## Gender Equality and the Knowledge Society: <br> Indicators from the United States of America

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## Abstract

Purpose- This report is part of the National Assessments on Gender and Science, Technology, and Innovation. It contains data from the United States of America on variables thought to influence women's participation in science, technology, and innovation internationally. The purpose of this project is to build an international database of gender-disaggregated data posited to affect women's participation in science, technology, and innovation.

Objectives- This report contains data on life expectancy, HIV/AIDS, malaria, tuberculosis, contraceptive use, rates of violence against women, time-use data, school enrollment rates, literacy levels, occupation membership, and gender-related federal laws.

Findings- As in many other countries, women in the U.S. are significantly underrepresented in scientific, technological, and innovative fields. Women represent only 30 percent of all computer scientists, less that 30 percent of computer programmers, 15 percent of all engineers, and are less likely to be entrepreneurs than men. Gender differences in representation in science, technology, and innovation may be related to cultural habits such as division of labor. Women had better outcomes or participated at comparable or higher rates than men on most other indicators examined for this study.

## Gender and Health

In the U.S. women have more positive health outcomes than men. Women have higher healthy-life expectancies, higher life expectancies, and lower rates of malaria, tuberculosis, HIV and AIDS.

## Healthy-Life Expectancy

Healthy-life expectancy estimates the age at which people are likely to experience issues such as hearing loss, visual impairment, and mental disorder. It measures the burden of ill-health and shows the age at which people are likely to fall out of "good health." Estimates of healthy-life expectancy are based on analysis of country life expectancy data, 135 causes of disability, and data from health surveys. Healthy life expectancy increased for both men and women in the U.S. from 2002 to 2007. Women's healthy life expectancy was 4 years higher than men's both years (Figure 1). ${ }^{1}$ In 2007, men were expected to remain in good health until approximately age 68 and women were expected to remain in good health until age 72.

The World Health Organization publishes sex-disaggregated data on healthy-life expectancy. The data is not updated regularly. In 2011, only 2002 and 2007 data were available.

Figure 1: Healthy-Life Expectancy Rates for U.S. Population by Sex, 2002 and 2007


Source: World Health Organization

[^0]
## Life Expectancy

From 2000 to 2009, women's life expectancy was higher than men’s (Figure 2). In 2009, women were expected to live approximately until age 81 and men were expected to live approximately until age $76 .{ }^{2}$

The Center for Disease Control and Prevention (CDC), a component of the U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, maintains life expectancy estimates for the U.S. population. The data is disaggregated by sex and is publicly available on their website.

Figure 2: Life Expectancy Rates for U.S. Population by Sex, 2000-2009


Source: U.S. Center for Disease Control and Prevention

## Prevalence of Malaria

Malaria is rare in the United States. Less than one person per every 100,000 of each sex contracted malaria in 2009. Women were less likely ( 0.31 per every 100,000 women) than men ( 0.67 per every 100,000 men) to contract malaria (Figure 3). ${ }^{3}$

[^1]Information on malaria cases is collected by the CDC. The numbers of malaria cases are not explicitly disaggregated by sex on CDC's website but it can be calculated using other data. We used the total number of malaria cases, the total number of cases reported among pregnant women, the percent of the total number of women that pregnant women represent, and intercensal population estimates from the U.S. census bureau to generate the numbers in Figure 3.

Figure 3: Rate of Malaria per 100,000 people of each Sex, 2000-2009


Source: U.S. Center for Disease Control and Prevention

## Prevalence of Tuberculosis

In the U.S., men are more likely to contract tuberculosis (TB) than women. In 2010, approximately five men per 100,000 men had tuberculosis compared to approximately three women (Figure 4). ${ }^{4}$

Health departments in the 50 states and the District of Columbia report TB cases to the CDC. The information is disaggregated by sex and made publicly available on the CDC's website.

