



Women in America

INDICATORS OF SOCIAL AND ECONOMIC WELL-BEING

Prepared by the
U. S. DEPARTMENT OF COMMERCE
ECONOMICS AND STATISTICS ADMINISTRATION
and the
EXECUTIVE OFFICE OF THE PRESIDENT
OFFICE OF MANAGEMENT AND BUDGET
for the
WHITE HOUSE COUNCIL ON WOMEN AND GIRLS

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WOMEN IN AMERICA

Indicators of Social and Economic Well-Being

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Prepared by

U. S. Department of Commerce
Economics and Statistics Administration
and
Executive Office of the President
Office of Management and Budget

In cooperation with

Bureau of Justice Statistics
Bureau of Labor Statistics
Census Bureau
National Center for Education Statistics
National Center for Health Statistics
National Center for Science and Engineering Statistics

for

White House Council on Women and Girls



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Foreword

The White House Council on Women and Girls was created by President Obama in early 2009 to enhance, support and coordinate the efforts of existing programs for women and girls. When President Obama signed the Executive Order creating the Council on Women and Girls, he noted that the issues facing women today “are not just women’s issues.” When women make less than men for the same work, it impacts families who then find themselves with less income and often increased challenges in making ends meet. When a job does not offer family leave, it impacts both parents and often the entire family. When there’s no affordable child care, it hurts children who wind up in second-rate care, or spending afternoons alone in front of the television set.

The Council’s mission 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 also serves as a resource for each agency and the White House so that there is a comprehensive approach to the Federal government’s policy on women and girls.

In support of the Council on Women and Girls, the Office of Management and Budget and the Economics and Statistics Administration within the Department of Commerce worked together to create this report, which for the first time pulls together information from across the Federal statistical agencies to compile baseline information on how women are faring in the United States today and how these trends have changed over time. We believe that the information in this report is vitally important to inform the efforts of the Council on Women and Girls—and may be equally important in providing facts to a broad range of others who are concerned with the well-being of women and girls, from policymakers to journalists to researchers.

This report provides a statistical picture of women in America in five critical areas: demographic and family changes, education, employment, health, and crime and violence. By presenting a quantitative snapshot of the well-being of American women based on Federal data, the report greatly enhances our understanding both of how far American women have come and the areas where there is still work to be done.

Each page of this report is full of the most up-to-date facts on the status of women. Of particular note are the following:

- As the report shows, women have made enormous progress on some fronts. Women have not only caught up with men in college attendance but younger women are now more likely than younger men to have a college or a master’s degree. Women are also working more and the number of women and men in the labor force has nearly equalized in recent years. As women’s work has increased, their earnings constitute a growing share of family income.
- Yet, these gains in education and labor force involvement have not yet translated into wage and income equity. At all levels of education, women earned about 75 percent of what their male counterparts earned in 2009. In part because of these lower earnings and in part because

unmarried and divorced women are the most likely to have responsibility for raising and supporting their children, women are more likely to be in poverty than men. These economic inequities are even more acute for women of color.

- Women live longer than men but are more likely to face certain health problems, such as mobility impairments, arthritis, asthma, depression, and obesity. Women also engage in lower levels of physical activity. Women are less likely than men to suffer from heart disease or diabetes. Many women do not receive specific recommended preventative care, and one out of seven women age 18-64 has no usual source of health care. The share of women in that age range without health insurance has also increased.
- Women are less likely than in the past to be the target of violent crimes, including homicide. But women are victims of certain crimes, such as intimate partner violence and stalking, at higher rates than men.

Facts alone can never substitute for actions that directly address the challenges faced by women of all ages and backgrounds. But facts are deeply important in helping to paint a picture of how the lives of American women are changing over time and in pointing toward the actions and policies that might be most needed. The White House Council on Women and Girls has supported Administration efforts to ease the burden of going to college; increase the number of girls interested in science, technology, engineering and math; and promote equal pay for women. We also fought for passage of the Affordable Care Act, which provides health insurance to millions, and coordinated an unprecedented government-wide effort to end violence against women and girls. Yet, we know there is much more to do. The Council on Women and Girls is committed to raising the visibility of women's lives, as well as thinking strategically about how to address these challenges. Reports like this one help us to achieve that goal.

We thank those who worked on putting this report together, and are particularly grateful to the Federal statistical agencies that regularly collect and report these data so that all Americans can better understand the society and economy in which we live.

Valerie Jarrett

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and
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Acknowledgements

This report was conceived at the Office of Management and Budget to support the White House Council on Women and Girls. To facilitate agency decision-making and priority-setting on the basis of firm evidence, this report assembles the Federal government’s significant data and statistical resources to present a portrait of the well-being of American women in several key areas.

The report is a product of many people’s work. The Department of Commerce’s Economics and Statistics Administration was asked to coordinate the work and prepare the final report. Our efforts relied heavily on the work of individuals in Federal statistical agencies who provided the data and substantive portions of the report. Our thanks go, in particular, to the following individuals who contributed significantly to various chapters of the report and provided the statistical content on which this report is based.

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We have also benefited greatly from the comments and suggested edits that were made by our colleagues who reviewed this report. Their astute observations greatly enhanced our work.

We are particularly grateful for the work done by the staff at the Economics and Statistics Administration in the preparation of this report. Jane W. Molloy coordinated the work with the data agencies while David Beede, Beethika Khan, Francine Krasowska, and Rebecca Lehrman provided substantive comments and edits. We also appreciate the work of James K. White and Sabrina Montes, who assisted in editing the final product.

We also want to thank Katherine K. Wallman, Chief Statistician, Office of Management and Budget, and Rochelle W. Martinez of her office for their help in conceptualizing this report and engaging the statistical agencies in this collaboration.

Finally, we deeply appreciate the work of the staff in the Office of Management and Budget, for their input and assistance. Meaghan Mann, Ariel D. Levin, Rebecca Leventhal, and Pooja Kadakia all helped to plan, design, and edit this report.

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Introduction

This report, prepared for the White House Council on Women and Girls, presents selected indicators of women’s social and economic well-being currently and over time. The report is intended for a general audience, with the hope that it will be useful to policymakers, policy analysts, journalists, policy advocates, and all those interested in women’s issues.

The indicators have been grouped into five areas of interest:

- **People, Families, and Income.** This section describes various demographic characteristics and trends in women’s marriage, living arrangements, childbearing, and poverty. The Census Bureau is the primary source of the data ([census.gov](https://www.census.gov)).
- **Education.** This section describes levels and trends in women’s educational attainment, school enrollment, and fields of study. The data are primarily from the National Center for Education Statistics (nces.ed.gov).
- **Employment.** This section describes levels and trends in women’s employment, earnings, and time use. The Bureau of Labor Statistics is the main source of the data ([bls.gov](https://www.bls.gov)).
- **Health.** This section describes levels and trends in women’s life expectancy, prevalence of chronic health conditions, access to health care, and health insurance coverage. The data come primarily from the National Center for Health Statistics (cdc.gov/nchs).
- **Crime and Violence.** This section describes levels and trends in women’s victimization, crime, and involvement in the criminal justice system. The data come primarily from the Bureau of Justice Statistics (bjs.ojp.usdoj.gov).

Using the Document

Each section of this report consists of a two-page narrative introduction followed by a single page for each of the indicators. Each indicator page has bullet points about the indicator, followed by a chart illustrating some of the bullet points. References for the introductions, bullets, and charts, as well as explanatory notes, are located in the Detailed Sources and Notes section at the end of the report. Unless otherwise indicated, all comparisons of statistics for various subpopulations at a particular point in time, as well as comparisons of statistics over time, are statistically significant.

Racial and ethnic data were included when they were available; however, in many instances such data were not available. For example, racial and ethnic data about the Asian American and Pacific Islander communities, in particular, were less available than data about the non-Hispanic White, Hispanic, and African American populations—a data shortcoming that President Obama’s Executive Order 13515, “Increasing Participation of Asian Americans and Pacific Islanders in Federal Programs” (October 14, 2009), is designed in part to address over time.

While there is interest in the economic and demographic characteristics and needs of lesbian, gay, bisexual and transgender individuals and families, no data are currently available from Federal data sources, so such information is not included in this report.

Getting Additional Information

The statistical agency websites listed above and the references listed in the Detailed Sources and Notes section at the end of the report contain a wealth of additional information about women's social and economic well-being. Anyone who wants additional information on these topics is strongly encouraged to look at these resources.

I. PEOPLE, FAMILIES, AND INCOME



I. People, Families, and Income

The demographic landscape of the United States has changed considerably in recent decades. Life expectancy has increased significantly. Changing roles of women have reshaped patterns in marriage and divorce, childbearing, living arrangements, and aspirations for education and career development. Immigration has increased. These trends have in turn affected the age, sex, racial and ethnic composition of the population. All these trends both affect—and are affected by—economic growth and technological change. A comprehensive sorting out of the causes and effects of these many demographic changes is beyond the scope of this report. However, it is clear that these complex and multidimensional phenomena affect women and men differently.

Demographic changes have resulted in an aging population with a larger female share. Until about 1950, the population was majority male. Now, nearly 51 percent of the population is female, with four million more females than males. The long-term trends that resulted in a female majority in the population were driven in part by midcentury reductions in immigration (particularly by men) coupled with life expectancy increases for women that outpaced those of men. The gender imbalance is even larger at age 65 and older, where women have a 57 percent population share.¹

Marriage and Childbirth

Major changes have occurred in marriage and family formation patterns over the past 50 years. At the peak of the 1946–1964 baby boom, both women and men were typically marrying in their late teens or early twenties. The median age at first marriage has increased since the 1960s for both sexes. Women continue to be younger than men (by about two years) when first married. At age 65 or older, 95 percent of both men and women have married at least once; however, at these older ages, three times as many women as men are widowed.

The typical age at which women have their first child has been rising in recent decades. Since the mid-1970s, there has been a sharp decline in the proportion of women in their twenties who have had a child. The likelihood of a woman having her first child at age 30 or older increased roughly six-fold from about 4 percent of all first-time mothers in the 1970s to 24 percent in 2007. Delays in marriage and childbearing are associated with a reduction of about one child per mother by the end of the childbearing years (in 2008, mothers had on average about 2.3 children each).²

The trends toward delaying first marriage and childbirth coincide with an increase in schooling among young men and women, and rising labor force participation by women. College graduates marry and begin families several years later than their less-educated counterparts. Of women in their mid-twenties, those without a high school diploma are three times as likely to have had a child as are women with at least a college degree. Nevertheless, the most recent data indicate that eight out of 10 women still go on to have children, compared to nine out of 10 women in the mid-1970s. Although there is a large difference across education levels in the percent of women in their mid-twenties with children, this difference is much smaller for women in their forties with children.

Households and Income

Delays in marriage and childbearing are reflected in living arrangements. While married couples head the majority of households, increasing numbers of men and women cohabit with partners or live without a spouse or partner. Women are more likely than men to live without a spouse, especially women age 65 and older (reflecting their higher degree of widowhood). Women who live alone have the lowest median income of any type of household, including households with only a male who lives alone. Similarly, households headed by women with other relatives but no spouse also have lower income levels than households headed by men with other relatives but no spouse. Married-couple households have higher levels of household income relative to their non-married counterparts.

