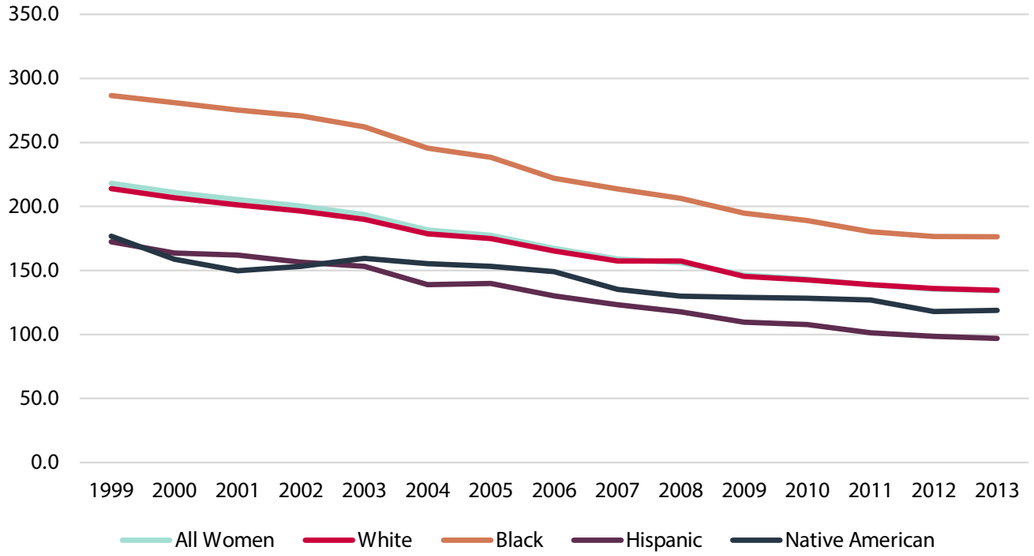
Heart Disease Mortality Rates Among Black Women, 2013



Notes: Top Third refers to those states with lowest heart disease mortality rates for Black women while Bottom Third refers to those states with highest heart disease mortality rates for Black women.
Source: IWPR compilation of 2011-2013 data from the Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (2015b).

Figure 5.2

Average Annual Heart Disease Mortality Among Women (per 100,000), by Race/Ethnicity, United States, 1999 through 2013



Notes: Data include women of all ages and are age-adjusted to the 2000 U.S. standard population. Racial groups are non-Hispanic. Data are not available for those who identify with another race or two or more races. Data are not available for Asian women.
Source: IWPR compilation of data from the Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (2015b).

Lung cancer mortality rates vary among racial and ethnic groups in the United States (Figure 5.3). Among women, White women have the highest rate at 39.9 per 100,000 women, while Hispanic women have the lowest rate at 13.3 per 100,000 women. Black women's lung cancer mortality rate is the second highest among the largest racial and ethnic groups of women, at 35.6 per 100,000 women.

Cancer mortality among Black women varies across the country (Appendix Table 5.2).

- Black women's lung cancer mortality rates are lowest in Florida, Connecticut, and Georgia (24.9, 26.7, and 27.3 per 100,000 women, respectively). [52]
- Black women's lung cancer mortality rates are highest in Wisconsin, Kentucky, and Iowa (56.5, 56.4, and 52.2 per 100,000 women, respectively).

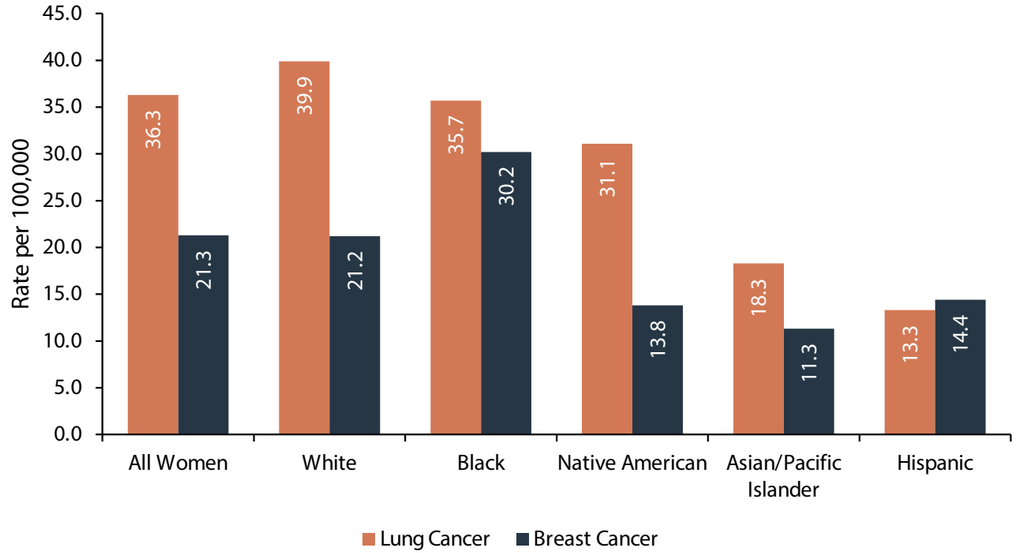
While lung cancer is the deadliest cancer for women in the United States, breast cancer is the most common form of the disease and is increasing in incidence among Black women. White women have historically had higher incidence rates than Black women (DeSantis et al. 2016). However, in 2012, incidence of breast cancer among Black women was the same as incidence among White women. Incidence of breast cancer among Black women is particularly high in the South (DeSantis et al. 2016). Black women also tend to receive breast cancer diagnoses at a younger age than White women; in 2015, the median age of diagnosis for female breast cancer was 58 years old among Black women compared with 62 years old among White women (DeSantis et al. 2016).

Black women have the highest mortality rate from breast cancer among women from all of the largest racial and ethnic groups at 30.2 per 100,000 women, which is nearly triple the rate among Asian/Pacific Islander women, who have the lowest breast cancer mortality rate (11.3 per 100,000 women; Figure 5.2). Between 2008 and 2012, breast cancer mortality rates decreased among Black women in most states, but the disparity in the mortality rate between Black women and White women across the country increased (DeSantis et al. 2016).

- Breast cancer mortality rates among Black women are lowest in Minnesota, Connecticut, and Massachusetts, at 21.2, 21.7, and 23.2 per 100,000 women, respectively (Appendix Table 5.3). [53]
- Louisiana and Oklahoma have the highest rates of breast cancer mortality among Black women, at 34.7 per 100,000 women. Missouri has the next highest breast cancer mortality rate among Black women, at 34.1 per 100,000 women.

Figure 5.3

Average Annual Lung and Breast Cancer Mortality Rates (per 100,000) Among Women by Race/Ethnicity, United States, 2013



Notes: Data include women of all ages and are age-adjusted to the 2000 U.S. standard population. Racial groups are non-Hispanic. Data are not available for those who identify with another race or two or more races.
Source: IWPR compilation of 2011-2013 data from the Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (2015b).

Diabetes

Diabetes is a medical condition in which glucose builds up in the body, in some cases leading to serious health problems (Centers for Disease Control and Prevention 2015e). In the United States overall, the incidence of diabetes has increased among women and men since the 1980s (Centers for Disease Control and Prevention 2015f). Those who have the disease are considerably more likely than others to develop heart disease or stroke, blindness, kidney disease, and other serious health conditions (Centers for Disease Control and Prevention 2011). Among women aged 18 and older, Native American women and Black women are most likely among women to have ever been told they have diabetes (15.5 percent and 15.4 percent, respectively; Figure 5.4). Asian/Pacific Islander women are least likely to have been told they have diabetes (5.8 percent).

Diabetes among Black women varies across the country (Appendix Table 5.4).

- Minnesota, Utah, and Rhode Island have the smallest percentages of Black women living with diabetes (8.4, 8.9, and 11.6 percent, respectively). [54]
- South Carolina, Alabama, and West Virginia have the largest percentages of Black women living with diabetes (17.7, 17.7, and 17.2 percent respectively).

HIV/AIDS

Although the majority of individuals in the United States with HIV infections and newly diagnosed AIDS cases are men, women—particularly women of color—are also profoundly affected by HIV/AIDS. The rate of AIDS among Black women (25.1 per 100,000 women) is higher than for women of any other racial and ethnic group (Figure 5.5). Asian/Pacific Islander women have the lowest incidence of AIDS, at 0.8 per 100,000 women.

Between 2000 and 2013, average incidence of AIDS declined among the largest racial and ethnic groups of women (Figure 5.6). Average incidence of AIDS among Black women decreased from 45.7 per 100,000 women in 2000 to 25.1 per 100,000 women in 2013, representing a 45.1 percent decline. Hispanic women experienced the largest decrease (67.2 percent), while Asian women experienced the smallest (38.5 percent).

In 2010, Black women represented nearly two-thirds of all estimated new HIV infections among women (64 percent), six in ten women living with an HIV diagnosis (60 percent), and more than six in ten deaths among women with HIV (Kaiser Family Foundation 2014). Compared with White women, newly infected Black and Hispanic women are likely to be younger (Kaiser Family Foundation 2014). These high rates of HIV/AIDS pose serious threats to Black women's overall health, including by increasing their risk of developing human papillomavirus (HPV), which can lead to cervical cancer and severe pelvic inflammatory disease (Kaiser Family Foundation 2014).

The CDC recommends that persons at high risk for HIV be screened at least annually, and that HIV screening be included in routine prenatal screening tests for pregnant women (U.S. Preventive Services Task Force 2013). [55] Advocates for Black women's health assert that HIV prevention programming and research tends to focus on men having sex with men and, as a result, messaging, medical protocols, and risk assessment tools are not designed to effectively reach Black women (McCullom 2011). They argue that, given the extreme disparities in HIV infections among Black women compared with other groups of women, more resources must be dedicated to serving Black women as a priority population.

According to IWPR analysis, in 2014, 60.9 percent of all Black women had been screened for HIV at some point in their lives, the highest proportion among the largest racial and ethnic groups of women (Figure 5.7). Asian/Pacific Islander women had the lowest rate of HIV screening, at 26.4 percent.

HIV screening among Black women varies across the country (Appendix Table 5.5).

- The District of Columbia has the highest percentage of Black women who have ever been screened for HIV, at 74.5 percent. *
- Utah is the state with the lowest rate of women, including Black women, who report having ever been screened for HIV (23.8 percent of all women and 43.0 percent of Black women). Many of the states with the lowest proportions of women who have been screened are also among the states with the lowest AIDS incidence rates (Hess et al. 2015).

Sexual and Reproductive Health

Sexually transmitted infections (STIs) are harmful to women's sexual and reproductive health. STIs can lead to long-term health problems, including cancer, infertility, and increased risk of HIV, particularly when left untreated (U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, Office on Women's Health 2012a). Women are more likely than men to be diagnosed with STIs and are more likely to have serious health problems as a result of contracting STIs, including infertility (Office on Women's Health 2015). *Among women, Black women have higher rates of many of the most common STIs than White women (U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, Office on Women's Health 2012a). [58]

One common STI among women is chlamydia. While 75 percent of women with chlamydia do not experience symptoms (New York State Department of Health 2006), the infection can lead to pelvic inflammatory disease (PID), a common cause of infertility and ectopic pregnancy (Centers for Disease Control and Prevention 2014). Research suggests that the reported rate of chlamydial infection among women and men has increased across the country over the last decade (Hess et al. 2015). Young women aged 20-24 have particularly high reported rates of chlamydia (3,651.1 cases per 100,000), followed by young women aged 15-19 (2,941.0 per 100,000; Centers for Disease Control and Prevention 2015g).

Among all racial and ethnic groups of women, Black women had the highest reported rate of chlamydia in 2014 (1,432.6 cases per 100,000 women; Centers for Disease Control and Prevention 2015d). Asian women had the lowest rate, at 151.6 per 100,000 women (Centers for Disease Control and Prevention 2015i). [59]

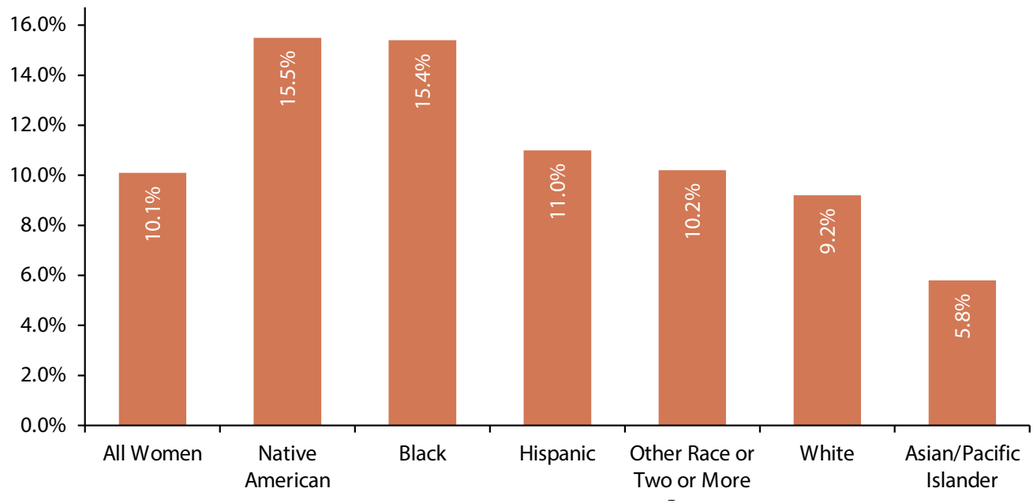
Reproductive Health

Black women's reproductive health has been threatened by racialized and gendered policies and programs throughout United States history (Black Women's Health Imperative 2015b; D. Roberts 1997), including the forced or coerced sterilization of low-income Black women through the 1960's and 70's (Amnesty International 2010; Joffe and Parker 2012; Volscho 2010) and recent restrictions on low-income women's access to contraception, safe abortions, and other family planning services, which disproportionately harm Black women (Black Women's Roundtable 2015; Samuel 2012). Advocates for Black women's reproductive health have argued that the protection of Black women's right to have a child, to not have a child, to parent in a safe and healthy environment, and to have affordable health care are key to reproductive justice for Black women (Black Women's Roundtable 2015). The reproductive rights of women affected by the criminal justice system are also particularly relevant to Black women, who are incarcerated at disproportionately high rates (Black Women's Roundtable 2015; Crenshaw 2012).

In recent years, policies affecting all women's reproductive rights in the United States have substantially changed at both the federal and state levels. At the state level, legal limitations to women's reproductive rights have increased in states across the country. On the federal level, the 2010 Patient Protection and Affordable Care Act (ACA) expansion of Medicaid of up to 138 percent of the federal poverty line has increased access to preventive women's health services

Figure 5.4

Percent of Women Who Have Ever Been Told They Have Diabetes by Race/Ethnicity, United States, 2014

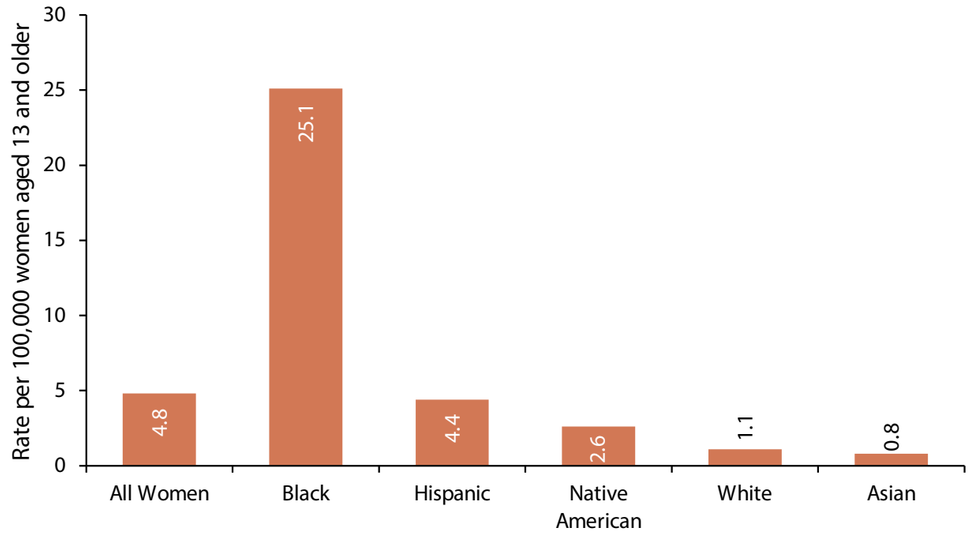


Notes: Women aged 18 and older. Racial groups are non-Hispanic.
Source: IWPR analysis of Behavior Risk Surveillance System microdata (Institute for Women's Policy Research 2015a).

*Data on HIV screening among Black women are not available for Hawaii, Idaho, Maine, Montana, New Hampshire, North Dakota, Oregon, South Dakota, Vermont, and Wyoming.

Figure 5.5

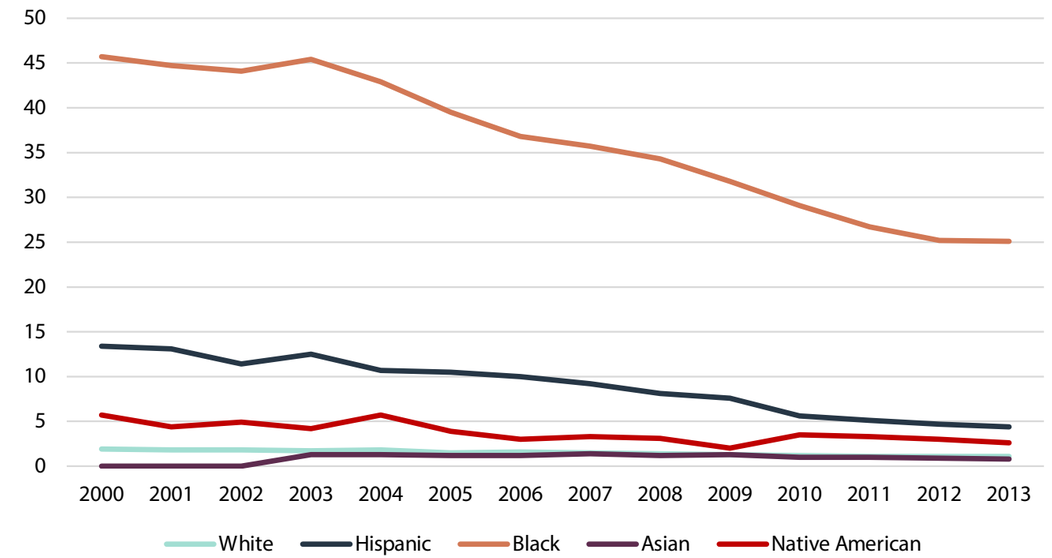
Average Annual Incidence Rate of AIDS Among Women (per 100,000) by Race/Ethnicity, United States, 2013



Notes: Data include women and adolescents aged 13 and older. Racial groups do not exclude Hispanics. Asian does not include Pacific Islanders. Data are not available for those who identify with another race or two or more races.
Source: IWPR compilation of 2013 data from the Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (2015g).
•Women are more vulnerable than men to STI's and HIV infections from heterosexual intercourse due to their exposure to seminal fluids (U.S. Department of Health and Human Services 2012)."

Figure 5.6

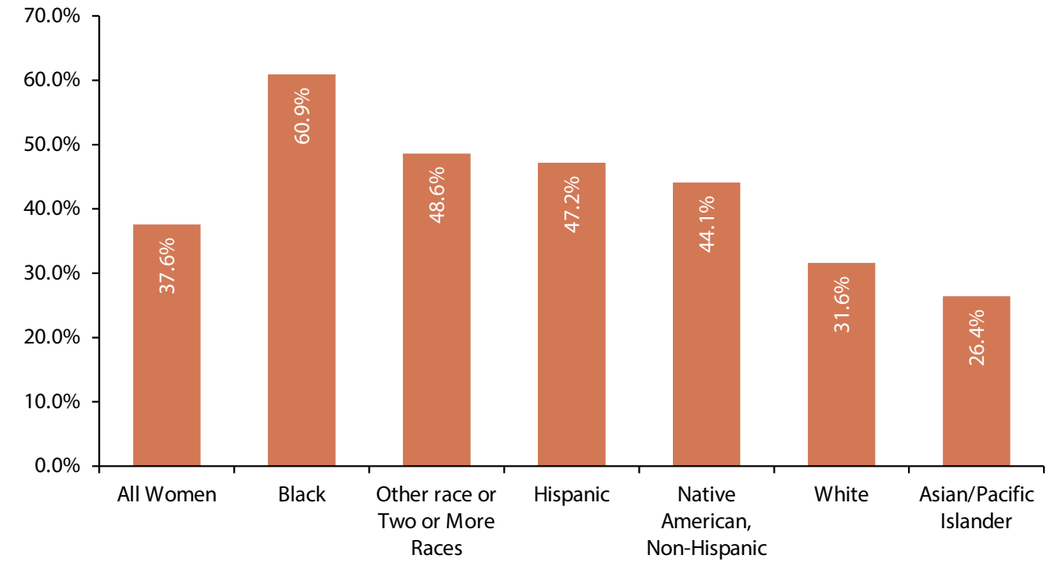
Average Annual Incidence Rate of AIDS Among Women (per 100,000) by Race/Ethnicity, United States, 2000 through 2013



Notes: Data include women and adolescents aged 13 and older. Racial groups do not exclude Hispanics. Asian does not include Pacific Islanders. Data are not available for those who identify with another race or two or more races.

Figure 5.7

Percent of Women Who Have Ever Been Tested for HIV by Race/Ethnicity, United States, 2014



Notes: Data for all women aged 18 and older. Racial groups are non-Hispanic.
Source: IWPR analysis of 2014 Behavior Risk Surveillance System microdata (Institute for Women's Policy Research 2015a).

and family planning services for millions of women, although some states have not adopted this expansion (see Chapter 4; Burke and Simmons 2014).

In addition to this overall Medicaid expansion, the ACA provides states with a new pathway to expand eligibility for family planning coverage through changes to their state Medicaid program. Before the ACA, states could expand their programs by obtaining a waiver of federal policy from the Centers for Medicare and Medicaid Services (Guttmacher Institute 2016). States interested in expanding family planning through Medicaid can now either complete the process through a waiver from the federal government (which is a temporary solution), or through an expedited option of a State Plan Amendment, which is a permanent change to the state's Medicaid program (Guttmacher Institute 2016). As of March 2016, the income ceiling among states that have expanded their programs ranged from a low of 138 percent of the federal poverty line in Louisiana and Oklahoma to a high of 306 percent of the federal poverty line in Wisconsin (Guttmacher Institute 2016).

Unfortunately, some states with large Black populations have rejected Medicaid expansion[60] and have not expanded Medicaid family planning programs (Black Women's Roundtable 2015; Duckett and Artiga 2013). While eleven of the states that have not adopted the overall Medicaid expansion have expanded family planning through Medicaid,[61] eight states have made neither change.[62] In the states that have not adapted the overall Medicaid expansion or expanded family planning through Medicaid, low-income women may need to rely on charity care, emergency departments, and other safety net programs to access care (Ranji and Salganicoff 2016).

Maternal Mortality, Natality, and Infant Health

Black women suffer from an array of pregnancy-related health care disparities in the United States (Abbyad and Robertson 2011; Alexander et al. 2008; Amnesty International 2010; Mason 2015; Nabukera et al. 2009), which lead to higher maternal mortality rates among Black women than among women of other racial and ethnic groups (Amnesty International 2010; Black Women's Roundtable 2015; Center for Reproductive Rights 2014). Black women are more than three times as likely to die due to pregnancy and childbirth as White women (42.8 deaths per 100,000 live births for Black women versus 12.5 deaths per 100,000 live births for White women; Centers for Disease Control and Prevention 2015i). Inequalities in Black women's fertility, natality, and infant health can be partly attributed to unequal access to quality health care and experiences of racial discrimination within the health care system (Amnesty International 2010; Center for Reproductive Rights 2014).

Disparities in access to prenatal care harm Black women's health as well as the health of their children. Women who do not get prenatal care are three times more likely to have a low birth weight baby and five times more likely to have babies that die during infancy (U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, Office on Women's Health 2012b). In the United States in 2011, 80.9 percent of Black women began receiving prenatal care in the first trimester of pregnancy (Table 5.1; Centers for Disease Control and Prevention 2012). White women had the highest rate of receiving prenatal care (85.7 percent), while women of other or unknown races had the lowest rate (80.4 percent). However, Black women did experience a seven percentage-point gain in the percentage of women beginning prenatal care in the first trimester of pregnancy between 2001 and 2011 (Hess et al. 2015).[63]

Among White, Hispanic, and Black women, Black women are most likely to have low birth-weight babies (13.1 percent; Table 5.1; Martin et al. 2015a).[64] There is evidence that racial disparities in birth outcomes between Black women and White women, including low birth weight births, persist across differences such as socioeconomic status, education level, employment status, and health insurance status (Jackson, Rowley, and Owens 2012). Research suggests that stress related to experiences such as racial discrimination contributes to these disparities in outcomes (Jackson, Rowley, and Owens 2012; Rosenthal and Lobel 2011).

The prevalence of having babies with low birth weight among Black women varies across the country (Appendix Table 5.6).

- The percentage of babies with low birth weight born to all women and to Black women is lowest in Alaska (6.5 percent for Black women).[65] South Dakota, Maine, Utah, and Oregon are also among the five states with the smallest proportions of low birth-weight babies born to Black mothers.
- Mississippi has the largest proportion of babies born with low birth weight among Black women as well as all women (16.1 percent and 11.5 percent, respectively). The states with the next largest proportions of babies born with low birth weight to Black women are Louisiana, West Virginia, Colorado, and Alabama.

Infant mortality is another measure of women's reproductive health that varies across racial and ethnic groups. Risk factors contributing to infant mortality include inadequate prenatal care and smoking, as well as social determinants of health such as stress and access to social support (Jackson 2007; National Birth Equity Collaborative 2016). Between 2001 and 2012, rates of infant mortality decreased among women across all racial and ethnic groups, and especially among Black women; during this time, Black women's infant mortality rate decreased by 2.3 percentage points, while White women's infant mortality rate decreased by 0.7 percentage points (Caiazza et al. 2004; Hess et al. 2015). Nevertheless in 2013, Black women had the highest rate of

infant mortality (11.3 per 1,000 live births) among the largest racial and ethnic groups (Figure 5.8). Asian/Pacific Islander women had the lowest rate (4.2 per 1,000 live births).

Infant mortality rates among Black women also vary across the country (Map 5.2; Appendix Table 5.7):

- Massachusetts has the lowest infant mortality rate among Black women in the country (6.9 per 1,000 live births), followed by Oregon (8.3 per 1,000 live births; Appendix Table 5.7). [67]
- Kansas and Wisconsin have the highest rates of infant mortality among Black women (14.2 and 14.0 per 1,000 live births, respectively).

Mental Health

Women have higher incidences than men of certain mental health conditions, including anxiety, depression, and eating disorders (Centers for Disease Control and Prevention 2010; Eaton et al. 2012). Multiple factors may contribute to women's greater likelihood of experiencing such conditions, including higher rates of poverty (Heflin and Iceland 2009), greater responsibility in caring for disabled or ill family members (Cannuscio et al. 2002), and trauma from gender-based violence (Rees et al. 2011). In addition, racism negatively influences minorities' mental health (Paradies et al. 2015). Black men and women experience depression at higher rates than White men and women (Centers for Disease Control and Prevention 2010), have less access to mental health services (Chow, Jaffee, and Snowden 2003), and are less likely to receive the treatment they need from health care providers (Melfi et al. 2000).

Adult Black women in the United States, when asked to think about their mental health—including stress, depression, and problems with emotions—report having an average of 4.7 days per month on which their mental health is not good (Figure 5.9). Native American women report having, on average, the largest number of days per month of poor mental health among women (6.3 days), and Asian/Pacific Islander women report having the fewest (2.8 days).

- Poor mental health among Black women also varies across the country (Appendix Table 5.8).
- Black women's self-reported number of days per month of poor mental health is lowest in Alaska at 3.4 days per month, followed by Delaware and Rhode Island (3.8 days each). [68]
- Wisconsin and Nevada have the highest average number of days per month of poor mental health among Black women at 6.1 days each.

Suicide is another public health problem related to mental health that poses a serious concern for many communities. In 2013, men accounted for 77.9 percent of all suicides (Centers for Disease Control and Prevention 2015k), with Native American and White men especially likely to commit suicide (Drapeau and McIntosh 2015). Women are much less likely than men to commit suicide but more likely to have suicidal thoughts (Crosby et al. 2011) and to attempt suicide (Drapeau and McIntosh 2015). This pattern persists across all racial and ethnic groups (American Association of Suicidology 2014).

The national suicide rate for all women is 5.1 per 100,000 women; Black women have the lowest suicide rate among all women, at 2.1 per 100,000 women. In contrast, Native American women have the highest suicide rate at 7.7 per 100,000.

Suicide mortality among Black women also varies across the country (Appendix Table 5.9).

- Among Black women, South Carolina and Tennessee had the lowest suicide mortality rates between 2012 and 2014 at 1.2 and 1.4 per 100,000 women, respectively. [69]
- Washington had the highest suicide mortality rate among Black women at 6.3 per 100,000 women, which was substantially higher than Colorado, the state with second worst suicide mortality rate (4.3 per 100,000 women).

Table 5.1

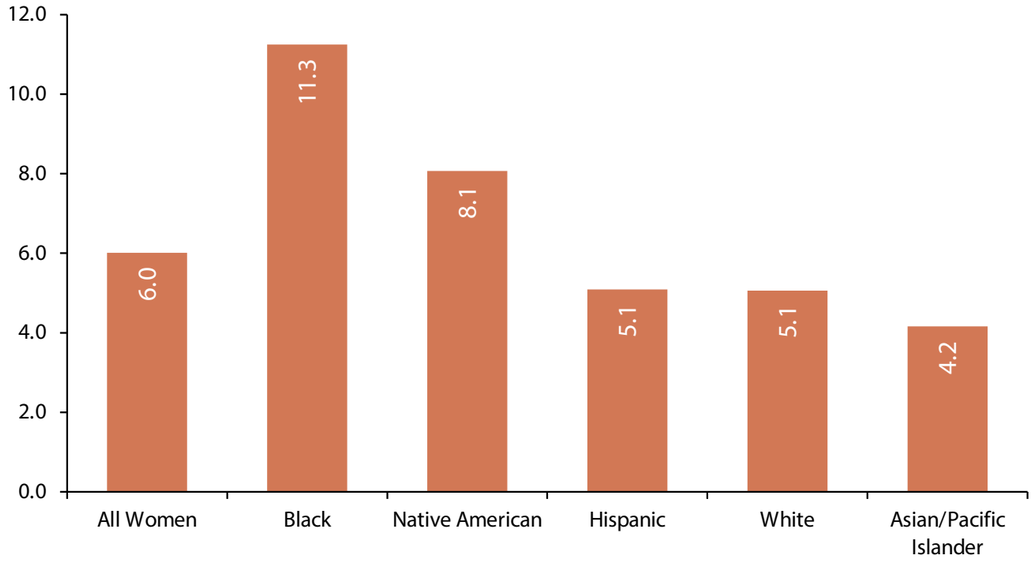
Prenatal Care and Low Birth Weight by Race/Ethnicity,

Percent of Mothers Beginning Prenatal Care in the First Trimester of Pregnancy, 2012[a]	
All Women	**83.6%**
White	85.7%
Black	80.9%
Hispanic	82.6%
Native American	81.0%
Asian/Pacific Islander	83.9%
Multiracial	81.6%
All Other Races/Unknown	80.4%
Percent of Low Birth-Weight Babies (less than 5 lbs. 8 oz), 2013[b]	
All Women	**8.0%**
White	7.0%
Hispanic	7.1%
Black	13.1%

Notes: Whites and Blacks are non-Hispanic, while other racial groups include Hispanics.
Source: [a](2012); [b](Martin et al. 2015a).

Figure 5.8

Infant Mortality Rate[66] by Race/Ethnicity, United States, 2013



Notes: Racial categories are non-Hispanic.
Source: IWPR compilation of 2011-2013 data from Mathews, MacDorman, and Thoma (2015).