[^2]Figure 4: Rate of Tuberculosis per 100,000 people of each Sex, 2000-2010


Source: U.S. Center for Disease Control and Prevention

## Prevalence of HIV/AIDS

From 2001-2007, men have had higher rates of HIV/AIDS than women. In 2007, 269 per 100,000 men in the U.S. population were living with HIV/AIDS compared to 96 women (Figure 5). ${ }^{5}$

Sex-disaggregated HIV/AIDS data are publicly available on the Center for Disease Control's website. To calculate the rate per 100,000 persons, we used the number of HIV/AIDS cases reported by the CDC and population estimates from the U.S. Census Bureau to estimate the HIV/AIDS rates shown in the chart below.

[^3]Figure 5. Estimated Number of Persons in the U.S. Living with HIV/AIDS per 100,000 people of each Sex, 2001-2007


Source: U.S. Center for Disease Control and Prevention

## Gender-related Attitudes and Behaviors

This section describes attitudes and behaviors toward women. It answers questions such as: Is female genital mutilation a common practice? Who controls contraceptive use? Is there a preference for boy babies over girls? Are violent crimes against women more prevalent than those against men? And how is housework divided?

In summary, female genital mutilation is not a common practice; females typically control contraceptive use; there is no evidence of preferences for male babies; women are more likely than men to be victims of domestic abuse and rape; and women spend more time than men doing housework.

## Female Genital Mutilation

As public law, the U.S. opposes the distribution of funds or loans, other than to address basic human needs, to any country that practices female genital mutilation as a cultural custom. ${ }^{6}$ Female genital mutilation is not a common practice in the United States.

## Contraceptive Use

One out of six unintended pregnancies in the U.S. were reportedly the result of a male partner not wanting to use birth control or not wanting his partner to use birth control (Figure 6). ${ }^{7}$ This suggests that few women do not make decisions about contraceptive use independent of their partners. Almost all U.S. women who are sexually active have used some form of birth control. ${ }^{8}$ The most common forms of birth control are the pill, female sterilization, and condoms (Figure 7). ${ }^{9}$

The Center for Disease control collects data on contraceptive use. The data is publicly available on their website.

[^4]Figure 6. Percent of Respondents reporting various Reasons for Unintended Pregnancies among Women who did not use Contraceptive before a Recent Unintended Birth, 2006-2008


Source: U.S. Center for Disease Control and Prevention
Figure 7. Percent of Women Currently using Pregnancy Prevention Method, 1982-2008


Source: U.S. Center for Disease Control and Prevention


#### Abstract

Abortions The right to use contraceptives and to have an abortion is protected under federal privacy laws. ${ }^{10}$ Women have the right to an abortion until the point where the fetus becomes viable. States have the right to define viability and prohibit abortions after that point except if an abortion is necessary to preserve the life of a pregnant woman. Viability is typically placed at about the $6^{\text {th }}$ month ( 24 weeks) of pregnancy but some states place viability at 20 weeks. ${ }^{11}$


## Is there a Preference for Male Babies in the U.S.?

There is no evidence to suggest a preference for male babies. Finding out the sex of a child via ultrasound is a common practice. Yet, female babies still represented almost 50 percent of all live births from 1992-2002 (Figure 8). ${ }^{12}$ In 2002, women seeking to adopt reported being indifferent to the child's gender or wanting girls slightly more than boys (Figure 9) which might suggest a slight preference for baby girls. ${ }^{13}$

The CDC's National Center for Health Statistics published a 2005 report on sex ratio at birth in the U.S. The report has data from 1940-2002. It is available on the CDC’s website.
Figure 8. Percent of Live Births in the U.S. by Sex, 1992-2002


Source: U.S. Center for Disease Control and Prevention

[^5]Figure 9. Adoption Preferences of Women by Sex of Child Sought, 2002


Source: U.S. Center for Disease Control and Prevention

## Violence against Women

Most violent crimes against women are the result of domestic violence and rape. Females are more likely than males to be victimized by intimate partners and more likely to be raped (Figure 10 and Figure 11).