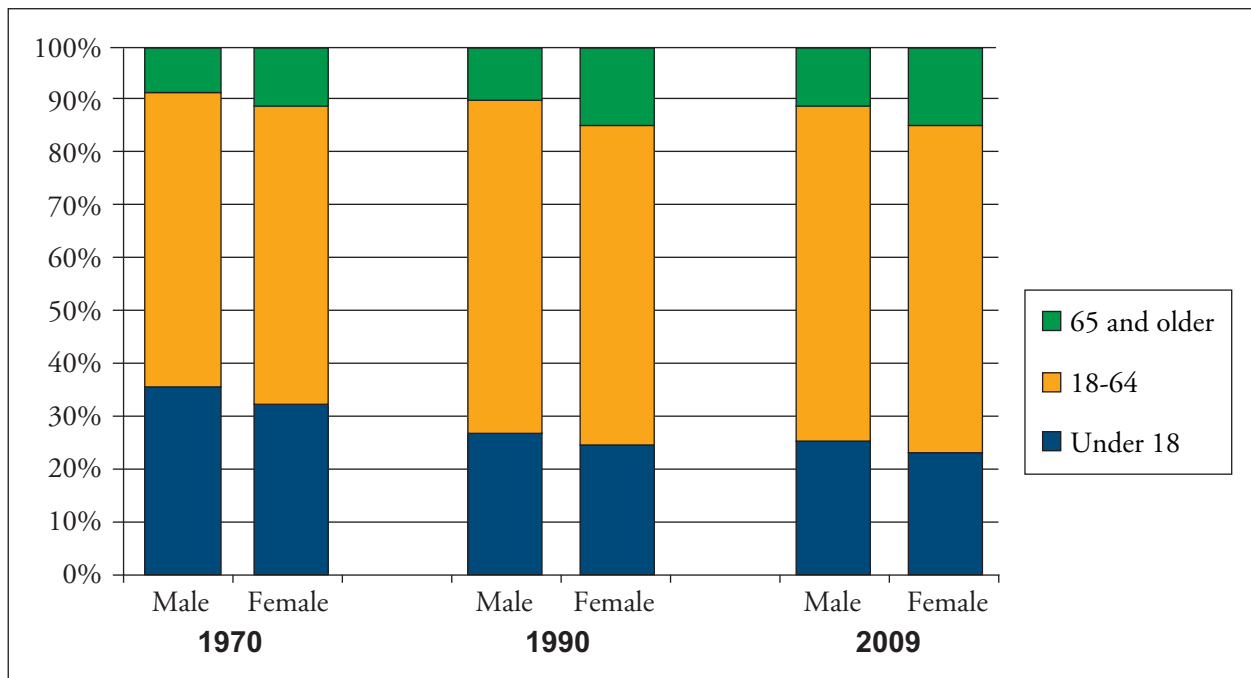
Differences in poverty rates have narrowed somewhat over the last decade, although women continue to experience higher poverty rates. While women comprise nearly half of the employed labor force, they continue to earn less than men. Changes in household and family structure, including a rise in female householders (with and without children), also have contributed to higher poverty rates for women. Furthermore, older women are more likely to be poor than older men.

1. While the populations of both men and women are aging, women continue to outnumber men at older ages.

- In 2009, a greater share of the population was 65 or older than in 1970, with women outnumbering men in the older population. In 2009, about 15 percent of women were 65 and older vs. 11 percent of men, compared to 11 percent and 9 percent, respectively, in 1970. (See chart.)
- People under age 18 account for a smaller share of the population in 2009 than in 1970, and males continue to outnumber females at younger ages. The share of this age category has fallen dramatically since 1970, from 36 percent to 25 percent for males and from 33 percent to 23 percent for females. (See chart.)
- Higher shares of Black (27 percent), Hispanic (35 percent), and American Indian and Alaskan Native (30 percent) females are under 18 years of age, compared to 22 percent of White females and 22 percent of Asian females in 2009. Lower shares of Black (10 percent), Hispanic (7 percent), Asian (11 percent), and American Indian and Alaskan Native (8 percent) women are 65 and older, compared to 16 percent of White women.

Population by Age

(Percent Distribution by Selected Age Groups and Sex, 1970, 1990, and 2009)

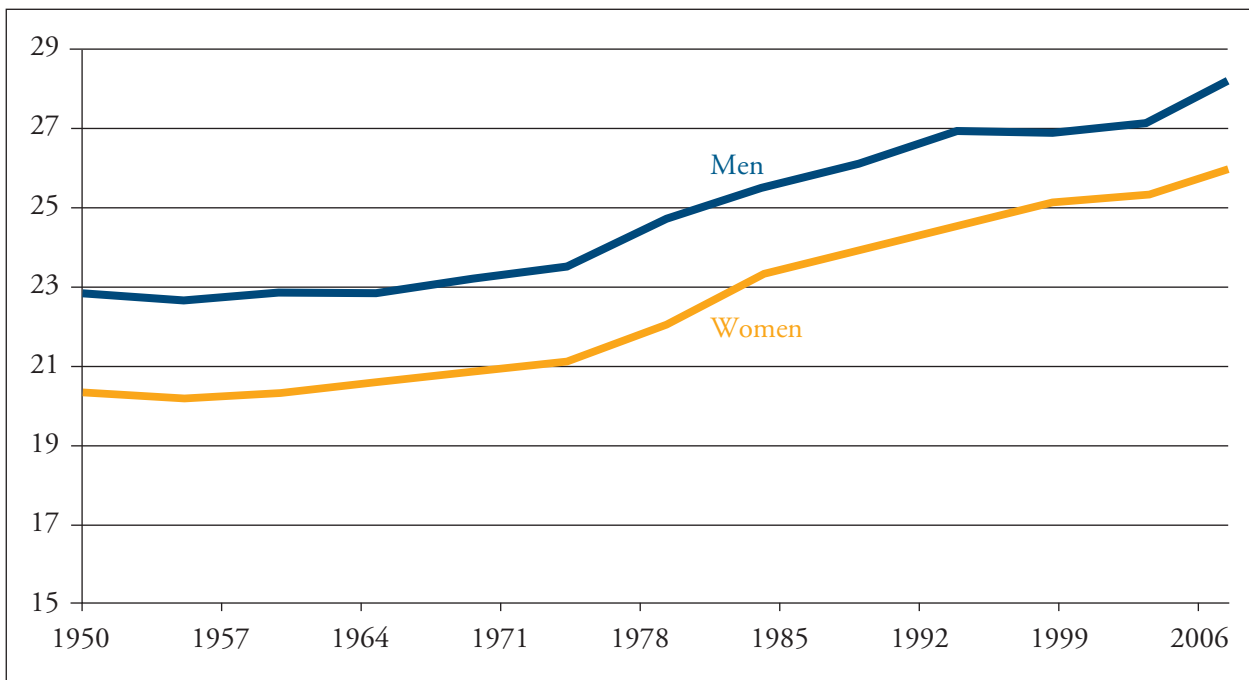


Source: Census Bureau

2. Both women and men are delaying marriage.

- Both women and men are marrying about five years later on average than they did in 1950. (See chart.)
- People with more education tend to marry later than those with less education. In 2008, college-educated women typically married at age 30, compared to age 26 for women without a high school diploma. College-educated men typically married at age 31, compared to age 29 for men without a high school diploma.
- Since 1950, women have typically been about two years younger than men when first married. (See chart.)
- Non-Hispanic White and Hispanic women and men tend to marry earlier than Black women and men. The typical age of first marriage is 27 for both non-Hispanic White and Hispanic women, and 29 for non-Hispanic White and Hispanic men, compared to age 31 for Black women and men.

Median Age at First Marriage
(1950–2009)



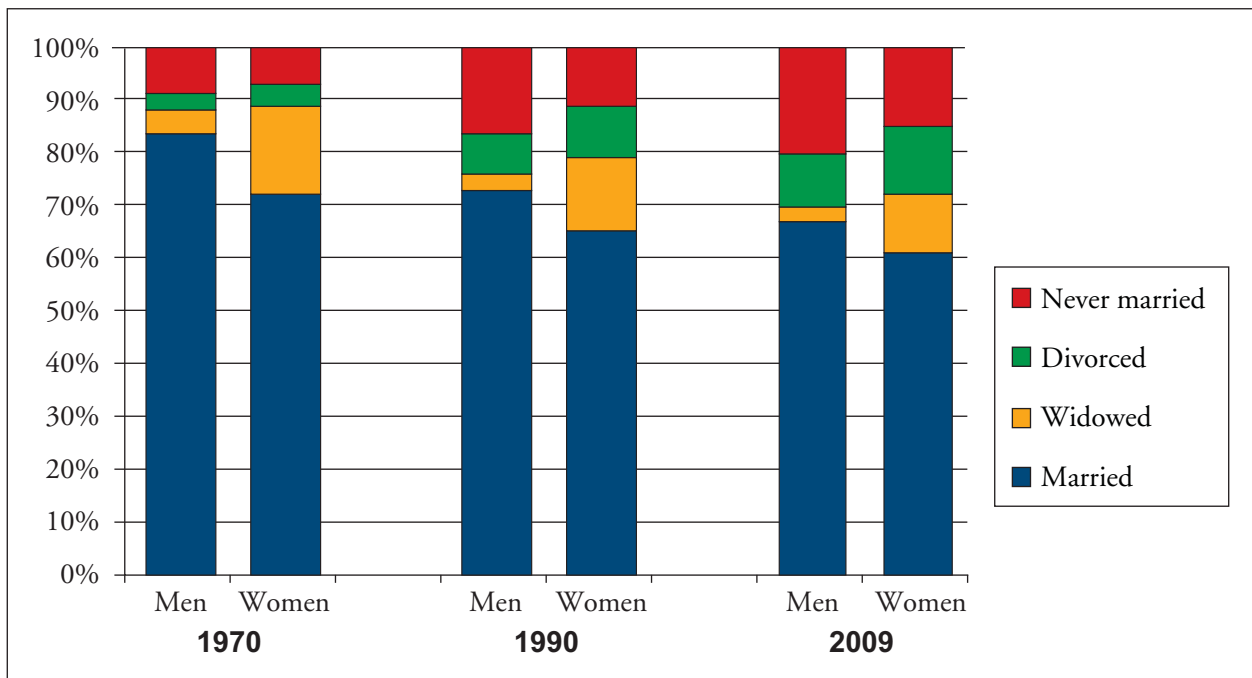
Source: Census Bureau

3. Fewer women are married than in the past.

- The percentage of adults who are married declined between 1970 and 2009, from 72 percent to 62 percent for women and from 84 percent to 66 percent for men. In 2009, 15 percent of women and 20 percent of men had never married, compared to 7 percent and 9 percent, respectively, in 1970. (See chart.)
- In 2009, among those 65 and older, 44 percent of women were married, compared to 74 percent of men. Widowed women account for about 41 percent of women 65 and older, but only 13 percent of men 65 and older are widowed.
- More women are widowed and divorced than men. Never married and divorced persons have accounted for an increasing share among both women and men over the past four decades. (See chart.)
- Non-Hispanic White and Hispanic women are much more likely to be married than Black women (64 percent, 65 percent and 42 percent, respectively), and much less likely to have never married (11 percent, 18 percent and 32 percent, respectively).