Limitations on Women's Activities

IWPR analysis indicates that Black women aged 18 and older who participated in the Centers for Disease Control and Prevention's 2013 Behavioral Risk Factor Surveillance System survey report that their activities were limited by their physical or mental health status for an average of 5.4 days in the month preceding the survey (Figure 5.10). Native American women have the highest average number of days of limited activities (7.0 days), while Asian/Pacific Islander women have the lowest (3.4 days).

The extent to which Black women's activities are limited by their mental or physical health status varies across the country (Map 5.3; Appendix Table 5.10).

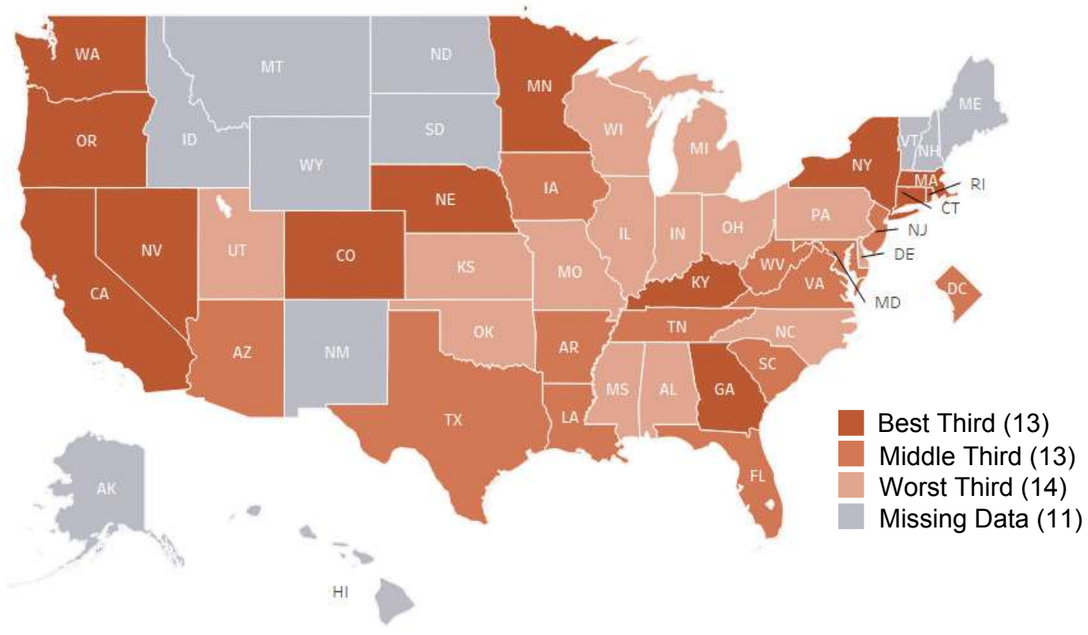
- Black women in West Virginia, New Jersey, and Delaware report having the fewest days per month during which their activities were limited at 3.9, 4.3, and 4.4 days, respectively.[70]
- Black women in California, Wisconsin, and Oklahoma report having the most days per month on which their activities were limited at 7.8, 7.0, and 6.6 days.

Disabled Women

One in seven Black women aged 21-64 in the United States has a disability (14.4%). Black women with a disability earn less than Black women without a disability ($30,100 in median annual earnings for full-time year-round workers, compared with $34,000; Institute for Women's Policy Research 2015a) and are more likely to live in poverty than their counterparts without disabilities (34.7 percent compared with 22.3 percent). Among women aged 21-64, Native American women are the one racial group more likely to have a disability than Black women (18.5 percent), while Asian and Pacific Islander women are least likely to have a disability (4.6 percent).

Map 5.2

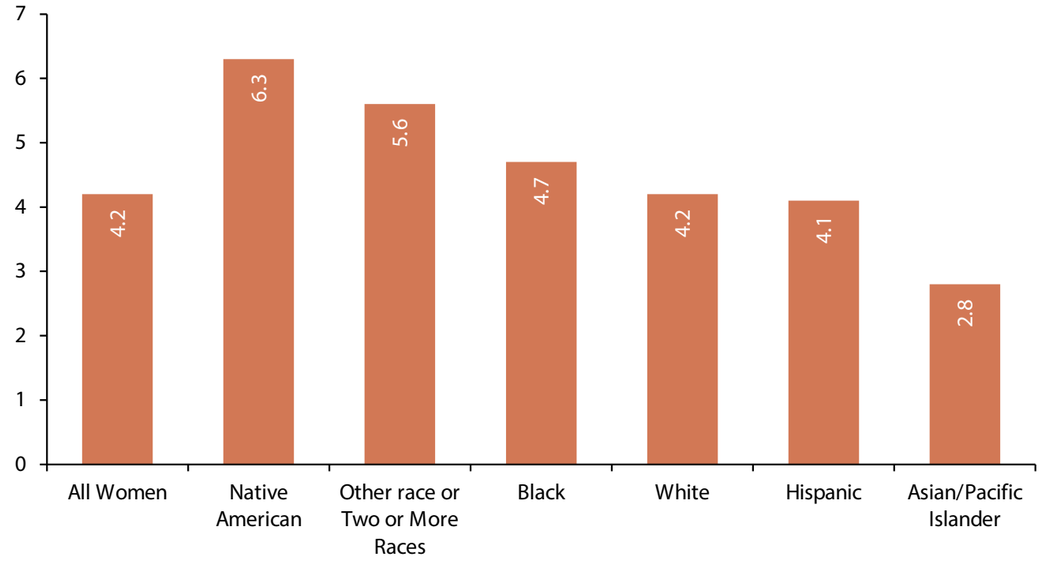
Infant Mortality Among Black Women, 2013



Source: IWPR compilation of 2011-2013 data from Mathews, MacDorman, and Thoma (2015).

Figure 5.9

Average Number of Days per Month of Poor Mental Health Among Women by Race/Ethnicity, United States, 2014



Notes: Women aged 18 and older. Racial groups are non-Hispanic. N/A= not available.
Source: IWPR analysis of 2014 Behavior Risk Surveillance System microdata (Institute for Women's Policy Research 2015a).

Obesity and Healthy Weight

Being overweight or obese is a growing health concern in the United States. Nationally, almost three-quarters of Black women aged 18 and older are overweight or obese,[71] making Black women the racial/ethnic group most likely to be overweight or obese among women (73.9 percent; Figure 5.11). Asian/Pacific Islander women are least likely to be overweight or obese, at 28.1 percent. Obesity is a threat to Black women's long-term health, since being overweight or obese can increase the risk of other health issues such as diabetes, cancer, pregnancy complications, and other leading causes of preventable death (Centers for Disease Control and Prevention 2015l; Bethea et al. 2014; Wise, Palmer, and Rosenberg 2013). Evidence suggests that the incidence of obesity among Black women is influenced by Black women's more limited access to affordable, healthy food (DiSantis et al. 2014; Papan and Clow 2015; Thomsen et al. 2015), dietary choices (Boggs et al. 2013), lower levels of engagement in regular physical activity (Rosenberg et al. 2013), and experiences of racism (Cozier et al. 2014).

Rates of being overweight or obese among Black women also vary across the country (Appendix Table 5.11).

- Utah has the smallest proportion of Black women who are overweight or obese, at 56.2 percent. Colorado and Rhode Island have the second and third smallest proportions at 63.6 percent and 68.0 percent, respectively.
- Four out of five Black women are overweight or obese in Wisconsin (80.6 percent) and Iowa (80.3 percent), the states with the highest proportions.

FOCUS ON: FOOD INSECURITY

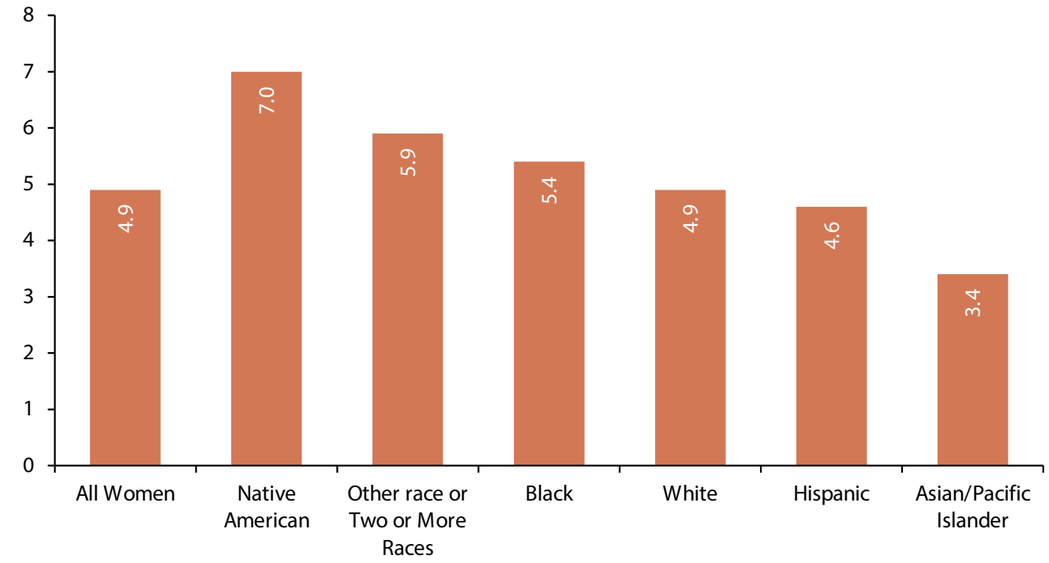
Food insecurity is a pressing health concern for Black women and families in the United States.

According to the USDA, households are food insecure if they do not have access to enough food for an active, healthy life for all household members (Coleman-Jensen et al. 2015). During 2014, more than one in four Black households experienced food insecurity at least once during the year (26.1 percent), compared with one in seven of all U.S. households (14.0 percent). Households headed by single women or single men and households with children experienced higher rates of food insecurity than the national average. Food insecurity is also strongly associated with households' economic status; 39.5 percent of households with annual incomes below the federal poverty line were food insecure in 2014, compared with 6.3 percent of those with incomes above 185 percent of the poverty line (Coleman-Jensen et al. 2015).

Food insecurity is also influenced by families' proximity to sources of healthy food. One survey of nine counties in the South found that 24 to 30 percent of residents reported food insecurity and between 28 and 60 percent of low-income residents lived more than one mile from the nearest supermarket or grocery store (Mason 2015). Low-income families who live far from grocery stores, especially those living in rural areas without access to transportation, are often forced to purchase food from convenience stores and fast-food restaurants, which may be less healthy and more expensive than food from grocery stores (Mason 2015; Thomsen et al. 2015).

Figure 5.10

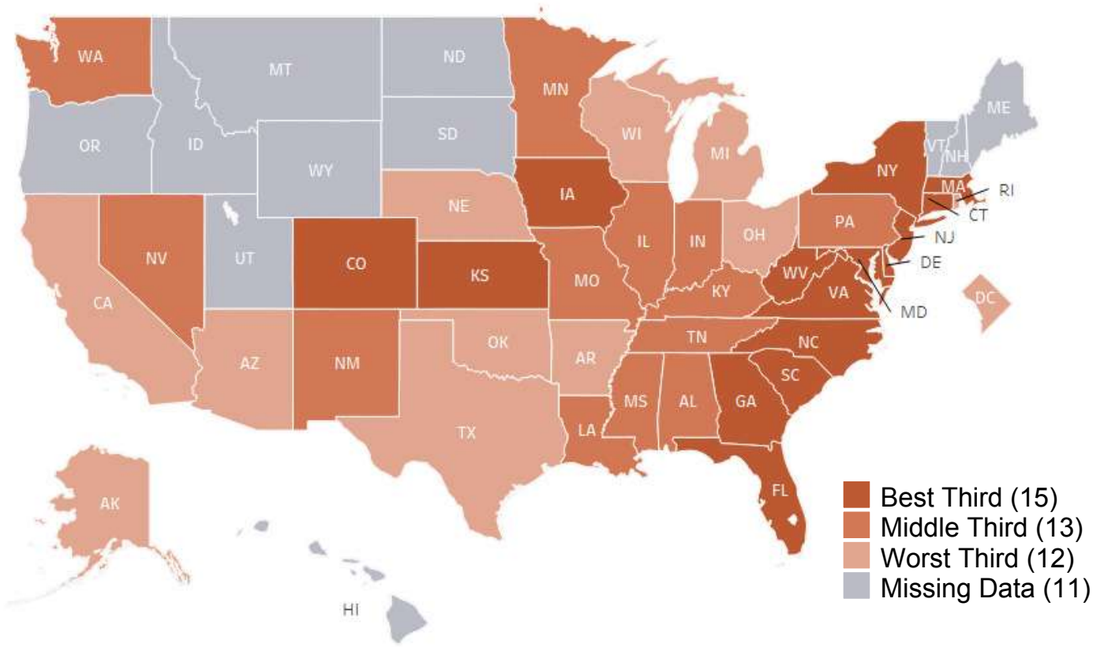
Average Number of Days That Women's Poor Mental or Physical Health Limited Activities by Race/Ethnicity, United States, 2014



Notes: Women aged 18 and older. Racial groups are non-Hispanic.
Source: IWPR analysis of 2014 Behavior Risk Surveillance System microdata (Institute for Women's Policy Research 2015a).

Map 5.3

Average Number of Days per Month that Black Women's Poor Mental or Physical Health Limited Activities, 2014



Source: IWPR analysis of 2012-2014 Behavior Risk Surveillance System microdata (Institute for Women's Policy Research 2015a).

Conclusion

Black women's health status has improved in some areas in recent years, yet Black women continue to experience a range of health inequities.

Heart disease and cancer mortality rates have declined among Black women, as they have among women overall, yet Black women have comparatively high rates of mortality from these diseases. Similarly, the average incidence of AIDS has improved for Black women over time, but is still substantially higher among Black women than women from other racial and ethnic groups. While the implementation of the Affordable Care Act has the potential to greatly improve the landscape of health care for Black women, the decision of nineteen states—many of which have high Black populations—not to adopt Medicaid expansion has left many low-income Black women unable to obtain the health care services they need.

In the eight states that have chosen not to expand Medicaid and also do not have Medicaid family planning programs, low-income Black women have very few options for accessing critical reproductive health services. States must expand Medicaid programs by expanding eligibility for all Medicaid services to those with incomes up to 138 percent of the poverty line and expanding Medicaid family planning services to women who need assistance but are otherwise ineligible, to help ensure that all Black women have access to services that are vital to their health and well-being. In addition, increased investments in research and preventive care for Black women can help address disparities in health outcomes and ensure that Black women receive appropriate, quality care.

NOTES

51. Information on Black women's heart disease mortality is not available for 10 states due to small sample sizes: Hawaii, Idaho, Maine, Montana, New Hampshire, North Dakota, South Dakota, Utah, Vermont, and Wyoming.

52.Data on Black women's lung cancer mortality rates are not available for Alaska, Hawaii, Idaho, Maine, Montana, New Hampshire, New Mexico, North Dakota, Rhode Island, South Dakota, Utah, Vermont, and Wyoming.

53. Data on Black women's breast cancer mortality are not available for 14 states due to small sample sizes: Alaska, Hawaii, Idaho, Iowa, Maine, Montana, New Hampshire, New Mexico, North Dakota, Rhode Island, South Dakota, Utah, Vermont, and Wyoming.

54. Information on the percentage of Black women that report they have been told they have diabetes is not available for 10 states: Hawaii, Idaho, Maine, Montana, New Hampshire, North Dakota, Oregon, South Dakota, Vermont, and Wyoming.

55. Those considered to be at high risk of HIV by the U.S. Preventive Services Task Force (USPSTF) are men who have sex with men, active injection drug users, and those who have acquired or requested testing for other sexually transmitted infections (U.S. Preventive Services Task Force 2013).

56. Data on HIV screening among Black women are not available for Hawaii, Idaho, Maine, Montana, New Hampshire, North Dakota, Oregon, South Dakota, Vermont, and Wyoming.

57. Women are more vulnerable than men to STI's and HIV infections from heterosexual intercourse due to their exposure to seminal fluids (U.S. Department of Health and Human Services 2012).

58. Specifically chlamydia, gonorrhea, and syphilis.

59.Asians do not include Pacific Islanders.

60. Among the 10 states where Black women compose the largest proportions of state populations, seven states have not adopted the Medicaid expansion (Mississippi, Georgia, South Carolina, Alabama, North Carolina, Virginia, and Tennessee).

61. Alabama, Florida, Georgia, Mississippi, Missouri, North Carolina, Oklahoma, South Carolina, Virginia, Wisconsin, and Wyoming have expanded family planning through Medicaid, but have not adopted the overall Medicaid expansion (Ranji and Salganicoff 2016).

62. Idaho, Utah, South Dakota, Nebraska, Kansas, Texas, and Tennassee have neither adopted the overall Medicaid expansion nor expanded family planning through Medicaid (Ranji and Salganicoff 2016).

63. The percentage of Native American women and Hispanic women receiving early prenatal care also increased during this period, while the percentage of Asian/Pacific Islander women receiving prenatal care stayed the same and the percentage of White women receiving early prenatal care declined two percentage points (Hess et al. 2015).

64. Low birth weight is defined as less than five pounds, eight ounces.

65. Data on Black women's low birth-weight babies are not available for four states: Idaho, Montana, Vermont, and Wyoming.

66. Deaths of infants under age one per 1,000 live births.

67. Data on Black women's infant mortality are not available for eleven states: Alaska, Hawaii, Idaho, Maine, Montana, New Hampshire, New Mexico, North Dakota, South Dakota, Vermont, and Wyoming.

68. Data on poor mental health days per month among Black women are not available in eleven states: Hawaii, Idaho, Maine, Montana, New Hampshire, North Dakota, Oregon, South Dakota, Utah, Vermont, and Wyoming.

69. Data on suicide mortality rates among Black women are not available for twenty states: Alaska, Delaware, Hawaii, Idaho, Iowa, Kansas, Maine, Montana, Nebraska, New Hampshire, New Mexico, North Dakota, Oregon, Rhode Island, South Dakota, Utah, Vermont, West Virginia, Wisconsin, and Wyoming.

70. Data on number of days of limited activities among Black women are not available for eleven states: Hawaii, Idaho, Maine, Montana, New Hampshire, North Dakota, Oregon, South Dakota, Utah, Vermont, and Wyoming.

71. To be overweight or obese is classified as having a body mass index of 25 or greater.

72.Data on the proportion of Black women who are overweight or obese are not available for ten states: Hawaii, Idaho, Maine, Montana, New Hampshire, North Dakota, Oregon, South Dakota, Vermont, and Wyoming.

APPENDIX FIVE

HEALTH & WELL-BEING TABLES

Appendix Table 5.1. Average Annual Heart Disease Mortality Rate Among Women (per 100,000) by Race/Ethnicity and State, 2013

	All Women	White	Hispanic	Black	Asian/ Pacific Islander	Native American
Alabama	184.3	180.2	73.6	208.5	40.5	54.4
Alaska	100.9	100.9	N/A	70.3	61.4	136.9
Arizona	112.6	114.8	97.6	139.6	61.7	103.8
Arkansas	173.6	170.0	58.8	215.1	97.2	N/A
California	122.1	132.1	100.2	187.2	76.5	129.6
Colorado	102.3	103.1	88.0	136.7	70.3	80.3
Connecticut	121.9	121.5	87.5	141.6	65.6	N/A
Delaware	137.5	136.2	64.6	156.5	N/A	N/A
District of Columbia	166.8	85.9	84.2	211.9	N/A	N/A
Florida	117.6	117.5	101.1	150.8	58.1	68.0
Georgia	144.2	139.9	44.2	170.3	63.2	N/A
Hawaii	98.2	104.3	131.1	N/A	95.2	N/A
Idaho	116.7	118.2	71.7	N/A	99.3	118.4
Illinois	136.9	133.8	79.8	186.1	70.5	72.1
Indiana	147.7	147.3	86.5	174.4	53.3	N/A
Iowa	132.5	132.7	44.2	191.5	64.7	N/A
Kansas	124.5	124.7	75.3	154.3	71.8	135.9
Kentucky	162.8	163.4	56.2	179.0	71.0	N/A
Louisiana	170.8	164.3	63.5	198.8	64.2	88.6
Maine	116.7	116.3	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
Maryland	139.0	135.3	55.0	165.3	66.1	N/A
Massachusetts	110.2	112.8	64.0	110.3	47.9	122.4
Michigan	160.4	152.3	110.7	226.0	67.5	167.5
Minnesota	89.3	88.7	46.6	99.9	59.3	171.2
Mississippi	191.7	180.5	45.2	221.1	89.8	131.2
Missouri	155.8	154.6	74.5	181.8	86.5	78.6
Montana	116.6	114.4	N/A	N/A	N/A	179.6
Nebraska	117.1	117.4	45.9	153.2	N/A	173.6
Nevada	147.0	158.2	87.1	210.7	77.9	95.6
New Hampshire	117.4	118.7	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
New Jersey	137.4	140.7	87.9	168.0	68.0	N/A
New Mexico	118.2	126.5	109.1	126.8	77.2	73.9
New York	155.0	154.8	119.6	187.4	83.7	75.0
North Carolina	131.2	128.3	42.2	151.0	56.3	168.0
North Dakota	116.1	113.6	N/A	N/A	N/A	184.3
Ohio	150.7	148.7	78.4	177.1	70.9	54.6
Oklahoma	182.7	182.6	86.8	224.9	99.7	196.4
Oregon	102.6	104.9	54.1	105.7	57.2	102.7
Pennsylvania	143.6	140.8	84.1	171.3	70.0	64.0
Rhode Island	131.3	133.3	78.7	111.0	94.6	N/A
South Carolina	140.7	131.5	66.2	173.7	80.2	106.1
South Dakota	116.0	115.1	N/A	N/A	N/A	139.4
Tennessee	162.8	161.0	49.9	187.4	78.0	N/A
Texas	136.9	141.2	109.2	181.7	75.6	52.0
Utah	121.8	124.9	71.9	N/A	89.3	86.9
Vermont	116.5	117.1	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
Virginia	128.3	126.3	65.2	157.7	58.4	N/A
Washington	108.3	111.4	66.9	121.7	66.0	146.4
West Virginia	167.1	168.6	N/A	163.8	N/A	N/A
Wisconsin	125.0	122.9	59.6	177.1	83.9	198.7
Wyoming	116.0	118.3	74.4	N/A	N/A	N/A
United States	**136.1**	**136.4**	**98.8**	**177.7**	**74.9**	**121.1**

Notes: Data include women of all ages and are age-adjusted to the 2000 U.S. standard population. Racial groups are non-Hispanic. Data are not available for those who identify with another race or two or more races. N/A= not available.
Source: IWPR compilation of 2011-2013 data from the Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (2015a).

Appendix Table 5.2. Average Annual Lung Cancer Mortality Rate Among Women (per 100,000) by Race/Ethnicity and State, 2013

	All Women	White	Hispanic	Black	Asian/ Pacific Islander	Native American
Alabama	39.3	42.5	N/A	30.1	N/A	N/A
Alaska	42.8	43.9	N/A	N/A	34.0	53.1
Arizona	30.7	34.6	14.4	31.2	15.4	11.3
Arkansas	44.3	46.4	N/A	35.6	N/A	N/A
California	28.5	35.9	12.5	36.9	18.1	29.0
Colorado	27.5	28.6	19.9	31.9	18.0	N/A
Connecticut	33.5	36.0	13.2	26.7	N/A	N/A
Delaware	42.0	43.6	N/A	39.1	N/A	N/A
District of Columbia	34.2	22.8	N/A	41.7	N/A	N/A
Florida	35.7	42.6	14.3	24.9	15.5	N/A
Georgia	35.7	40.4	7.6	27.3	15.8	N/A
Hawaii	25.1	28.4	24.3	N/A	24.0	N/A
Idaho	31.5	32.6	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
Illinois	39.2	42.0	11.6	44.2	15.8	N/A
Indiana	42.2	42.8	10.1	48.3	N/A	N/A
Iowa	36.5	36.8	N/A	52.2	N/A	N/A
Kansas	38.4	38.8	17.9	50.0	N/A	73.3
Kentucky	54.4	55.0	N/A	56.4	N/A	N/A
Louisiana	41.7	44.3	11.0	38.1	30.6	N/A
Maine	44.0	44.0	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
Maryland	36.1	39.2	9.3	34.6	17.0	N/A
Massachusetts	37.9	40.4	12.3	31.9	16.4	N/A
Michigan	41.2	41.6	16.2	43.6	19.9	61.6
Minnesota	33.4	33.8	N/A	27.6	20.0	60.3
Mississippi	41.2	44.5	N/A	34.9	N/A	N/A
Missouri	44.4	45.2	15.8	43.9	18.4	N/A
Montana	36.4	35.7	N/A	N/A	N/A	55.6
Nebraska	34.8	35.2	N/A	46.8	N/A	N/A
Nevada	41.6	48.9	15.7	38.2	17.9	N/A
New Hampshire	41.1	42.1	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
New Jersey	33.6	38.2	12.0	33.3	13.8	N/A
New Mexico	26.2	32.2	20.0	N/A	N/A	N/A
New York	34.2	39.4	14.5	29.8	16.5	23.0
North Carolina	37.6	40.0	6.8	32.4	20.4	33.8
North Dakota	31.5	31.4	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
Ohio	43.6	44.1	8.6	46.7	18.2	N/A
Oklahoma	45.7	47.1	15.4	43.2	35.9	46.6
Oregon	39.3	40.7	15.2	43.8	22.8	33.4
Pennsylvania	37.4	37.0	15.8	48.5	17.5	N/A
Rhode Island	41.2	43.7	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
South Carolina	38.1	41.2	N/A	30.2	N/A	N/A
South Dakota	36.5	36.0	N/A	N/A	N/A	69.2
Tennessee	43.4	44.7	N/A	41.1	25.5	N/A
Texas	31.8	38.8	12.8	36.3	18.5	N/A
Utah	15.6	15.8	14.5	N/A	N/A	N/A
Vermont	39.9	40.3	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
Virginia	36.5	38.8	11.5	35.3	15.1	N/A
Washington	36.1	38.3	14.2	31.3	22.8	35.1
West Virginia	46.7	47.6	N/A	30.8	N/A	N/A
Wisconsin	37.8	37.3	12.3	56.5	24.9	68.7
Wyoming	31.4	32.1	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
United States	**36.3**	**39.9**	**13.3**	**35.7**	**18.3**	**31.1**

Notes: Data include women of all ages and are age-adjusted to the 2000 U.S. standard population. Racial groups are non-Hispanic. Data are not available for those who identify with another race or two or more races. N/A= not available.
Source: IWPR compilation of 2011-2013 data from the Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (2015b).

Appendix Table 5.3. Average Annual Breast Cancer Mortality Rate Among Women (per 100,000) by Race/Ethnicity and State, 2013

	All Women	White	Hispanic	Black	Asian/ Pacific Islander	Native American
Alabama	21.9	20.0	N/A	28.9	N/A	N/A
Alaska	18.9	19.1	N/A	N/A	N/A	22.7
Arizona	19.7	20.7	15.5	25.7	13.7	10.3
Arkansas	21.9	21.2	N/A	29.0	N/A	N/A
California	20.6	23.7	14.9	32.1	12.7	16.2
Colorado	19.4	19.7	16.9	26.0	10.3	N/A
Connecticut	19.2	19.7	10.1	21.7	N/A	N/A
Delaware	22.1	21.2	N/A	28.0	N/A	N/A
District of Columbia	29.1	26.1	N/A	33.4	N/A	N/A
Florida	20.3	20.7	15.3	26.3	10.4	N/A
Georgia	22.2	20.2	11.9	29.2	9.6	N/A
Hawaii	14.8	17.4	N/A	N/A	14.1	N/A
Idaho	20.1	21.0	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
Illinois	22.8	22.8	10.6	32.6	11.5	N/A
Indiana	22.0	21.5	15.0	32.6	N/A	N/A
Iowa	19.6	19.8	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
Kansas	20.5	20.3	11.6	30.5	N/A	N/A
Kentucky	22.4	22.2	N/A	28.1	N/A	N/A
Louisiana	24.3	21.0	9.8	34.7	N/A	N/A
Maine	17.7	17.7	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
Maryland	22.5	21.3	11.9	28.4	10.2	N/A
Massachusetts	19.1	19.7	11.9	23.2	7.2	N/A
Michigan	22.1	21.2	17.0	30.6	10.1	N/A
Minnesota	19.1	19.5	N/A	21.2	N/A	N/A
Mississippi	23.9	19.7	N/A	32.7	N/A	N/A
Missouri	22.6	21.7	N/A	34.1	14.2	N/A
Montana	20.4	20.5	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
Nebraska	20.2	20.4	N/A	24.5	N/A	N/A
Nevada	22.7	25.2	11.2	28.3	15.0	N/A
New Hampshire	19.7	20.3	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
New Jersey	23.4	24.0	13.2	33.3	12.2	N/A
New Mexico	18.7	20.8	16.8	N/A	N/A	11.3
New York	21.0	21.1	15.1	27.7	9.0	N/A
North Carolina	21.4	19.8	9.9	29.3	11.7	17.1
North Dakota	17.4	17.3	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
Ohio	23.2	22.6	9.2	31.4	10.9	N/A
Oklahoma	23.4	23.3	12.7	34.7	N/A	19.9
Oregon	20.2	20.9	11.1	28.1	10.2	N/A
Pennsylvania	22.5	21.8	12.4	31.6	11.8	N/A
Rhode Island	19.0	19.5	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
South Carolina	22.7	20.6	N/A	30.2	N/A	N/A
South Dakota	21.1	21.4	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
Tennessee	22.3	21.0	N/A	32.6	N/A	N/A
Texas	20.5	20.8	15.6	32.2	11.1	N/A
Utah	20.4	21.3	11.8	N/A	N/A	N/A
Vermont	18.8	18.7	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
Virginia	21.7	20.7	10.7	30.5	9.5	N/A
Washington	19.7	20.8	8.7	25.6	10.4	20.3
West Virginia	22.7	22.7	N/A	29.5	N/A	N/A
Wisconsin	20.8	20.5	9.2	33.4	N/A	N/A
Wyoming	19.4	20.6	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
United States	**21.3**	**21.2**	**14.4**	**30.2**	**11.3**	**13.8**

Notes: Data include women of all ages and are age-adjusted to the 2000 U.S. standard population. Racial groups are non-Hispanic. Data are not available for those who identify with another race or two or more races. N/A= not available.
Source: IWPR compilation of 2011-2013 data from the Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (2015b).