To combat violence against women, the Violence against Women Act (VAWA) was passed in 1994 and reauthorized in 2000, 2005, and 2012. ${ }^{14}$ The bill established new laws for sex crime offenders, authorized grants to combat violent crimes against women, grants for a national domestic violence hotline, grants for battered women shelters, and grants for education and training to prevent domestic violence. The rate of intimate partner violence against females decreased 53 percent between the time the VAWA was passed and 2008, from 9.4 victimizations per 1,000 females to 4.3. ${ }^{15}$

Sex-disaggregated crime statistics can be found on the U.S. Census Bureau's website. ${ }^{16}$ Statistics on violence against women came from the National Institute of Justice's 1996 National Survey on Violence against Women, and show that most female victims of rape were younger than age 25 at the time they were first raped (Figure 12).

Figure 10. Rate of Violent Crime between Intimate Partners per 100,000 of each Sex, 2000-2007


Source: U.S. Department of Justice, Federal Bureau of Investigation.
Notes: Violent crimes include rape and sexual assault, robbery, aggravated assault, simple assault and homicide. Intimate partners are defined as spouses, ex-spouses, current boy/girlfriends, and exboy/girlfriends.

[^6]Figure 11. Percent of Persons Raped in Lifetime by Sex of Victim, 1996


Source: National Violence against Women Survey Results
Figure 12. Female Victim's Age at Time of First Rape, 1996


Source: National Violence against Women Survey

## Division of Labor

Traditional gender roles still apply. Men work more than women outside the home and women work more than men in the home. On average, men work almost one hour more daily as an employed person than women and women work about one hour more per day on household activities including caring for and helping other household members (Figure 13, Figure 14, and Figure 15). ${ }^{17}$

Figure 13. Average Hours worked per day by Employed Persons at Workplace or Home by Sex, 2003-2010


Source: American Time Use Survey

[^7]Figure 14. Average Daily Hours Engaged in Household Activities by Sex, 2003-2010


Source: American Time Use Survey
Note: Household activities include housework, food preparation and clean up, lawn and garden care, and household management

Figure 15. Average Daily Hours Caring for or Helping Household Members by Sex, 2003-2010


[^8]
## Gender and Education

Females enroll in primary, postsecondary, and adult education courses at higher levels than men. On average, females also have slightly higher reading literacy scores. Males have slightly higher quantitative literacy scores and are more likely to enroll in adult education programs that require apprenticeships.

## Primary School Enrollment

In the U.S., girls are slightly more likely than boys to be enrolled in primary school. From 2005-2009, 93 percent of girls were enrolled in primary schools, compared to 91 percent of boys (Figure 16). ${ }^{18}$

UNICEF provides sex-disaggregated data on primary and secondary school enrollment trends in the U.S. The U.S. Department of National Education Statistics (NCES) provides similar enrollment data. However, NCES data is not disaggregated by sex. Graphs of UNICEF data are presented below.

Figure 16. Net Percent of Primary School Enrollments by Sex, averages for 2005-2009


[^9][^10]
## Postsecondary Enrollments

From 2000 to 2009, women represented more than half of all students enrolled in postsecondary institutions (Figure 17). ${ }^{19}$

The National Center for Education Statistics (NCES) publishes the number of enrollments in all postsecondary degree-granting institutions. The data is disaggregated by sex and is available on the NCES website.

Figure 17. Percent of Persons Enrolled in all Postsecondary DegreeGranting Institutions by Sex, 2000-2009


Source: The National Center for Education Statistics

## Adult Literacy Rates

Women had higher prose and document literacy skills than men both in 1992 and 2003. Men had higher quantitative literacy skills both years (Figure 18, Figure 19, and Figure 20). ${ }^{20}$ However, the gap between men and women's quantitative scores is closing. The percentage of men with basic and above quantitative literacy was four percent higher than women in 1992. In 2003, it was only one percent higher; this difference is likely not statistically significant.

[^11]Figure 18. Percent of Persons with Basic and Above Prose Literacy Levels by Sex, 1992 and 2003


Source: National Center for Education Statistics National Assessment of Adult Literacy
Note: Prose literacy refers to the knowledge and skills needed to search, comprehend, and use information from continuous texts.