Marital Status

(Percent Distribution of the Population Age 25 and Older, 1970, 1990, and 2009)



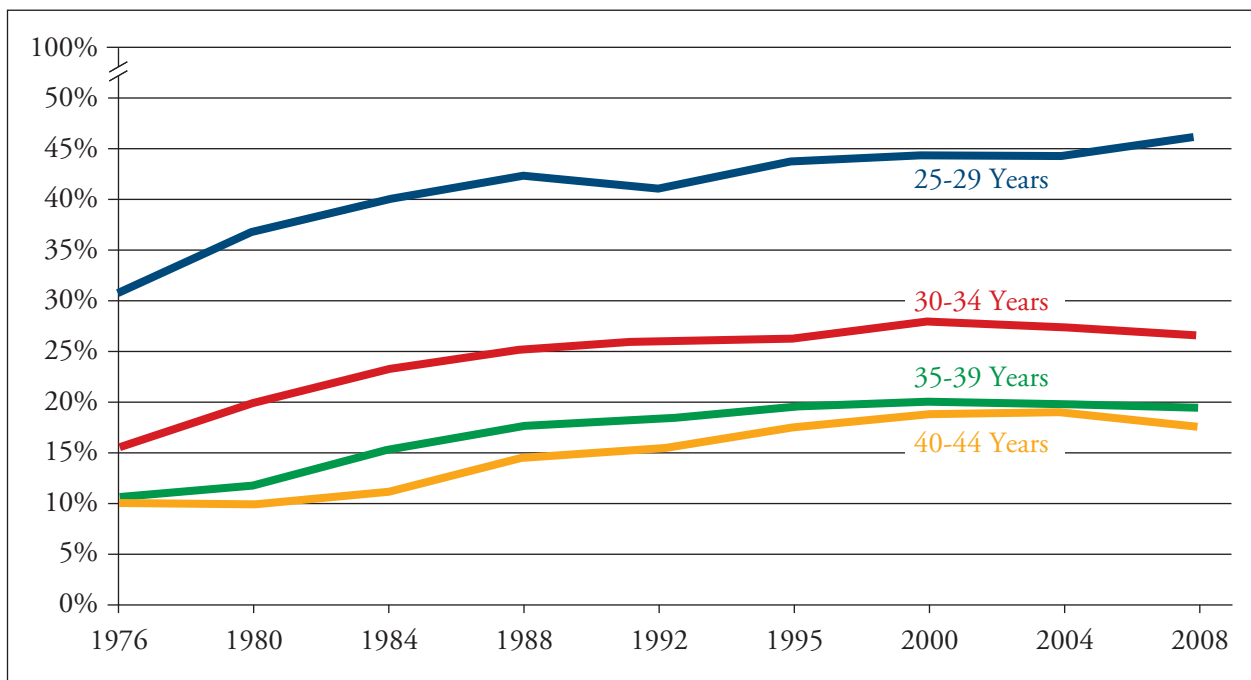
Source: Census Bureau

4. More women than in the past have never had a child.

- In 2008, about 18 percent of women age 40–44 (the latter part of peak childbearing years) have never had a child, almost double that in 1976 (10 percent). (See chart.)
- Women in their late twenties with more education are dramatically less likely to have had a child than their less-educated counterparts. Among women age 25–29 in 2008, only 19 percent of those with less than a high school education had not had a child, compared to 31 percent of high school graduates and 72 percent of those with at least a college degree. These differences are much narrower among women age 40–44.
- There has been a steep rise in the share of women age 25–29 (early in their childbearing years) who have not had a child, rising from 31 percent in 1976 to about 46 percent in 2008. (See chart.)
- There are differences in first births associated with race. In 2008, 53 percent of non-Hispanic White women age 25–29 had not had a child, compared to only 33 percent of Black women and 31 percent of Hispanic women. However, there is not much difference by race among women age 40–44; 18 percent of Black and non-Hispanic White women and 19 percent of Hispanic women in this age group have never had a child.

Women Who Have Never Had a Child

(Percent of Selected Age Groups, 1976–2008)



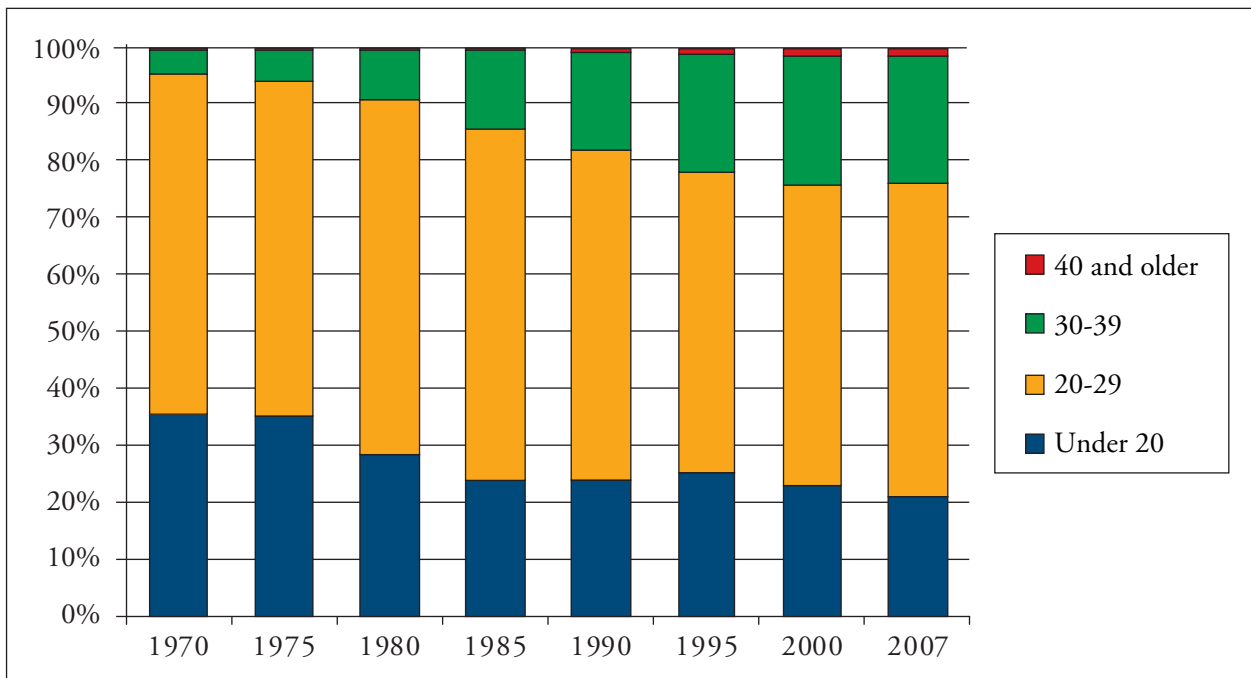
Source: Census Bureau

5. Women are giving birth to their first child at older ages.

- The share of women in their thirties among those giving birth for the first time has risen from 4 percent in 1970 to 22 percent in 2007; however, women in their twenties continue to account for the majority of first-time mothers. (See chart.)
- While more women in their forties are giving birth for the first time, they account for only one percent of first-time mothers. (See chart.)
- The average age at which women first gave birth in 2007 was 25, compared to 21 in 1970.
- Over the past four decades, teenagers have accounted for a decreasing share of women giving birth for the first time (36 percent in 1970 compared to 21 percent in 2007). (See chart.) The birth rate for teenagers (age 15-19) was 43 births per 1,000 females in 2007, down from 68 births per 1,000 females in 1970.
- Hispanic and non-Hispanic Black women who gave birth to their first child in 2007 were younger than non-Hispanic White women. The mean age at first birth was 23 years for both non-Hispanic Black and Hispanic women, compared to 26 years for non-Hispanic White women.

Age of Mother at First Birth

(Percent Distribution of Women Having their First Birth by Year and Age, 1970–2007)



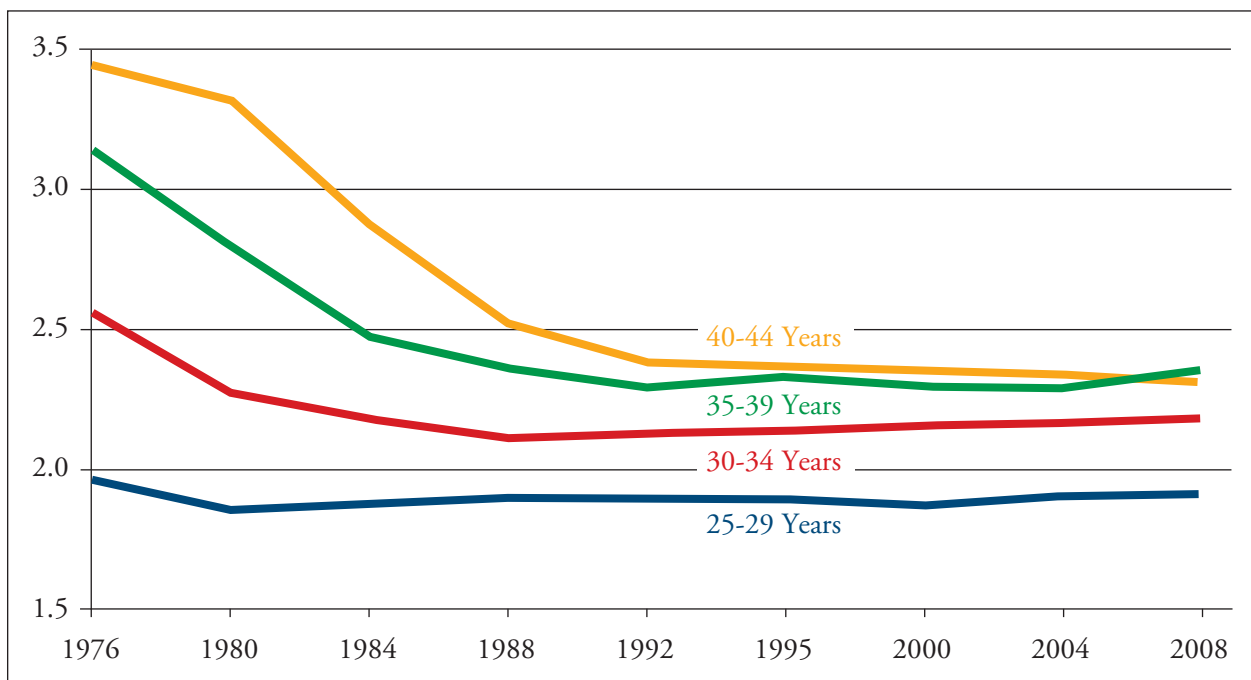
Source: National Center for Health Statistics

6. Women are having fewer children.

- Across all age groups, women currently have fewer children than they did in 1976. (See chart.)
- Larger declines in the number of children per mother have occurred among older women than younger women. Mothers age 40–44 had given birth to 3.4 children on average in 1976, compared to only 2.3 children in 2008. (See chart.)
- In 2008, Black and Hispanic mothers had a higher average number of children than non-Hispanic White mothers.
- Women with more years of schooling have fewer children. Among mothers age 25–29, those with less than a high school education had given birth to 2.4 children on average, while those with at least a college degree had given birth to only 1.5 children on average. Among mothers age 40–44, those with less than a high school education had given birth to 2.9 children, while those with at least a college degree had given birth to 2.2 children.

Average Number of Children per Mother

(Births Per Mother for Selected Age Groups, 1976–2008)



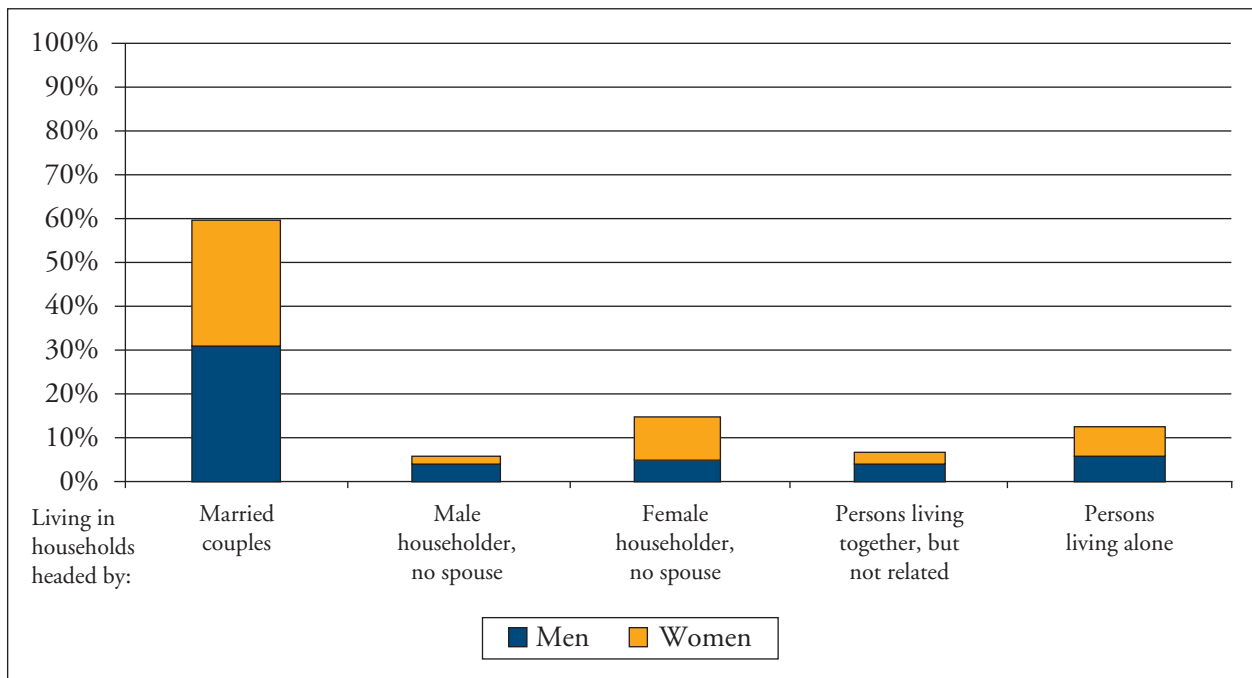
Source: Census Bureau

7. Most adults live in households headed by married couples; single-mother households are more common than single-father households.