Appendix Table 5.4. Incidence of Women Ever Having Been Told They Have Diabetes by Race/Ethnicity and State, 2014

	All Women	White	Hispanic	Black	Asian/Pacific Islander	Native American	Other Race or Two or More Races
Alabama	13.0%	11.6%	8.1%	17.7%	N/A	14.5%	7.3%
Alaska	7.5%	7.5%	8.6%	16.3%	6.0%	5.4%	7.1%
Arizona	9.9%	9.5%	9.9%	11.8%	2.3%	17.8%	9.5%
Arkansas	11.6%	11.1%	5.2%	15.5%	N/A	20.9%	14.8%
California	9.7%	7.7%	11.7%	16.9%	7.8%	12.5%	10.1%
Colorado	6.5%	5.4%	9.7%	11.8%	5.4%	7.2%	9.4%
Connecticut	8.1%	7.2%	9.4%	14.9%	2.9%	N/A	7.8%
Delaware	10.2%	9.4%	5.0%	15.3%	4.5%	9.6%	9.3%
District of Columbia	8.6%	2.0%	6.4%	14.6%	1.9%	N/A	7.8%
Florida	10.7%	9.9%	10.5%	14.8%	6.4%	10.7%	9.4%
Georgia	11.1%	10.2%	7.8%	14.0%	2.8%	21.7%	8.1%
Hawaii	8.5%	4.3%	7.9%	N/A	10.8%	N/A	9.1%
Idaho	7.5%	7.4%	8.1%	N/A	N/A	12.2%	4.2%
Illinois	9.5%	8.7%	8.9%	15.1%	4.2%	N/A	6.5%
Indiana	10.4%	10.2%	7.1%	14.2%	8.0%	16.7%	10.3%
Iowa	9.0%	9.0%	4.6%	11.7%	3.9%	N/A	18.7%
Kansas	9.6%	9.3%	8.3%	15.2%	3.7%	22.4%	8.2%
Kentucky	11.4%	11.5%	6.4%	11.7%	N/A	8.0%	14.9%
Louisiana	12.2%	10.3%	6.4%	16.6%	N/A	12.3%	9.2%
Maine	9.0%	8.9%	9.1%	N/A	N/A	16.5%	16.2%
Maryland	10.0%	8.6%	7.1%	13.9%	6.6%	10.0%	13.8%
Massachusetts	8.0%	7.3%	12.0%	12.5%	4.3%	19.4%	9.8%
Michigan	9.6%	9.1%	9.1%	12.4%	4.4%	15.9%	11.4%
Minnesota	7.1%	6.9%	8.1%	8.4%	2.4%	18.2%	11.4%
Mississippi	13.4%	11.4%	9.2%	16.7%	N/A	N/A	18.1%
Missouri	10.4%	9.9%	6.0%	15.0%	1.4%	13.1%	14.7%
Montana	7.4%	6.8%	5.7%	N/A	N/A	17.4%	8.4%
Nebraska	8.3%	8.0%	7.9%	12.6%	6.2%	13.6%	11.7%
Nevada	8.8%	7.5%	8.9%	14.9%	8.9%	19.5%	10.8%
New Hampshire	8.2%	8.1%	5.2%	N/A	7.3%	N/A	11.2%
New Jersey	8.7%	7.8%	9.3%	13.1%	5.9%	29.6%	13.0%
New Mexico	10.6%	7.6%	12.5%	15.5%	7.8%	17.1%	7.4%
New York	9.7%	7.4%	12.1%	15.1%	8.9%	N/A	21.5%
North Carolina	10.7%	9.5%	8.1%	15.2%	3.5%	16.7%	10.1%
North Dakota	7.9%	7.6%	10.2%	N/A	N/A	13.8%	11.8%
Ohio	10.8%	10.4%	10.1%	14.4%	2.4%	12.2%	11.4%
Oklahoma	10.8%	10.7%	6.4%	12.0%	4.3%	16.0%	11.7%
Oregon	9.2%	8.8%	10.9%	N/A	4.4%	N/A	12.0%
Pennsylvania	10.2%	9.5%	12.4%	15.1%	5.7%	12.1%	14.5%
Rhode Island	8.7%	8.5%	8.9%	11.6%	2.8%	22.4%	9.2%
South Carolina	12.3%	10.6%	7.3%	17.7%	4.9%	8.8%	10.3%
South Dakota	8.7%	8.0%	6.4%	N/A	N/A	16.6%	14.9%
Tennessee	12.2%	12.0%	3.2%	15.2%	N/A	N/A	9.7%
Texas	10.4%	8.9%	12.1%	13.5%	2.9%	17.7%	5.9%
Utah	6.8%	6.6%	7.9%	8.9%	2.7%	14.3%	9.4%
Vermont	7.1%	7.1%	1.8%	N/A	N/A	N/A	11.2%
Virginia	10.1%	9.4%	4.8%	16.2%	4.0%	10.1%	9.2%
Washington	8.4%	8.4%	7.7%	11.7%	6.4%	13.8%	9.3%
West Virginia	13.3%	13.3%	10.5%	17.2%	N/A	N/A	13.7%
Wisconsin	8.4%	8.0%	6.6%	14.1%	3.5%	21.7%	16.8%
Wyoming	8.1%	7.7%	9.9%	N/A	N/A	16.6%	8.4%
United States	**9.9%**	**9.0%**	**10.7%**	**14.8%**	**6.6%**	**15.1%**	**10.6%**

Notes: Data include women and adolescents aged 13 and older. Racial groups do not exclude Hispanic. Asian does not include Pacific Islanders. Data are not available for those who identify with another race or two or more races. N/A = not available.
Source: IWPR compilation of 2012-2014 data from the Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (2015e).

Appendix Table 5.5. Percent of Women Who Have Ever Been Tested for HIV by Race/Ethnicity and State, 2014

	All Women	White	Hispanic	Black	Asian/Pacific Islander	Native American	Other Race or Two or More Races
Alabama	40.8%	33.1%	48.7%	59.7%	N/A	51.6%	54.1%
Alaska	46.2%	44.7%	60.8%	54.9%	26.1%	47.8%	55.5%
Arizona	34.7%	30.3%	40.7%	53.9%	35.3%	41.6%	47.9%
Arkansas	33.4%	28.4%	42.1%	56.1%	N/A	34.9%	41.5%
California	41.4%	37.1%	47.9%	61.1%	31.8%	41.8%	47.4%
Colorado	37.5%	35.4%	39.1%	58.0%	38.7%	52.7%	51.5%
Connecticut	36.5%	29.6%	59.4%	56.6%	26.3%	N/A	60.2%
Delaware	41.6%	33.1%	56.0%	64.3%	34.2%	43.0%	50.8%
District of Columbia	66.8%	57.3%	71.1%	74.5%	41.8%	N/A	78.9%
Florida	43.1%	33.9%	51.0%	68.0%	35.5%	61.6%	53.0%
Georgia	44.8%	34.6%	51.4%	61.9%	32.1%	37.9%	63.0%
Hawaii	29.2%	44.1%	42.0%	N/A	14.3%	N/A	33.5%
Idaho	31.0%	30.1%	35.1%	N/A	N/A	34.6%	57.2%
Illinois	31.3%	24.7%	42.4%	54.8%	14.8%	N/A	40.9%
Indiana	32.7%	29.4%	45.4%	56.4%	21.0%	44.4%	43.3%
Iowa	27.2%	24.9%	50.7%	59.2%	31.5%	N/A	42.7%
Kansas	30.7%	27.2%	44.4%	53.7%	29.6%	42.4%	48.6%
Kentucky	32.9%	30.3%	42.9%	54.2%	N/A	54.4%	55.0%
Louisiana	44.1%	35.6%	47.4%	60.6%	N/A	36.5%	49.5%
Maine	30.8%	30.4%	39.3%	N/A	N/A	38.7%	42.5%
Maryland	45.4%	35.0%	53.1%	64.6%	31.5%	57.0%	53.2%
Massachusetts	37.8%	33.6%	59.9%	58.4%	34.8%	45.2%	48.8%
Michigan	36.7%	30.9%	54.3%	62.3%	28.8%	59.2%	53.5%
Minnesota	29.4%	26.6%	39.2%	60.5%	32.9%	55.1%	44.9%
Mississippi	40.3%	30.1%	45.1%	55.6%	N/A	N/A	50.5%
Missouri	33.1%	29.1%	41.3%	58.4%	19.7%	46.6%	56.8%
Montana	31.2%	29.1%	44.6%	N/A	N/A	50.0%	50.6%
Nebraska	27.7%	24.6%	42.0%	53.4%	27.7%	54.1%	49.3%
Nevada	40.0%	36.9%	41.0%	66.0%	26.2%	49.1%	54.2%
New Hampshire	31.6%	31.2%	56.4%	N/A	21.8%	N/A	28.5%
New Jersey	37.9%	30.2%	54.7%	61.7%	21.6%	35.4%	49.3%
New Mexico	35.8%	35.8%	35.0%	50.1%	32.0%	36.0%	41.1%
New York	46.2%	36.6%	67.0%	66.4%	34.1%	N/A	58.8%
North Carolina	44.0%	35.9%	64.6%	62.2%	36.3%	42.7%	55.9%
North Dakota	26.1%	23.9%	43.6%	N/A	N/A	43.8%	55.8%
Ohio	32.0%	27.3%	49.0%	59.0%	28.7%	57.6%	51.8%
Oklahoma	29.0%	25.6%	35.6%	46.0%	16.4%	34.4%	42.6%
Oregon	36.5%	34.3%	48.7%	N/A	33.4%	N/A	44.9%
Pennsylvania	32.1%	26.2%	58.9%	61.8%	29.6%	64.9%	59.4%
Rhode Island	36.4%	31.2%	59.6%	60.4%	32.9%	56.9%	47.4%
South Carolina	37.1%	29.6%	42.2%	53.9%	25.0%	47.9%	56.2%
South Dakota	25.7%	22.1%	38.4%	N/A	N/A	56.9%	52.3%
Tennessee	42.1%	36.5%	52.3%	63.3%	N/A	N/A	58.8%
Texas	40.9%	35.1%	42.9%	61.9%	28.6%	24.8%	53.6%
Utah	23.8%	22.4%	30.2%	43.0%	23.0%	30.4%	36.6%
Vermont	31.4%	30.8%	39.9%	N/A	N/A	N/A	51.7%
Virginia	41.4%	35.8%	50.6%	58.5%	32.3%	46.5%	44.9%
Washington	37.5%	35.8%	45.1%	54.7%	29.8%	55.4%	49.2%
West Virginia	32.6%	31.8%	38.9%	47.5%	N/A	N/A	47.7%
Wisconsin	31.5%	27.7%	52.7%	72.7%	21.1%	48.3%	53.8%
Wyoming	30.7%	29.4%	40.0%	N/A	N/A	36.3%	42.7%
United States	**38.1%**	**31.8%**	**48.5%**	**61.2%**	**29.6%**	**45.0%**	**50.2%**

Notes: Data for all women aged 18 and older. Racial groups are non-Hispanic. N/A = not available.
Source: IWPR analysis of 2012-2014 Behavior Risk Surveillance System microdata (Institute for Women's Policy Research 2015a).

Appendix Table 5.6. Percent of Mothers with Low Birth-Weight Babies by Race/Ethnicity and State, 2013

	All Women	White	Hispanic	Black
Alabama	10.0%	8.1%	6.5%	14.6%
Alaska	5.8%	5.5%	6.6%	6.5%
Arizona	6.9%	6.4%	6.7%	11.2%
Arkansas	8.8%	7.7%	5.9%	14.0%
California	6.8%	6.0%	6.4%	11.4%
Colorado	8.8%	8.3%	8.7%	14.6%
Connecticut	7.8%	6.6%	8.1%	12.2%
Delaware	8.3%	6.8%	5.6%	12.7%
District of Columbia	9.4%	5.8%	7.5%	12.3%
Florida	8.5%	7.2%	7.1%	12.8%
Georgia	9.5%	7.3%	6.8%	13.4%
Hawaii	8.2%	5.9%	9.4%	14.5%
Idaho	6.9%	6.8%	7.0%	N/A
Illinois	8.2%	6.8%	7.1%	13.8%
Indiana	7.9%	7.3%	6.7%	12.8%
Iowa	6.6%	6.3%	5.3%	10.9%
Kansas	7.0%	6.7%	5.8%	12.6%
Kentucky	8.7%	8.4%	6.3%	13.1%
Louisiana	10.9%	8.1%	7.3%	15.6%
Maine	7.1%	7.1%	N/A	8.4%
Maryland	8.5%	6.6%	6.7%	11.9%
Massachusetts	7.7%	7.0%	8.2%	10.7%
Michigan	8.2%	7.0%	7.2%	13.1%
Minnesota	6.4%	5.7%	6.6%	9.7%
Mississippi	11.5%	8.2%	7.5%	16.1%
Missouri	8.0%	7.0%	6.7%	13.6%
Montana	7.4%	6.9%	6.3%	N/A
Nebraska	6.4%	6.0%	6.2%	11.5%
Nevada	8.0%	7.4%	6.9%	12.7%
New Hampshire	6.8%	6.7%	6.0%	13.5%
New Jersey	8.3%	7.0%	7.5%	12.6%
New Mexico	8.9%	8.9%	9.0%	12.8%
New York	8.0%	6.6%	7.7%	12.4%
North Carolina	8.8%	7.3%	6.8%	13.2%
North Dakota	6.4%	6.1%	5.7%	10.4%
Ohio	8.5%	7.4%	8.1%	13.3%
Oklahoma	8.1%	7.8%	6.3%	13.3%
Oregon	6.3%	5.9%	6.4%	9.2%
Pennsylvania	8.0%	6.8%	8.4%	12.7%
Rhode Island	6.9%	5.8%	7.7%	11.8%
South Carolina	9.7%	7.6%	6.8%	14.3%
South Dakota	6.3%	6.0%	8.4%	8.0%
Tennessee	9.1%	7.9%	6.9%	14.0%
Texas	8.3%	7.4%	7.7%	13.1%
Utah	7.0%	6.7%	7.6%	8.8%
Vermont	6.7%	6.6%	N/A	N/A
Virginia	8.0%	6.7%	6.7%	12.3%
Washington	6.4%	5.9%	6.2%	10.1%
West Virginia	9.4%	9.2%	N/A	15.3%
Wisconsin	7.0%	6.0%	6.7%	13.9%
Wyoming	8.6%	8.4%	9.2%	N/A
United States	**8.0%**	**7.0%**	**7.1%**	**13.1%**

Notes: Whites and Blacks are non-Hispanic. Other racial groups include Hispanics. N/A = not available.
Source: IWPR compilation of 2013 data from Martin et al. (2015b).

Appendix Table 5.7. Infant Mortality Rate (deaths of infants under age one per 1,000 live births) by Race/Ethnicity of Mother and State, 2013

	All Women	White	Hispanic	Black	Asian/Pacific Islander	Native American
Alabama	8.6	6.9	5.0	12.9	N/A	N/A
Alaska	4.9	3.6	N/A	N/A	N/A	8.1
Arizona	5.7	4.7	5.6	11.1	5.1	8.5
Arkansas	7.4	6.7	6.2	10.9	N/A	N/A
California	4.7	3.9	4.6	9.4	3.8	5.9
Colorado	5.1	4.2	5.9	9.6	5.3	N/A
Connecticut	5.1	3.7	6.1	10.2	N/A	N/A
Delaware	7.6	5.6	5.1	12.8	N/A	N/A
District of Columbia	7.3	N/A	5.5	11.1	N/A	N/A
Florida	6.2	5.0	4.6	10.8	3.7	N/A
Georgia	6.7	5.1	4.7	10.0	3.9	N/A
Hawaii	5.5	4.4	6.0	N/A	5.7	N/A
Idaho	5.4	5.0	6.7	N/A	N/A	N/A
Illinois	6.4	4.8	5.3	12.9	4.7	N/A
Indiana	7.2	6.5	6.1	12.9	5.2	N/A
Iowa	4.8	4.6	2.7	10.7	N/A	N/A
Kansas	6.3	5.5	6.8	14.2	N/A	N/A
Kentucky	6.7	6.4	6.8	9.8	N/A	N/A
Louisiana	8.4	6.2	4.8	12.0	6.4	N/A
Maine	6.9	6.8	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
Maryland	6.6	4.1	5.2	11.1	4.5	N/A
Massachusetts	4.2	3.5	5.5	6.9	3.3	N/A
Michigan	6.8	5.3	6.0	13.1	4.3	8.9
Minnesota	5.0	4.3	5.4	8.9	4.6	11.3
Mississippi	9.3	6.8	6.4	12.4	N/A	N/A
Missouri	6.5	5.4	6.1	12.2	4.2	N/A
Montana	5.8	5.3	N/A	N/A	N/A	9.8
Nebraska	5.2	4.5	5.7	9.9	N/A	N/A
Nevada	5.3	5.2	4.5	9.5	4.0	N/A
New Hampshire	4.8	4.4	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
New Jersey	4.7	3.2	4.4	10.3	3.8	N/A
New Mexico	5.9	5.2	6.1	N/A	N/A	5.9
New York	5.0	4.0	5.0	9.0	3.4	8.3
North Carolina	7.2	5.4	5.6	12.6	4.3	10.6
North Dakota	6.3	5.5	N/A	N/A	N/A	13.2
Ohio	7.6	6.3	6.9	13.6	4.2	N/A
Oklahoma	7.2	6.5	6.5	12.5	7.6	7.0
Oregon	5.0	4.7	4.8	8.3	4.1	10.2
Pennsylvania	6.7	5.2	7.0	12.7	4.2	N/A
Rhode Island	6.5	5.0	7.2	9.5	N/A	N/A
South Carolina	7.2	5.3	5.0	11.5	N/A	N/A
South Dakota	7.0	5.7	N/A	N/A	N/A	11.5
Tennessee	7.2	6.1	5.3	11.7	3.9	N/A
Texas	5.8	5.1	5.3	10.7	3.8	N/A
Utah	5.2	4.8	5.1	12.9	7.5	N/A
Vermont	4.6	4.4	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
Virginia	6.5	4.8	5.8	11.7	5.0	N/A
Washington	4.8	4.4	4.2	8.8	4.4	8.7
West Virginia	7.1	7.0	N/A	12.0	N/A	N/A
Wisconsin	6.1	5.0	5.2	14.0	6.7	8.0
Wyoming	5.7	5.7	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
United States	**6.0**	**5.1**	**5.1**	**11.3**	**4.2**	**8.1**

Notes: Racial categories are non-Hispanic. N/A = not available.
Source: IWPR compilation of 2011-2013 data from Mathews, MacDorman, and Thoma (2015).

Appendix Table 5.8. Average Number of Days per Month That Women's Mental Health is Not Good by Race/Ethnicity and State, 2014

	All Women	White	Hispanic	Black	Asian/Pacific Islander	Native American	Other Race or Two or More Races
Alabama	5.6	5.6	4.7	5.3	N/A	10.0	7.6
Alaska	3.8	3.6	4.4	3.4	3.6	4.4	4.3
Arizona	4.3	3.8	5.0	5.6	4.4	4.7	5.8
Arkansas	5.3	5.2	4.0	5.7	N/A	7.2	8.5
California	4.2	4.3	4.3	5.6	3.3	6.9	4.6
Colorado	3.8	3.7	4.0	4.5	2.7	5.6	5.6
Connecticut	4.1	3.9	4.6	4.2	1.8	N/A	6.4
Delaware	4.1	4.2	3.9	3.8	N/A	N/A	6.5
District of Columbia	3.8	2.6	3.4	4.7	3.5	N/A	5
Florida	4.6	4.4	4.8	4.7	1.6	8.5	7.1
Georgia	4.2	4.2	4.0	4.3	1.1	N/A	4.7
Hawaii	3.0	3.2	4.4	N/A	2.2	N/A	3.7
Idaho	4.4	4.2	5.2	N/A	N/A	6.5	3.9
Illinois	4.0	3.7	4.6	4.9	2.3	N/A	6.3
Indiana	4.8	4.9	4.0	4.6	1.9	7.1	7.5
Iowa	3.6	3.5	3.5	4.6	N/A	N/A	10.4
Kansas	3.7	3.5	3.3	4.9	2.4	7.6	6.5
Kentucky	5.3	5.3	4.2	5.0	N/A	11.3	9.1
Louisiana	4.8	4.8	4.8	5.0	N/A	N/A	3.8
Maine	4.3	4.3	5.2	N/A	N/A	7.3	5.4
Maryland	3.9	4.0	3.5	3.9	2.3	4.8	4.3
Massachusetts	4.2	4.1	5.7	4.5	2.7	6.4	6.5
Michigan	4.6	4.4	6.6	5.1	2.3	6.7	7
Minnesota	3.4	3.2	3.7	5.1	1.7	4.4	6.8
Mississippi	5.0	5.0	6.7	5.0	N/A	N/A	5.8
Missouri	4.4	4.4	4.5	4.6	N/A	N/A	8.4
Montana	4.0	3.8	3.7	N/A	N/A	5.7	6.1
Nebraska	3.4	3.4	2.8	4.8	1.7	5.6	5.8
Nevada	4.5	4.6	3.6	6.1	3.5	N/A	6.3
New Hampshire	4.0	4.0	4.7	N/A	N/A	N/A	4.9
New Jersey	3.8	3.9	4.3	3.9	1.6	4.4	4.9
New Mexico	4.3	4.2	4.4	4.3	N/A	3.9	5.4
New York	4.2	3.9	5.3	4.7	2.7	N/A	6.3
North Carolina	4.3	4.4	3.3	4.1	1.7	6.9	6.1
North Dakota	3.2	3.2	N/A	N/A	N/A	3.1	3.9
Ohio	4.7	4.5	6.3	5.3	2.5	7.4	6.1
Oklahoma	4.8	4.7	3.7	5.5	2.3	6.1	6.4
Oregon	4.9	4.8	4.4	N/A	2.6	N/A	6.8
Pennsylvania	4.4	4.2	6.2	4.9	3.3	7.9	7
Rhode Island	4.2	4.2	4.6	3.8	2.5	N/A	6.2
South Carolina	4.7	4.8	4.5	4.4	1.7	7.2	7.3
South Dakota	3.1	2.9	4.0	N/A	N/A	3.7	5.6
Tennessee	4.9	5.0	N/A	4.5	N/A	N/A	3.5
Texas	3.8	3.7	3.9	4.8	1.7	7.2	5.1
Utah	4.3	4.2	4.0	N/A	3.3	6.0	6.3
Vermont	4.0	3.9	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	4.8
Virginia	3.8	3.8	3.1	3.9	2.9	6.8	4.5
Washington	4.4	4.5	4.6	4.7	2.8	7.0	5.6
West Virginia	5.2	5.2	4.9	3.9	N/A	N/A	5.5
Wisconsin	4.1	3.7	5.9	6.1	N/A	6.7	9.9
Wyoming	4.0	3.8	5.2	N/A	N/A	4.4	4.7
United States	**4.3**	**4.2**	**4.4**	**4.7**	**2.7**	**6.4**	**5.7**

Notes: Women aged 18 and older. Racial groups are non-Hispanic. N/A= not available.
Source: IWPR analysis of 2012-2014 Behavior Risk Surveillance System microdata (Institute for Women's Policy Research 2015a).

Appendix Table 5.9. Suicide Mortality Among Women (per 100,000) by Race/Ethnicity and State, 2014

	All Women	White	Hispanic	Black	Asian/Pacific Islander	Native American
Alabama	5.7	7.7	N/A	1.6	N/A	N/A
Alaska	8.5	8.2	N/A	N/A	N/A	15.9
Arizona	8.1	10.5	3.6	3.5	2.8	8.3
Arkansas	6.8	8.3	N/A	2.2	N/A	N/A
California	4.5	7.3	1.8	2.7	3.1	7.3
Colorado	9.0	10.2	4.7	4.3	7.0	15.3
Connecticut	4.5	5.4	2.0	1.8	N/A	N/A
Delaware	5.6	7.6	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
District of Columbia	2.8	3.6	N/A	2.3	N/A	N/A
Florida	6.6	9.8	2.9	1.7	3.0	N/A
Georgia	5.2	7.8	1.4	1.7	3.6	N/A
Hawaii	5.4	8.1	N/A	N/A	4.0	N/A
Idaho	8.9	9.5	3.5	N/A	N/A	N/A
Illinois	4.2	5.4	1.8	1.6	2.6	N/A
Indiana	5.7	6.4	1.6	2.2	N/A	N/A
Iowa	5.2	5.5	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
Kansas	6.2	6.9	3.3	N/A	N/A	N/A
Kentucky	6.4	6.9	N/A	2.7	N/A	N/A
Louisiana	5.8	8.5	N/A	1.6	N/A	N/A
Maine	6.4	6.5	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
Maryland	3.9	5.4	N/A	1.8	4.2	N/A
Massachusetts	3.9	4.5	1.4	1.8	2.8	N/A
Michigan	5.4	5.8	3.5	3.3	4.0	N/A
Minnesota	5.2	5.5	N/A	3.3	3.7	18.8
Mississippi	5.5	8.2	N/A	1.7	N/A	N/A
Missouri	6.3	7.1	2.9	2.5	N/A	N/A
Montana	11.0	10.7	N/A	N/A	N/A	15.4
Nebraska	4.9	5.4	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
Nevada	8.9	13.2	3.1	3.2	3.4	N/A
New Hampshire	6.7	6.7	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
New Jersey	3.5	4.5	2.0	2.4	2.9	N/A
New Mexico	9.7	13.3	6.3	N/A	N/A	7.7
New York	3.8	4.7	2.3	1.7	4.0	N/A
North Carolina	6.3	8.3	1.4	2.1	3.2	N/A
North Dakota	6.0	5.0	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
Ohio	5.6	6.2	1.8	2.5	2.6	N/A
Oklahoma	7.8	9.0	3.2	3.5	N/A	5.9
Oregon	7.9	9.0	2.2	N/A	4.1	N/A
Pennsylvania	5.3	6.0	3.2	1.9	2.9	N/A
Rhode Island	5.1	5.2	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
South Carolina	6.2	8.8	N/A	1.2	N/A	N/A
South Dakota	6.6	5.6	N/A	N/A	N/A	15.7
Tennessee	5.9	7.1	N/A	1.4	N/A	N/A
Texas	5.0	8.1	2.1	2.1	3.7	N/A
Utah	9.7	10.7	3.8	N/A	N/A	N/A
Vermont	6.5	6.5	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
Virginia	5.5	7.4	1.1	2.0	2.3	N/A
Washington	6.7	7.4	2.4	6.3	4.4	12.8
West Virginia	7.1	7.4	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
Wisconsin	5.5	6.0	3.1	N/A	N/A	N/A
Wyoming	8.8	9.0	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
United States	**5.5**	**7.1**	**2.3**	**2.1**	**3.4**	**7.7**

Notes: Data include women of all ages and are age-adjusted to the 2000 U.S. standard population. Racial groups are non-Hispanic. Data are not available for those who identify with another race or two or more races. N/A=not available.
Source: IWPR compilation of 2012-2014 data from Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (2015m).

Appendix Table 5.10. Average Number of Days per Month That Women's Poor Mental or Physical Health Limited Activities by Race/Ethnicity and State, 2014

	All Women	White	Hispanic	Black	Asian/Pacific Islander	Native American	Other Race or Two or More Races
Alabama	6.2	6.4	2.7	5.8	N/A	8.3	8.1
Alaska	4.5	4.2	4.8	6.3	4.5	4.8	4.4
Arizona	5.2	5.0	5.5	6.2	3.8	5.3	5.8
Arkansas	5.9	5.8	3.1	6.4	N/A	7.5	9.4
California	4.9	4.9	4.8	7.8	3.8	6.7	4.9
Colorado	3.9	3.7	4.5	5.2	3.2	7.1	4.3
Connecticut	4.2	3.9	5.6	4.9	2.2	N/A	4.9
Delaware	4.5	4.5	5.1	4.4	N/A	N/A	4.5
District of Columbia	4.3	2.5	3.8	5.9	2.8	N/A	4.9
Florida	5.2	5.4	4.9	4.5	1.9	6.9	6.7
Georgia	4.9	5.0	3.9	4.8	2.6	N/A	5.1
Hawaii	4.3	4.4	5.2	N/A	3.9	N/A	4.5
Idaho	4.4	4.2	5.0	N/A	N/A	7.9	5.8
Illinois	4.1	3.9	3.8	5.5	2.9	N/A	5.1
Indiana	5.0	5.0	3.3	5.4	4.8	7.0	7.5
Iowa	3.9	3.9	3.7	4.9	N/A	N/A	6.1
Kansas	4.2	4.2	3.3	5.0	2.1	7.9	4.5
Kentucky	5.8	5.8	3.3	5.6	N/A	9.4	8
Louisiana	5.5	5.4	4.9	5.8	N/A	N/A	5.2
Maine	4.6	4.6	4.6	N/A	N/A	6.8	5.9
Maryland	4.1	4.0	4.0	4.5	2.3	4.1	5.9
Massachusetts	4.4	4.3	5.0	5.0	2.6	10.3	5.2
Michigan	4.8	4.6	4.9	5.9	1.8	8.8	5
Minnesota	3.8	3.6	4.4	5.3	1.7	5.9	5.5
Mississippi	5.9	6.3	5.7	5.4	N/A	N/A	6.3
Missouri	5.3	5.2	6.2	5.4	N/A	N/A	6.4
Montana	4.8	4.8	3.2	N/A	N/A	5.7	6
Nebraska	3.9	3.7	3.7	5.9	3.1	6.5	5.7
Nevada	4.7	5.0	3.6	5.8	3.6	N/A	5.7
New Hampshire	4.3	4.1	5.4	N/A	N/A	N/A	7.4
New Jersey	4.2	4.0	5.2	4.3	2.2	8.5	4.2
New Mexico	5.2	5.1	5.3	5.4	N/A	5.5	6
New York	4.4	4.0	4.9	5.1	4.1	N/A	5.8
North Carolina	5.1	5.3	2.8	5.0	1.9	7.9	6.1
North Dakota	3.5	3.4	N/A	N/A	N/A	3.8	4.2
Ohio	5.2	5.0	6.4	6.1	3.5	8.2	6.1
Oklahoma	5.7	5.5	3.9	6.6	3.8	7.0	7.1
Oregon	5.2	5.3	4.2	N/A	3.0	N/A	5.9
Pennsylvania	4.7	4.4	6.2	5.7	3.2	7.2	5.2
Rhode Island	4.8	4.5	5.2	6.1	4.8	N/A	6.3
South Carolina	5.2	5.2	4.0	5.2	4.3	7.9	5.2
South Dakota	3.9	3.8	3.3	N/A	N/A	5.2	4.8
Tennessee	6.5	6.7	N/A	5.5	N/A	N/A	9.3
Texas	4.8	4.9	4.2	6.0	1.8	5.4	5.8
Utah	3.7	3.7	4.0	N/A	1.3	4.4	5.2
Vermont	4.2	4.1	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	6.4
Virginia	4.7	4.8	3.2	4.9	2.9	7.9	5.7
Washington	4.6	4.6	4.1	5.7	3.3	8.3	5.4
West Virginia	6.2	6.3	5.8	3.9	N/A	N/A	5.7
Wisconsin	4.5	4.1	5.0	7.0	N/A	8.4	10.6
Wyoming	4.3	4.2	4.4	N/A	N/A	6.1	7.6
United States	4.8	4.8	4.6	5.5	3.4	7.1	5.8

Notes: Women aged 18 and older. Racial groups are non-Hispanic. N/A= not available.
Source: IWPR analysis of 2012-2014 Behavior Risk Surveillance System microdata (Institute for Women's Policy Research 2015a).