Figure 19. Percent of Persons with Basic and Above Document Literacy Levels by Sex, 1992 and 2003


Source: National Center for Education Statistics National Assessment of Adult Literacy
Note: Document literacy refers to the knowledge and skills needed to search, comprehend, and use information from non-continuous texts in various formats.

Figure 20. Percent of Persons with Basic and Above Quantitative Literacy Levels by Sex, 1992-2003


Source: National Center for Education Statistics National Assessment of Adult Literacy Note: Quantitative literacy refers to the knowledge and skills required to identify and perform computations, either alone or sequentially, using numbers embedded in printed materials.

## Adult Course Enrollment

In the U.S., women are more likely than men to enroll in adult education courses (Figure 21). In 2001 and 2005, women represented more than 50 percent of all people enrolled in adult education courses. However, women were less likely than men to enroll in apprenticeship programs and were slightly less likely to connect to the internet wirelessly.

Data on enrollment in adult education courses came from the Adult Education and Lifelong Learning Survey (AELL) that was conducted by the U.S. Department of Education in 2001, 2003, and 2005. Sex-disaggregated data on course participation was presented in the 2001 and 2005 reports.

Figure 21. Percent of Adult Education Students who are Women, 2001 and 2005


Source: National Center for Education Statistics, The Adult Education and Lifelong Learning Survey Note: Apprenticeship programs are defined as formal, on-the-job training and other related instruction leading to a journeyman status in a skilled trade or craft. Journeyman status indicates that a person has received sufficient training and achieved a level of skill so as to be recognized by a state or federal registration agency or an industry as being qualified to perform the work of the trade or occupation. Requirements vary by field, but may include apprenticeship, on-the-job training, and a standard examination.

## Lifelong Learning

Women are more likely than men to engage in lifelong learning. They visit and manage libraries at higher rates than men (Figure 22 and Figure 23) and use the internet at about the same rate (Figure 24 and Figure 25).

The National Study on the Use of Libraries, Museums, and the Internet appears to be the only national study with sex-disaggregated data on library visits. The study was conducted in 2006.

Figure: 22. Proportion of Adults who Visited Public Libraries in-Person or Remotely by Sex, 2006


Source: The IMLS National Study on the Use of Libraries, Museums, and the Internet
Figure: 23. Research Library Directors by Sex, 2001-2009


[^12]Figure 24. Estimated Percent of People using the Internet by Sex, 20002010


Source: Pew Internet \& American Life Project
Figure 25. Estimated Percent of all Adult Americans using Wireless Internet by Sex, 2009 and 2010


Source: Pew Internet \& American Life Project

## Gender and Money

Discrimination based on sex is prohibited in the U.S., and the U.S. Equal Pay Act requires that men and women be given the same pay for the same content of work. ${ }^{21}$ However, women overall in the United States make less than men (80 cents on every dollar). According to a report from the U.S. Government Accounting Office, women make less than men, on average, because they are more likely than men to work part-time and more likely to leave the labor force for long periods of time to care for children. ${ }^{22}$

## Earnings

The gap is getting smaller between men's and women's earnings. Women earned approximately 60 cents for every dollar a man earned in 1980 (Figure 27). In 2008, women earned approximately 80 cents for every dollar (Figure 27). ${ }^{23}$ One major reason for the improvement in women's earnings relative to men's is the stagnation of men's wages during the 1980s. ${ }^{24}$

[^13]Figure 26. Women's Earnings as a Percentage of Men's, 1980-2008


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

## Poorest Quintile

The gap between the percent of men below the poverty level and the percent of women narrowed between 2008 and 2010 (Figure 27). Women were notably more likely to be below the poverty level from 2001 to 2007 (Figure 27). ${ }^{25}$ The reduction in the gap is because the percentage of men who live below the poverty level has increased as a result of the recession.