- Approximately three out of five American adults (age 15 and older) reside in households headed by married couples. (See chart.) This includes both those who are part of the married couple and other adults who reside in the household.
- The share of adults who dwell in family households headed by a single woman (14 percent) is greater than those residing in family households headed by a single man (6 percent). (See chart.)
- Adults living alone make up 13 percent of the total population age 15 and older. Women are slightly more likely to live alone than men (8 percent vs. 6 percent). (See chart.)
- Black adults are less likely than non-Hispanic White and Hispanic adults to live in households headed by married couples. In addition, 43 percent of Black women live in female-headed family households, compared to 14 percent of non-Hispanic White women and 25 percent of Hispanic women.

Living Arrangements of American Adults*

(Percent Distribution of the Population Age 15 and Older by Household Type, 2008)



Source: Census Bureau

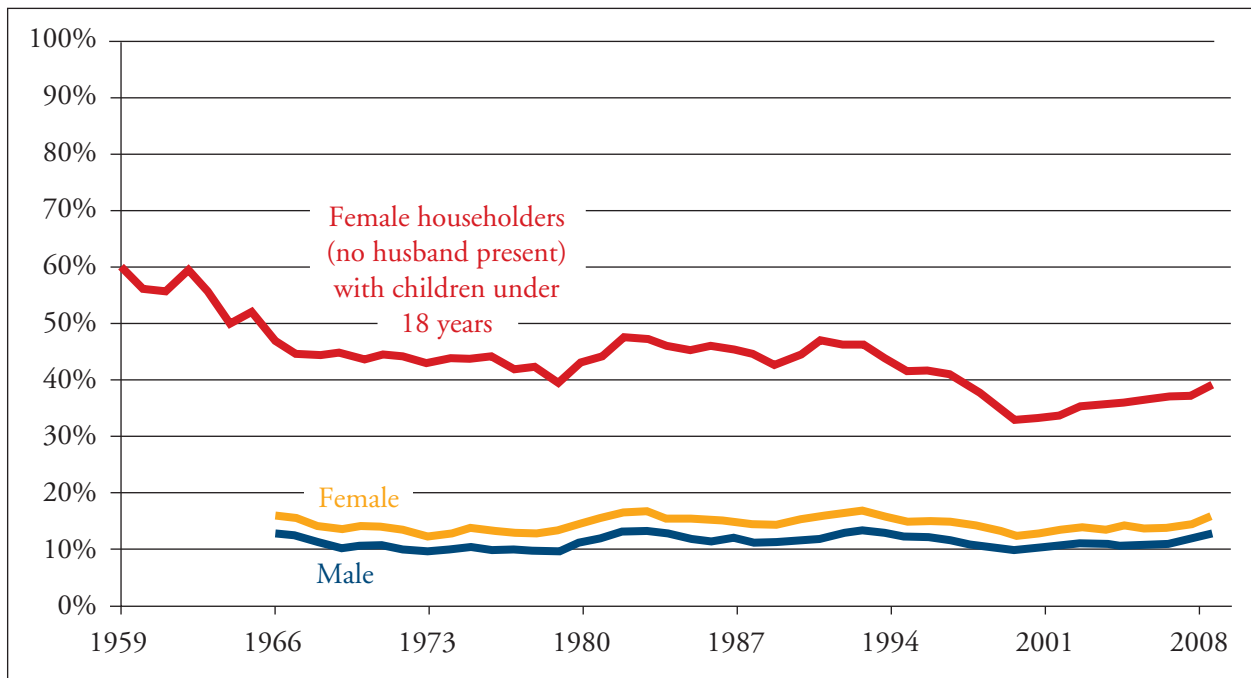
* Data for each type of household include all people, age 15 and older, who dwell in that particular type of household, regardless of their relationship to the householder. For example, a 20-year-old living with 50-year-old married parents is included in this chart in the married-couple category even if the child is single.

8. Women are more likely than men to be in poverty.

- Historically, women have been more likely to be poor than men. Poverty rates for unmarried female householders with children are particularly high, and have consistently been two or three times as high as overall male and female poverty rates since 1966. (See chart.)
- The income threshold below which a family is considered to be in poverty varies by family size and composition. For example, in 2009, a single woman under age 65 and living alone would be considered to be in poverty if her family income was below \$11,161. The poverty threshold for a single mother living with two children under age 18 was \$17,285.
- In 2009, almost 11 percent of women age 65 and older were poor, compared to 7 percent of men age 65 and older.
- In 2009, 28 percent of working women who were unmarried with children had incomes below the poverty level, compared to a poverty rate of 8 percent among all female workers and 6 percent among male workers.
- Black and Hispanic females are more likely to be poor than non-Hispanic White females. In 2009, slightly more than one-quarter of both Black females (28 percent) and Hispanic females (27 percent) had family incomes below the poverty line, compared to 11 percent of White, non-Hispanic females.

Percent in Poverty

(Percent of Each Group with Incomes Below Poverty Line, 1959–2009)



Source: Census Bureau

II. EDUCATION



II. Education

Education delivers a variety of benefits. Higher educational attainment is associated with better labor market outcomes including higher earnings, lower poverty, and lower unemployment. In addition, education is linked to various other benefits including higher job satisfaction, better fringe benefits, and better health.

American women and girls have made substantial progress in educational attainment and achievement in the last few decades. This trend showing steady gains in education among women holds across racial and ethnic groups and is also visible in other developed countries. In many instances, the progress made by females in recent decades exceeded that of their male counterparts across an array of educational measures.

Understanding the relationship between educational attainment and employment outcomes requires accurate data about credentials that have value in the job market. Current Federal sources on educational attainment have two main data limitations. First, there is scant information available on the relationship between degree attainment in specific fields of study and labor market outcomes. Second, current surveys of educational attainment do not count non-degree credentials such as postsecondary (mostly vocational) certificates or industry-recognized certifications—both of which prepare women for work.¹

Enrollment and Graduation

Women enroll in greater numbers than men in both undergraduate and graduate institutions. From 1972 through 2008, regardless of age, the immediate college enrollment rate—defined as the percentage of high school completers of a given year who enroll in two- or four-year colleges in the fall immediately after completing high school—increased for both males and females, but the increase was greater for females than males. In 2008, the immediate college enrollment rate for all females was higher than that for all males, 72 percent versus 66 percent, respectively.² By 2019, women are projected to account for nearly 60 percent of total undergraduate enrollment.³ Further, the number of females in graduate schools surpassed the number of males in 1984. More recently, between 1997 and 2007, the increase in female full-time graduate students was nearly double that of males.⁴

Women also have higher graduation rates at all academic levels. In 2008, non-Hispanic White, non-Hispanic Black, and Hispanic females age 16 to 24 had lower high school dropout rates than their male counterparts.⁵ Female students also took more Advanced Placement exams than their male counterparts (1.6 million and 1.3 million, respectively).⁶ Women earned more postsecondary degrees than men within each racial and ethnic group in 2007–2008. This finding is particularly notable for non-Hispanic Black women, who earned more degrees than non-Hispanic Black men across all postsecondary levels.⁷

The trend toward increasing female educational attainment is not limited to the United States. In 2010, the Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD) reported that females earned, on average, 58 percent of undergraduate degrees conferred in OECD countries.⁸

Academic Fields

Notwithstanding the progress that women have made in postsecondary education, some differences remain in the relative performance of female and male students in specific academic fields.⁹ Female students generally score lower than male students in mathematics assessment tests and higher in reading assessment tests.

Women are generally found in different academic areas of specialization than are their male counterparts. In the United States, the percentage of women entering various science and technology fields, specifically in engineering and information sciences, continues to be lower than the percentage of men. This difference in gender participation in science and technology fields is a global phenomenon. OECD member countries reported that in the fields of humanities, arts, education, health and welfare, women comprised nearly two-thirds of graduates; however, in science and technology, females made up only about one-quarter of graduates.¹⁰

Other Challenges

Looking beyond academic achievement, there are gender differences in other important aspects of students' educational experiences. For example, findings regarding violence show that male and female students are subject to different types of violence in school. While male students are more likely to be victimized with weapons, female students are more likely to experience electronic bullying. In 2007, about 10 percent of male high school students reported being threatened or injured with a weapon on school property, compared to 5 percent of female students.¹¹ Of more recent concern is bullying in schools, particularly electronic bullying. Across an array of technologies (e.g., social networking sites, instant messaging programs, text messaging), females were victims of electronic bullying twice as often as males.¹²

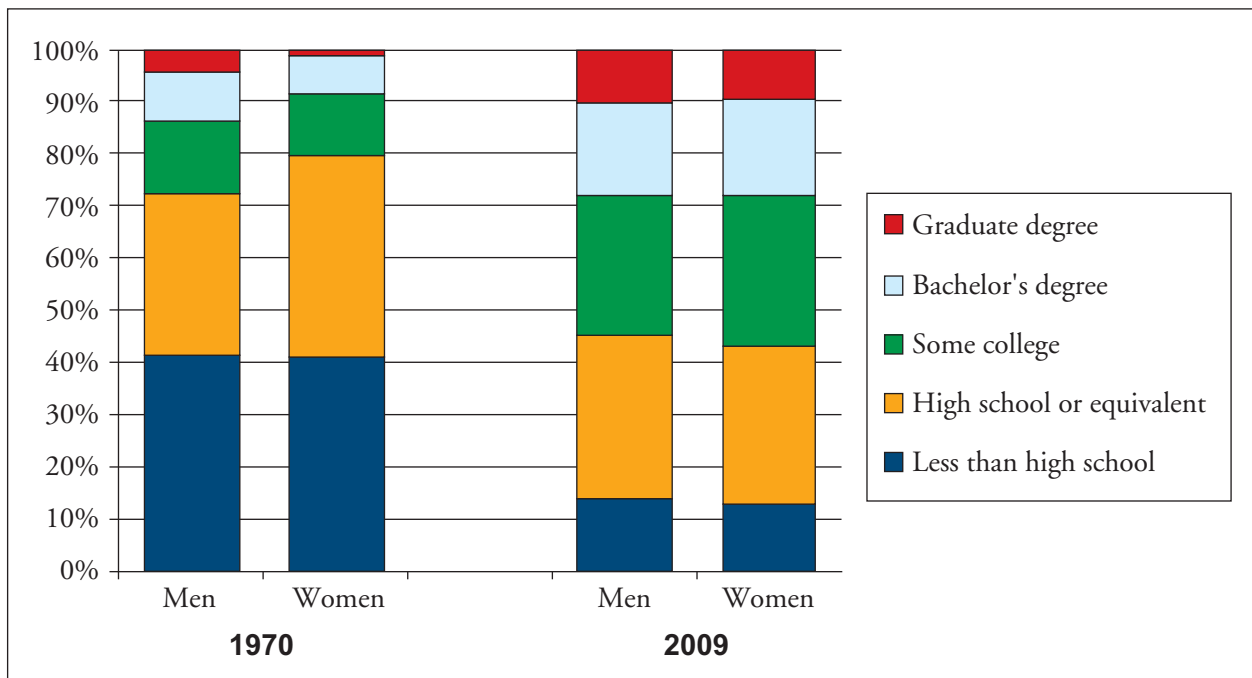
Across several measures women are doing as well as, if not better than, men in educational attainment and achievement. Although there is still room for improvement, specifically in science and technology, women have made definite and pronounced gains in educational levels for more than four decades.