Appendix Table 5.11. Percent of Women Who Are Overweight or Obese by Race/Ethnicity and State, 2014

	All Women	White	Hispanic	Black	Asian/Pacific Islander	Native American	Other Race or Two or More Races
Alabama	63.9%	60.0%	51.2%	76.6%	N/A	58.1%	64.3%
Alaska	58.9%	57.4%	68.8%	76.3%	37.2%	63.2%	63.1%
Arizona	55.4%	50.9%	64.7%	69.7%	30.0%	70.7%	58.3%
Arkansas	64.2%	61.5%	69.8%	76.3%	N/A	60.8%	68.9%
California	53.1%	49.4%	66.0%	72.3%	28.1%	56.9%	56.0%
Colorado	48.4%	45.0%	61.9%	63.6%	27.1%	59.1%	47.7%
Connecticut	54.4%	50.5%	68.1%	71.2%	37.2%	N/A	55.7%
Delaware	60.6%	57.7%	70.0%	71.5%	26.0%	62.6%	52.8%
District of Columbia	51.0%	29.7%	48.4%	70.7%	24.5%	N/A	52.5%
Florida	55.5%	51.0%	58.5%	72.1%	35.4%	44.0%	55.6%
Georgia	60.8%	55.4%	59.2%	73.2%	28.8%	44.3%	61.7%
Hawaii	47.1%	44.0%	56.2%	N/A	37.9%	N/A	62.5%
Idaho	56.8%	56.2%	64.6%	N/A	N/A	70.0%	52.8%
Illinois	59.2%	56.8%	67.3%	73.1%	26.4%	N/A	49.1%
Indiana	61.1%	59.9%	62.5%	74.7%	32.4%	61.0%	64.7%
Iowa	59.5%	59.1%	65.2%	80.3%	24.3%	N/A	67.8%
Kansas	59.3%	57.8%	69.1%	71.7%	36.4%	72.2%	58.2%
Kentucky	62.2%	61.3%	53.7%	76.5%	N/A	64.6%	66.7%
Louisiana	64.4%	58.9%	46.5%	77.7%	N/A	65.1%	61.9%
Maine	57.7%	57.7%	56.9%	N/A	N/A	66.0%	67.3%
Maryland	60.0%	55.2%	61.6%	73.8%	32.1%	53.2%	58.3%
Massachusetts	49.6%	48.3%	63.8%	70.7%	18.0%	60.3%	50.6%
Michigan	60.4%	58.4%	64.8%	73.9%	35.1%	56.7%	61.5%
Minnesota	54.1%	53.5%	60.7%	69.9%	35.3%	57.9%	64.7%
Mississippi	67.2%	60.4%	64.1%	78.7%	N/A	N/A	66.2%
Missouri	59.4%	58.5%	54.2%	71.7%	23.6%	54.0%	62.5%
Montana	53.7%	52.1%	63.5%	N/A	N/A	73.2%	63.9%
Nebraska	58.4%	57.4%	63.5%	73.2%	36.0%	72.2%	63.4%
Nevada	54.6%	51.7%	61.2%	69.2%	39.3%	76.9%	56.2%
New Hampshire	54.0%	54.3%	50.5%	N/A	32.6%	N/A	55.2%
New Jersey	54.3%	50.6%	62.9%	73.1%	35.7%	62.3%	53.7%
New Mexico	58.4%	50.8%	63.3%	71.9%	28.3%	76.0%	55.9%
New York	54.1%	50.1%	64.1%	68.4%	32.8%	N/A	58.8%
North Carolina	60.4%	55.8%	65.7%	75.1%	37.1%	69.0%	55.2%
North Dakota	58.9%	58.5%	51.6%	N/A	N/A	74.5%	65.2%
Ohio	60.1%	58.7%	58.0%	72.3%	34.8%	61.0%	61.6%
Oklahoma	62.3%	60.9%	66.7%	72.9%	30.8%	69.5%	61.1%
Oregon	54.3%	54.2%	61.6%	N/A	20.4%	N/A	56.9%
Pennsylvania	57.9%	56.5%	62.5%	72.9%	22.8%	57.6%	55.8%
Rhode Island	55.3%	53.8%	60.7%	68.0%	38.0%	73.7%	59.7%
South Carolina	62.7%	56.7%	65.6%	78.2%	26.9%	67.8%	50.9%
South Dakota	58.6%	58.3%	67.1%	N/A	N/A	67.4%	58.4%
Tennessee	62.4%	60.3%	55.2%	77.1%	N/A	N/A	54.0%
Texas	60.5%	54.3%	69.0%	75.3%	22.7%	54.6%	51.4%
Utah	51.6%	50.6%	60.9%	56.2%	27.4%	65.6%	59.2%
Vermont	52.5%	52.4%	53.9%	N/A	N/A	N/A	59.7%
Virginia	58.5%	55.7%	56.5%	74.7%	28.7%	60.7%	54.0%
Washington	55.3%	56.2%	64.7%	70.0%	29.1%	68.0%	57.8%
West Virginia	63.7%	63.3%	68.5%	74.3%	N/A	N/A	69.1%
Wisconsin	59.7%	58.6%	66.9%	80.6%	21.3%	59.7%	68.3%
Wyoming	57.1%	56.1%	63.7%	N/A	N/A	69.9%	52.1%

Notes: To be overweight or obese is defined as having a BMI of 25 or higher. Data include women aged 18 and older. Racial groups are non-Hispanic. N/A= not available.
Source: IWPR analysis of 2012-2014 Behavior Risk Surveillance System microdata (Institute for Women's Policy Research 2015a).

SIX

VIOLENCE & SAFETY

The Status of Black Women
in the United States

Introduction

Many Black women experience threats to their safety in the United States. These include physical violence at the hands of intimate partners, family members, and police officers, as well as stalking and sexual violence.

From a young age, Black girls are disproportionately disciplined and punished within schools; and instead of getting access to resources, care, and safety, Black girls who are victims of sexual violence are often funneled into the criminal justice system. While movements to end domestic violence and to reform the criminal justice system have begun to elevate the needs of certain groups of women and men in the United States, the messages and goals of these movements have seldom acknowledged the complexities of violence against Black women (Crenshaw and Ritchie 2015; Ruttenberg 1994), including the ways in which the violence that Black women experience is shaped by race, gender identity, sexuality, and class (Crenshaw 1991).

This chapter examines the prevalence and impact of various forms of violence against Black women. It covers intimate partner violence, stalking, and sexual violence, as well as other forms of violence that disproportionately affect Black women, such as homicide and police brutality. Because physical and sexual violence often result in the involvement of Black girls and young women in the juvenile and criminal justice systems, the chapter also discusses incarceration and school discipline.

Key Findings

Black women experience intimate partner violence at higher rates than women overall.

More than two-fifths of Black women experience physical violence by an intimate partner during their lifetimes, compared with 31.5 percent of all women.

From a young age, Black girls are disciplined at higher rates than all other groups of girls within public schools.

Black girls composed 45 percent of girls suspended from K-12 schools between 2011 and 2012.

Black women of all ages were twice as likely to be imprisoned as White women in 2014 (109 per 100,000 Black women were imprisoned in state and federal prisons compared with 53 per 100,000 White women).

Among young women, the disparity is especially pronounced: Black women aged 18 or 19 are four times as likely to be imprisoned as White women of the same age (32 per 100,000 compared with 8 per 100,000).

Survivors of domestic violence and low-income Black women experience heightened risk of criminalization.

Intimate Partner Violence

Domestic or intimate partner violence is a cycle of violence in which one individual seeks to dominate and control another through psychological, sexual, economic, and/or physical abuse. Intimate partner violence can be perpetrated by current or former spouses, boyfriends/girlfriends, and dating or sexual partners (Breiding et al. 2014). Almost one-third of women aged 18 and older in the United States have experienced physical intimate partner violence during their lifetimes (Breiding et al. 2014).

The prevalence of intimate partner violence varies across racial and ethnic groups (Figure 6.1).[73] More than half of Native American and multiracial women and more than four in ten Black women have experienced physical violence by an intimate partner during their lifetimes. These rates are higher than for women from other racial and ethnic groups, including White women (30.5 percent), Hispanic women (29.7 percent), and Asian/Pacific Islander women (15.3 percent; Breiding et al. 2014).

In addition to physical violence, perpetrators often use psychological, verbal, and economic abuse to control, monitor, or threaten intimate partners (Buzawa and Buzawa 2013; Stark 2012). Breiding et al. (2014) estimate that 47.1 percent of all women in the United States experience psychological aggression by an intimate partner at some point in their lifetimes, including humiliation, insults, name-calling, and coercive control (which includes behaviors intended to monitor, control, or threaten an intimate partner). Black women experience substantially higher rates of psychological aggression (53.8 percent) than women overall (Breiding et al. 2014).

While there is little research on the effects of intimate partner violence on Black women's lives, research on survivors of domestic violence generally has found that many report missing work or school, or needing medical care, legal services, or housing services such as shelters (Breiding et al. 2014). Research also suggests that domestic violence survivors lose substantial earnings due to missed days of work as a result of the violence, and may lose their jobs due to declines in job performance (Max et al. 2004; Swanberg and Logan 2005). Black women's unequal access to quality, affordable health care and heightened vulnerability to poverty are factors that may exacerbate the negative impacts of domestic violence on their health and well-being.

Sexual Violence

Sexual violence is harmful to Black women's health and well-being. Results of the 2011 National Intimate Partner and Sexual Violence Survey (NISVS) indicate that Black women are more likely to experience rape than women overall (21.2 percent of Black women are raped during their lifetime, compared with 19.3 percent of all women aged 18 and older; Figure 6.2).[74,75] Women are raped most often by an acquaintance (46.7 percent of all female victims of rape) or intimate partner (45.4 percent of all female victims of rape; Breiding et al. 2014).[76] Black women are less likely to experience sexual violence other than rape than women overall (38.2 percent of Black women compared with 43.9 percent of all women).[77]

Stalking

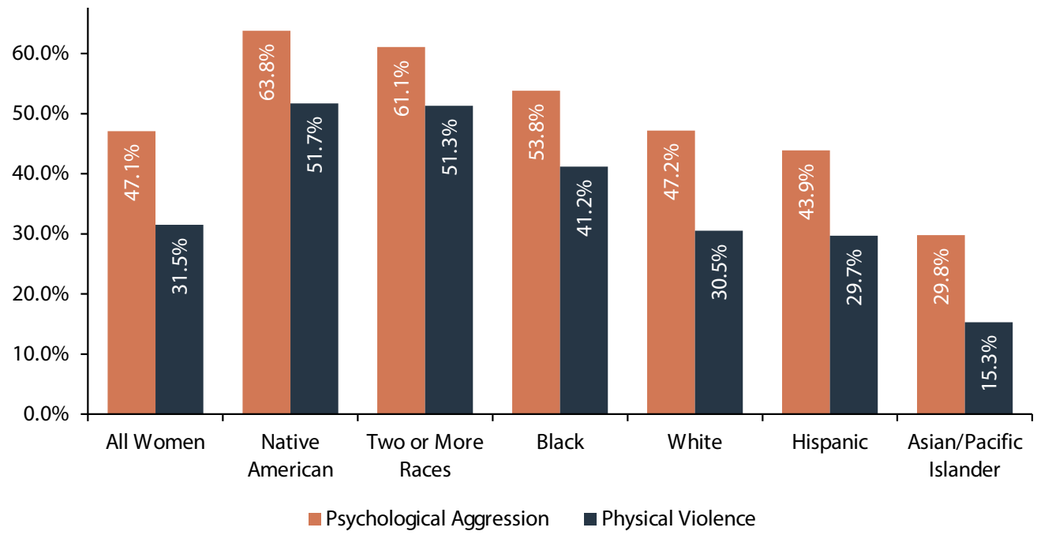
Stalking is another form of violence that has a negative impact on health, well-being, and employment (Logan et al. 2007). Common characteristics of stalking include receiving unwanted communication and being followed or watched. Stalking is "a course of conduct directed at a specific person that would cause a reasonable person to feel fear" (Breiding et al. 2014; Catalano 2012). A majority of victims are stalked by someone they know, and nearly two thirds (60.8 percent) of female victims are stalked by intimate partners (Breiding et al. 2014). Black women have a lower prevalence of stalking victimization (13.9 percent) than White women (15.9 percent). Black women and Hispanic women are about equally likely to be stalked during their lifetime (Breiding et al. 2014). The prevalence of stalking is highest among Native American women; one in four (24.5 percent) Native American women is stalked during her lifetime (data are not available for Asian/Pacific Islander women; Breiding et al. 2014).

Homicide by Men

Black women are at an especially high risk of homicide by men compared with all women. A 2015 Violence Policy Center study found that Black women were two and a half times more likely to be murdered by men than were White women. Ninety-two percent of Black female victims were killed by men they knew, and the majority of homicides occurred in the course of an argument. Of Black female victims who knew their killers, 56 percent were killed by current or former intimate partners. In cases where the murder weapon was identified, 59 percent of Black female victims were shot and killed with guns.[78] The average age of Black female homicide victims was five years younger than the average for all women (35 years old and 40 years old, respectively; Violence Policy Center 2015).

Figure 6.1

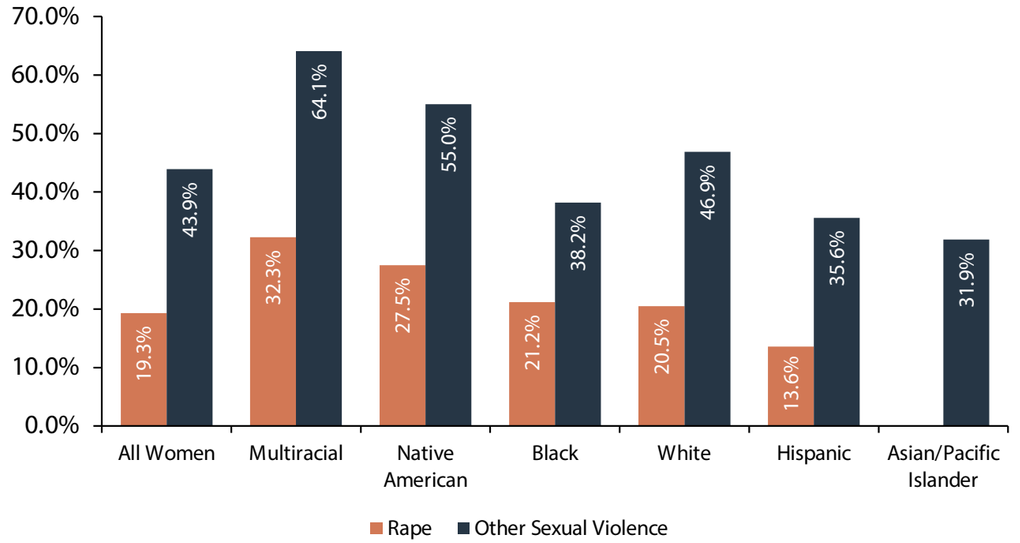
Lifetime Prevalence of Physical Violence and Psychological Aggression by an Intimate Partner Among Women, by Race/Ethnicity, United States, 2011



Notes: Women aged 18 and older. Only Whites and Blacks are non-Hispanic.
Source: IWPR compilation of 2011 data from Breiding et al. (2014).

Figure 6.2

Lifetime Prevalence of Sexual Violence Victimization by Any Perpetrator Among Women, by Race/Ethnicity, United States, 2011



Notes: Only Whites and Blacks are non-Hispanic. Data on rape are not available for Asian/Pacific Islanders due to insufficient sample sizes.
Source: IWPR compilation of 2011 data from Breiding et al. (2014).

Black Women and the Criminal Justice System

Criminalization of Violence Survivors

Many Black women and girls who are survivors of violence experience criminalization through arrest, incarceration, and entry into juvenile detention centers. According to the American Civil Liberties Union (ACLU), almost 60 percent of female state prisoners across the country, and as many as 94 percent of certain female prison populations, have experienced physical or sexual abuse (ACLU 2011). A study of 64,329 juvenile offenders in Florida found that 84 percent of girls in the juvenile justice system had experienced family violence, 41 percent had experienced physical abuse, and 31 percent had experienced sexual abuse (Baglivio et al. 2014).

A growing body of evidence suggests that girls who are survivors of physical and sexual abuse, especially Black and Native American girls, are funneled into the juvenile justice system as a direct result of their victimization (Saada Saar et al. 2015; Sherman and Balck 2015). After experiencing physical and sexual abuse, some girls run away from home or enter the child welfare system, both of which increase the likelihood of entering the juvenile justice system (Saada Saar et al. 2015). Sexual abuse in particular has been found to be a strong predictor of girls' entry into the juvenile justice system and is associated with girls' recidivism (S. M. Conrad et al. 2014; Saada Saar et al. 2015). In addition, authors of a report on the "sexual abuse to prison pipeline" argue that girls' trauma associated with sexual abuse is often exacerbated through involvement in the juvenile justice system, leading to lifelong cycles of abuse and imprisonment (Saada Saar et al. 2015).

Adult Black women also may come into contact with the criminal justice system as a result of their exposure to violence. Research indicates that mandatory arrest laws and pro-arrest policies have led to criminalization of survivors of domestic violence (Chesney-Lind 2002; Crenshaw 2012; DeLeon-Granados, Wells, and Binsbacher 2006; Gilfus 2002).[79,80] One study of felony domestic violence arrests in 58 counties in California found that female arrest rates for domestic violence increased by more than 500 percent while male rates increased 136 percent between 1987 and 2000, following the passage of more aggressive policing policies towards domestic violence (DeLeon-Granados, Wells, and Binsbacher 2006). There was no increase in actual rates of violence committed by women during this time (Chesney-Lind 2002; DeLeon-Granados, Wells, and Binsbacher 2006), suggesting that the increase of female domestic violence arrests may be a result of police officers' failure to accurately distinguish between aggressive and defensive behavior. Many women have been arrested for defending their children against abusive partners (Ritchie 2006). For women of color in particular, there is evidence that defensive actions in situations of victimization are more likely to be interpreted as aggressive (Crenshaw 2012).

Low-income women may also be at risk for being arrested in domestic violence situations (Chesney-Lind 2002). One study in New York found that 43 percent of domestic violence survivors arrested along with their abusers or as a result of complaints lodged by their abusers were living below the poverty line; 66 percent were Black or Latina (Haviland et al. 2001).

Disciplining Black Girls in Education

Racial disparities in school discipline are evident throughout the education system. Between 2011 and 2012, Black girls were 45 percent of girls suspended and 42 percent of girls expelled from K-12 public schools nationally (Smith and Harper 2015). Black girls also compose a larger proportion of girls suspended and expelled than do Black boys of boys suspended and expelled (Smith and Harper 2015). The disproportionate disciplining of Black girls may be attributed to school administrators' stereotypes and racial biases; Black girls are more likely to be seen as "disruptive" or "loud" compared with other groups of boys and girls, stemming from common stereotypes of Black women (Smith-Evans et al. 2014). Research also indicates that Black girls are more likely to be punished for dress code violations, talking back to teachers, and "defiance" than other groups of girls (Smith-Evans et al. 2014). Black girls with disabilities are even more likely to be suspended than other Black girls. Unsurprisingly, disproportionate suspensions and expulsions have long-term negative effects on these girls' educational outcomes (Crenshaw 2015; E. Smith and Harper 2015). Harsh school discipline policies and increased presence of law enforcement also contributes to their criminalization (Morris 2012; Smith-Evans et al. 2014); between 2009 and 2010, Black girls represented 17 percent of female students, but were 31 percent of girls referred to law enforcement and 43 percent of girls subjected to a school-related arrest (Smith-Evans et al. 2014).

Incarceration

Women and girls of color are the fastest growing populations in U.S. prisons (Crenshaw 2012; D. E. Roberts 2012). Scholars attribute the disproportionately high incarceration of women and girls of color to "War on Drugs" policies, discriminatory school disciplinary procedures constituting the school-to-prison pipeline, and other institutionalized racial and gender biases within the criminal justice system (Crenshaw 2012; M. W. Morris, Bush-Baskette, and Crenshaw 2012; D. E. Roberts 2012). As of 2014, Black women of all age groups were twice as likely to be imprisoned as White women (Figure 6.3; Carson 2015). Young Black women (aged 18-19) were four times more likely to be imprisoned than their White counterparts. As shown in Table 6.1, as of 2014, 0.11 percent of Black female residents in the United States were serving at least one year in prison, the highest proportion among any racial/ethnic group of women. Black men had the highest imprisonment rate among all racial/ethnic groups of men and women, at 2.72 percent.

The War on Drugs and Incarceration

In 1982, President Ronald Reagan's declaration of "The War on Drugs," accompanied by "zero tolerance" policies and increased mandatory sentencing, led to a significant increase in the number of individuals incarcerated in the United States (Jordan-Zachery 2003). The War on Drugs promoted a racialized image of crime, drug dealing, and welfare dependency (Crenshaw 2012). Between 1986 and the early 2000s, incarceration of women in the United States grew by 400 percent and incarceration of women of color grew by 800 percent (Honderich 2003). As of 2014, nearly a quarter of women in state prisons were incarcerated for drug-related offenses compared with only 15.1 percent of men (Figure 6.4). Despite the fact that drug use and drug selling occur at similar rates across racial and ethnic groups, Black and Latina women are more likely to be arrested and incarcerated for drug-related crimes than White women (Drug Policy Alliance 2016).

Low-Income Women and Incarceration

Research suggests that having a low income is associated with a greater risk of incarceration. One 2015 report found that, prior to incarceration, incarcerated individuals had a median annual income 41 percent lower than non-incarcerated individuals of similar ages (Rabuy and Kopf 2015). Incarcerated Black women ages 27-42 had pre-incarceration incomes that were 47 percent lower than the incomes of same-age Black women who were not incarcerated. In fact, 72 percent of incarcerated women ages 27-42 had annual incomes of less than $22,500 per year prior to incarceration, compared with 48 percent of non-incarcerated women.

The disproportionate incarceration of low-income Black women may be due in part to the "criminalization of poverty" (Dolan and Carr 2015; Gustafson 2009; Ocen 2012). Scholars argue that policymakers and law enforcement officials have enacted policies that equate the receipt of public benefits with criminality (Dolan and Carr 2015; Gustafson 2012). For example, as of November 2015, thirteen states had made drug screening and testing an eligibility condition for receipt of TANF assistance under certain circumstances and legislatures in 19 other states had recently considered similar measures (Hall 2016). Cross-referencing social welfare databases with law enforcement records has allowed law enforcements to use food stamp records of service agencies to apprehend individuals with outstanding arrest warrants (Gustafson 2009).

The growing connection between public benefit receipt and policing by law enforcement may have particularly harmful effects on Black women and their families. One study of households headed by Black women living in Section 8 housing in three predominately white communities in California found that law enforcement officials targeted and searched Black households for noncriminal complaints at a substantially higher rate than White households in these areas (Ocen 2012). Law enforcement officials often used these searches as an opportunity to investigate potential violations of lease terms, which could be used to have Section 8 vouchers revoked (Ocen 2012).

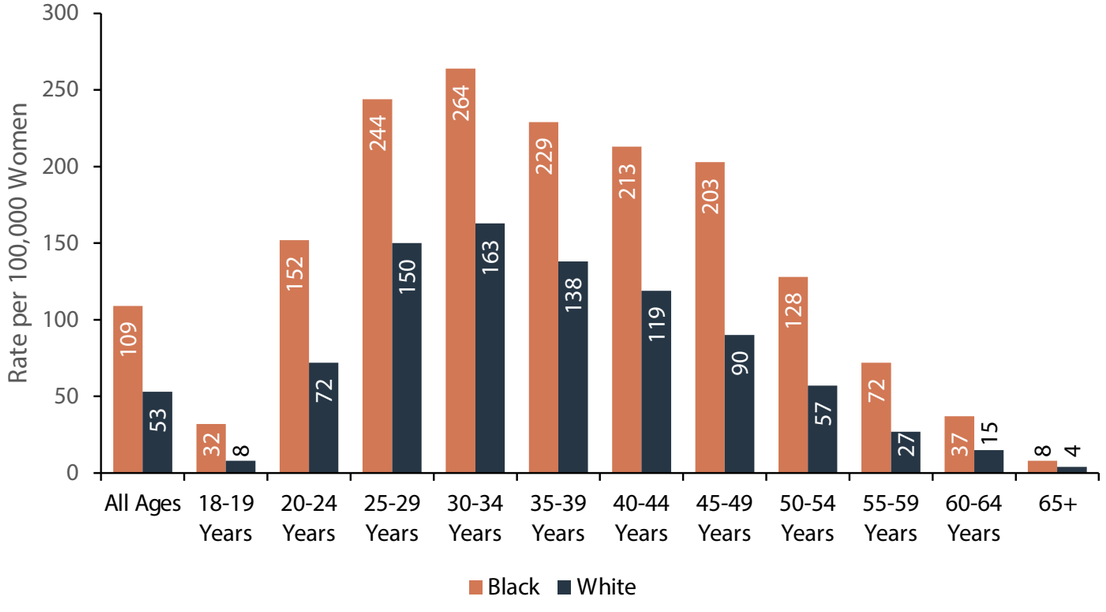
The Effects of Incarcerating Black Women

Incarceration has long-term effects on Black women's well-being, as well as that of their families and communities. In addition to the structural racism and sexism already facing Black women, previously incarcerated Black women are subject to policies that threaten their economic stability and political participation. For example, employers in most states can deny jobs to individuals with a criminal record (National Employment Law Project 2016). In addition, legal prohibitions against employment of ex-offenders in certain occupations exist in many states, and often cover relatively well-paying occupations such as pharmacists, police officers, veterinarians, and secondary school teachers (Fredericksen and Omli 2016). These barriers to employment depress the earnings of formerly incarcerated individuals, especially those who are Black and Latino and face additional barriers to employment upon release (deVuono-Powell et al. 2015). While in some areas of the country "ban the box" legislation prevents employers from including conviction history questions on job applications (Rodriguez and Avery 2016), in other areas individuals with arrests or convictions are often turned away from jobs, despite their skills and qualifications (National Employment Law Project 2016).

In addition to employment barriers, many formerly

Figure 6.3

Imprisonment Rate of Sentenced State and Federal Female Prisoners (per 100,000 women) by Race, United States, 2014



Notes: Counts based on prisoners with sentences of more than one year under the jurisdiction of state or federal correctional authorities. Imprisonment rate is the number of prisoners under state or federal jurisdiction with a sentence of more than one year per 100,000 U.S. residents of corresponding sex, age, and race or Hispanic origin. See source for more information on methodology. Women of all ages include girls 17 and under. Racial groups exclude Hispanics.
Source: IWPR compilation of 2014 data from Carson (2015).

Table 6.1

Percent of U.S. Residents Serving Sentences of at Least One Year in Prison as of December 2014, by Gender and Race/Ethnicity, United States

	All[a]	White	Black	Hispanic	Other Race
Women	0.07%	0.05%	0.11%	0.06%	0.09%
Men	0.89%	0.47%	2.72%	1.09%	0.97%

Notes: Counts based on prisoners with sentences of more than one year under the jurisdiction of state or federal correctional authorities. Imprisonment rate is the number of prisoners under state or federal jurisdiction with a sentence of more than 1 year per 100,000 U.S. residents of corresponding sex, age, and race or Hispanic origin. See source for more information on methodology. Includes women and men of all ages, including those 17 and under. White, Black, and other racial groups are non-Hispanic. [a]Includes Native Americans, Asians, Pacific Islanders, and persons of two or more races.
Source: IWPR compilation of 2014 data from Carson (2015).

incarcerated Black women are prevented from accessing crucial social safety net supports. Under federal law, individuals who have been convicted of a drug-related felony are banned from receiving TANF benefits for life. The majority of states enforce this ban, thereby deepening the economic insecurity that many formerly incarcerated individuals experience (deVuono-Powell et al. 2015). This policy is particularly harmful to Black women and their families, since Black women are disproportionately sentenced for drug-law violations.

State and federal legislation also may impede formerly incarcerated individuals from securing student loans (Drug Policy Alliance 2016; Hirsch et al. 2002), accessing housing (deVuono-Powell et al. 2015; Legal Action Center 2004; Hirsch et al. 2002; The Annie E. Casey Foundation 2016), voting (Legal Action Center 2004), and maintaining custody of their children (Hirsch et al. 2002). Since 62 percent of women in state prisons and 56 percent of women in federal prisons reported being a parent of at least one child under the age of 18 in 2004 (Bureau of Justice Statistics 2010), these barriers have serious consequences for formerly incarcerated Black women, their families, and society, including heightened risk of long-term poverty (deVuono-Powell et al. 2015).

Research indicates that incarceration has negative impacts on formerly incarcerated individuals' health, as well as that of their families. Many women and girls report physical and mental health needs being left unmet during incarceration, which has long-term negative effects on health and well-being (M. W. Morris, Bush-Baskette, and Crenshaw 2012; Saada Saar et al. 2015). One survey found that a majority of previously incarcerated individuals experienced a long-term decline in their physical or mental health associated with incarceration (deVuono-Powell et al. 2015). The survey also found evidence that family members of incarcerated individuals experienced negative health impacts that they attributed to incarceration, including depression, anxiety, and chronic stress.

Figure 6.4

Percent of Sentenced Prisoners in State Prisons by Offense as of December 31, 2013, by Gender, United States

Note: Estimates are based on state prisoners with a sentence of more than one year under the jurisdiction of state correctional officials. Values may not sum to 100 percent due to rounding and missing offense data.
Source: IWPR compilation of 2013 data from Carson (2015).

FOCUS ON: LGBTQ WOMEN

Research also suggests that Black LGBTQ individuals, especially those who are victims of violence, experience heightened discrimination from law enforcement (National Coalition of Anti-Violence Programs 2014). [81]

Transgender and gender non-conforming women of color report disproportionately high rates of harassment, physical assault, and sexual assault at the hands of police compared with all transgender individuals (Grant, Mottet, and Tanis 2011; National Coalition of Anti-Violence Programs 2015b). Once in prison, LGBT women of color report high levels of discrimination and assault within prisons (Grant, Mottet, and Tanis 2011; Southern Poverty Law Center 2015). Forty percent of girls in juvenile detention describe themselves as lesbian, bisexual, gender questioning/gender non-conforming, or transgender (Sherman and Balck 2015).

Racial Profiling & Police Brutality

Racial profiling and police brutality are also forms of violence related to the criminal justice system that affect Black women's lives. Research suggests that racial profiling contributes to Black women's disproportionate representation in prisons. One study that examined police practices in New York by race and gender found that out of all the women stopped by police in 2013, over half were Black (53.4 percent), while 13.4 percent were White (Crenshaw and Ritchie 2015). Despite media attention focused on the racial profiling of Black men, the study found that the rates of racial disparities in stops, frisks, and arrests were identical for Black men and women.

Police brutality also has serious consequences for Black women. Although Black women comprise about 13 percent of women in the United States, Black women were about one in four (22.6 percent) of women killed by the police in 2015 (Swaine, Laughl, and Lartey 2015).[82] In a number of cases, police officers have faced no repercussions after killing unarmed Black women (Crenshaw and Ritchie 2015). In 2014 and 2015, police misconduct cases against women of color included police officers failing to submit sexual assault kits for testing based on racial and gender stereotypes, underreporting domestic violence crimes for women of color, and even sexually assaulting non-White victims of crime (Blay 2015; National Police Misconduct Reporting Project 2010; Leveille and Park 2015)

Conclusion

Domestic violence, law enforcement violence, and incarceration diminish the health, safety, and economic security and mobility of many Black women.

Compared with White women, Black women are at heightened risk of experiencing intimate partner violence, and are more likely to be killed by intimate partners as well as by the police. Black women and girls who experience violence are also at increased risk for entering the criminal justice system. Improved data collection on the diversity of Black women's experiences of violence inside and outside the criminal justice system is essential to elevating Black women's experiences and needs. In addition, reforms related to the criminal justice system, such as modifying mandatory arrest and sentencing policies, addressing discriminatory and violent police practices, and removing the barriers that previously incarcerated individuals face after leaving prison are all vital to the well-being of Black women and their families.

NOTES

73. For comparable data on men, see Appendix Table 6.1.

74. Rape is defined here as "...completed or attempted forced penetration or alcohol- or drug-facilitated penetration" (Breiding et al. 2014).

75. For comparable data on men see Appendix Table 6.1.

76. The remaining female victims were raped by strangers (12.9 percent), family members (12.1 percent), and persons of authority (2.6 percent; Breiding et al. 2014). The relationship of the perpetrator is based on victims' reports of the relationship at the time the perpetrator first committed any violence. Because there may be multiple perpetrators, totals exceed 100 percent.

77. Sexual violence other than rape is defined here as "being made to penetrate a perpetrator, sexual coercion (nonphysically pressured unwanted penetration), unwanted sexual contact (e.g., kissing or fondling), and noncontact unwanted sexual experiences (e.g., being flashed or forced to view sexually explicit media)" (Breiding et al. 2014).

78. Gun control legislation may influence intimate partner violence-related homicides, which disproportionately kill Black women. One study found that statewide restrictions on firearm access for individuals subject to restraining orders are associated with a seven percent decline in female intimate partner homicide rates (Vigdor and Mercy 2006). Another study found that women living with any gun in the home were nearly three times more likely to be murdered in the home than women living in homes with no guns (Wiebe 2003).

79. The 1994 Violence Against Women Act and its 2000 reauthorization recommended the implementation of state-level mandatory arrest policies. The 2005 reauthorization recommended "pro-arrest" policies instead (SAVE 2010). See The American Bar Association (2014) for a list of state domestic violence policies as of 2014.

80. There is also evidence of other adverse effects of mandatory arrest laws on women's safety. One Harvard study found that intimate partner homicides increased by 60 percent in states with mandatory arrest laws and found evidence that this increase in homicides was due to decreased reporting (Iyengar 2007). This suggests that mandatory arrest laws may hold victims back from reporting.

81. LGBTQ Black women face a disproportionately high risk of physical intimate partner violence victimization and hate violence victimization (National Coalition of Anti-Violence Programs 2014; National Coalition of Anti-Violence Programs 2015a).