[^14]Figure 27. Percent below the U.S. Federal Poverty Level by Sex, 20012010


Source: U.S. Census Bureau

## Occupation Types

Women are significantly more likely to be in administrative positions than managerial positions (Figure 29) or director positions (Figure 30) and more likely to be unpaid family workers than salaried or self-employed workers (Figure 31). They are also less likely than men to be entrepreneurs (Figure 32) and to have jobs in the sciences (Figure 33, Figure 34, and Table 1).

## The U.S. Workforce

The proportion of the workforce that is women has increased since the 1970's. Women represented only 38 percent of all employed persons in 1970 (Figure 26). In 2009, women represented almost 50 percent (47\%) of all employed persons (Figure 26). ${ }^{26}$

Employment data are collected by the U.S. Department of Labor Statistics. The data are disaggregated by sex and publicly available on their website.

[^15]Figure 28. Percent in U.S. Workforce by Sex, 1970-2009


Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics
Figure 29. Women as a Percent of Managerial and Administrative Position Holders, 2003-2010


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

Figure 30. Percent of Women Directors in Fortune 500 Companies, 20062010


Source: Catalyst Census of Women Board Directors of the Fortune 500
Figure 31. Percent Women by Category of Worker, 2003-2010


Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics
Note: The U.S. Department of Labor defines "unpaid family workers" as any person who worked without pay for 15 hours or more per week in a family-owned enterprise operated by someone in their household.

Figure 32. Percent of 18-64 Population who are either a Nascent Entrepreneur or Owner-Manager of a New Business by Sex, 2001-2010


Source: The Global Entrepreneur Monitor’s Public Data Interface, United States: Total early-stage Entrepreneurial Activity for Male Working Age Population and Total early-stage Entrepreneurial Activity for Female Working Age Population.

## Science and Engineering Jobs

Women are underrepresented in the sciences. They represent approximately 50 percent of the U.S. population but less than 50 percent of all people in most science and engineering fields (Figure 33). They also represent less than 50 percent of all people in most fields that require high level computer skills (Figure 34). Women who work in science and engineering fields are more likely to be employed by the government than by colleges/universities or businesses (Table 1).

Figure 33. Percent of Women Scientists and Engineers in Selected Fields, 2003-2010


Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics
Figure 34. Women in Selected Fields requiring High-Level Computer Skills


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

Table 1. Scientists and Engineers Employed in Universities, Private Industry, and Government by Sex

| Place of Employment | Female | Male |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Business or Industry (2006 data) | $34 \%$ | $66 \%$ |
| Government (2008 data) | $42 \%$ | $58 \%$ |
| University/4-Year College (2008 data) | $31 \%$ | $6 \mathbf{6 9 \%}$ |

SOURCE: National Science Foundation, Division of Science Resources Statistics, Survey of Doctorate Recipients.

## Politicians

In 2009, women represented about 51 percent of the U.S. population but only 17 percent of all congressmen (Figure 35), 22 percent of statewide elected executives (Figure 36), and 25 percent of state legislative positions (Figure 37). ${ }^{27}$ The percentage of statewide elected executives (such as governors) is decreasing.

The Center for American Women and Politics collects sex-disaggregated data on political participation. ${ }^{28}$

Figure 35. Percent of Members in U.S. Congress by Sex, 2002-2009


Source: Center for Women and Politics

[^16]Figure 36. Percent of Persons in Elected Statewide Executive Positions, 2002-2011


Source: Center for Women and Politics

Figure 37. Percent of State Legislature by Sex, 2001-2010


Source: Center for Women and Politics

## Gender and Academia

Women are more likely to be non-tenure track faculty members than tenured (Figure 38) and they publish at slightly lower rates than men (Table 2). We are not aware of any evidence of women in STI fields leaving the U.S. to work in other countries after earning a doctorate degree. The U.S. is mostly a recipient of brain drain and we mostly get men (Figure 40).

## Tenure Status

In universities and 4 -year colleges, women represent about $20 \%$ of tenured faculty members in science and engineering (Figure 38).

Sex-disaggregated data on scientists, engineers, and employment can be found on the National Science Foundation's Women, Minorities, and Persons with Disabilities Data Tables website. ${ }^{29}$

Figure 38. University and 4- Year College Science and Engineering Faculty by Sex and Tenure Status, 2008


Source: National Science Foundation, Division of Science Resources Statistics, Survey of Doctorate Recipients, 2008 (preliminary data).