1. Women's gains in educational attainment have significantly outpaced those of men over the last 40 years.

- A slightly greater percentage of women than men now have at least a high school education. Between 1970 and 2009, the percentage of women with at least a high school education rose from 59 percent (about the same as men) to about 87 percent (slightly more than men). (See chart.)
- For the population as a whole, women have caught up with men in the percentage who have at least a college degree, about 28 percent for each group in 2009. In 1970, only 8 percent of women and 14 percent of men were college graduates. (See chart.)
- In 2008, the level of postsecondary educational attainment for both men and women age 25–64 in the United States was higher than the average in all other developed countries, according to the OECD.
- In 2008, for all race/ethnic subgroups, a higher percentage of bachelor's and master's degrees were earned by women than men. For non-Hispanic Black, Hispanic, and non-Hispanic American Indian/Alaskan Native groups, more than 60 percent of bachelor's and master's degrees were earned by women. For non-Hispanic Whites and non-Hispanic Asians, more than 50 percent of bachelor's and master's degrees were earned by women.

Levels of Educational Attainment

(Percentage of Adults 19 and Older, 1970 and 2009)



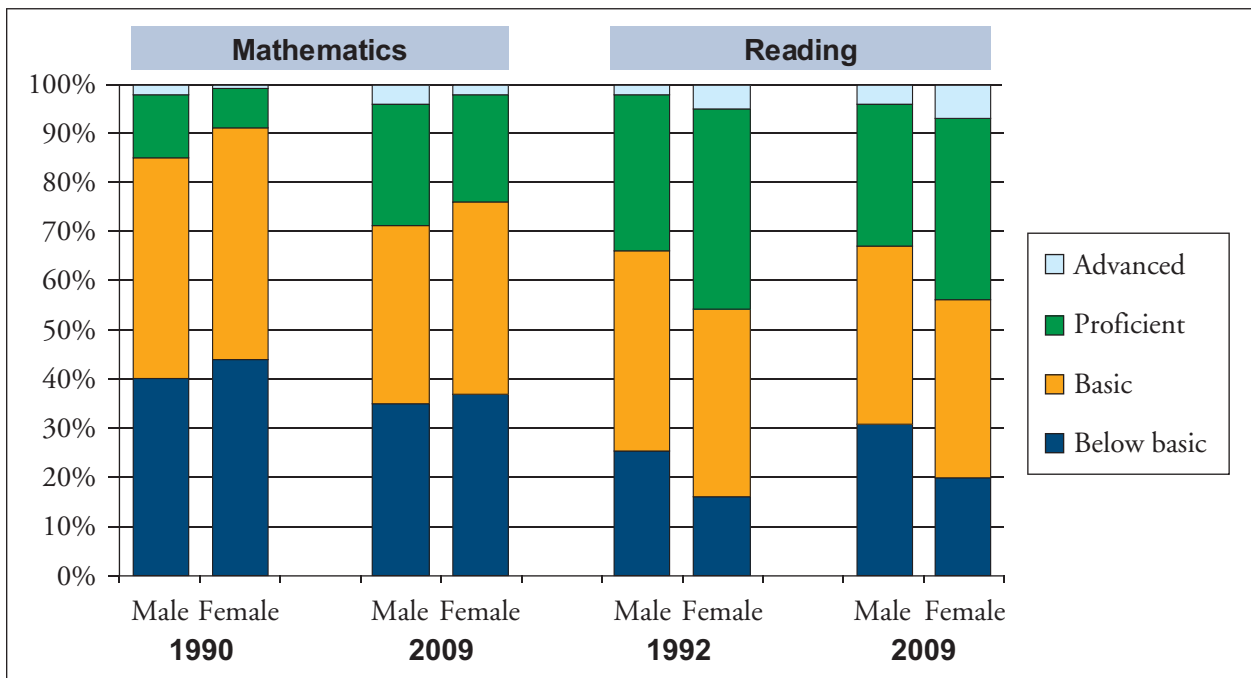
Source: National Center for Education Statistics

2. Female students score higher than males on reading assessments and lower than males on mathematics assessments.

- Twelfth-grade girls are more likely than boys to be proficient in reading. Similarly, fewer twelfth-grade girls than boys are likely to be below basic levels in reading. (See chart.) The same patterns hold for fourth- and eighth-graders.
- The percentage of both boys and girls proficient in math has increased significantly since 1990, although girls are still slightly less likely than boys to be proficient in math. (See chart.)
- Girls in grades 4, 8, and 12 score slightly below boys in science achievement tests.
- In 2008, eighth-grade girls scored higher than boys in music and visual arts.

Mathematics and Reading Proficiency Levels for Grade 12

(National Assessment of Educational Progress, Selected Years, 1990–2009)

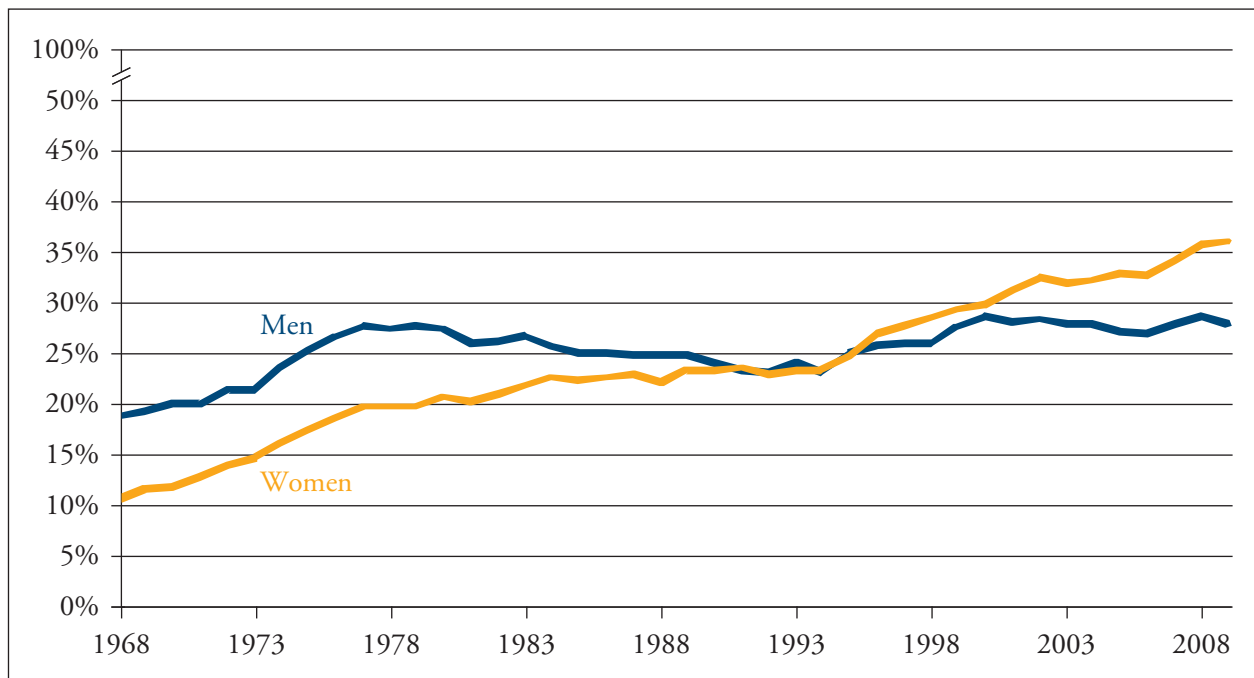


Source: National Center for Education Statistics

3. Higher percentages of women than men age 25–34 have earned a college degree.

- Women age 25–34 are now more likely than men of that age group to have attained a college degree, reversing the norm of 40 years ago. (See chart.)
- The percentage of women age 25–34 with at least a college degree has more than tripled since 1968, while the share of men with a college degree increased by one-half. (See chart.)
- Women earned about 57 percent of all college degrees conferred in 2007–2008. Women also constituted 57 percent of total undergraduate enrollment.
- Women account for the majority of undergraduate enrollment across all race/ethnic groups. In 2008, non-Hispanic Black students had the largest gender gap with non-Hispanic Black women accounting for 64 percent of non-Hispanic Black enrollment, followed by non-Hispanic American Indian/Alaskan Native women accounting for 60 percent, Hispanic women accounting for 58 percent, and non-Hispanic White women accounting for 56 percent of corresponding enrollment, respectively.

Percent of Adults Age 25–34 with a Bachelor’s Degree or Higher
(1968–2009)

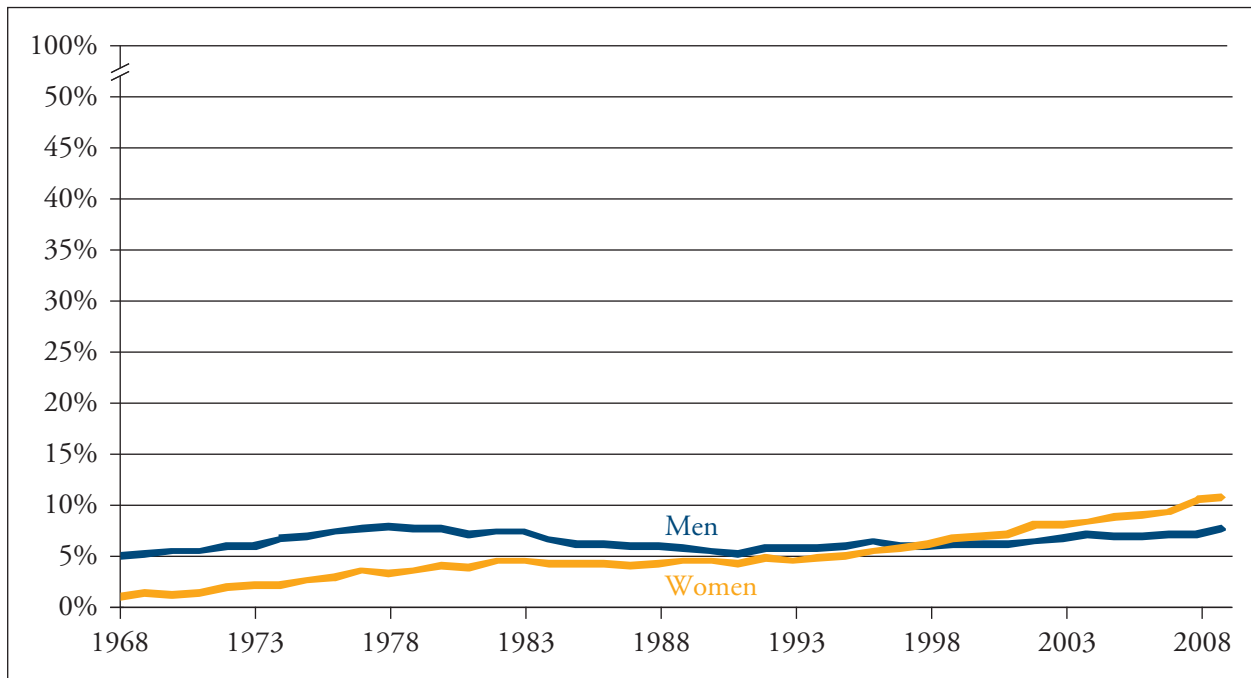


Source: National Center for Education Statistics

4. More women than men have received a graduate education.

- The percentage of women age 25–34 with two or more years of graduate school has increased dramatically since the late 1970s to about 11 percent in 2009, while the percentage of men age 25–34 with two or more years of graduate school has remained at or below 8 percent. (See chart.)
- In 1998, more doctoral degrees were conferred to men than to women. A decade later, more doctoral degrees were conferred to women than men.
- In 2008, women accounted for 59 percent of graduate school enrollment.
- Women account for the majority of graduate enrollment across all race/ethnic groups. In 2008, non-Hispanic Black students had the largest gender difference with non-Hispanic Black women accounting for 71 percent of non-Hispanic Black enrollment, followed by Hispanic females and non-Hispanic American Indian/Alaskan Native females accounting for 63 percent, respectively, of corresponding enrollment. Non-Hispanic White females comprised 60 percent of non-Hispanic White enrollment and non-Hispanic Asian/Pacific Islander females comprised 55 percent of non-Hispanic Asian/Pacific Islander enrollment.