82. Any deaths that arise directly from encounters with law enforcement are included; deaths include, but are not limited to, those who were shot, tasered, or struck by a police vehicle, and those who died while in police custody (Swaine, Laughl, and Lartey 2015).

SEVEN

RECOMMENDATIONS

The findings of this report highlight the need for policy interventions that protect Black women's voting rights, improve Black women's pay, benefits, and access to quality jobs, reduce the costs of caregiving to families, increase Black women's access to education and health care, support victims of violence, and address institutionalized racism and sexism within the criminal justice system as well as elsewhere in society.

Strengthening Black Women's Political Participation

Having Black women in political office helps to ensure that the issues affecting women, families, and people of color are addressed in public policy discussions. Institutional resources—including training programs and financial supports geared toward recruiting and supporting Black women candidates—can improve Black women's political representation.[83] In addition, asking and encouraging Black women to run for office and holding political parties accountable for supporting and promoting women candidates, including women of color, would strengthen the pipeline of Black women to political office.

While Black women have been voting at increasing rates, strict voter identification laws, strict voter identification laws, which in multiple states have been found to intentionally discriminate against Black and Latino voters, have the potential to thwart that momentum. States can support Black women's strong voter turnout by removing restrictive voter identification laws that prevent women, especially women of color and low-income women, from voting. On a federal level, policymakers can prevent states from passing restrictive voter identification laws by strengthening and restoring Section 4 of the Voting Rights Act.

Another measure to ensure that Black women with caregiving and other responsibilities have access to the polls is for states to expand early voting. All states should offer early voting to ensure that all voters, regardless of their circumstances, have the opportunity to vote.

Supporting Employment and Increasing Earnings for Black Women

Widespread racial discrimination in the labor market drives persistent disparities in unemployment among Black workers, regardless of their education level. To remedy race and gender disparities in employment as well as earnings, employers should be held accountable for their obligation to monitor their hiring, compensation, and promotion practices. They should be required by federal, state, and local policies to increase transparency about pay and promotion decisions and to allow workers to share pay information without retaliation.

Raising the minimum wage can improve Black women's earnings, reduce poverty, and reduce gender and racial earnings inequality. States and the federal government should raise the minimum wage and eliminate the subminimum wage to lift the earnings of Black women, who are disproportionately represented in jobs that pay at or below minimum wage.

Black women protected by collective bargaining agreements earn more, have access to more benefits, and enjoy more economic stability than their counterparts who are not protected by collective bargaining agreements or a union contract. States and the federal government can improve Black women's earnings and quality of employment by protecting and strengthening workers' collective bargaining rights—changes that are especially necessary in states that have passed "right-to-work" laws.

Domestic workers have long been excluded from federal and state labor protections, leaving many Black women workers vulnerable to exploitation and economic insecurity. States should amend wage, unemployment insurance, and workers' compensation laws to remove exemptions for domestic workers. In addition, the National Labor Relations Act should be amended to cover home care workers employed by private households.

The federal government should consider striving to reduce the economic burdens of high unemployment, caregiving responsibilities, and low wages on Black women's lives by instituting a universal basic income (U.B.I.). A U.B.I. is a monthly distribution of a small sum of money from the government to all citizens. It is one way to reimburse unpaid caregivers for doing work that yields considerable benefits to society. There is evidence that potential benefits of a U.B.I. include reducing poverty, improving economic security, reducing gender inequality, and improving macroeconomic growth (Bruenig 2013; Haarmann et al. 2009; Reeves 2016). As of January 2016, Finland and Switzerland were considering implementing a U.B.I. (Shulevitz 2016).

Creating a Policy Infrastructure to Support Work-Life Balance

Many Black women have caregiving responsibilities, for an elderly parent, a person with a disability, or a young child, which they must balance with work obligations. States can help Black women stay in their jobs and advance in their careers by enacting policies such as paid family and medical leave and paid sick days, which can help workers balance their family care responsibilities with the demands of their jobs.

Public policies that discourage unpredictable employer-controlled scheduling practices can also improve the economic stability and well-being of Black women, who disproportionately work in low-wage jobs where unpredictable schedules are common. Reporting Pay legislation, which requires employers to pay workers a certain minimum number of hours when workers are scheduled for a shift, and Guaranteed Minimum Hour legislation, which requires employers to schedule workers at or above an agreed-upon minimum number of hours each week, are just two examples of policies that improve workers' job stability and can enable Black women to have more stable and successful careers.

Expanding publicly funded early care and education can improve women's earnings and ensure that eligible parents receive child care whether they are employed, looking for work, or pursuing education. Expanding child care subsidies[84] can also increase parents' access to quality child care, improve performance and advancement at work, and reduce child care-related work interruptions.

Women and men who leave the workforce to care for family members are penalized by losing Social Security benefits during the time they dedicate to caring for their families. Federal policymakers should consider implementing a Social Security caregiver credit to support individuals who limit their time at their paid jobs or leave work to provide care for others. This credit would especially help women, including women of color, who disproportionately provide the lion's share of caregiving within their families.

Expanding Opportunities and Reducing Poverty Among Black Women

To make higher education more accessible to Black women, federal aid programs such as Pell Grants should be protected and expanded. Restoring and expanding state funding of higher education can also prevent further increases in college tuition at public colleges and universities.

Reversing the decline of federal funding for campus child care through the Child Care Access Means Parents in School (CCAMPIS) program is necessary to support the large portion of Black women who are student parents. In addition, institutions of higher education can develop targeted scholarships and inclusive campus policies that support students with dependent care obligations in order to help them achieve success.

To reduce the long-term effects of student debt on Black women's economic security, policymakers can expand debt-assistance programs that cap federal loan payments at a percentage of graduates' monthly income.

Policymakers and workforce development leaders should adopt strategies to promote gender and racial/ethnic equity in access to higher-paid career training opportunities. Workforce development programs that recruit and train Black women in specific skills can help them gain access to career ladders and upward mobility and can reduce their concentration in lower-paying jobs.

States and the federal government can increase the positive impact of social safety net programs such as Temporary Assistance for Needy Families (TANF), the Supplemental Nutrition Assistance Program (SNAP), Supplemental Security Income (SSI), and the Earned Income Tax Credit (EITC) by increasing benefit levels and improving outreach to those families who need assistance. The federal government should also protect Social Security benefits, which are vital for preventing dependent survivors (including many children), the disabled, and older women from living in poverty.

Policymakers should consider proposals for reparations towards Black Americans for the injustices committed against them throughout United States history. Specific proposals for reparations range from studying the modern legacy of slavery on Black Americans' wealth and economic status to providing free college education to Black women and men.

Improving Black Women's Health and Access to Health Care Services

State policies that limit the potential of the Affordable Care Act to reach low-income and minority populations as intended undermine efforts to improve Black women's health status. Expanding Medicaid, especially in states with relatively large Black populations, is one essential step to improving Black women's health and access to health care services. States should expand eligibility for all Medicaid services to those with incomes up to 138 percent of the poverty line if they have not yet done so (31 states had made this change as of July 2016). States should also consider expanding eligibility for Medicaid family planning programs.

Increased investments in research, health prevention, and treatment for Black women specifically can help to address disparities in health outcomes and ensure that Black women receive appropriate, quality care.

Reducing Violence Against Black Women and Increasing Safety

The federal government can support survivors of violence by continuing to support funding streams that provide essential services and supports for domestic violence victims, such as housing, employment, and educational services. States can promote the safety of survivors by barring abusers from gun possession and by recognizing stalking as a serious crime that includes a wide range of behaviors.

Improved data collection on Black women's experiences with intimate partner violence, police brutality, and incarceration would help researchers, policymakers, and service providers develop a more complete understanding of the challenges Black women face in situations of violence and help pinpoint the greatest threats to Black women's safety, as well as the most effective interventions.

Addressing racism, discrimination, and cultural insensitivity among domestic violence service providers and law enforcement is an important step toward ensuring that domestic violence survivors of all races, classes, gender identities, and sexual orientations are not revictimized when accessing services. Increasing police accountability for the response of law enforcement to violence against Black women and their communities is also vital to reducing the abuse some Black women experience at the hands of the police.

Nationwide criminal justice system reform has the potential to improve the lives of countless Black women who have been affected directly or indirectly by incarceration. Specifically, reductions in mandatory sentencing policies and prison terms can decrease the number of Black women who are incarcerated and address racial disparities in incarceration. Providing states with incentives to reduce incarcerated populations can also help achieve this goal and reverse existing incentives for incarceration.

NOTES

83. One example of such a program is Run Sister Run, organized by the Center for American Women and Politics (Center for American Women and Politics 2016). See Sanbonmatsu (2015) for focus group results on the value of the Run Sister Run program to Black female candidates in New Jersey. Additionally, the Higher Heights Leadership Fund supports Black women candidates by providing training and networking opportunities (Higher Heights Leadership Fund 2015).

84.Only 17 percent of potentially eligible children received any child care subsidy in 2011 (ASPE 2015).

Black women are integral to the well-being of their families, their communities, and the nation as a whole.

Through their work, entrepreneurship, caregiving, political participation, and more, Black women are creating opportunities for themselves and their families and improving the U.S. economy and society.

While there is considerable diversity among Black women due to differences in contextual factors such as class, immigration status, gender identity, and disability status, the findings of this report show that Black women continue to experience structural barriers to progress that have roots in the nation's legacy of racial and gender discrimination and exploitation.

Policy changes and social justice movements that place Black women's experiences and interests at the forefront can address these barriers by building on the legacy of Black women's activism and leadership—a legacy of working to build a nation in which justice, democracy, and equal opportunity can be truly realized.

APPENDIX A-SEVEN

DEMOGRAPHICS

Appendix Table 7.1. Basic Demographics of Women by Race/Ethnicity, United States, 2014

	All Women	White	Hispanic	Black	Asian/ Pacific Islander	Native American	Other Race or Two or More Races
Number of Women, All Ages	160,668,497	100,162,315	26,671,119	20,362,462	8,589,318	1,065,932	3,817,351
Sex Ratio (Women to Men, All Ages)	1.03:1	1.03:1	0.97:1	1.1:1	1.11:1	1.04:1	1.01:1
Proportion of Female Population Aged 65 and Older	19.5%	23.4%	10.0%	14.5%	14.0%	13.4%	9.7%
Proportion of Female Population Under Age 35	31.5%	27.3%	43.0%	35.9%	34.4%	35.7%	48.8%

Notes: Racial categories are non-Hispanic.
Source: IWPR analysis of 2014 American Community Survey microdata (Integrated Public Use Microdata Series, Version 6.0).

Appendix Table 7.2. Distribution of Women by Race/Ethnicity and State, 2014

	Total Population, 2014	Number of Women, All Ages, 2014	Distribution of Women by Race/Ethnicity, All Ages, 2012-2014					
			White	Hispanic	Black	Asian/ Pacific Islander	Native American	Other Race or Two or More Races
			Percent	Percent	Percent	Percent	Percent	Percent
Alabama	4,849,377	2,493,880	65.7%	3.5%	27.5%	1.4%	0.5%	1.5%
Alaska	736,732	348,811	61.5%	6.8%	2.6%	7.5%	14.6%	6.9%
Arizona	6,731,484	3,337,607	56.9%	30.0%	3.8%	3.3%	4.0%	2.1%
Arkansas	2,966,369	1,503,977	73.7%	6.4%	16.0%	1.4%	0.5%	2.0%
California	38,802,500	19,316,350	38.6%	37.8%	5.7%	14.4%	0.4%	3.1%
Colorado	5,355,866	2,621,316	69.5%	20.7%	3.6%	3.2%	0.6%	2.4%
Connecticut	3,596,677	1,844,141	69.4%	14.3%	9.8%	4.2%	0.1%	2.1%
Delaware	935,614	476,290	64.0%	7.8%	21.6%	3.8%	0.3%	2.4%
District of Columbia	658,893	340,477	33.9%	9.6%	49.9%	4.0%	N/A	2.5%
Florida	19,893,297	10,010,116	56.0%	23.3%	15.8%	2.7%	0.2%	1.9%
Georgia	10,097,343	5,118,803	54.2%	8.3%	31.8%	3.6%	0.2%	1.9%
Hawaii	1,419,561	695,357	20.8%	9.4%	1.4%	48.2%	N/A	20.1%
Idaho	1,634,464	807,367	83.4%	11.4%	0.4%	1.7%	1.0%	2.1%
Illinois	12,880,580	6,564,198	62.6%	15.7%	14.8%	5.0%	0.1%	1.8%
Indiana	6,596,855	3,337,148	80.6%	6.1%	9.3%	1.9%	0.2%	2.0%
Iowa	3,107,126	1,558,078	88.1%	5.1%	3.1%	2.0%	0.2%	1.5%
Kansas	2,904,021	1,455,090	77.6%	10.7%	5.5%	2.6%	0.8%	2.8%
Kentucky	4,413,457	2,230,478	85.9%	2.8%	7.8%	1.4%	0.2%	1.9%
Louisiana	4,649,676	2,366,963	59.0%	4.2%	33.0%	1.7%	0.5%	1.6%
Maine	1,330,089	679,999	93.9%	1.3%	0.9%	1.2%	0.6%	2.1%
Maryland	5,976,407	3,053,878	52.6%	8.3%	30.1%	6.0%	0.2%	2.7%
Massachusetts	6,745,408	3,453,146	74.6%	10.3%	6.5%	6.0%	0.1%	2.5%
Michigan	9,909,877	5,036,946	75.6%	4.5%	14.4%	2.7%	0.5%	2.4%
Minnesota	5,457,173	2,734,775	81.9%	4.7%	5.4%	4.6%	1.0%	2.3%
Mississippi	2,994,079	1,539,506	56.6%	2.2%	38.8%	0.9%	0.4%	1.0%
Missouri	6,063,589	3,081,630	80.1%	3.5%	11.9%	1.8%	0.4%	2.3%
Montana	1,023,579	508,028	86.5%	3.6%	N/A	0.7%	6.9%	2.2%
Nebraska	1,881,503	940,947	81.3%	9.5%	4.5%	2.0%	0.7%	2.0%
Nevada	2,839,099	1,387,749	51.5%	27.2%	8.1%	9.1%	1.0%	3.2%
New Hampshire	1,326,813	672,732	91.3%	3.1%	0.9%	2.6%	N/A	1.9%
New Jersey	8,938,175	4,558,673	57.4%	18.4%	13.2%	9.0%	0.1%	1.9%
New Mexico	2,085,572	1,050,987	39.4%	47.1%	1.5%	1.6%	9.0%	1.5%
New York	19,746,227	10,118,517	56.5%	18.0%	15.0%	7.9%	0.2%	2.2%
North Carolina	9,943,964	5,051,197	64.0%	8.1%	22.2%	2.5%	1.1%	2.1%
North Dakota	739,482	352,523	87.7%	2.3%	1.5%	1.1%	5.8%	1.6%
Ohio	11,594,163	5,912,874	80.1%	3.2%	12.4%	1.9%	0.1%	2.3%
Oklahoma	3,878,051	1,944,280	67.8%	9.0%	7.1%	2.0%	7.4%	6.6%
Oregon	3,970,239	1,985,135	77.8%	11.6%	1.5%	4.6%	1.0%	3.5%
Pennsylvania	12,787,209	6,529,761	78.3%	6.0%	10.8%	3.0%	0.1%	1.7%
Rhode Island	1,055,173	541,548	75.3%	13.2%	5.2%	3.3%	0.3%	2.8%
South Carolina	4,832,482	2,454,359	63.4%	4.7%	28.3%	1.5%	0.3%	1.8%
South Dakota	853,175	420,459	83.7%	3.0%	1.3%	1.0%	8.7%	2.3%
Tennessee	6,549,352	3,329,649	74.7%	4.4%	17.3%	1.6%	0.2%	1.8%
Texas	26,956,958	13,332,215	44.0%	37.9%	11.9%	4.2%	0.2%	1.7%
Utah	2,942,902	1,439,362	79.9%	13.0%	0.8%	3.1%	0.9%	2.1%
Vermont	626,562	318,209	93.5%	1.7%	0.7%	1.8%	N/A	1.7%
Virginia	8,326,289	4,203,694	63.1%	8.1%	19.5%	6.2%	0.2%	2.8%
Washington	7,061,530	3,491,937	71.1%	11.5%	3.2%	8.7%	1.2%	4.5%
West Virginia	1,850,326	938,324	93.0%	1.3%	3.3%	0.7%	N/A	1.6%
Wisconsin	5,757,564	2,892,790	82.6%	6.0%	6.2%	2.6%	0.8%	1.8%
Wyoming	584,153	286,221	84.3%	9.3%	1.0%	1.2%	1.9%	2.2%
United States	**318,857,056**	**160,668,497**	**62.3%**	**16.6%**	**12.7%**	**5.3%**	**0.7%**	**2.4%**

Notes: Racial categories are non-Hispanic. N/A=not available.
Source: IWPR analysis of American Community Survey microdata (IPUMS, Version 6.0).

Appendix Table 7.3. Percent of Women Aged 65 and Older by Race/Ethnicity and State, 2014

	All Women	White	Hispanic	Black	Asian/Pacific Islander	Native American	Other Race or Two or More Races
Alabama	20.5%	23.7%	5.8%	14.7%	12.0%	15.8%	13.0%
Alaska	12.4%	13.8%	5.3%	N/A	9.8%	12.9%	4.2%
Arizona	21.0%	27.7%	9.5%	11.5%	13.5%	12.4%	10.4%
Arkansas	21.2%	24.2%	4.9%	13.2%	6.6%	13.3%	17.0%
California	17.5%	24.8%	9.8%	15.9%	16.8%	15.7%	10.6%
Colorado	17.0%	19.6%	9.5%	12.7%	12.5%	8.3%	6.7%
Connecticut	20.7%	24.6%	8.4%	14.3%	9.7%	N/A	6.9%
Delaware	21.0%	25.4%	5.0%	14.4%	11.4%	N/A	7.6%
District of Columbia	15.0%	12.0%	8.7%	19.5%	6.2%	N/A	6.1%
Florida	24.3%	30.9%	16.0%	13.9%	14.6%	14.6%	10.6%
Georgia	16.8%	21.4%	5.1%	12.4%	9.4%	11.8%	8.1%
Hawaii	21.7%	22.1%	9.2%	5.5%	27.1%	N/A	12.0%
Idaho	19.1%	20.9%	6.4%	N/A	13.0%	10.2%	11.8%
Illinois	18.9%	22.6%	7.8%	15.6%	13.2%	15.1%	8.5%
Indiana	19.6%	21.4%	6.6%	13.7%	9.1%	15.2%	10.3%
Iowa	21.8%	23.4%	6.3%	8.2%	7.4%	N/A	5.8%
Kansas	20.0%	22.4%	6.5%	14.2%	10.3%	16.4%	8.4%
Kentucky	20.0%	21.1%	7.4%	14.2%	9.8%	N/A	10.7%
Louisiana	18.5%	21.7%	10.1%	14.1%	10.7%	13.0%	12.7%
Maine	22.7%	23.4%	8.4%	5.3%	7.5%	10.6%	8.5%
Maryland	18.3%	22.8%	6.9%	14.5%	13.2%	15.1%	9.4%
Massachusetts	19.9%	22.9%	8.0%	13.1%	9.9%	N/A	9.6%
Michigan	20.4%	22.5%	8.6%	15.6%	10.1%	13.6%	9.3%
Minnesota	19.3%	21.5%	5.1%	7.2%	7.4%	12.5%	5.4%
Mississippi	19.5%	24.0%	8.4%	13.5%	11.9%	9.9%	14.1%
Missouri	20.7%	22.5%	7.7%	14.3%	10.4%	14.8%	10.8%
Montana	21.2%	22.7%	7.0%	N/A	N/A	12.1%	9.9%
Nebraska	20.1%	22.3%	5.6%	13.1%	7.1%	7.4%	8.4%
Nevada	18.3%	24.0%	8.1%	15.0%	16.5%	13.9%	8.2%
New Hampshire	20.1%	21.0%	8.5%	N/A	10.2%	N/A	7.3%
New Jersey	20.1%	25.1%	10.7%	16.1%	12.1%	22.2%	8.2%
New Mexico	20.1%	27.6%	14.9%	14.3%	13.3%	12.8%	8.2%
New York	19.7%	23.8%	12.5%	16.8%	12.7%	17.8%	10.3%
North Carolina	19.6%	23.3%	4.7%	15.1%	8.3%	15.1%	7.5%
North Dakota	20.2%	21.8%	3.0%	N/A	N/A	9.2%	N/A
Ohio	20.9%	22.5%	8.3%	16.0%	10.7%	17.1%	9.1%
Oklahoma	20.0%	23.6%	5.5%	13.3%	10.9%	13.0%	12.5%
Oregon	20.5%	23.3%	6.0%	11.8%	11.6%	16.1%	8.8%
Pennsylvania	22.3%	24.7%	7.8%	15.9%	9.9%	15.8%	9.4%
Rhode Island	20.9%	24.1%	7.6%	11.1%	8.4%	N/A	14.1%
South Carolina	20.6%	23.8%	5.7%	15.9%	12.3%	17.7%	7.5%
South Dakota	20.6%	22.7%	4.4%	N/A	N/A	8.4%	7.7%
Tennessee	20.0%	22.5%	5.5%	13.1%	10.9%	12.0%	11.7%
Texas	16.1%	22.1%	10.2%	12.3%	10.4%	18.3%	10.3%
Utah	14.5%	16.3%	6.4%	7.2%	8.8%	8.5%	5.0%
Vermont	21.2%	21.8%	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	14.4%
Virginia	18.3%	21.6%	6.1%	15.1%	11.3%	16.0%	8.6%
Washington	18.5%	21.6%	5.9%	10.4%	13.9%	12.6%	6.6%
West Virginia	22.9%	23.5%	10.1%	16.7%	13.3%	N/A	12.8%
Wisconsin	20.3%	22.3%	5.8%	10.6%	8.2%	11.7%	7.0%
Wyoming	18.2%	19.5%	10.0%	N/A	N/A	9.0%	12.3%
United States	**19.5%**	**23.4%**	**10.0%**	**14.5%**	**14.0%**	**13.4%**	**9.7%**

Notes: Racial categories are non-Hispanic. N/A=not available.
Source: IWPR analysis of 2012-2014 American Community Survey microdata (Integrated Public Use Microdata Series, Version 6.0).

Appendix Table 7.4. Percent of Women Under Age 35 by Race/Ethnicity and State, 2014

	All Women	White	Hispanic	Black	Asian/Pacific Islander	Native American	Other Race or Two or More Races
Alabama	30.7%	27.4%	52.5%	36.2%	37.0%	25.7%	39.6%
Alaska	36.2%	32.6%	56.4%	N/A	37.7%	40.9%	46.9%
Arizona	31.7%	24.6%	44.5%	39.7%	33.4%	40.6%	49.6%
Arkansas	30.9%	27.7%	50.1%	37.4%	43.4%	35.9%	45.2%
California	33.7%	25.8%	43.6%	34.0%	30.9%	29.9%	48.1%
Colorado	32.8%	29.1%	43.9%	39.0%	34.9%	39.4%	54.2%
Connecticut	28.6%	24.2%	43.2%	35.7%	37.7%	N/A	48.9%
Delaware	30.0%	25.9%	49.0%	34.7%	39.0%	N/A	40.0%
District of Columbia	43.7%	53.5%	48.2%	34.0%	54.8%	N/A	60.4%
Florida	28.0%	22.5%	34.3%	37.7%	31.3%	30.2%	46.6%
Georgia	32.7%	27.9%	48.9%	36.7%	36.4%	32.6%	48.7%
Hawaii	30.9%	29.7%	47.2%	50.8%	24.0%	N/A	44.4%
Idaho	32.5%	30.4%	48.4%	N/A	34.9%	31.6%	46.5%
Illinois	31.9%	27.7%	45.0%	35.3%	35.9%	30.8%	52.8%
Indiana	31.4%	29.2%	49.8%	36.7%	43.8%	24.4%	53.0%
Iowa	31.0%	28.9%	51.0%	48.8%	48.8%	N/A	60.6%
Kansas	32.4%	29.2%	49.9%	38.6%	41.6%	39.1%	51.5%
Kentucky	30.1%	28.7%	47.9%	36.2%	42.1%	N/A	48.0%
Louisiana	33.2%	29.5%	46.3%	38.1%	38.5%	29.8%	40.5%
Maine	26.0%	25.1%	48.6%	60.6%	35.8%	41.1%	41.2%
Maryland	30.9%	26.9%	45.9%	33.2%	32.5%	29.7%	48.3%
Massachusetts	31.2%	27.5%	46.4%	38.6%	42.7%	N/A	47.4%
Michigan	29.8%	27.4%	45.9%	34.8%	38.3%	29.6%	51.0%
Minnesota	31.5%	28.5%	50.5%	46.5%	48.6%	36.2%	55.0%
Mississippi	32.0%	27.7%	50.9%	37.5%	36.9%	43.2%	44.1%
Missouri	31.0%	28.8%	49.5%	37.4%	42.3%	33.6%	49.9%
Montana	29.9%	27.9%	51.6%	N/A	N/A	39.7%	50.5%
Nebraska	32.4%	29.6%	50.0%	40.0%	43.7%	38.7%	59.5%
Nevada	31.9%	25.6%	44.8%	35.9%	28.9%	31.6%	50.9%
New Hampshire	27.7%	26.6%	41.8%	N/A	36.4%	N/A	50.7%
New Jersey	28.7%	23.8%	39.1%	32.5%	33.3%	25.8%	46.8%
New Mexico	31.4%	22.5%	38.0%	35.6%	31.3%	39.7%	44.7%
New York	31.7%	27.9%	39.5%	33.5%	37.0%	25.1%	45.7%
North Carolina	30.5%	26.8%	49.7%	33.9%	40.2%	33.4%	48.4%
North Dakota	34.4%	32.5%	56.9%	N/A	N/A	43.7%	N/A
Ohio	29.7%	27.7%	47.4%	35.3%	38.3%	22.7%	54.0%
Oklahoma	32.5%	28.2%	50.6%	40.1%	41.3%	37.9%	43.7%
Oregon	30.4%	27.2%	48.9%	41.8%	35.5%	27.4%	48.5%
Pennsylvania	29.2%	26.5%	46.4%	36.3%	42.0%	29.0%	49.3%
Rhode Island	30.9%	26.7%	46.6%	43.7%	48.4%	N/A	45.5%
South Carolina	30.5%	27.1%	49.9%	34.5%	37.1%	33.4%	55.1%
South Dakota	32.3%	29.8%	51.1%	N/A	N/A	45.9%	51.0%
Tennessee	30.6%	27.8%	52.0%	37.2%	37.4%	37.7%	48.9%
Texas	34.7%	28.0%	42.7%	37.0%	36.2%	28.5%	46.1%
Utah	40.6%	38.5%	49.5%	50.7%	46.2%	48.7%	65.0%
Vermont	28.6%	27.6%	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	38.3%
Virginia	31.7%	28.4%	46.2%	34.5%	34.2%	23.4%	52.8%
Washington	31.7%	27.8%	50.4%	40.2%	33.7%	33.1%	53.0%
West Virginia	27.6%	26.7%	51.2%	37.5%	37.1%	N/A	46.9%
Wisconsin	30.4%	27.7%	48.2%	41.3%	51.5%	35.4%	57.0%
Wyoming	33.0%	30.7%	46.5%	N/A	N/A	40.8%	56.6%
United States	**31.5%**	**27.3%**	**43.0%**	**35.9%**	**34.4%**	**35.7%**	**48.8%**

Notes: Racial categories are non-Hispanic. N/A=not available.
Source: IWPR analysis of 2012-2014 American Community Survey microdata (Integrated Public Use Microdata Series, Version 6.0).

Appendix Table 7.5. Percent of Women Living in Rural Areas by Race/Ethnicity and State, 2014

	All Women	White	Hispanic	Black	Asian/Pacific Islander	Native American	Other Race or Two or More Races
Alabama	34.7%	37.3%	32.6%	29.4%	18.6%	40.9%	33.8%
Alaska	58.1%	59.9%	42.3%	N/A	36.6%	79.9%	48.2%
Arizona	10.3%	9.7%	8.3%	2.4%	4.4%	45.8%	10.9%
Arkansas	54.6%	56.3%	35.8%	59.4%	18.7%	40.5%	42.4%
California	2.4%	4.3%	1.5%	0.2%	0.3%	18.2%	2.4%
Colorado	23.5%	25.8%	20.3%	6.4%	18.1%	42.6%	15.9%
Connecticut	5.1%	6.7%	1.9%	N/A	2.8%	N/A	N/A
Florida	7.4%	9.5%	3.6%	6.1%	3.8%	16.9%	6.8%
Georgia	29.5%	37.3%	18.0%	22.0%	8.1%	28.0%	21.7%
Hawaii	30.2%	43.5%	35.2%	N/A	23.6%	N/A	31.1%
Idaho	49.5%	49.9%	49.4%	35.4%	36.0%	67.4%	41.1%
Illinois	15.8%	23.0%	3.3%	3.5%	2.3%	20.1%	11.8%
Indiana	30.6%	35.3%	17.2%	4.3%	11.4%	32.5%	20.3%
Iowa	58.0%	60.5%	50.5%	19.6%	32.8%	51.3%	46.3%
Kansas	45.8%	49.1%	42.6%	18.7%	20.7%	51.8%	42.7%
Kentucky	58.7%	62.6%	38.2%	30.4%	28.5%	67.2%	49.8%
Louisiana	32.6%	35.7%	20.4%	29.2%	16.1%	45.4%	36.5%
Maine	41.0%	41.6%	32.3%	20.4%	20.8%	51.7%	34.4%
Maryland	7.8%	12.0%	3.5%	3.0%	2.0%	N/A	6.9%
Massachusetts	13.7%	16.4%	4.2%	3.6%	7.8%	N/A	12.2%
Michigan	26.5%	31.9%	20.5%	3.6%	7.6%	59.0%	22.4%
Minnesota	35.2%	39.1%	28.0%	6.1%	7.7%	64.9%	25.0%
Mississippi	65.6%	65.7%	52.1%	67.1%	34.0%	88.0%	52.9%
Missouri	30.8%	35.0%	23.5%	7.7%	12.1%	42.8%	24.7%
Montana	89.1%	89.3%	82.5%	N/A	92.0%	90.7%	86.1%
Nebraska	46.4%	49.0%	49.4%	7.5%	13.8%	74.0%	35.0%
Nevada	11.4%	16.5%	7.3%	N/A	2.9%	44.1%	6.7%
New Hampshire	58.8%	60.3%	34.4%	39.1%	46.6%	N/A	53.3%
New Jersey	2.4%	3.1%	1.5%	2.1%	0.3%	N/A	1.7%
New Mexico	34.8%	33.8%	31.7%	29.3%	22.2%	60.4%	25.2%
New York	9.8%	15.9%	1.9%	1.3%	1.3%	24.9%	7.2%
North Carolina	33.1%	35.6%	27.2%	28.6%	11.0%	80.0%	29.3%
North Dakota	77.3%	76.8%	87.5%	42.4%	54.2%	95.7%	76.2%
Ohio	23.3%	27.3%	15.5%	3.2%	7.2%	20.8%	16.8%
Oklahoma	46.1%	48.7%	33.1%	19.1%	17.3%	69.4%	49.2%
Oregon	29.5%	31.3%	26.5%	7.3%	11.3%	56.9%	25.0%
Pennsylvania	17.0%	20.5%	5.0%	2.2%	3.4%	25.0%	12.5%
South Carolina	23.5%	21.4%	14.5%	30.5%	11.0%	35.9%	18.2%
South Dakota	80.1%	79.8%	67.8%	43.1%	67.8%	92.4%	85.8%
Tennessee	37.7%	43.8%	29.3%	15.6%	15.8%	40.6%	39.4%
Texas	15.8%	21.5%	12.6%	10.2%	2.4%	25.4%	12.9%
Utah	19.3%	20.5%	13.9%	N/A	8.0%	58.3%	12.0%
Vermont	65.6%	66.3%	57.4%	N/A	42.5%	N/A	62.2%
Virginia	28.0%	33.7%	12.1%	24.7%	5.1%	28.4%	18.8%
Washington	16.0%	17.8%	18.6%	3.1%	4.3%	28.2%	10.9%
West Virginia	81.8%	82.5%	85.0%	77.2%	57.8%	N/A	62.0%
Wisconsin	34.6%	38.8%	18.6%	2.2%	13.5%	62.0%	25.2%
Wyoming	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
United States	**21.5%**	**27.6%**	**9.3%**	**13.8%**	**4.9%**	**54.2%**	**17.8%**

Notes: Rural individuals are those who live outside of Standard Metropolitan Statistical Areas (SMSAs). Smaller states may be classified as completely metropolitan if they have any large cities or are close to a core urban area in another state and therefore may have no rural individuals. Racial categories are non-Hispanic. N/A=not available.
Source: IWPR analysis of 2012-2014 American Community Survey microdata (Integrated Public Use Microdata Series, Version 6.0).