[^17]
## Publications

Most scientists and engineers employed in business and industry do not publish articles (see Table 2). ${ }^{30}$ Eighty-nine percent of female and 82 percent of male scientists and engineers employed in business or industry did not publish articles from 1998 to 2003. When scientists and engineers in business and industry do publish articles, men are slightly more likely to do so.

Among faculty members in six fields (electrical and civil engineering, physics, chemistry, biology, and mathematics) at highly-ranked research universities in the U.S., a National Research Council report found no statistically significant sex differences in the total number of publications during a three-year period. ${ }^{31}$

Sex-disaggregated data on publications by scientists and engineers can be found on the National Science Foundation's Women, Minorities, and Persons with Disabilities Data Tables website. ${ }^{32}$

Table 2. Percent of Scientists and Engineers employed Full-Time in Business or Industry Publishing Articles by Sex, 1998-2003

| Number of Publications | \% of All Females | \% of All Males |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| None | $\mathbf{8 8 \%}$ | $\mathbf{8 2 \%}$ |
| 1 or 2 | $\mathbf{6 \%}$ | $\mathbf{8 \%}$ |
| 3 to 5 | $\mathbf{3 \%}$ | $\mathbf{5 \%}$ |
| 6 to 10 | $\mathbf{2 \%}$ | $\mathbf{3 \%}$ |
| 11 to 20 | $\mathbf{1 \%}$ | $\mathbf{2 \%}$ |
| More than 20 | $\mathbf{0 \%}$ | $\mathbf{1 \%}$ |

Source: National Science Foundation, Division of Science Resources Statistics, Science and Engineers Statistical Data System

## Brain-Drain

There are no national estimates of brain-drain. ${ }^{33}$ However, relatively few U.S.born science and engineering doctorate recipients from U.S. universities plan to leave the U.S. to work or study abroad. In 2002, only about $3 \%$ of U.S. native born science and

[^18]engineering doctorate recipients had definite plans to work or study abroad (Figure 39). ${ }^{34}$ The emigration of scientists and engineers is not a significant issue in the U.S.

The U.S. is a recipient of brain drain from other countries. In 2003, more than 3 million U.S. scientists and engineers ( 16 percent of all scientists and engineers) were immigrants. ${ }^{35}$ Most of them are men. Women represent about 40 percent of all foreignborn biological and life scientists and less than 20 percent of all foreign-born physical scientists, computer scientists, and engineers (Figure 40).

Publications and statistics on the citizenship status of scientists and engineers in the U.S. can be found on the National Science Foundation's website.

Figure 39. Percent of Science and Engineering Doctorate Recipients with Definite Plans to Work or Study Abroad by Citizenship Status, 2002


Source: National Science Foundation, Division of Science Resources Statistics, Survey of Earned Doctorates

[^19]Figure 40. Foreign-Born Scientists and Engineers in the United States by Sex, 2006


Source: National Science Foundation SESTAT Data Tool Table Output for Survey of Doctorate Recipients, SDR PUBLIC 2006

## Gender and Laws

U.S. laws prohibit gender discrimination in school enrollment, in hiring and pay, in automatic preferences for males to receive inheritances, in property ownership, and in denying credit. Moreover, the U.S. government now has a federal council to ensure that all presidential advisors and the agencies they oversee consider how their policies and programs impact women and girls. Although U.S. laws show a commitment to end discrimination against women, the U.S. has not ratified the Convention on the Elimination of all Forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW). This section provides details on U.S. laws designed to end practices that have negative effects on females.

## Education

Every state in the U.S. has a compulsory school attendance law making it illegal for children outside of a certain age range not to be enrolled in school. ${ }^{36}$ In many states, the age range is 6 to 16 . Moreover, it is illegal to exclude students, based on their sex, from participation in any education program or activity that receives federal financial assistance. ${ }^{37}$

## Employment

In the U.S., women have to right to work outside the home, rights to the same minimum wages as men, the right to work without being sexually harassed, and the right to work when they are pregnant. ${ }^{38}$ Below is a detailed list of U.S. laws that protect these rights.