Percent of Adults Age 25–34 with Two or More Years of Graduate Study
(1968–2009)

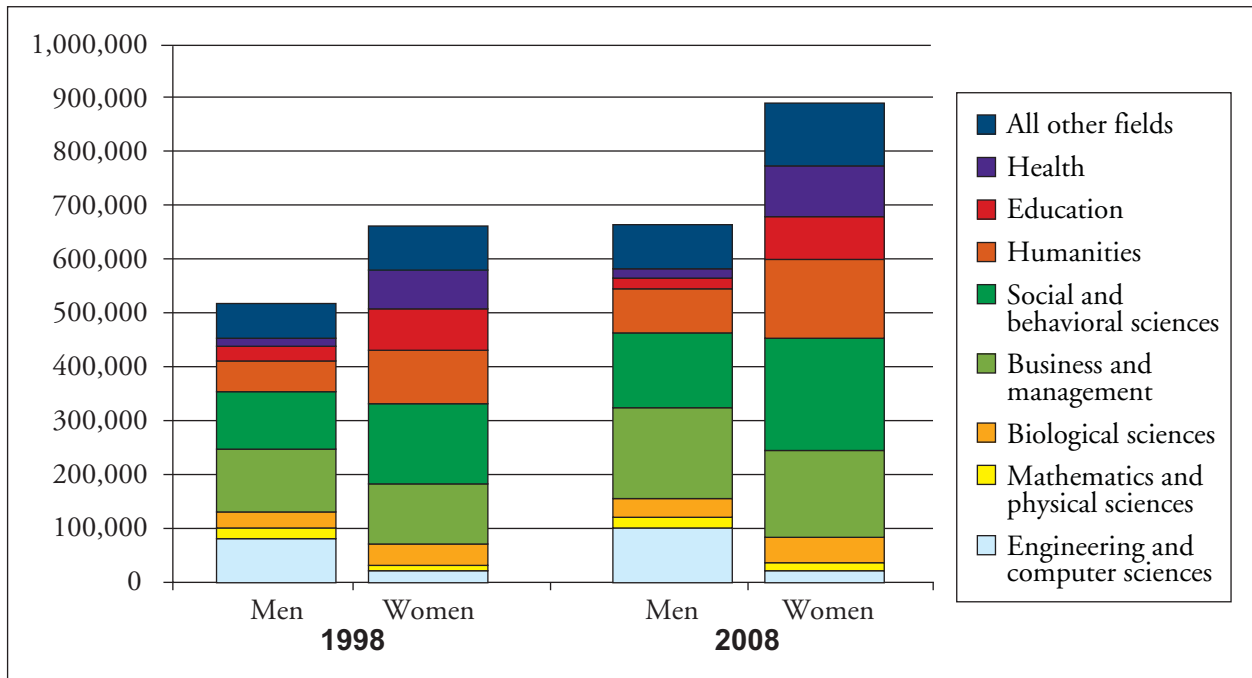


Source: National Center for Education Statistics

5. Women earn the majority of conferred degrees overall but earn fewer degrees than men in science and technology.

- The number of bachelor's degrees conferred to women increased or remained stable in almost every field of study between 1998 and 2008. (See chart.)
- Women earn less than half of all bachelor's degrees in mathematics and physical sciences, as well as in engineering and computer sciences. In engineering and computer sciences at the college level, women's share of degrees conferred in these fields is small (less than 20 percent) and has declined slightly over the last decade. (See chart.)
- Women have long earned the great majority of degrees conferred in health and education fields, especially nursing and teaching at the primary and secondary levels. This disparity has increased since 1998. (See chart.)

Number of Bachelor's Degrees Conferred by Field of Study
(1998 and 2008)



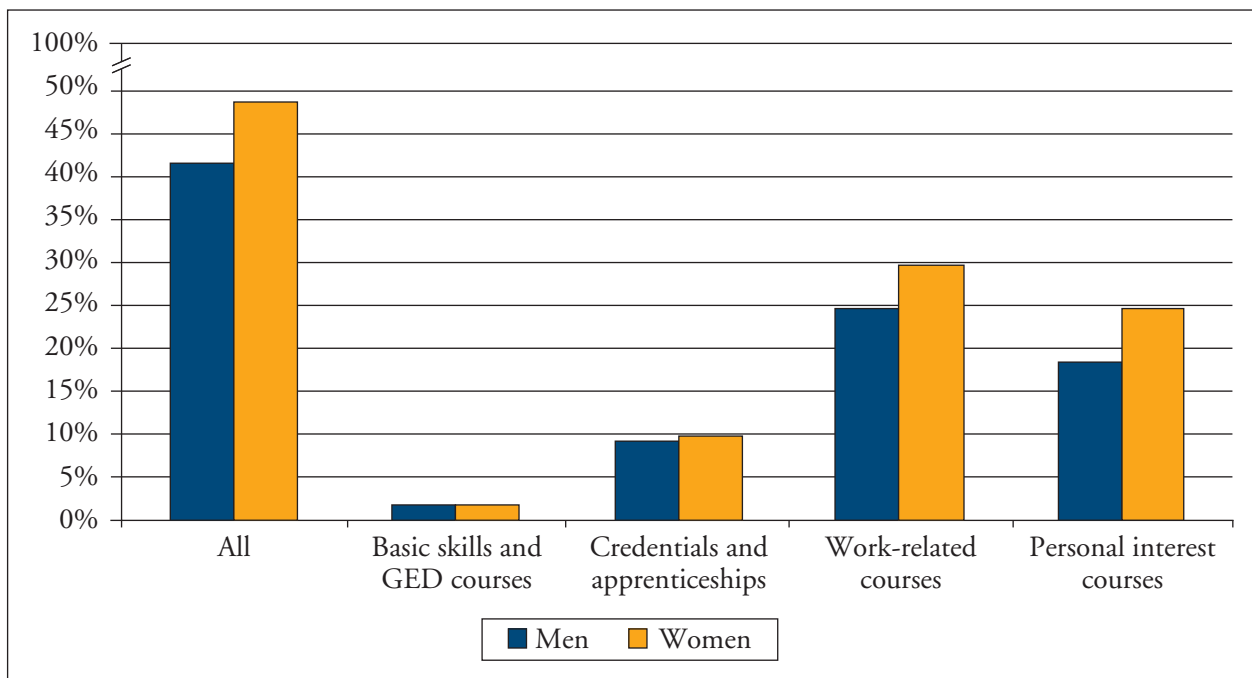
Source: National Center for Education Statistics

6. Higher percentages of women than men participate in adult education.

- In 2005, women had higher total levels of participation in adult education than men. (See chart.)
- Participation levels for men and women were similar in two of four components of adult education activity (basic skills and credentials) but differed in the two most common categories (work-related and personal interest), in both of which women had higher participation. (See chart.)
- For both men and women, adult education participation was higher for those with postsecondary degrees, and women with high school, bachelor's, and graduate degrees participated more than men with similar educational attainment.
- In 2005, non-Hispanic White women had higher levels of participation in adult education than non-Hispanic White men; non-Hispanic Asian women had lower levels than non-Hispanic Asian men; Hispanic and non-Hispanic Black groups had no differences by sex.

Adult Education by Type of Activity

(Percent Participating During the Previous 12 Months, 2005)



Source: National Center for Education Statistics

III. EMPLOYMENT



III. Employment

Over the past several decades, women have dramatically reshaped their role in the nation's labor force. They have become much more likely to work or seek work outside the home. They are also employed in more varied occupations and are more likely to work year-round. In addition, women have attained higher levels of education. Reflecting their greater work activity and education, women's earnings as a proportion of men's earnings have grown over time and women are contributing increasingly important shares of family incomes, but the earnings gap between men and women remains. As more women have entered the labor force, interest has risen in how they divide their time between their jobs and other activities.

Labor Force Participation

The labor force participation rate for women—the percentage of all adult women who are working or looking for work—rose steadily during the latter half of the 20th century.¹ This rate increased from about 33 percent in 1950 to 61 percent in 1999. During the first decade of this century, it has held steady at around 61 percent. In contrast, men's labor force participation rate has declined steadily since the 1950s.

Despite the trends of recent decades, women remain less active in the labor market than men. The labor force participation rate of adult women (age 20 and older) was still significantly lower than that of adult men, 61 percent versus 75 percent in 2009. Moreover, on average, women at every educational level and at every age spend fewer weeks in the labor force than do men. The differences between men and women in labor force attachment are much smaller among those with a college degree or more education.²

As part of the overall growth of women's presence in the labor force, the participation rate of mothers also increased. From 1975 to 2000, the labor force participation rate of mothers with children under age 18 rose from 47 percent to a peak of 73 percent. This rate receded to about 71 percent in 2004, where it has remained through 2009. Unmarried mothers had a higher labor force participation rate than their married counterparts, 76 percent compared to 70 percent in 2009.

Occupations

The jobs working women perform also have changed as their market activity has increased. A larger share of women now works in management, professional, and related occupations.³ In 2009, women accounted for 51 percent of all persons employed in these occupations, somewhat more than their share of total employment (47 percent).

One reason for the shift in occupations is women's greater educational attainment. Among women age 25–64 in the labor force, 36 percent held college degrees in 2009, compared to 11 percent in 1970. Over the same period, the proportion of women workers with less than a high school diploma fell from 34 percent to 7 percent. Individuals with higher levels of education generally have better

access to higher paying jobs than do individuals with less education. The earnings of both women and men age 25 and older without a high school diploma were less than half of those with a college degree, respectively.

Earnings and Contributions

The earnings gap between women and men has narrowed over time, but it remains. Among full-time wage and salary workers, women's weekly earnings as a percent of men's have increased from 62 percent in 1979 to 80 percent in 2009.^{4,5} This comparison of earnings is on a broad level and does not control for many factors that can be significant in explaining or further highlighting earnings differences.