APPENDIX B-SEVEN

METHODOLOGY

To analyze the status of Black women in the United States, IWPR selected data that prior research and experience have shown illuminate issues that are integral to women's lives and that allow for comparisons between each state and the United States as a whole. This report draws on multiple data sources, including data from federal government agencies such as the Census Bureau, the Bureau of Labor Statistics, and the Centers for Disease Control and Prevention. Nonprofit and research organizations also provide data that are used in the report. A major source of government data is the American Community Survey (ACS) from the Minnesota Population Center's Integrated Public Use Microdata Series (IPUMS). The ACS is a large annual survey conducted by the U.S. Census Bureau of a representative sample of the entire resident population of the United States, including both households and group quarter (GQ) facilities. GQ facilities include places such as college residence halls, residential treatment centers, skilled nursing facilities, group homes, military barracks, correctional facilities, workers' dormitories, and facilities for people experiencing homelessness. GQ types that are excluded from ACS sampling and data collection include domestic violence shelters, soup kitchens, regularly scheduled mobile vans, targeted nonsheltered outdoor locations, commercial maritime vessels, natural disaster shelters, and dangerous encampments.

For state-level estimates using the ACS, IWPR combined three years of data to ensure sufficient sample sizes. IWPR constructed a multi-year file by selecting the 2012, 2013, and 2014 data sets, adjusting dollar values to their 2014 equivalents using the Consumer Price Index for All Urban Consumers, and averaging the sample weights to represent the average population during the three-year period. Data on median earnings are not presented if the unweighted sample size is less than 100 for any cell; data on other indicators are not presented if the average cell size for the category total is less than 35.

The tables and figures present data for individuals disaggregated by race and ethnicity. In general, race and ethnicity are self-identified; the person providing the information on the survey form determines the group to which he or she (and other household members) belongs. People who identify as Hispanic or Latino may be of any race; to prevent double counting, IWPR's analysis of American Community Survey microdata separates Hispanics from racial categories—including White, Black (which includes those who identified as Black or African American), Asian/Pacific Islander (which includes those who identified as Chinese, Japanese, and Other Asian or Pacific Islander, including Native Hawaiians), or Native American (which includes those who identified as American Indian or Alaska Native). The ACS also allows respondents to identify with more specific racial groups and/or Hispanic origins. Published data from other sources may classify racial and ethnic groups differently; such differences are noted in the text.

IWPR used personal weights to obtain nationally representative statistics for person-level analyses, and household-level weights for household analyses. Weights included with the IPUMS ACS for person-level data adjust for the mixed geographic sampling rates, nonresponses, and individual sampling probabilities. Estimates from IPUMS ACS samples may not be consistent with summary table ACS estimates available from the U.S. Census Bureau due to the additional sampling error and the fact that over time, the Census Bureau changes the definitions and classifications for some variables. The IPUMS project provides harmonized data to maximize comparability over time; updates and corrections to the microdata released by the Census Bureau and IPUMS may result in minor variation in future analyses.

Additional methodological notes for each chapter are below.

POLITICAL PARTICIPATION

Analysis of women's voting activity uses data from the United States Census Bureau's Population Characteristics Reports on the November 2012 and November 2014 elections. For analysis of women's representation in political office, IWPR used the most recent data from the Center for American Women and Politics as of August 2016.

EMPLOYMENT & EARNINGS

Three-years (2012, 2013, and 2014) of data from the American Community Survey were used to analyze women's earnings and employment at the state level. When analyzing data on the median weekly earnings of women by union status, four years of data (2011, 2012, 2013, and 2014) from the Current Population Survey were used. IWPR constructed multi-year files by selecting the relevant data sets (for example, 2011, 2012, 2013, and 2014 for analysis of earnings by union status). Dollar values for each data set are adjusted to their 2014 equivalents using the Consumer Price Index for All Urban Consumers, and the sample weights are averaged to represent the average population during the multi-year period.

IWPR's estimate of the national gender earnings ratio based on the ACS (80.0 percent in 2014) differs slightly from the estimate based on the CPS, the official data set for national

earnings (79.0 percent in 2014). This report relies on the ACS because its larger sample size makes it possible to provide data at the state level disaggregated by race and ethnicity. The differences between the ACS and CPS and their impact on measures of employment and earnings are described in detail in Kromer and Howard (2011). While both the ACS and the CPS survey households, their sample frames also include noninstitutionalized group quarters such as college dorms and group homes for adults. The ACS also includes institutionalized group quarters, such as correctional facilities and nursing homes. College students away at school and living in dormitories are treated differently in the two surveys. In the ACS they would be residents of the dorm in the group quarters population while in the CPS they remain members of their family households. While all CPS interviews are collected using computer-assisted interviews, about half of the ACS households respond using the paper mail-back forms and half by computer-assisted interviewers (U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census 2014). The ACS collects data on work and earnings in the previous 12 months throughout the year while the CPS-ASEC collects work and earnings information for the previous calendar year during interviews collected in February-April each year. Finally, the two surveys have differences in wording of some questions that aim to collect similar social and demographic information.

WORK & FAMILY

Analysis of breadwinner mothers relies on 2012-2014 data from the ACS. Female breadwinners are defined as single mothers, irrespective of earnings or cohabitation, and married mothers who earn at least 40 percent of the couple's earnings. Single mothers are defined as women who are never married, divorced, separated, or widowed, or whose husband is absent. Single mothers who live in someone else's household (such as with their parents) are not included. All households with children under 18 who are related to the main householder by blood, adoption, or marriage are included in the denominator for the analysis of the share of households with female breadwinner mothers.

To calculate the cost of child care relative to Black women's earnings in each state, IWPR uses state-level data on the costs of center-based infant care from the National Association of Child Care Resource and Referral Agencies' January 2014 survey of Child Care Resource and Referral State Networks compiled by Child Care Aware of America. *

Analysis of access to paid sick days relies on data from the 2012-2014 National Health Interview Survey (NHIS). The NHIS is a household survey that includes a module administered to 36,697 sampled adults, and can be analyzed by gender, race, and ethnicity, and other characteristics.

Racial categories include only those who identified as non-Hispanic. "Other" category includes individuals reporting multiple racial identities. None of these populations were individually large enough for separate analysis; IWPR analyzed all of these groups together in the interest of inclusion.

POVERTY & OPPORTUNITY

In addition to the ACS data on health insurance, education, and poverty, additional data presented in the Poverty and Opportunity chapter come from the 2012 Survey of the United States Census Bureau's 2012 Survey of Business Owners. The survey is a sample survey, distributed to 1.75 million businesses. The Survey of Business Owners asks the sex, race, and ethnicity of the owner(s), along with other characteristics. Business ownership is classified as having 51 percent or more of the stock or equity in the business. Businesses can report being owned by more than one racial group because owners are allowed to report more than one race and a majority combination of owners may belong to more than one race. Firms reporting as Hispanic may be of any race.

IWPR's estimates of national poverty rates for women based on the ACS differ from estimates based on the CPS ASEC, the official data set used by the United States Census Bureau, due to differences in income measurement. While both the ACS and the CPS survey households, their sample frames also include noninstitutionalized group quarters, such as college dorms and group homes for adults. The ACS also includes institutionalized group quarters, such as correctional facilities and nursing homes. College students away at school and living in a dormitory are treated differently in the two surveys. In the ACS they would be residents of the dorm in the group quarters population while in the CPS they remain a member of their family household. While all CPS interviews are collected using computer-assisted interviews, about half of the ACS households respond using the paper mail-back form and half by computer-assisted interview (U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census 2014). The ACS collects income information in the previous 12 months throughout the year while the CPS ASEC collects income information for the previous calendar year during interviews collected in February-April each year. While the ACS asks eight questions about income from different sources, the CPS ASEC interview includes questions on more than 50 income sources (U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census 2014). Finally, the two surveys have differences in wording of some questions that aim to collect similar social and demographic information.

* In some states the cost of center-based infant care is based on the most recently available state market rate survey (Child Care Aware of America 2014a).

HEALTH & WELL-BEING

Much of the analysis of women's health relies on data from the Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (CDC), including the CDC's Wide-ranging Online Data for Epidemiologic Research (WONDER), Web-based Injury Statistics Query and Reporting System (WISQARS), and National Center for HIV, STD, and TB Prevention Atlas databases. In addition, IWPR analyzed microdata from the Behavioral Risk Factor Surveillance System (BRFSS) survey, which is conducted by the CDC annually in conjunction with the states, the District of Columbia, and five U.S. territories. BRFSS measures behavioral risk factors for the non-institutionalized adult population (aged 18 and older) living in the United States. Data are collected using telephone interviews; in 2011, the data collection methods were refined to include both landline and mobile telephone numbers in the sample to ensure all segments of the population were covered. When disaggregating BRFSS data at the state level by race/ethnicity, IWPR combined three years of data (2012, 2013, and 2014) to ensure sufficient sample sizes.

IWPR used sample weights provided by the CDC to obtain nationally representative statistics that adjust for sampling both landline and mobile telephone numbers. Data are not presented if the average cell size for the category total is less than 35.

VIOLENCE & SAFETY

Data in the Violence and Safety chapter are drawn from a published report from the CDC that analyzes findings from the 2011 National Intimate Partner and Sexual Violence Survey (NISVS), a national random-digit-dial telephone survey of the non-institutionalized U.S. English- and Spanish-speaking population aged 18 and older. In this CDC report, only Whites and Blacks are defined as non-Hispanic.

REFERENCES

Abbyad, Christine and Trina Reed Robertson. 2011. "African American Women's Preparation for Childbirth From the Perspective of African American Health-Care Providers." The Journal of Perinatal Education 20 (1): 45–53.

American Civil Liberties Union. 2011. "Georgetown and ACLU Comment: Proposed Rule, National Standards to Prevent, Detect, and Respond to Prison Rape." <https://www.aclu.org/prison-rape-elimination-act-2003-prea> (accessed March 18, 2016).

Addati, Laura, Naomi Cassirer, and Katherine Gilchrist. 2014. Maternity and Paternity at Work: Law and Practice across the World. Geneva: International Labour Organization. <http://www.ilo.org/global/publications/ilo-bookstore/order-online/books/WCMS_242615/lang--en/index.htm> (accessed December 15, 2015).

Alexander, Greg R., Martha S. Wingate, Deren Bader, and Michael D. Kogan. 2008. "The Increasing Racial Disparity in Infant Mortality Rates: Composition and Contributors to Recent US Trends." American Journal of Obstetrics and Gynecology 198 (1): 51.e1–51.e9.

Allegretto, Sylvia A., Marc Doussard, Dave Graham-Squire, Ken Jacobs, Dan Thompson, and Jeremy Thompson. 2013. Fast Food, Poverty Wages: The Public Cost of Low-Wage Jobs in the Fast-Food Industry. UC Berkeley Labor Center. <http://laborcenter.berkeley.edu/fast-food-poverty-wages-the-public-cost-of-low-wage-jobs-in-the-fast-food-industry/> (accessed November 12, 2015).

American Association of Suicidology. 2014. "African American Suicide Fact Sheet Based on 2012 Data." Fact Sheet. Washington, DC. <http://www.suicidology.org/Portals/14/docs/Resources/FactSheets/AfricanAmerican2012.pdf> (accessed December 7, 2015).

American Bar Association. 2014. Domestic Violence Arrest Policies. American Bar Association. <http://www.americanbar.org/content/dam/aba/administrative/domestic_violence1/Resources/statutorysummarycharts/2014%20Domestic%20Violence%20Arrest%20Policy%20Chart.authcheckdam.pdf> (accessed March 21, 2016).

Amnesty International. 2010. Deadly Delivery: The Maternal Health Care Crisis in the USA. Report. London, UK: Amnesty International. <http://www.amnestyusa.org/sites/default/files/pdfs/deadlydelivery.pdf> (accessed December 7, 2015).

Anderson, Julie, Ariane Hegewisch, and Jeff Hayes. 2015. "The Union Advantage for Women." Briefing Paper, IWPR #R409. Washington, DC: Institute for Women's Policy Research.

Anderson, Julie, Elyse Shaw, Chandra Childers, Jessica Milli, and Asha DuMonthier. 2016. Status of Women in the South. IWPR #R462. Washington, DC: Institute for Women's Policy Research. <http://www.iwpr.org/publications/pubs/status-of-women-in-the-south> (accessed February 25, 2016).

Anderson, Monica. 2015. A Rising Share of the U.S. Black Population Is Foreign Born. Washington, D.C.: Pew Research Center. <http://www.pewsocialtrends.org/2015/04/09/a-rising-share-of-the-u-s-Black-population-is-foreign-born/> (accessed April 26, 2016).

ASPE. 2015. Estimates of Child Care Eligibility and Receipt for Fiscal Year 2011. Washington, DC: U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, Office of the Assistant Secretary for Planning and Evaluation (ASPE). <https://aspe.hhs.gov/report/estimates-child-care-eligibility-and-receipt-fiscal-year-2011> (accessed December 15, 2015).

Austin, Algernon. 2015. Obamacare Reduces Racial Disparities in Health Coverage. Center for Global Policy Solutions. <http://globalpolicysolutions.org/wp-content/uploads/2015/12/ACA-and-Racial-Disparities.pdf> (accessed December 18, 2015).

Baer, Denise and Heidi Hartmann. 2014. Building Women's Political Careers: Strengthening the Pipeline to Higher Office. Report, IWPR #I926. Washington, DC: Institute for Women's Policy Research. <http://www.iwpr.org/publications/pubs/building-women2019s-political-careers-strengthening-the-pipeline-to-higher-office>.

Baglivio, Michael T., Nathan Epps, Kimberly Swartz, Mona Sayedul Huq, Amy Sheer, and Nancy S. Hardt. 2014. "The Prevalence of Adverse Childhood Experiences (ACE) in the Lives of Juvenile Offenders." Journal of Juvenile Justice 3 (2): 1–23.

Balfour, Lawrie. 2015. "Ida B. Wells and 'Color Line Justice': Rethinking Reparations in Feminist Terms." Perspectives on Politics 13 (2): 680–96.

Bethea, Traci N., Cari M. Kitahara, Jennifer Sonderman, Alpa V. Patel, Chinonye Harvey, Synnøve F. Knutsen,Yikyung Park, et al. 2014. "A Pooled Analysis of Body Mass Index and Pancreatic Cancer Mortality in African Americans." Cancer Epidemiology, Biomarkers & Prevention: A Publication of the American Association for Cancer Research, Cosponsored by the American Society of Preventive Oncology 23 (10): 2119–25.

Bianchi, Suzanne M., Nancy Folbre, and Douglas Wolf. 2012. "Unpaid Care Work." In For Love and Money: Care Provision in the United States, ed. Nancy Folbre, 40–64. New York, NY: Russell Sage Publishers.

Black Women's Health Imperative. 2016a. "IndexUS: The Black Women's Health Index." <http://www.bwhi.org/what/indexus-the-Black-women-s-health-index/> (accessed May 18, 2016).

———. 2016b. "Black Women and Breast Cancer." <http://www.bwhi.org/issues-and-resources/Black-women-and-breast-cancer/> (accessed May 18, 2016).

———. 2015a. "Heart Disease and Black Women: The Silent Killer That Speaks Volumes." <http://www.bwhi.org/issues-and-resources/heart-disease-and-Black-women-the-silent-killer-that-speaks-volumes/> (accessed December 3, 2015).

———. 2015b. "Reproductive Health & Justice." <http://www.bwhi.org/issues/reproductive-health/reproductive-health-justice/> (accessed December 4, 2015).

Black Women's Roundtable. 2015. Black Women in the United States, 2015. Washington, DC: National Coalition on Black Civic Participation. <http://ncbcp.org/news/releases/BWRReport.BlackWomeninU.S.2015.3.26.15FINAL.pdf> (accessed November 9, 2015).

———. 2016. Black Women in the United States: 2016. Black Women's Roundtable. <https://bwrvoterguide2016.files.wordpress.com/2016/03/5Black-women-in-the-us-2016.pdf?utm_source=Economic+Policy+Institute&utm_campaign=c5fe958ce0-EPI_News_04_15_164_15_2016&utm_medium=email&utm_term=0_e7c5826c50-c5fe958ce0-57982313> (accessed April 19, 2016).

Blau, David. 2001. The Childcare Problem: An Economic Analysis. New York, NY: Russell Sage Foundation.

Blau, Francine and Lawrence Kahn. 2007. "The Gender Pay Gap: Have Women Gone as Far as They Can?" Academy of Management 21 (1). <http://www.jstor.org/stable/4166284>.

Blay, Zeba. "For Black Women, Police Brutality And Sexual Harassment Go Hand In Hand." The Huffington Post, June 10, 2015. <http://www.huffingtonpost.com/2015/06/08/Black-women-police-brutality_n_7536896.html> (accessed November 30, 2015).

Boggs, Deborah A., Lynn Rosenberg, Clara L. Rodríguez-Bernal, and Julie R. Palmer. 2013. "Long-Term Diet Quality Is Associated with Lower Obesity Risk in Young African American Women with Normal BMI at Baseline." The Journal of Nutrition 143 (10): 1636–41.

Bouie, Jamelle. "Reparations Are Owed." Slate, May 22, 2014. <http://www.slate.com/articles/news_and_politics/politics/2014/05/reparations_should_be_paid_to_Black_americans_here_is_how_america_should.html> (accessed April 25, 2016).

Boustan, Leah Platt and William J. Collins. 2013. The Origins and Persistence of Black-White Differences in Women's Labor Force Participation (Working Paper 19040). Cambridge, MA: National Bureau of Economic Research. <http://www.econ.ucla.edu/lboustan/research_pdfs/research22_women_LFP.pdf> (accessed December 10, 2015).

Bratton, Kathleen A., Kerry L. Haynie, and Beth Reingold. 2006. "Agenda Setting and African American Women in State Legislatures." Journal of Women, Politics & Policy 28 (3-4): 71–96.

Breiding, Matthew J., Sharon G. Smith, Kathleen C. Basile, Mikel L. Walters, Jieru Chen, and Melissa T. Merrick. 2014. Prevalence and Characteristics of Sexual Violence, Stalking, and Intimate Partner Violence Victimization-National Intimate Partner and Sexual Violence Survey, United States, 2011. Atlanta, GA: Centers for Disease Control and Prevention. <http://www.cdc.gov/mmwr/pdf/ss/ss6308.pdf> (accessed October 13, 2015).

Brennan Center for Social Justice. 2006. Citizens Without Proof: A Survey of American's Possession of Documentary Proof of Citizenship and Photo Identification. New York, NY: Brennan Center for Justice at New York University School of Law. <http://www.brennancenter.org/sites/default/files/legacy/d/download_file_39242.pdf> (accessed December 30, 2015).

Brown, Anna. 2015. "U.S. Immigrant Population Projected to Rise, Even as Share Falls among Hispanics, Asians." Washington D.C.: Pew Research Center. <http://www.pewresearch.org/fact-tank/2015/03/09/u-s-immigrant-population-projected-to-rise-even-as-share-falls-among-hispanics-asians/> (accessed April 26, 2016).

Brown-Dean, Khalilah, Zoltan Hajnal, Christina Rivers, and Ismail White. 2015. 50 Years of the Voting Rights Act: The State of Race in Politics. Washington, DC: Joint Center for Political and Economic Studies. <http://jointcenter.org/sites/default/files/VRA%20report%2C%208.5.15%20%28540%20pm%29%28updated%29.pdf> (accessed November 23, 2015).

Bruenig, Matt. 2013. "How a Universal Basic Income Would Affect Poverty." Washington, D.C.: Demos. <http://www.demos.org/blog/10/3/13/how-universal-basic-income-would-affect-poverty> (accessed April 22, 2016).

Bureau of Justice Statistics. 2010. Parents in Prison and Their Minor Children. Special Report, NCJ 222984. U.S. Department of Justice, Office of Justice Programs. <http://www.bjs.gov/content/pub/pdf/pptmc.pdf> (accessed June 1, 2016).

Bureau of Labor Statistics. 2015a. "Table 3.3 Civilian Labor Force Participation Rate by Age, Gender, Race, and Ethnicity, 1994, 2004, 2014, and Projected 2024 (in Percent)." <http://www.bls.gov/emp/ep_table_303.htm> (accessed December 10, 2015).

———. 2015b. "Consumer Price Index Research Series Using Current Methods (CPI-U-RS)." <http://www.bls.gov/cpi/cpiursai1977-2014.pdf> (accessed March 14, 2016).

———. 2015c. "Table 39. Median Weekly Earnings of Full-Time Wage and Salary Workers by Detailed Occupation and Sex." <http://www.bls.gov/cps/cpsaat39.htm> (accessed December 10, 2015).

———. 2015d. "Occupational Data." <http://www.bls.gov/emp/ep_data_occupational_data.htm> (accessed May 26, 2016).

———. 2016a. "Table 3. Union Affiliation of Employed Wage and Salary Workers by Occupation and Industry, 2014-2015 Annual Averages." Economic News Release. <http://www.bls.gov/news.release/union2.t03.htm> (accessed May 12, 2016).

———. 2016b. "E-16. Unemployment Rates by Age, Sex, Race, and Hispanic or Latino Ethnicity." Household Data, Not Seasonally Adjusted, Quarterly Averages. <http://www.bls.gov/web/empsit/cpsee_e16.htm> (accessed May 12, 2016).

———. 2016c. "Table 24. Unemployed Persons by Marital Status, Race, Hispanic or Latino Ethnicity, Age, and Sex." <http://www.bls.gov/cps/cpsaat24.htm> (accessed May 26, 2016).

Burke, Amy and Adelle Simmons. 2014. Increased Coverage of Preventive Services with Zero Cost Sharing under the Affordable Care Act. ASPE Issue Brief. Washington, DC: U.S. Department of Health and Human Services. <http://aspe.hhs.gov/sites/default/files/pdf/76901/ib_PreventiveServices.pdf> (accessed December 4, 2015).

Burnham, Linda and Nik Theodore. 2012. Home Economics: The Invisible and Unregulated World of Domestic Work. NewYork, NY: National Domestic Workers Alliance. <http://www.domesticworkers.org/homeeconomics/> (accessed February 18, 2016).

Butler, Paul. 2013. "Black Male Exceptionalism? The Problems and Potential of Black Male-Focused Interventions." Du Bois Review 10 (2): 485–511.

Buzawa, Eve S. and Carl G. Buzawa. 2013. "What Does Research Suggest Are the Primary Risk and Protective Factors for Intimate Partner Violence (IPV) and What Is the Role of Economic Factors?" Journal of Policy Analysis and Management 32 (1): 128–37.

Caiazza, Amy, Misha Werschkul, Erica Williams, and April Shaw. 2004. The Status of Women in the States (R266). Washington, DC: Institute for Women's Policy Research. <http://www.iwpr.org/publications/pubs/the-status-of-women-in-the-states>.

Cannuscio, Carolyn C., Camara Jones, Ichiro Kawachi, Graham A. Colditz, Lisa Berkman, and Eric Rimm. 2002. "Reverberations of Family Illness: A Longitudinal Assessment of Informal Caregiving and Mental Health Status in the Nurses' Health Study." American Journal of Public Health 92 (8): 1305–11.

Carnevale, Anthony P. and Nicole Smith. 2015. Sharp Declines in Underemployment for College Graduates. Washingon, D.C.: Georgetown University, Center on Education and the Workforce. <https://cew.georgetown.edu/wp-content/uploads/Underemployment-Declines.pdf> (accessed May 16, 2016).

Carroll, Susan J. and Kira Sanbonmatsu. 2013. More Women Can Run: Gender and Pathways to the State Legislatures. New York, NY: Oxford University Press. <https://books.google.com/books/about/More_Women_Can_Run_Gender_and_Pathways_t.html?id=MXkQAAAAQBAJ>.

Carson, E. Ann. 2015. Prisoners in 2014. U.S. Department of Justice, Office of Justice Programs, Bureau of Justice Statistics. <http://www.bjs.gov/content/pub/pdf/p14.pdf> (accessed October 29, 2015).

Catalano, Shannan. 2012. Stalking Victims in the United States - Revised (NCJ 224527). Washington, DC: U.S. Department of Justice, Office of Justice Programs, Bureau of Justice Statistics. <http://www.bjs.gov/content/pub/pdf/svus_rev.pdf> (accessed February 13, 2015).

Center for American Women and Politics. 2016a. "History of Women of Color in U.S. Politics." New Brunswick, NJ: Center for American Women and Politics. < http://www.cawp.rutgers.edu/history-women-color-us-politics> (accessed August 11, 2016).

———. 2016b. "Women of Color in Elective Office 2016." New Brunswick, NJ: Center for American Women and Politics. < http://www.cawp.rutgers.edu/women-color-elective-office-2016> (accessed August 11, 2016).

———. 2016c. "Facts on Women of Color in Office." New Brunswick, NJ: Center for American Women and Politics. <http://www.cawp.rutgers.edu/fact-sheets-women-color> (accessed August 11, 2015).

———. 2016d. "Women in Statewide Elective Executive Office 2016." New Brunswick, NJ: Center for American Women and Politics. <http://www.cawp.rutgers.edu/women-statewide-elective-executive-office-2016> (accessed August 11, 2016).

———. 2016e. "Women in State Legislatures 2016." New Brunswick, NJ: Center for American Women and Politics. <http://www.cawp.rutgers.edu/women-state-legislature-2016> (accessed August 11, 2016).

———. 2016f. "Women in the U.S. House of Representatives 2016." New Brunswick, NJ: Center for American Women and Politics. <http://www.cawp.rutgers.edu/women-us-house-representatives-2016> (accessed August 11, 2016).

———. 2016. "Run Sister Run: Women of the African Diaspora Changing the Political Landscape." <http://www.cawp.rutgers.edu/education_training/ready_to_run/newjersey?qt-field_collection_quicktabs=1#qt-field_collection_quicktabs> (accessed January 8, 2016).

Center for Mississippi Health Policy. 2012. Medicaid Expansion: An Overview of Potential Impacts in Mississippi. Jackson, MS: Center for Mississippi Health Policy. <http://www.mshealthpolicy.com/medicaid-expansion/> (accessed April 16, 2015).

Center for Reproductive Rights. 2014. Reproductive Injustice: Racial and Gender Discrimination in U.S. Health Care. Center for Reproductive Rights, National Latina Institute for Reproductive Health, and SisterSong Women of Color Reproductive Justice Collective. <http://tbinternet.ohchr.org/Treaties/CERD/Shared%20Documents/USA/INT_CERD_NGO_USA_17560_E.pdf> (accessed January 6, 2016).

Center on Budget and Policy Priorities. 2015. Policy Basics: An Introduction to TANF. Washington, DC: Center on Budget and Policy Priorities. <http://www.cbpp.org/sites/default/files/atoms/files/7-22-10tanf2.pdf> (accessed February 19, 2016).

Centers for Disease Control and Prevention. 2010. "Current Depression Among Adults --- United States, 2006 and 2008." <http://www.cdc.gov/mmwr/preview/mmwrhtml/mm5938a2.htm> (accessed December 7, 2015).

———. 2011. "National Diabetes Fact Sheet, 2011." <http://www.cdc.gov/diabetes/pubs/pdf/ndfs_2011.pdf> (accessed December 3, 2015).

———. 2012. "Table 10D: 2011 Pregnancy Nutrition Surveillance." <http://www.cdc.gov/pednss/pnss_tables/pdf/national_table10.pdf> (accessed December 23, 2015).

———. 2013. "Leading Causes of Death by Race/Ethnicity, All Females--United States, 2013." <http://www.cdc.gov/women/lcod/2013/WomenRace_2013.pdf> (accessed December 3, 2015).

———. 2014. "Pelvic Inflammatory Disease - CDC Fact Sheet." <http://www.cdc.gov/std/PID/STDFact-PID.htm> (accessed December 4, 2015).

———. 2015a. "Women and Heart Disease Fact Sheet." <http://www.cdc.gov/dhdsp/data_statistics/fact_sheets/fs_women_heart.htm> (accessed June 1, 2016).

———. 2015b. "Underlying Cause of Death 1999-2014 on CDC WONDER Online Database, Released 2015. Data Are Compiled from Data Provided by the 57 Vital Statistics Jurisdictions through the Vital Statistics Cooperative Program." <http://wonder.cdc.gov/ucd-icd10.html> (accessed December 9, 2015).

———. 2015c. "Racial or Ethnic Variations." <http://www.cdc.gov/cancer/dcpc/data/ethnic.htm> (accessed December 3, 2015).

———. 2015d. "Cancer Among Women." <http://www.cdc.gov/cancer/dcpc/data/women.htm> (accessed December 3, 2015).

———. 2015e. "Basics About Diabetes." <http://www.cdc.gov/diabetes/basics/diabetes.html> (accessed May 18, 2016).

———. 2015f. "Age-Adjusted Incidence of Diagnosed Diabetes per 1,000 Population Aged 18-79 Years, by Sex, United States, 1980-2014." <http://www.cdc.gov/diabetes/statistics/incidence/fig4.htm> (accessed December 3, 2015).

———. 2015g. NCHHSTP Atlas Interactive Tool. <http://gis.cdc.gov/GRASP/NCHHSTPAtlas/main.html> (accessed November 4, 2015).

———. 2015h. "Table 10. Chlamydia - Reported Cases and Rates of Reported Cases by Age Group and Sex, United States, 2010-2014." <http://www.cdc.gov/std/stats14/tables/10.htm> (accessed January 29, 2016).

———. 2015i. "Table 11B. Chlamydia - Rates of Reported Cases per 100,000 Population by Race/Ethnicity, Age Group, and Sex, United States, 2014." <http://www.cdc.gov/std/stats14/tables/11b.htm> (accessed January 29, 2016).

———. 2015j. "Pregnancy Mortality Surveillance System." <http://www.cdc.gov/reproductivehealth/maternalinfanthealth/pmss.html> (accessed January 15, 2016).

———. 2015k. "Suicide: Facts at a Glance." <http://www.cdc.gov/violenceprevention/pdf/suicide-datasheet-a.pdf> (accessed December 7, 2015).

———. 2015l. "Adult Obesity Facts." <http://www.cdc.gov/obesity/data/adult.html> (accessed December 24, 2015).

———. 2015m. "Fatal Injury Reports, 1999-2014." Web-Based Injury Statistics Query and Reporting System. <http://www.cdc.gov/injury/wisqars/fatal_injury_reports.html> (accessed December 23, 2015).

Chang, Mariko. 2010. Lifting as We Climb: Women of Color, Wealth, and America's Future. Oakland, CA: Insight Center for Community Economic Development. <http://mariko-chang.com/LiftingAsWeClimb.pdf> (accessed December 9, 2015).

Chesney-Lind, Meda. 2002. "Criminalizing Victimization: The Unintended Consequences of Pro-Arrest Policies for Girls and Women." Criminology & Public Policy 2 (1): 81–90.

Child Care Aware of America. 2014. Parents and the High Cost of Child Care: 2014 Report. Arlington, VA: Child Care Aware of America. <https://www.ncsl.org/documents/cyf/2014_Parents_and_the_High_Cost_of_Child_Care.pdf> (accessed March 12, 2015).