An online document entitled "Women’s Rights Movement: Living Legacy 18481998" outlines Supreme Court decisions and laws from 1848 to 1998 that affect women's work rights. The laws are listed below.

1. 1908 Muller v. Oregon, 208 U.S. 412 (1908): The U.S. Supreme Court upholds Oregon's 10 hour workday for women.
2. 1924 Radice v. New York: a New York state case, upholds a law that forbade waitresses from working the night shift but made an exception for entertainers and ladies' room attendants.

[^20]3. 1932 The National Recovery Act forbids more than one family member from holding a government job resulting in many women losing their jobs.
4. 1937 The U.S. Supreme Court upholds Washington State's minimum wage laws for women.
5. 1947 The Fair Standards Act establishes minimum wage without regard to sex.
6. 1963 The Equal Pay Act is passed by Congress, promising equitable wages for the same work, regardless of the race, color, religion, national origin or sex of the worker.
7. 1964 Title VII of the Civil Rights Act passes including a prohibition against employment discrimination on the basis of race, color, religion, national origin, or sex.
8. 1965 Weeks v. Southern Bell, 408 F. 2d. 228 ( $5^{\text {th }}$ Cir. 1969), marks a major triumph in the fight against restrictive labor laws and company regulations on the hours and conditions of women's work, opening many previously male-only jobs to women.
9. 1968 Executive Order 11246 prohibits sex discrimination by government contractors and requires affirmative action plans for hiring women.
10. 1969 In Bowie v. Colgate-Palmolive Company, 416 F. $2 d 711$ ( $7^{\text {th }}$ Cir. 1969), the Seventh Circuit Court of Appeals rules that women meeting the physical requirements can work in many jobs that had been for men only.
11. 1973 Pittsburgh Press v. Pittsburgh Commission on Human Relations, 413 U.S. 376 (1973): The U.S. Supreme Court bans sex-segregated "help wanted" advertising as a violation of Title VII of the Civil Rights Act of 1964 as amended.
12. 1974 Cleveland Board of Education v. LaFleur, 414 U.S. 632 (1974), determines it is illegal to force pregnant women to take maternity leave on the assumption that they are incapable of working in their physical condition.
13. 1974 The Equal Employment Opportunity Commission, the Justice and Labor Departments, and AT\&T sign a consent decree banning AT\&T's discriminatory practices against women and minorities.
14. 1978 The Pregnancy Discrimination Act bans employment discrimination against pregnant women.
15. 1984 Hishon vs. King and Spaulding, 467 U.S. 69 (1984): The U.S. Supreme Court rules that law firms may not discriminate on the basis of sex in promoting lawyers to partnership positions.
16. 1986 In Meritor Savings Bank v. Vinson, 477 U.S. 57 (1986): The U.S. Supreme Court held that sexual harassment is an illegal form of job discrimination.
17. 1987 Johnson v. Santa Clara County, 480 U.S. 616 (1987): The U.S. Supreme Court rules that it is permissible to take sex and race into account in employment decisions even where there is no proven history of discrimination but when evidence of a manifest imbalance exists in the number of women or minorities holding the position in question.
18. 1993 The Family Medical Leave Act [FMLA] goes into effect. FMLA entitles eligible employees of covered employers to take unpaid, job-protected leave for specified family and medical reasons with continuation of group health insurance coverage under the same terms and conditions as if the employee had not taken leave. ${ }^{39}$
19. 1996 United States v. Virginia, 518 U.S. 515 (1996), affirms that the male-only admissions policy of the state-supported Virginia Military Institute violates the $14^{\text {th }}$ amendment.
20. 1998: Burlington Industries, Inc. v. Ellerth, 524 U.S. 742 (1998) and Faragher v. City of Boca Raton, 524 U.S. 742 (1998): The Supreme Court rules that an employer is liable for sexual harassment even in instances when a supervisor's threats are not carried out. But the employer can defend itself by showing that it took steps to prevent or promptly correct any sexually harassing behavior and the employee did not take advantage of available opportunities to stop the behavior or complain about the behavior.