As women's earnings have risen, working wives' contributions to their family incomes also have risen. In 2008, working wives contributed 29 percent of their families' incomes, up by 5 percentage points from 1988, when wives' earnings accounted for 24 percent of their families' total incomes. The proportion of wives earning more than their husbands also has grown. In 1988, 18 percent of working wives whose husbands also worked earned more than their spouses; in 2008, the proportion was 27 percent.⁶ Dual-earner couples made up 57 percent of all married-couple families in 2008, compared to 46 percent in 1970.⁷

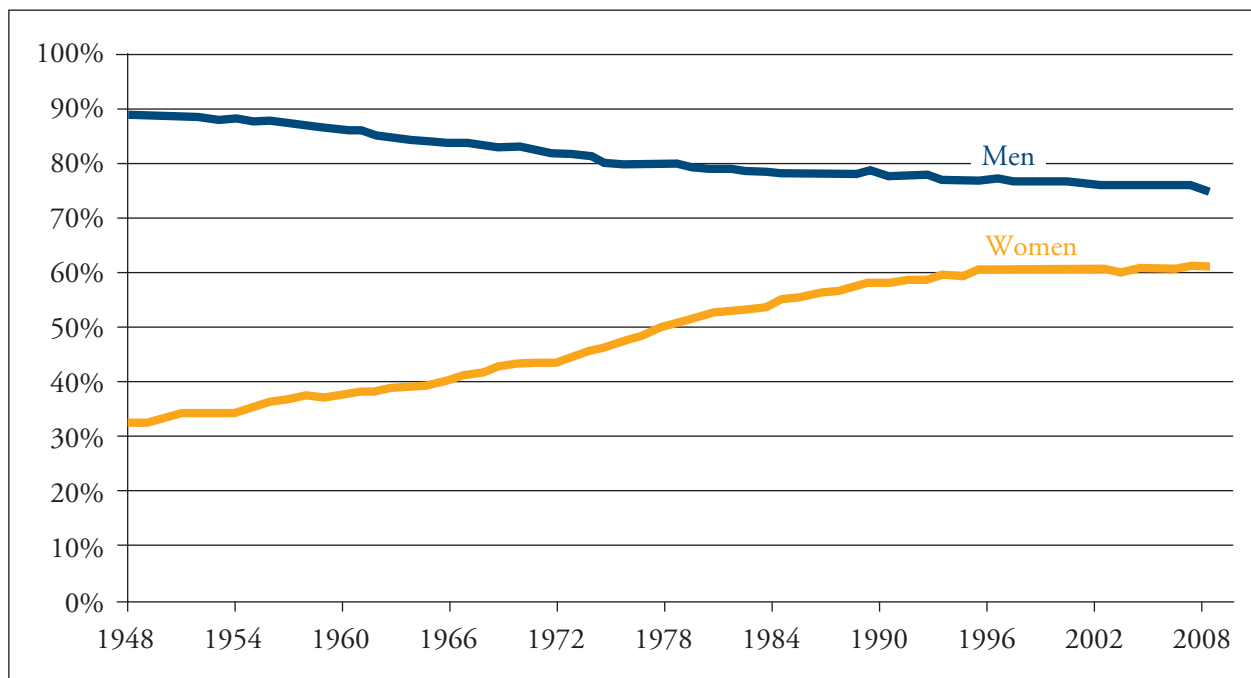
Working women spend their days somewhat differently than do working men. In 2009, on the days that they worked, employed married women age 25–54 spent less time in labor market work and work-related activities than did employed married men in the same age group—7 hours and 40 minutes, compared to about 8 hours and 50 minutes. However, these employed wives spent about 40 minutes more time than did their male counterparts doing household activities such as cooking, housework, and household management.

1. After decades of significant increases, the labor force participation rate for women has held steady in recent years.

- The labor force participation rate for women (age 20 and older) nearly doubled between 1948 (32 percent) and 1997 (61 percent). Since 1997, it has held steady (61 percent in 2009). The labor force participation rate for men (age 20 and older) has fallen from about 89 percent in 1948 to 75 percent in 2009. (See chart.)
- At all levels of educational attainment, the labor force participation rate of men was higher than that of their female counterparts. In 2009, the participation rate of women with less than a high school diploma was only 34 percent, compared to 59 percent for men. Among those with college degrees or higher, the participation rate of women was 73 percent, compared to 82 percent for men.
- Between 2005 and 2009, the labor force participation rate increased for White women (59.7 percent to 60.4 percent) and Hispanic women (57.4 percent to 59.2 percent). By comparison, the rate for Black women, who have the highest labor force participation among women, has edged down (64.4 percent to 63.4 percent). For men, labor force participation continued to fall across all racial and ethnic groups.
- Among mothers age 16 and over, those with older children (age 6 to 17 only) were more likely to be in the labor force (77 percent) in 2009 than those with children age 5 or younger (64 percent).
- The labor force participation rate of persons age 55 and older began to rise in 1996 for both women and men, but the pace of the increase has slowed in recent years.

Labor Force Participation

(Percent of Persons Age 20 and Older, 1948–2009)



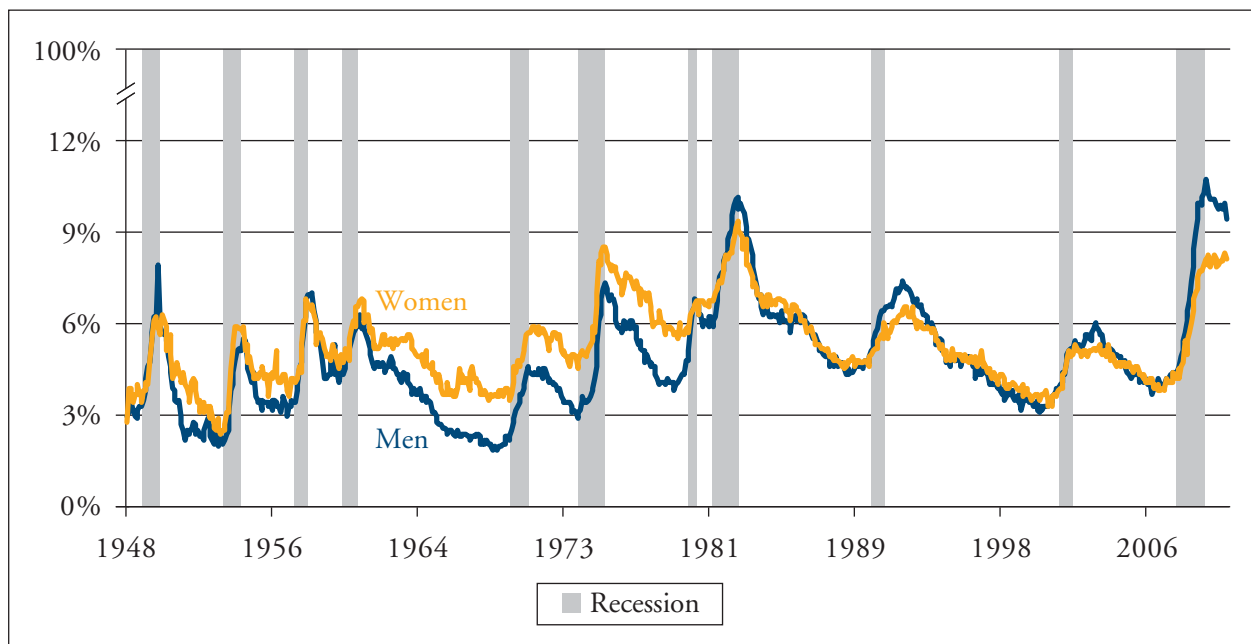
Source: Bureau of Labor Statistics

2. Unemployment rates for women have risen less than for men in recent recessions.

- During the past four recessions, the unemployment rate among women rose less than the rate for men. During the most recent recession, the unemployment rate among women (age 20 and older) rose from 4.4 percent to 7.7 percent; by comparison, the rate for men (age 20 and older) more than doubled, from 4.4 percent to 9.9 percent. (See chart.)
- Prior to the 1980s, the unemployment rate for women tended to be higher than the rate for men. Since the early 1980s, the jobless rates for both men and women have tracked one another quite closely during economic expansions. (See chart.)
- During the past four recessions, the relatively large increases in the jobless rates among men can be attributed to their concentration in more cyclically sensitive occupations, such as manufacturing production and construction.
- In contrast, women are more concentrated in less cyclically sensitive and more rapidly growing occupations, such as health care, which has dampened the impact of recent recessions on their unemployment rates.

Unemployment Rates

(Percent of Persons Age 20 and Older in the Labor Force, Seasonally Adjusted, January 1948–December 2010)



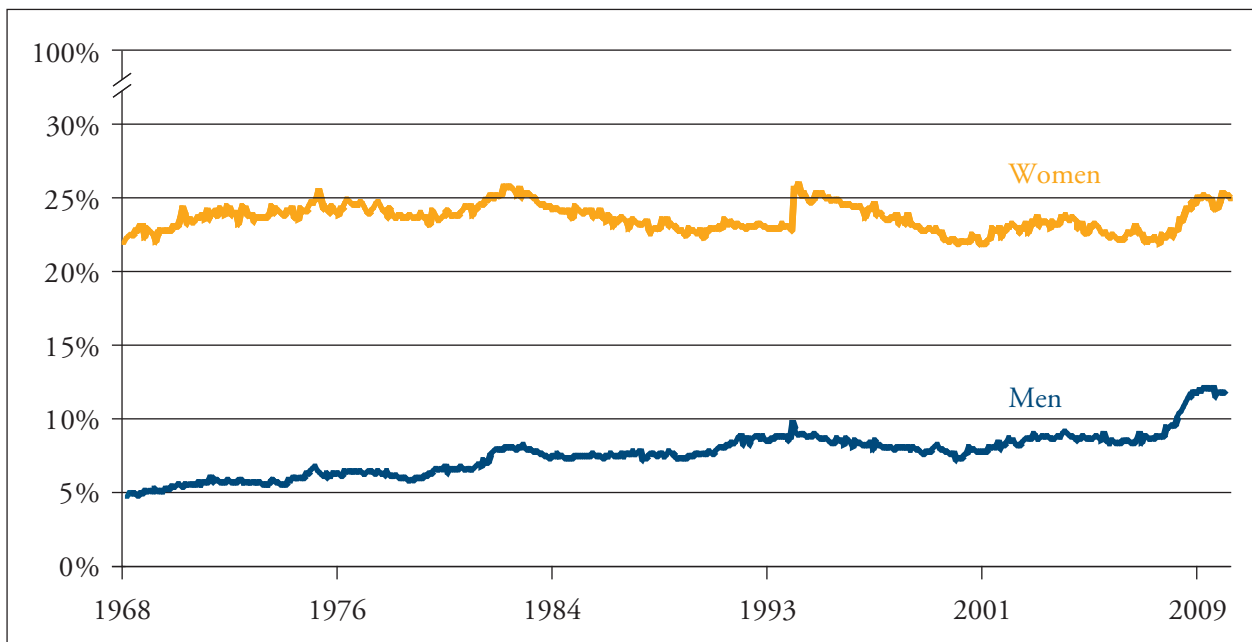
Source: Bureau of Labor Statistics

3. More women than men work part time, and women and men have roughly equal access to flexible work schedules.

- Historically, women have been more likely than men to work part time (less than 35 hours per week). In 2009, 24 percent of employed women (age 20 and older) worked part time, compared to 11 percent of men. (See chart.)
- Women are considerably more likely to work year round than they were in past decades. In 2009, 75 percent of women worked year round, up from 51 percent in 1968. The proportion of men who worked year round changed little over this same time period (from 74 percent to 76 percent).
- In May 2004, about 30 percent of wage and salary workers reported having flexible schedules that allowed them to vary their work hours to some degree. Between 1985 and 2004, the proportions of employed men and women able to vary their work hours were about equal; the same was true of both mothers and fathers who work.
- Due to the nature of the work required for each particular job, the prevalence of flexible schedules varies by occupation. In May 2004, the proportion of White and Asian workers in occupations in which they could vary their schedules exceeded that of other groups. About 30 percent of employed Whites and Asians could vary their work hours, while the proportion was closer to 21 percent among Black workers and those of Hispanic ethnicity.