———. 2015. Parents and the High Cost of Child Care: 2015 Report. Arlington, VA: Child Care Aware of America. <http://usa.childcareaware.org/wp-content/uploads/2015/12/Parents-and-the-High-Cost-of-Child-Care-2015-FINAL.pdf> (accessed December 11, 2015).

Childers, Chandra. 2014. Coming Together? Trends in Black-White Occupational Segregation, 1980 to 2009 (Dissertation). University of Washington.

Chow, Julian Chun-Chung, Kim Jaffee, and Lonnie Snowden. 2003. "Racial/Ethnic Disparities in the Use of Mental Health Services in Poverty Areas." American Journal of Public Health 93 (5): 792–97.

Coates, Ta-Nehisi. "The Case for Reparations." The Atlantic, June 2014. <http://www.theatlantic.com/magazine/archive/2014/06/the-case-for-reparations/361631/> (accessed April 25, 2016).

Coleman-Jensen, Alisha, Matthew Rabbitt, Christian Gregory, and Anita Singh. 2015. Household Food Security inthe United States in 2014. Economic Research Report, ERR194. Washington, DC: United States Department of Agriculture. Economic Research Service. <http://www.ers.usda.gov/media/1896841/err194.pdf> (accessed September 21, 2015).

Collins, Patricia Hill. 2000a. "The Politics of Black Feminist Thought." In Black Feminist Thought: Knowledge, Consciousness and the Politics of Empowerment, 2nd ed. Routledge University Press.

———. 2000b. "Work, Family and Black Women's Oppression." In Black Feminist Thought: Knowledge, Consciousness and the Politics of Empowerment, 2nd ed. Routledge University Press.

Commission on the Social Determinants of Health. 2008. Closing the Gap in a Generation: Health Equity through Action on the Social Determinants of Health. Geneva, Switzerland: World Health Organization. <http://www.who.int/social_determinants/thecommission/finalreport/en/> (accessed October 29, 2015).

Conrad, Cecilia. "Black Women: The Unfinished Agenda." The American Prospect, 2008. <http://prospect.org/article/Black-women-unfinished-agenda> (accessed May 20, 2016).

Conrad, Cecilia, John Whitehead, Patrick L. Mason, and James Stewart, eds. 2005. African Americans in the U.S.Economy. Lanham, MD: Rowman & Littlefield Publishers, Inc.

Conrad, Selby M., Nicole Placella, Marina Tolou-Shams, Christie J. Rizzo, and Larry K. Brown. 2014. "Gender Differences in Recidivism Rates for Juvenile Justice Youth: The Impact of Sexual Abuse." Law and Human Behavior 38 (4): 305–14.

Cooper, David. 2015. Raising the Minimum Wage to $12 by 2020 Would Lift Wages for 35 Million American Workers. Washington DC: Economic Policy Institute. <http://www.epi.org/publication/raising-the-minimum-wage-to-12-by-2020-would-lift-wages-for-35-million-american-workers/> (accessed November 10, 2015).

Cooper, David, Mary Gable, and Algernon Austin. 2012. The Public-Sector Jobs Crisis: Women and African Americans Hit Hardest by Job Losses in State and Local Governments. Briefing Paper #339. Washington DC: Economic Policy Institute. <http://www.epi.org/publication/bp339-public-sector-jobs-crisis/> (accessed February 26, 2016).

Cozier, Yvette C., Jeffrey Yu, Patricia F. Coogan, Traci N. Bethea, Lynn Rosenberg, and Julie R. Palmer. 2014. "Racism, Segregation, and Risk of Obesity in the Black Women's Health Study." American Journal of Epidemiology 179 (7): 875–83.

Crenshaw, Kimberlé. 1991. "Mapping the Margins: Intersectionality, Identity Politics, and Violence Against Women of Color." Stanford Law Review 43 (6): 1241–99.

———. 2012. "From Private Violence to Mass Incarceration: Thinking Intersectionally About Women, Race, and Social Control." UCLA Law Review 59 (6): 1418–72.

———. 2015. Black Girls Matter: Pushed Out, Overpoliced, and Underprotected. New York, NY: African American Policy Forum, Center for Intersectionality and Social Policy Studies. <http://www.law.columbia.edu/null/download?&exclusive=filemgr.download&file_id=613546>.

Crenshaw, Kimberlé and Andrea J. Ritchie. 2015. Say Her Name: Resisting Police Brutality Against Black Women. African American Policy Forum, Center for Intersectionality and Social Policy Studies. <http://static1.squarespace.com/static/53f20d90e4b0b80451158d8c/t/55a810d7e4b058f342f55873/1437077719984/AAPF_SMN_Brief_full_singles.compressed.pdf> (accessed October 27, 2015).

Crosby, Alex, Beth Han, LaVonne A. G. Ortega, Sharyn E. Parks, and Joseph Gfroerer. 2011. "Suicidal Thoughts and Behaviors Among Adults Aged ≥18 Years --- United States, 2008-2009." Surveillance Summaries 60 (SS13): 1–22.

Darity, William A. and Dania Frank. 2005. "The Economics of Reparations." In African Americans in the U.S. Economy, by C.A. Conrad, J. Whitehead, P. Mason, and J. Stewart. Lanham, MD: Rowman & Littlefield Publishers, Inc.

Davis, Alyssa and Elise Gould. 2015. Closing the Pay Gap and Beyond: A Comprehensive Strategy for Improving Economic Security for Women and Families. Washington, DC: Economic Policy Institute. <http://www.epi.org/files/2015/closing-the-pay-gap.pdf> (accessed January 1, 2016).

DeLeon-Granados, William, William Wells, and Ruddyard Binsbacher. 2006. "Arresting Developments Trends in Female Arrests for Domestic Violence and Proposed Explanations." Violence Against Women 12 (4): 355–71.

DeNavas-Walt, Carmen and Bernadette D. Proctor. 2015. Income and Poverty in the United States: 2014. Current Population Reports, P60-252. Washington, DC: U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census. <https://www.census.gov/content/dam/Census/library/publications/2015/demo/p60-252.pdf> (accessed December 15, 2015).

DeSantis, Carol E., Stacey A. Fedewa, Ann Goding Sauer, Joan L. Kramer, Robert A. Smith, and Ahmedin Jemal. 2016. "Breast Cancer Statistics, 2015: Convergence of Incidence Rates between Black and White Women." CA: A Cancer Journal for Clinicians 66 (1): 31–42.

deVuono-Powell, Saneta, Chris Schweidler, Alicia Walters, and Azadeh Zohrabi. 2015. Who Pays? The True Cost of Incarceration on Families. Oakland, CA: Ella Baker Center, Forward Together, Research Action Design. <http://whopaysreport.org/wp-content/uploads/2015/09/Who-Pays-FINAL.pdf> (accessed October 29, 2015).

DiSantis, Katherine I., Sonya A. Grier, J. Michael Oakes, and Shiriki K. Kumanyika. 2014. "Food Prices and Food Shopping Decisions of Black Women." Appetite 77 (June): 106–14.

Dittmar, Kelly. 2014. The Status of Black Women in American Politics. Brooklyn, NY: Center for American Women and Politics, Higher Heights Leadership Fund. <http://d3n8a8pro7vhmx.cloudfront.net/themes/51c5f2728ed5f02d1e000002/attachments/original/1404487580/Status-of-Black-Women-Final-Report.pdf?1404487580> (accessed November 17, 2015).

———. 2015. Voices. Votes. Leadership. The Status of Black Women in American Politics. Center for American Women & Politics for Higher Heights Leadership Fund. <https://d3n8a8pro7vhmx.cloudfront.net/higherheightsforamerica/pages/273/attachments/original/1448850682/HH2015_FINAL_11.24.15.pdf?1448850682> (accessed December 1, 2015).

Dolan, Karen and Jodi L. Carr. 2015. The Poor Get Prison: The Alarming Spread of the Criminalization of Poverty. Washington D.C.: Institute for Policy Studies. <http://www.ips-dc.org/wp-content/uploads/2015/03/IPS-The-Poor-Get-Prison-Final.pdf> (accessed April 22, 2016).

Drapeau, Christopher W. and John L. McIntosh. 2015. U.S.A. Suicide: 2013 Official Final Data. Washington, DC: American Association of Suicidology. <http://www.suicidology.org/Portals/14/docs/Resources/FactSheets/2013datapgsv3.pdf> (accessed December 7, 2015).

Drug Policy Alliance. 2016. "Fact Sheet: Women, Prison, and the Drug War." Fact Sheet. New York, NY. <http://www.drugpolicy.org/sites/default/files/DPA_Fact%20Sheet_Women%20Prison%20and%20Drug%20War%20%28Feb.%202016%29.pdf> (accessed March 21, 2016).

Duckett, Philethea and Samantha Artiga. 2013. "Health Coverage for the Black Population Today and Under the Affordable Care Act." Kaiser Family Foundation. <http://kff.org/disparities-policy/fact-sheet/health-coverage-for-the-Black-population-today-and-under-the-affordable-care-act/> (accessed December 4, 2015).

Dugan, Andrew and Scott Vanderbilt. 2014. "Black College Grads More Likely to Graduate With Debt." Gallup.com. <http://www.gallup.com/poll/176051/Black-college-graduates-likely-graduate-debt.aspx> (accessed December 18, 2015).

Earle, Alison, Zitha Mokomane, and Jody Heymann. 2011. "International Perspectives on Work-Family Policies: Lessons from the World's Most Competitive Economies." The Future of Children 21 (2). <http://www.futureofchildren.org/futureofchildren/publications/docs/21_02_09.pdf> (accessed December 15, 2015).

Eaton, Nicholas R., Katherine M. Keyes, Robert F. Krueger, Steve Balsis, Andrew E. Skodol, Kristian E. Markon, Bridget F. Grant, and Deborah S. Hasin. 2012. "An Invariant Dimensional Liability Model of Gender Differences in Mental Disorder Prevalence: Evidence from a National Sample." Journal of Abnormal Psychology 121 (1): 282–88.

England, Paula, Michelle Budig, and Nancy Folbre. 2002. "Wages of Virtue: The Relative Pay of Care Work." Social Problems 49 (4): 455–73.

Entmacher, Joan, Lauren Frohlich, Katherine Robbins, Emily Martin, and Liz Watson. 2014. Underpaid & Overloaded: Women in Low-Wage Jobs. <http://www.nwlc.org/resource/underpaid-overloaded-women-low-wage-jobs> (accessed September 15, 2015).

Fincher, Contessa, Joyce E. Williams, Vicky MacLean, Jeroan J. Allison, Catarina I. Kiefe, and John Canto. 2004. "Racial Disparities in Coronary Heart Disease: A Sociological View of the Medical Literature on Physician Bias." Ethnicity & Disease 14 (3): 360–71.

Fischer, Jocelyn and Jeff Hayes. 2013. "The Importance of Social Security in the Incomes of Older Americans: Differences by Gender, Age, Race/Ethnicity, and Marital Status." Briefing Paper, IWPR #D503. Washington, DC: Institute for Women's Policy Research. <http://www.iwpr.org/publications/pubs/the-importance-of-social-security-in-the-incomes-of-older-americans-differences-by-gender-age-race-ethnicity-and-marital-status> (accessed December 11, 2015).

Floyd, Ife, LaDonna Pavetti, and Liz Schott. 2015. TANF Continues to Weaken as a Safety Net. Washington, DC: Center on Budget and Policy Priorities. <http://www.cbpp.org/sites/default/files/atoms/files/6-16-15tanf.pdf> (accessed December 22, 2015).

Fowler, Daniel. 2015. "Lightness/Darkness of Skin Affects Male Immigrants' Likelihood of Gaining Employment." ASA Press Release. Chicago, IL. <http://www.asanet.org/press/skin_color_immigrant_employment.cfm> (accessed April 26, 2016).

Fraga, Luis Ricardo, Linda Lopez, Valerie Martinez-Ebers, and Ricardo Ramírez. 2006. "Gender and Ethnicity: Patterns of

Electoral Success and Legislative Advocacy Among Latina and Latino State Officials in Four States." Journal of Women, Politics & Policy 28 (3-4): 121–45.

Fredericksen, Allyson and Desiree Omli. 2016. Jobs After Jail: Ending the Prison to Poverty Pipeline. Seattle, WA: Alliance for a Just Society. <https://jobgap2013.files.wordpress.com/2016/02/ajs_job_after_jail_report_final_pdf.pdf> (accessed March 31, 2016).

Garfield, Rachel and Anthony Damico. 2016. The Coverage Gap: Uninsured Poor Adults in States That Do Not Expand Medicaid – An Update. Menlo Park, CA: Kaiser Family Foundation. <http://kff.org/health-reform/issue-brief/the-coverage-gap-uninsured-poor-adults-in-states-that-do-not-expand-medicaid-an-update/>.

Garza, Alicia. "Do We Care for the Black Women Who Care for Us?" The Huffington Post, February 24, 2016. <http://www.huffingtonpost.com/alicia-garza/do-we-care-for-Black-women_b_9272422.html> (accessed April 15, 2016).

Gaskins, Keesha and Sundeep Iyer. 2012. The Challenge of Obtaining Voter Identification. New York, NY: Brennan Center for Justice at New York University School of Law. <http://www.brennancenter.org/sites/default/files/legacy/Democracy/VRE/Challenge_of_Obtaining_Voter_ID.pdf> (accessed December 31, 2015).

Gault, Barbara, Heidi Hartmann, Ariane Hegewisch, Jessica Milli, and Lindsey Reichlin. 2014. Paid Parental Leave in the United States: What the Data Tell Us about Access, Usage, and Economic and Health Benefits. Washington, DC: Institute for Women's Policy Research. <http://www.iwpr.org/publications/pubs/paid-parental-leave-in-the-united-states-what-the-data-tell-us-about-access-usage-and-economic-and-health-benefits> (accessed December 15, 2015).

Gault, Barbara, Lindsey Reichlin, Elizabeth Reynolds, and Meghan Froehner. 2014a. 4.8 Million College Students Are Raising Children. Fact Sheet, C424. Washington, DC: Institute for Women's Policy Research. <http://www.iwpr.org/publications/pubs/4.8-million-college-students-are-raising-children> (accessed September 8, 2015).

———. 2014b. Campus Child Care Declining Even As Growing Numbers of Parents Attend College. Fact Sheet, C425. Washington, DC: Institute for Women's Policy Research. <http://www.iwpr.org/publications/pubs/campus-child-care-declining-even-as-growing-numbers-of-parents-attend-college> (accessed September 8, 2015).

Gilfus, Mary E. 2002. Women's Experiences of Abuse as a Risk Factor for Incarceration. VAWnet Applied Research Forum, National Online Resource Center on Violence Against Women. <http://www.vawnet.org/assoc_files_vawnet/ar_incarceration.pdf> (accessed March 21, 2016).

Goldin, Claudia. 1977. "Female Labor Force Participation: The Origin of Black and White Differences, 1870 and 1880." The Journal of Economic History 37 (1): 87–108.

Goldrick-Rab, Sara, Robert Kelchen, and Jason Houle. 2014. The Color of Student Debt: Implications for Federal Loan Program Reforms for Black Students and Historically Black Colleges and Universities. Wisconsin Hope Lab, University of Wisconsin-Madison. <https://news.education.wisc.edu/docs/WebDispenser/news-connections-pdf/thecolorofstudentdebt-draft.pdf?sfvrsn=4> (accessed December 18, 2015).

Goodman, David C., Shannon Brownlee, Chiang-Hua Chang, and Elliott S. Fisher. 2010. Regional and Racial Variation in Primary Care and the Quality of Care among Medicare Beneficiaries. Dartmouth Atlas Project. <http://www.dartmouthatlas.org/downloads/reports/Primary_care_report_090910.pdf> (accessed December 7, 2015).

Gould, Elise. 2015. Child Care Workers Aren't Paid Enough to Make Ends Meet. Washington, DC: Economic Policy Institute. <http://www.epi.org/publication/child-care-workers-arent-paid-enough-to-make-ends-meet/> (accessed December 14, 2015).

Gould, Elise and Will Kimball. 2015. "Right-To-Work" States Still Have Lower Wages. Washington, DC: Economic Policy Institute. <http://www.epi.org/files/pdf/82934.pdf> (accessed December 23, 2015).

GovTrack.us. 2016. "Commission to Study Reparation Proposals for African-Americans Act (2009 - H.R. 40)." GovTrack.us. <https://www.govtrack.us/congress/bills/111/hr40> (accessed April 25, 2016).

Grant, Jaime M., Lisa A. Mottet, and Justin Tanis. 2011. Injustice at Every Turn: A Report of the National Transgender Discrimination Survey. Washington, DC: National Gay and Lesbian Task Force & National Center for Transgender Equality. <http://endtransdiscrimination.org/PDFs/NTDS_Report.pdf> (accessed February 20, 2015).

Green, Alexander R., Dana R. Carney, Daniel J. Pallin, Long H. Ngo, Kristal L. Raymond, Lisa I. Iezzoni, and Mahzarin R. Banaji. 2007. "Implicit Bias among Physicians and Its Prediction of Thrombolysis Decisions for Black and White Patients." Journal of General Internal Medicine 22 (9): 1231–38.

Gronke, Paul and Charles Stewart. 2013. Early Voting in Florida. SSRN Scholarly Paper, ID 2247144. Rochester, NY: Social Science Research Network. <http://papers.ssrn.com/abstract=2247144> (accessed May 12, 2016).

Guerino, Paul, Paige M. Harrison, and William J. Sabol. 2011. Prisoners in 2010. U.S. Department of Justice, Office of Justice Programs, Bureau of Justice Statistics. <http://www.bjs.gov/content/pub/pdf/p10.pdf> (accessed October 29, 2015).

Gustafson, Kaaryn. 2009. "The Criminalization of Poverty." Journal of Criminal Law and Criminology 99 (3). <http://scholarlycommons.law.northwestern.edu/cgi/viewcontent.cgi?article=7330&context=jclc> (accessed April 22, 2016).

———. 2012. "Can We Think about Poverty without Thinking about Criminality?" Poverty & Race 21 (1): 4,7.

Guttmacher Institute. 2015. "Trends in the States: First Quarter 2015." <http://www.guttmacher.org/media/inthenews/2015/04/02/index.html> (accessed December 4, 2015).

Guttmacher Institute. 2016. "Medicaid Family Planning Eligibility Expansions." <http://www.guttmacher.org/statecenter/spibs/spib_SMFPE.pdf> (accessed August 18, 2016).

Guy-Sheftall, Beverly. 1995. Words of Fire: An Anthology of African-American Feminist Thought. New York: The New Press.

Haarmann, Claudia, Dirk Haarmann, Herbert Jauch, Hilma Shindondola-Mote, Nicoli Nattrass, Ingrid van Niekerk, and Michael Samson. 2009. Making the Difference! The BIG in Namibia. Basic Income Grant Coalition. <http://www.bignam.org/Publications/BIG_Assessment_report_08b.pdf> (accessed April 22, 2016).

Hall, Randi. 2016. Drug Testing and Public Assistance. Washington, DC: CLASP. <http://www.clasp.org/resources-and-publications/publication-1/2016.02.04-Drug-Testing-and-Public-Assistance-Brief-Final.pdf> (accessed April 22, 2016).

Hartmann, Heidi, Chandra Childers, and Elyse Shaw. 2015. Toward Our Children's Keeper: A Data-Driven Analysis of the Interim Report of the My Brother's Keeper Initiative Shows the Shared Fate of Boys and Girls of Color. Report. Washington, DC: Institute for Women's Policy Research and the African American Policy Forum. <http://www.iwpr.org/publications/pubs/toward-our-childrens-keeper-a-data-driven-analysis-of-the-interim-report-of-the-my-brothers-keeper-initiative> (accessed January 28, 2016).

Hartmann, Heidi, Elyse Shaw, and Elizabeth Pandya. 2013. "Women and Men in the Recovery: Where the Jobs Are; Women's Recovery Strengthens in Year Four." Briefing Paper, IWPR #C408. Washington D.C: Institute for Women's Policy Research. <http://iwpr.org/publications/pubs/women-and-men-in-the-recovery-where-the-jobs-are-women2019s-recovery-strengthens-in-year-four?searchterm=women+gain> (accessed April 26, 2016).

Haviland, Mary, Victoria Frye, Valli Rajah, Juhu Thukral, and Mary Trinity. 2001. The Family Protection and Domestic Violence Intervention Act of 1995: Examining the Effects of Mandatory Arrest in New York City. Family Violence Project, Urban Justice Center. <http://www.connectnyc.org/docs/Mandatory_Arrest_Report.pdf> (accessed March 21, 2016).

Heflin, Colleen M. and John Iceland. 2009. "Poverty, Material Hardship, and Depression." Social Science Quarterly 90 (5): 1051–71.

Hegewisch, Ariane, Barbara Gault, and Heidi Hartmann. 2016. Pathways to Equity: Narrowing the Wage Gap by Improving Women's Access to Good Middle-Skill Jobs (IWPR #C438). Washington D.C: Institute for Women's Policy Research. <http://womenandgoodjobs.org/app/uploads/2016/03/Middle-skills_layout-FINAL.pdf>

(accessed May 16, 2016).

Hegewisch, Ariane, Jeff Hayes, Jessica Milli, Elyse Shaw, and Heidi Hartmann. 2015. Looking Back, Looking Ahead: Chartbook on Women's Progress. Washington, DC: AARP Public Policy Institute. <http://www.aarp.org/content/dam/aarp/ppi/2015/Chartbook-On-Women%27s-Progress.pdf> (accessed December 7, 2015).

Hegewisch, Ariane, Hannah Liepmann, Jeffrey Hayes, and Heidi Hartmann. 2010. Separate and Not Equal? Gender Segregation in the Labor Market and the Gender Wage Gap (IWPR Briefing Paper #377). Washington, DC: Institute for Women's Policy Research. <http://www.iwpr.org/publications/pubs/separate-and-not-equal-gender-segregation-in-the-labor-market-and-the-gender-wage-gap>.

Hess, Cynthia. 2013. Women and the Care Crisis: Valuing In-Home Care in Policy and Practice. Briefing Paper, C401. Washington, DC: Institute for Women's Policy Research.

Hess, Cynthia, Jessica Milli, Jeff Hayes, Ariane Hegewisch, Yana Mayayeva, Stephanie Roman, Julie Anderson, and Justine Augeri. 2015. The Status of Women in the States: 2015. Report, IWPR #R400. Washington, DC: Institute for Women's Policy Research. <http://www.iwpr.org/publications/pubs/the-status-of-women-in-the-states-2015-full-report> (accessed September 15, 2015).

Higher Heights Leadership Fund. 2015. "About Higher Heights Leadership Fund." Leadership Fund. <http://www.higherheightsleadershipfund.org/about> (accessed February 4, 2016).

Hirsch, Amy E., Sharon M. Dietrich, Rue Landau, Peter D. Schneider, Irv Ackelsberg, Judith Bernstein-Baker, and Joseph Hohenstein. 2002. Every Door Closed: Barriers Facing Parents with Criminal Records. Washington D.C.: Center for Law and Social Policy. <http://www.clasp.org/resources-and-publications/archive/0092.pdf> (accessed March 221, 2016).

Hoel, Andrew W., Ahmed Kayssi, Soma Brahmanandam, Michael Belkin, Michael S. Conte, and Louis L. Nguyen.2009. "Under-Representation of Women and Ethnic Minorities in Vascular Surgery Randomized Controlled Trials." Journal of Vascular Surgery: Official Publication, the Society for Vascular Surgery [and] International Society for Cardiovascular Surgery, North American Chapter 50 (2): 349–54.

Holder, Michelle. 2012. Women, Blacks, and Older Workers Struggle in Post-Recession New York City. Policy Brief. NewYork, NY: Community Service Society. <http://b.3cdn.net/nycss/d65840d1b781e0dd77_lam6iiv9d.pdf> (accessed May 20, 2016).

Holland, Jesse J. "Urban League: Blacks Doing Worse in the Job Market." Associated Press, April 2, 2014. <http://bigstory.ap.org/article/urban-league-Blacks-doing-worse-job-market> (accessed May 16, 2016).

Honderich, Kiaran. 2003. The Real Cost of Prisons for Women and Their Children. The Real Cost of Prisons Project. <http://realcostofprisons.org/materials/rcpp_background_women.pdf> (accessed October 26, 2015).

Huber, Erika, David Kassabian, and Elissa Cohen. 2014. Welfare Rules Databook: State TANF Policies as of July 2013. OPRE Report, 2014-52. Washington, DC: Office of Planning, Research and Evaluation, Administration for Children and Families. <http://anfdata.urban.org/databooks/Welfare%20Rules%20Databook%202013.pdf> (accessed June 6, 2016).

Hughes, D. and M. A. Dodge. 1997. "African American Women in the Workplace: Relationships between Job Conditions, Racial Bias at Work, and Perceived Job Quality." American Journal of Community Psychology 25 (5): 581–99.

Hughes, Robin L. and Mary F. Howard-Hamilton. 2003. "Insights: Emphasizing Issues That Affect African American Women." New Directions for Student Services, no. 104 (Winter): 95–104.

Institute for Women's Policy Research. 2015a. IWPR Analysis of Data from the 2012-2014 American Community Survey,

Jha, Ashish K., Paul D. Varosy, Alka M. Kanaya, Donald B. Hunninghake, Mark A. Hlatky, David D. Waters, Curt D. Furberg, and Michael G. Shlipak. 2003. "Differences in Medical Care and Disease Outcomes Among Black and White Women With Heart Disease." Circulation 108 (9): 1089–94.

Joffe, Carole and Willie J. Parker. 2012. "Race, Reproductive Politics and Reproductive Health Care in the Contemporary United States." Contraception 86: 1–3.

Jones, Imara. "The Crisis in Black and Brown Youth Unemployment." Colorlines, January 15, 2014. <http://www.colorlines.com/articles/crisis-Black-and-brown-youth-unemployment> (accessed May 12, 2016).

Jones, Jacqueline. 2010. Labor of Love, Labor of Sorrow: Black Women, Work, and the Family, from

Slavery to the Present. 2nd ed. Philadelphia, PA: Basic Books.Jones, Janelle and John Schmitt. 2014. A College Degree Is No Guarantee. Washington, DC: Center for Economic Policy Research. <http://cepr.net/documents/Black-coll-grads-2014-05.pdf> (accessed May 16, 2016).

Jones, Janelle, John Schmitt, and Nicole Woo. 2014. Women, Working Families, and Unions. Washington, DC: Center for Economic and Policy Research. <http://www.cepr.net/documents/women-union-2014-06.pdf> (accessed February 10, 2015).

Jordan-Zachery, Juli2003. "The Female Bogeyman." Souls 5 (2): 42–61.

Kaiser Family Foundation. 2014. "Women and HIV/AIDS in the United States." Washington, DC. <http://kff.org/hivaids/ fact-sheet/women-and-hivaids-in-the-united-states/> (accessed December 3, 2015).

———. 2015. "Key Facts about the Uninsured Population." <http://kff.org/uninsured/fact-sheet/key-facts-about-the-uninsured-population/> (accessed December 18, 2015).

———. 2016. "Status of State Action on the Medicaid Expansion Decision." <http://kff.org/health-reform/state-indicator/state-activity-around-expanding-medicaid-under-the-affordable-care-act/> (accessed December 18, 2015).

Kasdan, Diana. 2013. Early Voting: What Works. Brennan Center for Justice at New York University School of Law. <https://www.brennancenter.org/sites/default/files/publications/VotingReport_Web.pdf> (accessed May 12, 2016).

King, Miriam, Steven Ruggles, Trent Alexander, Sarah Flood, Katie Genadek, Matthew B. Schroeder, Brandon Trampe, and Rebecca Vick. 2010. Integrated Public Use Microdata Series, Current Population Survery: Version 3.0 (Machine-Readable Database). Minneapolis, MN: University of Minnesota.

Klerman, Jacob, Kelly Daley, and Alyssa Pozniak. 2014. Family and Medical Leave in 2012: Technical Report. Cambridge, MA: Abt Associates. <http://www.dol.gov/asp/evaluation/fmla/FMLA-2012-Technical-Report.pdf> (accessed December 15, 2015).

Kochhar, Rakesh, Richard Fry, and Paul Taylor. 2011. Wealth Gaps Rise to Record Highs Between Whites, Blacks, Hispanics. Pew Research Center. <http://www.pewsocialtrends.org/2011/07/26/wealth-gaps-rise-to-record-highs-between-Whites-Blacks-hispanics/> (accessed April 22, 2016).

Kromer, Braedyn K. and David J. Howard. 2011. Comparison of ACS and CPS Data on Employment Status. Washington, DC: U.S. Census Bureau, Social, Economic, and Housing Statistics Division. <http://www.census.gov/content/dam/Census/library/working-papers/2011/demo/SEHSD-WP2011-31.pdf> (accessed December 30, 2015).

Kymn, Christine. 2014. "Access to Capital for Women- and Minority-Owned Businesses: Revisiting Key Variables." Issue Brief Number 3. Washington D.C.: Small Business Administration. <https://www.sba.gov/sites/default/files/Issue%20Brief%203%20Access%20to%20Capital.pdf> (accessed May 2, 2016).

Laird, Jennifer. 2015. Still an Equal Opportunity Employer? Public Sector Employment Inequality after the Great Recession. Working Paper. University of Washington. <http://students.washington.edu/jdlaird/laird_public_sector_inequality_ASA.pdf> (accessed December 10, 2015).

Laney, Garrine P. 2007. Proposals for Reparations for African Americans: A Brief Overview. CRS Report for Congress. The Library of Congress: Congressional Research Service.

Lawless, Jennifer L. and Richard L. Fox. 2010. It Still Takes a Candidate: Why Women Don't Run for Office. New York, NY: Cambridge University Press.

———. 2012. Men Rule: The Continued Under-Representation of Women in U.S. Politics. Women and Politics Institute. <https://www.american.edu/spa/wpi/upload/2012-Men-Rule-Report-final-web.pdf>.

Lee, Sunhwa. 2007. Keeping Moms on the Job: The Impacts of Health Insurance and Child Care on Job Retention and Mobility among Low-Income Mothers (IWPR #C360). Washington, DC: Institute for Women's Policy Research.

Legal Action Center. 2004. After Prison: Roadblocks to Reentry. Legal Action Center. <http://lac.org/roadblocks-to-reentry/upload/lacreport/LAC_PrintReport.pdf> (accessed March 21, 2016).

Leveille, Vania and Sandra Park. 2015. "Black Women and Black Lives Matter: Fighting Police Misconduct in Domestic Violence and Sexual Assault Cases." American Civil Liberties Union. <https://www.aclu.org/blog/speak-freely/Black-women-and-Black-lives-matter-fighting-police-misconduct-domestic-violence> (accessed November 30, 2015).

Levitt, Justin. 2007. The Truth About Voter Fraud. New York, NY: Brennan Center for Justice at New York University School of Law. <http://www.brennancenter.org/publication/truth-about-voter-fraud> (accessed December 15, 2015).

Liptak, Adam. "Supreme Court Invalidates Key Part of Voting Rights Act." The New York Times, June 25, 2013. <http://www.nytimes.com/2013/06/26/us/supreme-court-ruling.html> (accessed December 15, 2015).

Logan, T. K., Lisa Shannon, Jennifer Cole, and Jennifer Swanberg. 2007. "Partner Stalking and Implications for Women's Employment." Journal of Interpersonal Violence 22 (3): 268–91.

Lopez, Mark Hugo and Paul Taylor. 2009. Dissecting the 2008 Electorate: Most Diverse in U.S. History. Washington, DC: Pew Research Center. <http://www.pewresearch.org/files/old-assets/pdf/dissecting-2008-electorate.pdf> (accessed November 20, 2015).

Luce, Stephanie, Sasha Hammad, and Darrah Sipe. 2015. Short Shifted. New York, NY: Retail Action Project. <http://retailactionproject.org/wp-content/uploads/2014/09/ShortShifted_report_FINAL.pdf> (accessed November 6, 2015).

Martin, Joyce A., E. Hamilton Brady, Michelle J.K. Osterman, Sally C. Curtin, and T.J. Mathews. 2015a. Births: Final Data for 2013. National Vital Statistics Reports, 64 (1). Hyattsville, MD: Centers for Disease Control and Prevention, National Center for Health Statistics. <http://stacks.cdc.gov/view/cdc/26749> (accessed December 4, 2015).