## Inheritance and Property Ownership

Men no longer control women's rights to own property or make decisions regarding property.

The Women’s Rights Movement document outlines laws regarding gender and property ownership. The laws are listed below.

1. 1839 The first state (Mississippi) grants women the right to hold property in their own name, without their husband's permission.
2. 1971 The U.S. Supreme Court holds unconstitutional a state law (Idaho) establishing automatic preference for males as administrators of wills.
3. 1981 Overturns state laws designating a husband 'head and master' with unilateral control of property owned jointly with his wife. ${ }^{40}$
[^21]
## Credit, Loans, and Venture Capital

Denying credit or loans on the basis of sex is prohibited in the U.S., but women receive less than $5 \%$ of venture capital. ${ }^{41}$

## Federally Funded Health Programs

There are two government sponsored health insurance programs in the U.S.: Medicaid and Medicare. Medicaid is for low-income families who have no medical insurance or inadequate insurance. Medicare is for the elderly and disabled. Although these programs are not specifically for women, women comprise the largest percent of both Medicaid (71\%) and Medicare (57\%) adult beneficiaries. ${ }^{42}$ This is because women are more likely than men to qualify for the programs as the parents of dependent children, because they are pregnant, or because they live longer lives and qualify for coverage in their older years. ${ }^{43}$ Pregnant women and women with dependent children can qualify for Medicaid even if their income is not below the federally established poverty level (Figure 41 and Figure 42). Twenty-six percent of all women and 45 percent of all low-income women are covered by government sponsored health insurance (Figure 43).

Figure 41. Mandatory Medicaid Income Eligibility Level by Selected Characteristics, 2006


Source: The Henry J. Kaiser Family Foundation analysis of the March 2004 Current Population Survey, U.S. Census Bureau.

[^22]Figure 42. Medicare Population by Age and Sex, 1999


Source: Barents Group, KPMG Consulting, Inc. analysis of 1999 Medicare Current Beneficiary Survey, 2001.

Figure 43. Percent of Women with Health Insurance by Coverage Type, 2003


Source: The Kaiser Family Foundation analysis of the March 2004 Current Population Survey, U.S. Census Bureau.
Note: Includes women ages 18 and older.

Figure 44.Percent of Low-Income Women with Health Insurance by Coverage Type, 2003


Source: The Henry J. Kaiser Family Foundation analysis of the March 2004 Current Population Survey, U.S. Census Bureau.

Note: Low-income is defined as family incomes less than $200 \%$ of the federal poverty level. Includes lowincome women ages 18 and older.

## Violence against Women Act

The Violence against Women Act was passed in 1994 and reauthorized in 2000, 2005, and 2012. The bill established new laws for sex crime offenders, authorized grants to combat violent crimes against women and grants for capital improvements to prevent crimes against women in national parks, public parks, and on public transportation. It also authorized grants for a national domestic violence hotline, grants for battered women shelters, and grants for education and training to prevent domestic violence. ${ }^{44}$

## Federal Council on Women and Girls

On March 11, 2009, President Obama signed an Executive Order creating the White House Council on Women and Girls. The mission of the Council is to provide a coordinated federal response to the challenges confronted by women and girls and to ensure that all Cabinet and Cabinet-level agencies consider how their policies and programs impact women and families. The Council will be chaired by one of the president's senior advisors, and will include as members cabinet-level federal agencies. ${ }^{45}$

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## Convention on the Elimination of all Forms of Discrimination against Women

The U.S. has not ratified the Convention on the Elimination of all Forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW). However, a bill to ratify CEDAW was introduced in congress on January 5, 2011. The bill had 112 cosponsors, which suggests that there is support for this action. No vote has been taken on whether the bill should become a public law. ${ }^{46}$

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[^8]:    Source: American Time Use Survey

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