———. 2015b. Births: Final Data for 2013, Supplemental Tables. National Vital Statistics Reports, 64 (1). Hyattsville, MD: Centers for Disease Control and Prevention, National Center for Health Statistics. <http://www.cdc.gov/nchs/data/nvsr/nvsr64/nvsr64_01_tables.pdf> (accessed December 4, 2015).

Mason, C. Nicole. 2015. Unequal Lives: The State of Black Women and Families in the Rural South. Jackson, MS: Southern Rural Black Women's Initiative. <http://www.cdf-sro.org/research-library/2015/unequal-lives-the-state-of.pdf>.

Mathews, T.J, Marian F. MacDorman, and Marie E. Thoma. 2015. Infant Mortality Statistics From the 2013 Period Linked Birth/Infant Death Data Set. National Vital Statistics Reports, Volume 64, Number 9. Centers for Disease Control and Prevention. <http://www.cdc.gov/nchs/data/nvsr/nvsr64/nvsr64_09.pdf> (accessed December 24, 2015).

Max, Wendy, Dorothy P. Rice, Eric Finkelstein, Robert A. Bardwell, and Steven Leadbetter. 2004. "The Economic Toll of Intimate Partner Violence Against Women in the United States." Violence and Victims 19 (3): 259–72.

McCullom, Rod. "Black Women Confront HIV Stigma, Health and Funding Disparities at USCA 2011." Black Voice News, 2011. <https://www.Blackaids.org/index.php?option=com_content&view=article&id=1036:Black-women-confront-hiv-stigma-health-and-funding-disparities-at-usca-2011&catid=87:news-2011&Itemid=55> (accessed May 19, 2016).

McElwee, Sean. 2015. Why Voting Matters: Large Disparities in Turnout Benefit the Donor Class. Demos. <http://www.demos.org/publication/why-voting-matters-large-disparities-turnout-benefit-donor-class> (accessed April 18, 2016).

Melfi, Catherine A., Thomas W. Croghan, Mark P. Hanna, and Rebecca L. Robinson. 2000. "Racial Variation in Antidepressant Treatment in a Medicaid Population." The Journal of Clinical Psychiatry 61 (1): 16–21.

MetLife. 2011. The MetLife Study of Caregiving Costs to Working Caregivers: Double Jeopardy for Baby Boomers Caring for Their Parents. New York, NY: MetLife. <https://www.metlife.com/assets/cao/mmi/publications/studies/2011/Caregiving-Costs-to-Working-Caregivers.pdf> (accessed July 16, 2015).

Miller, Kevin, Allison Suppan Helmuth, and Robin Farabee-Siers. 2009. The Need for Paid Parental Leave for Federal Employees: Adapting to a Changing Workforce (IWPR #A141). Washington, DC: Institute for Women's Policy Research. <http://www.iwpr.org/publications/pubs/the-need-for-paid-parental-leave-for-federal-employees-adapting-to-a-changing-workforce-1> (accessed January 21, 2016).

Moore, William J. 1998. "The Determinants and Effects of Right-to-Work Laws: A Review of the Recent Literature." Journal of Labor Research 19 (3): 445–69.

Morris, Monique. 2012. Race, Gender and the School-To-Prison Pipleine: Expanding Our Discussion to Include Black Girls. African American Policy Forum. <http://www.otlcampaign.org/sites/default/files/resources/Morris-Race-Gender-and-the-School-to-Prison-Pipeline.pdf> (accessed June 1, 2016).

Morris, Monique W., Stephanie Bush-Baskette, and Kimberlé Crenshaw. 2012. Confined in California: Women and Girls of Color in Custody. New York, NY: African American Policy Forum. <http://static.squarespace.com/static/53f20d90e4b0b80451158d8c/53f399a5e4b029c2ffbe26cc/53f399c5e4b029c2ffbe2a77/1408473541175/Confined-in-California.pdf?format=original> (accessed October 26, 2015).

Nabukera, Sarah K., Martha Slay Wingate, John Owen, Hamisu Salihu, Shailender Swaminathan, Greg R. Alexander, and Russell S. Kirby. 2009. "Racial Disparities in Perinatal Outcomes and Pregnancy Spacing Among Women." Maternal and Child Health Journal 13 (1): 81–89.

National Alliance for Caregiving and AARP. 2015. Caregiving in the U.S.: 2015 Report. <http://www.aarp.org/content/dam/aarp/ppi/2015/caregiving-in-the-united-states-2015-report-revised.pdf> (accessed December 15, 2015).

National Birth Equity Collaborative. 2016. "National Birth Equity Collaborative." Fact Sheet.

National Center for Educational Statistics. 2015. "Fast Facts: Degrees Conferred by Sex and Race." <http://nces.ed.gov/FastFacts/display.asp?id=72> (accessed January 5, 2016).

National Coalition of Anti-Violence Programs. 2014. Lesbian, Gay, Bisexual, Transgender, Queer, and HIV-Affected Intimate Partner Violence in 2013. New York, NY: National Coalition of Anti-Violence Programs. <http://www.avp.org/storage/documents/ncavp2013ipvreport_webfinal.pdf> (accessed October 22, 2015).

———. 2015a. Lesbian, Gay, Bisexual, Transgender, Queer, and HIV-Affected Hate Violence in 2014. New York, NY: National Coalition of Anti-Violence Programs. <http://www.avp.org/storage/documents/Reports/2014_HV_Report-Final.pdf> (accessed October 22, 2015).

———. 2015b. "NCAVP Mourns the Death of Zella Ziona, a Transgender Woman of Color Killed in Gaithersburg, Maryland; the 22nd Reported Homicide of a Transgender/gender Nonconforming Person NCAVP Has Responded to in 2015." <http://www.avp.org/storage/documents/2015.10.7_ncavp_ma_zellazionamd.pdf> (accessed October 22, 2015).

National Conference of State Legislatures. 2011. “States Implement Health Reform: Medicaid and the Affordable Care Act.” <http://www.ncsl.org/research/health/states-implement-health-reform-medicaid-and-the.aspx> (accessed December 18, 2015).

———. 2015. “Right-to-Work States.” <http://www.ncsl.org/research/labor-and-employment/right-to-work-laws-and-bills.aspx> (accessed January 4, 2016).

———. 2016a. “Voter Identification Requirements; Voter ID Laws.” <http://www.ncsl.org/research/elections-and-campaigns/voter-id.aspx> (accessed August 11, 2016).

———. 2016b. “Absentee and Early Voting.” March 24. <http://www.ncsl.org/research/elections-and-campaigns/absentee-and-early-voting.aspx> (accessed May 12, 2016).

National Employment Law Project. 2016. “‘Ban the Box’ Is a Fair Chance for Workers with Records.” Fact Sheet. New York, NY. <http://www.nelp.org/content/uploads/Ban-the-Box-Fair-Chance-Fact-Sheet.pdf> (accessed March 1, 2016).

National Police Misconduct Reporting Project. 2010. 2010 Police Misconduct Statistical Report. Washington, DC: Cato Institute. <http://www.policemisconduct.net/statistics/2010-annual-report/> (accessed October 27, 2015).

National Women’s Law Center. 2011. “Employment Crisis Worsens for Black Women during the Recovery.” Fact Sheet. Washington, DC: National Women’s Law Center. <http://nwlc.org/resources/employment-crisis-worsens-Black-women-during-recovery/> (accessed December 10, 2015).

N’COBRA. 2016. “National Coalition of Blacks for Reparations in America.” <http://ncobra.org/> (accessed April 25, 2016).

New York State Department of Health. 2006. “Chlamydia (chlamydia Trachomatis Genital Infection).” <http://www.health.ny.gov/diseases/communicable/chlamydia/fact_sheet.htm> (accessed December 4, 2015).

Nunley, John M., Adam Pugh, Nicholas Romero, and R. Alan Seals. 2014. An Examination of Racial Discrimination in the Labor Market for Recent College Graduates: Estimates from the Field (Auburn University Department of Economics Working Paper Series AUWP 2015-06). Auburn University. <http://cla.auburn.edu/econwp/archives/2014/2014-06.pdf> (accessed August 9, 2016).

Ocen, Priscilla A. 2012. “The New Racially Restrictive Covenant: Race, Welfare, and the Policing of Black Women in Subsidized Housing.” UCLA Law Review Rev. 1540. <http://www.uclalawreview.org/pdf/59-6-4.pdf> (accessed April 22, 2016).

O’Connor, Rachel, Jeff Hayes, and Barbara Gault. 2014. “Paid Sick Days Access Varies by Race/Ethnicity, Sexual Orientation, and Job Characteristics.” Fact Sheet, IWPR #B337. Washington, DC: Institute for Women’s Policy Research.

Office of the President of the United States. 2014. The Economics of Early Childhood Investments. <https://www.Whitehouse.gov/sites/default/files/docs/early_childhood_report1.pdf> (accessed December 14, 2015).

Office on Women’s Health. 2015. “Sexually Transmitted Infections (STIs).” Fact Sheet. <http://www.womenshealth.gov/publications/our-publications/fact-sheet/sexually-transmitted-infections-factsheet.pdf> (accessed January 29, 2016).

Orey, Byron D’Andrá, Wendy Smooth, Kimberly S. Adams, and Kisha Harris-Clark. 2006. “Race and Gender Matter: Refining Models of Legislative Policy Making in State Legislatures.” Journal of Women, Politics & Policy 28 (3-4): 97–119.

Ortiz, Susan Y. and Vincent J. Roscigno. 2009. “Discrimination, Women, and Work: Processes and Variations by Race and Class.” The Sociological Quarterly 50 (2): 336–59.

Papan, Andrea S. and Barbara Clow. 2015. “The Food insecurity–Obesity Paradox as a Vicious Cycle for Women: Inequalities and Health.” Gender & Development 23 (2): 299–317.

Paradies, Yin, Jehonathan Ben, Nida Denson, Amanuel Elias, Naomi Priest, Alex Pieterse, Arpana Gupta, Margaret Kelaher, and Gilbert Gee. 2015. “Racism as a Determinant of Health: A Systematic Review and Meta-Analysis.” PloS One 10 (9): e0138511.

Parker, Kim, Juliana Menasce Horowitz, and Molly Rohal. 2015. Parenting in America. Washington, DC: Pew Research Center. <http://www.pewsocialtrends.org/2015/12/17/parenting-in-america/> (accessed December 17, 2015).

Perea, Juan F. 2010. “The Echoes of Slavery: Recognizing the Racist Origins of the Agricultural and Domestic Worker Exclusion from the National Labor Relations Act.” SSRN Electronic Journal. <http://www.ssrn.com/abstract=1646496> (accessed April 19, 2016).

Philpot, Tasha S., Daron R. Shaw, and Ernest B. McGowen. 2009. “Winning the Race: Black Voter Turnout in the 2008 Presidential Election.” The Public Opinion Quarterly 73 (5): 995–1022.

Plumer, Brad. “What Do ‘right-to-Work’ Laws Do to a State’s Economy?” Washington Post, 2012. <https://www.washingtonpost.com/news/wonk/wp/2012/12/10/how-right-to-work-laws-could-reshape-michigans-economy/> (accessed May 20, 2016).

Rabuy, Bernadette and Daniel Kopf. 2015. Prisons of Poverty: Uncovering the Pre-Incarceration Incomes of the Imprisoned. Prison Policy Initiative. <http://www.prisonpolicy.org/reports/income.html> (accessed March 21, 2016).

Ranji, Usha and Alina Salganicoff. 2016. Medicaid and Family Planning: Background and Implications of the ACA. Issue Brief. <http://kff.org/report-section/medicaid-and-family-planning-the-aca-medicaid-expansion-and-family-planning/> (accessed August 18, 2016).

Raphael, Steven. 1998. “The Spatial Mismatch Hypothesis and Black Youth Joblessness: Evidence from the San Francisco Bay Area.” Journal of Urban Economics 43: 79–111.

Ray, Rebecca, Milla Sanes, and John Schmitt. 2013. No-Vacation Nation Revisited. Washington, DC: Center for Economic and Policy Research. <http://cepr.net/documents/no-vacation-update-2014-04.pdf> (accessed December 15, 2015).

Rees, Susan, Derrick Silove, Tien Chey, Lorraine Ivancic, Zachary Steel, Mark Creamer, Maree Teesson, et al. 2011. “Lifetime Prevalence of Gender-Based Violence in Women and the Relationship With Mental Disorders and Psychosocial Function.” Journal of the American Medical Association 306 (5): 513–321.

Reeves, Richard V. 2016. “Time to Take Basic Income Seriously.” Brookings. <http://www.brookings.edu/research/opinions/2016/02/23-time-to-take-basic-income-seriously-reeves> (accessed April 22, 2016).

Reingold, Beth and Adrienne R. Smith. 2012. “Welfare Policymaking and Intersections of Race, Ethnicity, and Gender in U.S. State Legislatures.” American Journal of Political Science 56 (1): 131–47.

Reskin, Barbara F. and Patricia Roos. 1990. Job Queues, Gender Queues: Explaining Women’s

Inroads into Male Occupations. Philadelphia, PA: Temple University Press.

Restaurant Opportunities Centers United. 2014. The Great Service Divide: Occupational Segregation & Inequality in the US Restaurant Industry. Restaurant Opportunities Centers United. <https://www.scribd.com/fullscreen/243990968?access_key=key-Tdx6ASdN5XtxwTUkbqxT&allow_share=true&escape=false&view_mode=scroll> (accessed November 5, 2015).

———. 2015. Ending Jim Crow in America’s Restaurants: Racial and Gender Occupational Segregation in the Restaurant Industry. New York, NY: Restaurant Opportunities Centers United. <http://rocunited.org/wp2015b/wp-content/uploads/2015/10/RaceGender_Report_LR.pdf> (accessed November 5, 2015).

Ritchie, Andrea J. 2006. "Law Enforcement Violence Against Women of Color." In Color of Violence, The INCITE! Anthology. Cambridge, MA: South End Press. <https://andreajritchie.files.wordpress.com/2015/09/law-enforcement-violence-against-women-of-color.pdf> (accessed October 27, 2015).

Roberts, Dorothy. 1997. Killing the Black Body: Race, Reproduction, and the Meaning of Liberty. New York, NY: Pantheon Books.

Roberts, Dorothy E. 2012. "Prison, Foster Care, and the Systemic Punishment of Black Mothers." UCLA Law Review Rev. 1474 59. <http://www.uclalawreview.org/prison-foster-care-and-the-systemic-punishment-of-Black-mothers-2/> (accessed October 26, 2015).

Rodriguez, Michelle Natividad and Beth Avery. 2016. Ban the Box: U.S. Cities, Counties, and States Adopt Fair Hiring Practices. New York, NY: National Employment Law Project. <http://www.nelp.org/content/uploads/Ban-the-Box-Fair-Chance-State-and-Local-Guide.pdf> (accessed March 1, 2016).

Rogowski, Jon C. and Cathy J. Cohen. 2015. Black Millennials in America. Center for the Study of Race, Politics,and Culture at the University of Chicago: Black Youth Project. <http://agendatobuildBlackfutures.org/wp-content/uploads/2016/01/BYP-millenials-report-10-27-15-FINAL.pdf> (accessed February 24, 2016).

Romero, Mary. 1992. "Life as the Maid's Daughter: An Exploration of the Everyday Boundaries of Race, Class, and Gender." Paper presented at Feminist Scholarship: Thinking through the Disciplines, University of Michigan, 1992.

Rosenberg, Lynn, Kristen L. Kipping-Ruane, Deborah A. Boggs, and Julie R. Palmer. 2013. "Physical Activity and the Incidence of Obesity in Young African-American Women." American Journal of Preventive Medicine 45 (3): 262–68.

Rosenthal, Lisa and Marci Lobel. 2011. "Explaining Racial Disparities in Adverse Birth Outcomes: Unique Sources of Stress for Black American Women." Social Science & Medicine 72 (6): 977–83.

Rugh, Jacob S. and Douglas S. Massey. 2010. "Racial Segregation and the American Foreclosure Crisis." American Sociological Review 75 (5): 629–51.

Ruttenberg, Miriam H. 1994. "A Feminist Critique of Mandatory Arrest: An Analysis of Race and Gender in Domestic Violence Policy." Journal of Gender & The Law 2 (17): 171–99.

Saada Saar, Malika, Rebecca Epstein, Lindsay Rosenthal, and Yasmin Vafa. 2015. The Sexual Abuse to Prison Pipeline: The Girls' Story. Washington, DC: Center for Poverty and Inequality, Georgetown University Law Center. <http://rights4girls.org/wp-content/uploads/r4g/2015/02/2015_COP_sexual-abuse_layout_web-1.pdf> (accessed August 7, 2015).

Samuel, Vida. 2012. Black Women's Response to The War on Women. Brooklyn, NY: Higher Heights for America. <https://d3n8a8pro7vhmx.cloudfront.net/higherheightsforamerica/pages/57/attachments/original/1405999067/BlackWomens_Response_to_WarOnWomen.pdf?1405999067> (accessed November 17, 2015).

Sanbonmatsu, Kira. 2015. "Electing Women of Color: The Role of Campaign Trainings." Journal of Women, Politics & Policy 32 (2): 137–60.

Sanbonmatsu, Kira, Susan J. Carroll, and Debbie Walsh. 2009. Poised to Run: Women's Pathways to the State Legislatures | CAWP. Rutgers, NJ: Center for American Women and Politics. <http://www.cawp.rutgers.edu/poised-run-womens-pathways-state-legislatures-0> (accessed January 6, 2016).

SAVE. 2010. Arrest Policies for Domestic Violence. Rockville, MD: Stop Abusive and Violent Environments. <http://www.saveservices.org/dvlp/policy-briefings/why-did-vawa-change-from-a-mandatory-to-a-pro-arrest-stance/> (accessed March 21, 2016).

Shaefer, H. Luke and Kathryn Edin. 2014. The Rise of Extreme Poverty in the United States. Pathways. <http://web.stanford.edu/group/scspi/_media/pdf/pathways/summer_2014/Pathways_Summer_2014_ShaeferEdin.pdf> (accessed December 22, 2015).

Sherman, Francine T. and Annie Balck. 2015. Gender Injustice. The National Crittenton Foundation & National Women's Law Center. <http://www.nationalcrittenton.org/wp-content/uploads/2015/09/Gender_Injustice_Report.pdf> (accessed October 26, 2015).

Shierholz, Heidi. 2014. Low Wages and Few Benefits Mean Many Restaurant Workers Can't Make Ends Meet. Washington, DC: Economic Policy Institute.

Short, Kathleen. 2015. The Supplemental Poverty Measure: 2014 (Current Population Reports P60-254). Washington, DC: U.S. Census Bureau. <https://www.census.gov/content/dam/Census/library/publications/2015/demo/p60-254.pdf> (accessed December 31, 2015).

Showers, Fumilayo. 2015. "Being Black, Foreign and Woman: African Immigrant Identities in the United States." Ethnic and Racial Studies 38 (10): 1815–30.

Shulevitz, Judith. "It's Payback Time for Women." The New York Times, January 8, 2016. <http://www.nytimes.com/2016/01/10/opinion/sunday/payback-time-for-women.html> (accessed April 22, 2016).

Smith, Darron T. "A New Case for African American Reparations: A Simple Three-Part Plan." The Huffington Post, 2014. <http://www.huffingtonpost.com/darron-t-smith-phd/a-new-case-for-african-am_b_4345768.html> (accessed April 25, 2016).

Smith, Edward and Shaun Harper. 2015. Disproportionate Impact of K-12 School Suspension and Expulsion on Black Students in Southern States. Penn Graduate School of Education, Center for the Study of Race and Equity in Education. <http://www.gse.upenn.edu/equity/sites/gse.upenn.edu.equity/files/publications/SOUTHADVANCEDDRAFT24AUG15.pdf> (accessed August 31, 2015).

Smith-Evans, Leticia, Janel George, Fatima Goss Graves, Lara S. Kaufman, and Lauren Frohlich. 2014. Unlocking Opportunity for African American Girls: A Call to Action for Educational Equity. Washington, DC: The NAACP Legal Defense and Educational Fund and the National Women's Law Center. <http://www.naacpldf.org/files/publications/Unlocking%20Opportunity%20for%20African%20American%20Girls_0.pdf> (accessed June 6, 2016).

Smith, Kristin and Nicholas Adams. 2013. "Child Care Subsidies Critical for Low-Income Families Amid Rising Child Care Expenses." The Carsey School of Public Policy at the Scholars' Repository. <http://scholars.unh.edu/carsey/195>.

Smith, Terry. "Voter ID Laws and the Ghosts of Jim Crow." The Huffington Post, October 29, 2015. <http://www.huffingtonpost.com/terrysmith2/voter-id-laws-and-the-gho_b_8411472.html> (accessed December 15, 2015).

Smooth, Wendy G. 2001. "African American Women State Legislators: The Impact of Gender and Race on Legislative Influence." Ph.D., United States -- Maryland: University of Maryland, College Park. <http://search.proquest.com.proxygw.wrlc.org/docview/304700463/abstract/C96191BE5C4743C0PQ/1> (accessed May 25, 2016).

Sobel, Richard. 2014. The High Cost of "Free" Photo Voter Identification Cards. Boston, MA: Charles Hamilton Houston Institute for Race and Justice at Harvard Law School. <http://today.law.harvard.edu/wp-content/uploads/2014/06/FullReportVoterIDJune20141.pdf> (accessed December 30, 2015).

Southern Poverty Law Center. 2015. "Transgender Inmate Ashley Diamond Released from Georgia Prison after Pressure from SPLC Lawsuit." Southern Poverty Law Center. <https://www.splcenter.org/news/2015/08/31/transgender-inmate-ashley-diamond-released-georgia-prison-after-pressure-splc-lawsuit> (accessed October 26, 2015).

Spriggs, William E. 2016. "Understanding the Severity of Racial Economic Disparities." Presentation to the AFT Economic Equity Task Force Meeting, Chicago, IL, April 26, 2016. <https://howardu-my.sharepoint.com/personal/wspriggs_howard_edu/_layouts/15/WopiFrame.aspx?sourcedoc={FAF5DB68-F3BE-4E08-8E32-CF2A4FF700E6}&file=Understanding%20the%20Racial%20Divide.pptx&action=default> (accessed May 20, 2016).

Stainback, Kevin, Donald Tomaskovic-Devey, and Sheryl Skaggs. 2010. "Organizational Approaches to Inequality: Inertia, Relative Power, and Environments." Annual Review of Sociology 36: 225–47.

Stark, Evan. 2012. “Re-Presenting Battered Women: Coercive Control and the Defense of Liberty.” <http://www.stopvaw.org/uploads/evan_stark_article_final_100812.pdf> (accessed March 6, 2015).

Swaine, Jon, Oliver Laughl, and Jamiles Lartey. 2015. “The Counted: People Killed by Police in the United States in 2015.” The Guardian. <http://www.theguardian.com/us-news/ng-interactive/2015/jun/01/the-counted-police-killings-us-database> (accessed January 4, 2016).

Swanberg, Jennifer E. and T. K. Logan. 2005. “Domestic Violence and Employment: A Qualitative Study.” Journal of Occupational Health Psychology 10 (1): 3–17.

Tesfai, Rebbeca. 2015. “The Interaction between Race and Nativity on the Housing Market: Homeownership and House Value of Black Immigrants in the United States.” International Migration Review, July, 1–41.

The Annie E. Casey Foundation. 2016. A Shared Sentence: The Devastating Toll of Parental Incarceration on Kids, Families and Communities. Policy Report, Kids Count. The Annie E. Casey Foundation. <http://www.aecf.org/m/resourcedoc/aecf-asharedsentence-2016.pdf> (accessed April 26, 2016).

The Movement for Black Lives. 2016. “A Vision for Black Lives: Policy Demands for Black Power, Freedom, & Justice: Reparations.” Policy Brief. <https://policy.m4bl.org/wp-content/uploads/2016/07/Free-College-Education-Policy-Brief.pdf> (accessed August 10, 2016).

The National Coalition for Women with Heart Disease. 2015. “African-American Women.” Washington, DC. <http://c.ymcdn.com/sites/womenheart.site-ym.com/resource/resmgr/Docs/African_American_Women_FINAL.pdf> (accessed December 3, 2015).

Theodore, Nik, Beth Gutelius, and Linda Burnham. 2013. Home Truths: Domestic Workers in California. National Domestic Workers Alliance. <http://www.domesticworkers.org/sites/default/files/HomeTruths.pdf> (accessed November 6, 2015).

Thomas, Kevin. 2015. “Occupational Stratification, Job-Mismatches, and Child Poverty: Understanding the Disadvantage of Black Immigrants in the US.” Social Science Research 50 (March): 203–16.

Thomsen, Michael R., Rodolfo M. Nayga Jr., Pedro A. Alviola IV, and Heather Rouse. 2015. “The Effect of Food Deserts on the BMI of Elementary Schoolchildren.” <http://ag-econ.ncsu.edu/sites/ag-econ.ncsu.edu/files/department/ag_seminar/Food-Desert-Obesity-paper.pdf> (accessed October 5, 2015).

U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics. 2014. Women in the Workforce: A Databook. Washington, DC: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics. <http://www.bls.gov/cps/wlf-databook-2013.pdf> (accessed September 4, 2014).

U.S. Census Bureau. 2013. “How Do We Know? Child Care: An Important Part of American Life, Infographic.” Washington, DC: U.S. Department of Commerce. <http://www.census.gov/how/pdf/child_care.pdf> (accessed March 23, 2015).

U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census. 2015. “Disability: The American Community Survey.” <https://www.census.gov/people/disability/methodology/acs.html> (accessed January 12, 2016).

U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census. 2013. “Voting and Registration in the Election of November 2012-Detailed Tables.” <http://www.census.gov/hhes/www/socdemo/voting/publications/p20/2012/tables.html> (accessed November 24, 2015).

U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census. 2014. American Community Survey Design and Methodology Report, Chapter 7: Data Collection and Capture for Housing Units. Washington, DC: U.S. Census Bureau. <http://www2.census.gov/programs-surveys/acs/methodology/design_and_methodology/acs_design_methodology_ch07_2014.pdf> (accessed December 30, 2015).

U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census. 2015. “Voting and Registration in the Election of November 2014-Detailed Tables.” <http://www.census.gov/hhes/www/socdemo/voting/publications/p20/2014/tables.html> (accessed November 24, 2015).

U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census. 2015. “2012 Survey of Business Owners.” American FactFinder. (accessed December 21, 2015).

U.S. Department of Health and Human Services. 2012. “Gender-Specific Health Challenges Facing Women.” <http://www.niaid.nih.gov/topics/womenshealth/pages/diseases.aspx> (accessed December 4, 2015).

———. 2014a. “How Does Heart Disease Affect Women?” <http://www.nhlbi.nih.gov/health/health-topics/topics/hdw/> (accessed December 3, 2015).

———. 2014b. “Who Is at Risk for Heart Disease?” <http://www.nhlbi.nih.gov/health/health-topics/topics/hdw/atrisk> (accessed December 3, 2015).

U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, Office on Women’s Health. 2012a. “Minority Women’s Health: Sexually Transmitted Infections (STIs).” Womenshealth.gov. <http://www.womenshealth.gov/minority-health/african-americans/stis.html> (accessed December 4, 2015).

———. 2012b. “Prenatal Care Fact Sheet.” Womenshealth.gov. <http://www.womenshealth.gov/publications/our-publications/fact-sheet/prenatal-care.html#b> (accessed December 4, 2015).

U. S. Department of Health & Human Services. 2015. “The Affordable Care Act Is Working.” HHS.gov. <http://www.hhs.gov/healthcare/facts-and-features/fact-sheets/aca-is-working/index.html> (accessed June 2, 2016).

U.S. Department of Labor. 2012. “The African-American Labor Force in the Recovery.” <http://www.dol.gov/_Sec/media/reports/Blacklaborforce/> (accessed February 26, 2016).

———. 2015. “Black Women in the Labor Force.” Fact Sheet. <http://www.dol.gov/wb/factsheets/BlackWomenInTheWorkforce.pdf> (accessed December 10, 2015).

U.S. Department of Labor Women’s Bureau. 2015. “Fertility.” <http://www.dol.gov/wb/stats/Fertility.htm> (accessed December 14, 2015).

U.S. Government Accountability Office. 2015. Issues Related to State Voter Identification Laws. <http://www.gao.gov/assets/670/665966.pdf> (accessed December 21, 2015).

U.S. Preventive Services Task Force. 2013. “Screening for HIV: U.S. Preventive Services Task Force Recommendation Statement.” Annals of Internal Medicine 59 (1): 51–60.

Vigdor, Elizabeth Richardson and James A. Mercy. 2006. “Do Laws Restricting Access to Firearms by Domestic Violence Offenders Prevent Intimate Partner Homicide?” Evaluation Review 30 (3): 313–46.

Violence Policy Center. 2015. When Men Murder Women: An Analysis of 2013 Homicide Data. Washington, DC: Violence Policy Center. <http://www.vpc.org/studies/wmmw2015.pdf> (accessed September 16, 2015).

Vogtman, Julie, Katherine Gallagher Robbins, and Suzanne Bergeron. 2015. “Fair Pay for African American Women Requires a Fair Minimum Wage.” Washington, DC: National Women’s Law Center. <http://nwlc.org/wp-content/uploads/2015/08/fair_pay_for_african_american_women_requires_a_fair_minimum_wage.pdf> (accessed January 11, 2016).

Volscho, Thomas W. 2010. “Sterilization Racism and Pan-Ethnic Disparities of the Past Decade: The Continued Encroachment on Reproductive Rights.” Wicazo Sa Review 25 (1): 17–31.

Waters Boots, Shelley. 2010. Improving Access to Public Benefits: Helping Eligible Individuals and Families Get the Income Supports They Need. <http://www.aecf.org/m/resourcedoc/AECF-ImprovingAccessToPublicBenefits-2010.pdf> (accessed December 18, 2015).

West, Loraine A., Samantha Cole, Daniel Goodkind, and Wan He. 2014. 65+ in the United States: 2010. Current Population Reports Special Studies P23-212. Washington, DC: U.S. Census Bureau. <http://www.census.gov/content/dam/Census/library/publications/2014/demo/p23-212.pdf> (accessed December 15, 2015).

Wiebe, Douglas J. 2003. “Homicide and Suicide Risks Associated with Firearms in the Home: A National Case-Control Study.” Annals of Emergency Medicine 41 (6): 771–82.

Williams, Rhonda Y. 2004. The Politics of Public Housing: Black Women’s Struggles Against Urban Inequality. New York: Oxford University Press.

———. 2008. “Black Women and Black Power.” OAH Magazine of History 22 (3): 22–26.

Wilson, Franklin D., Marta Tienda, and Lawrence Wu. 1995. “Race and Unemployment: Labor Market Experiences of Black and White Men, 1968-1988.” Work and Occupations 22 (3): 245–70.

Wilson, Valerie. 2015. “Black Unemployment Is Significantly Higher than White Unemployment regardless of Educational Attainment.” Washington, DC: Economic Policy Institute. <http://www.epi.org/publication/Black-unemployment-educational-attainment/> (accessed January 6, 2016).

Wise, Lauren A., Julie R. Palmer, and Lynn Rosenberg. 2013. “Body Size and Time-to-Pregnancy in Black Women.” Human Reproduction 28 (10): 2856–64.

Yee, Shirley J. 1992. Black Women Abolitionists: A Study in Activism, 1828-1860. Knoxville, TN: University of Tennessee Press.

Zucker, Alyssa N. and Laura J. Landry. 2007. “Embodied Discrimination: The Relation of Sexism and Distress to Women’s Drinking and Smoking Behaviors.” Sex Roles 56 (3-4): 193–203.

The Status of Black Women

in the United States

STATUS OF WOMEN IN THE STATES

INSTITUTE FOR WOMEN'S POLICY RESEARCH

Informing policy. Inspiring change. Improving lives.

NATIONAL DOMESTIC WORKERS ALLIANCE