Part Time Work

(Percent of Employed Persons Age 20 and Older, Seasonally Adjusted,
January 1968–December 2010)



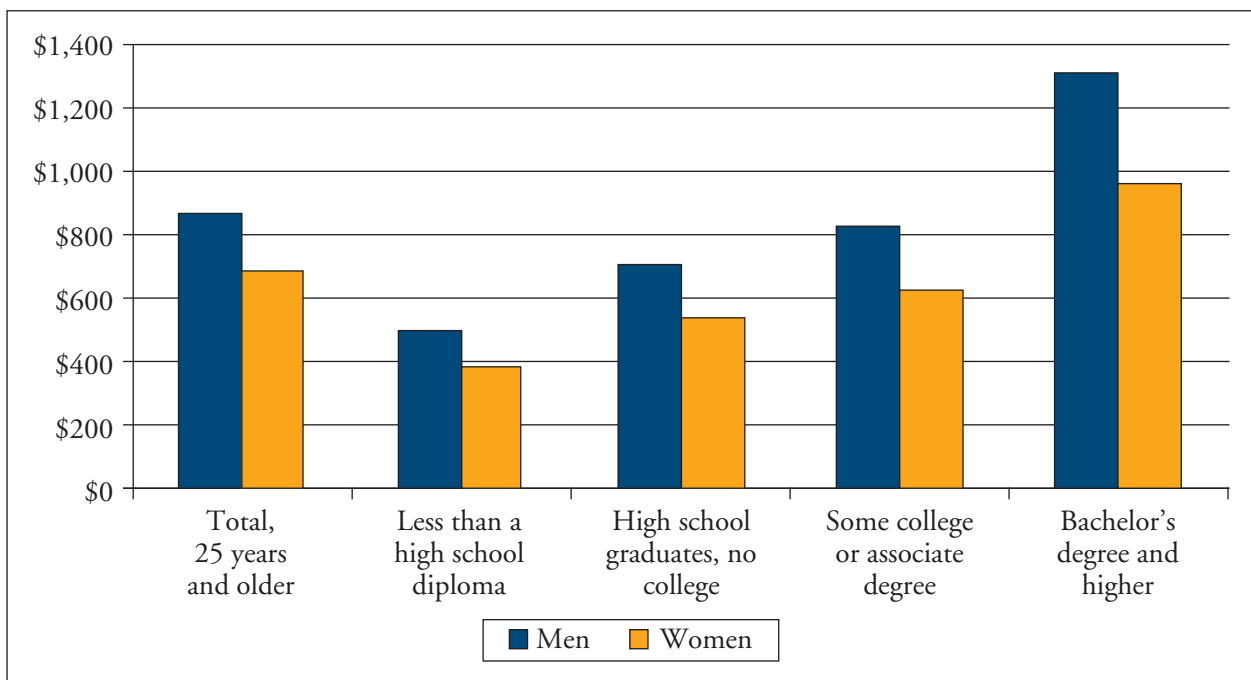
Source: Bureau of Labor Statistics

4. Education pays for both women and men, but the pay gap persists.

- Earnings for both women and men typically increase with higher levels of education. However, the male-female pay gap persists at all levels of education for full-time workers (35 or more hours per week). (See chart.)
- Earnings of full-time female workers have risen by 31 percent since 1979, compared to a 2 percent rise in male earnings. In addition, earnings for women with college degrees rose by 33 percent since 1979 while those of their male counterparts rose by 22 percent.
- At all levels of education, women earned about 75 percent as much as their male counterparts in 2009. Although both women and men with less than a high school diploma have experienced declines in earnings since 1979, the drop for women (9 percent) was significantly less than that for men (28 percent).
- The earnings gap between women and men narrowed for most age groups from 1979 to 2009. The women's-to-men's earnings ratio among 25- to 34-year-olds, rose from 68 percent in 1979 to 89 percent in 2009, and the ratio for 45- to 54-year-olds increased from 57 percent to 74 percent.
- Compared to the earnings of all men (of all race and ethnic groups), Black women earned 71 percent and Hispanic women earned 62 percent as much in 2009. White and Asian women earned 82 percent and 95 percent as much as all men, respectively.
- Compared to their direct male counterparts, however, White women earned 79 percent as much as White men in 2009, while Asian women earned 82 percent as much as Asian men. For Blacks and Hispanics, the figures were 94 percent and 90 percent, respectively.

Earnings by Educational Attainment

(Median Weekly Earnings of Full-Time Workers Age 25 and Older, Annual Averages, 2009)



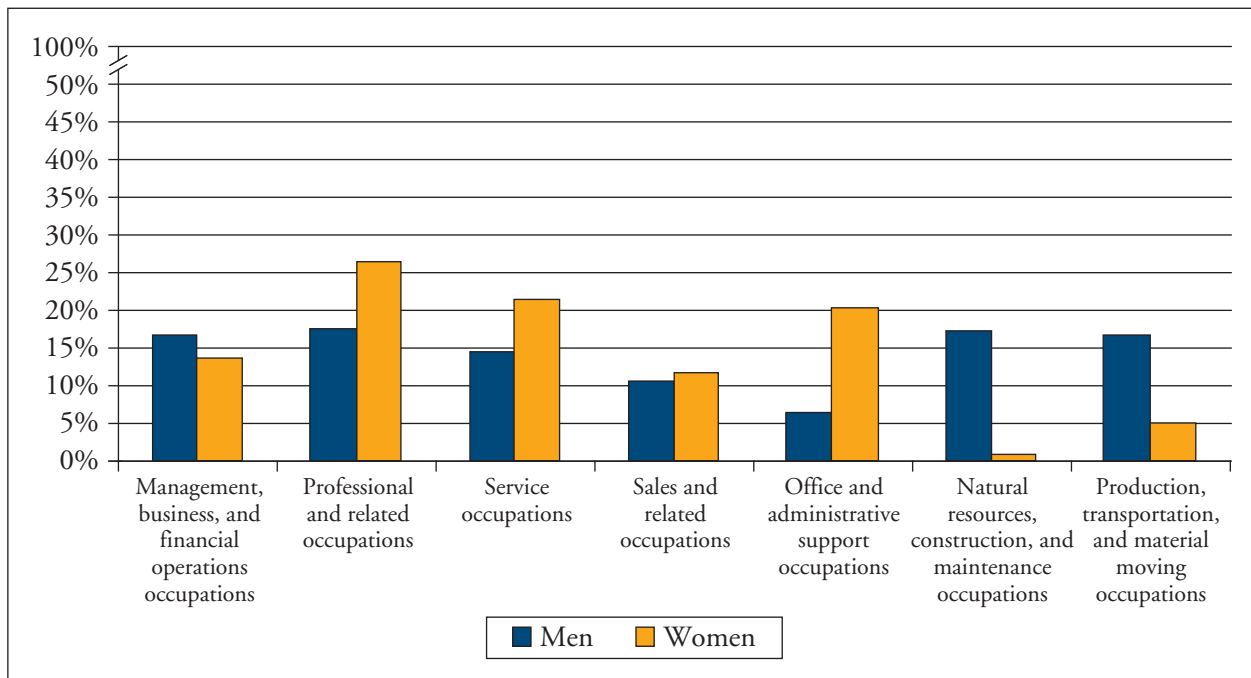
Source: Bureau of Labor Statistics

5. Women and men continue to work in different occupations.

- While women are three times more likely to work in administrative support jobs than men, relatively few women have construction, production, or transportation jobs. (See chart.)
- While women are more likely than men to work in professional and related occupations, they are more highly represented in the lower-paying jobs within this category. For example, in 2009, professional women were more likely (nearly 70 percent) to work in the relatively low-paying education (with \$887 median weekly earnings) and health care (\$970 median weekly earnings) occupations, compared to 32 percent of male professionals.
- In 2009, only 7 percent of female professionals were employed in the relatively high paying computer (\$1,253 median weekly earnings) and engineering fields (\$1,266 median weekly earnings), compared to 38 percent of male professionals.
- The proportion of women working in management, business, and finance jobs has increased from 9 percent to 14 percent since 1983.
- Women continue to be concentrated in a small number of traditionally female occupations. In 2009, nearly one-fifth of all women were employed in just five occupations: secretaries, registered nurses, elementary school teachers, cashiers, and nursing aides.

Employment by Occupation

(Percent of Employed Persons Age 16 and Older in Major Occupation Groups, 2009)



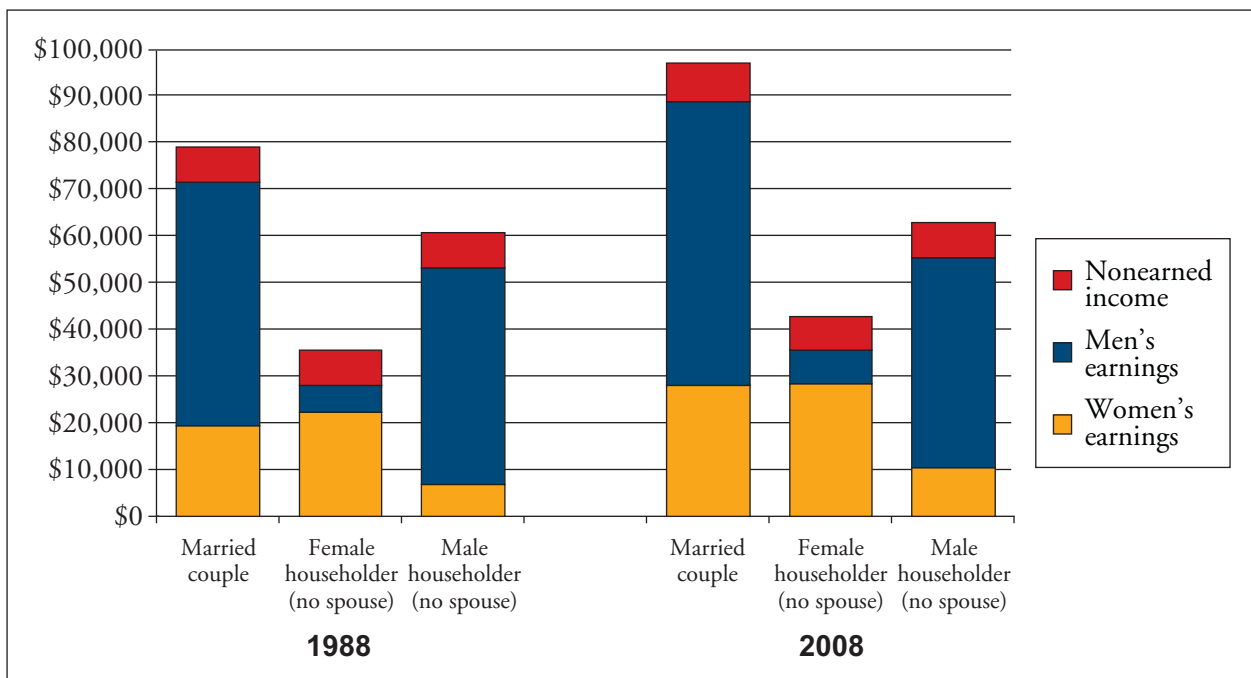
Source: Bureau of Labor Statistics

6. Female-headed families have the lowest family earnings among all family types.

- Family earnings levels among female-headed families were the lowest among all family types in both 1988 and 2008, despite increasing by 27 percent over this timeframe. (See chart.) A family is a group of two or more people living together and related by birth, marriage, or adoption.
- In 2008, female-headed families with children earned 30 percent less than their counterparts without children, although their earnings grew faster (43 percent) than the other family types between 1988 and 2008.
- Over the past two decades, women's earnings have constituted a growing share of family income in all family types.
- Married couples had the highest family incomes. Incomes for married-couple families with children increased by 28 percent from 1988 to 2008, while incomes for married-couple families without children increased by 16 percent over the same period.
- In female-headed families with children, nonearned income as a share of total family income has declined sharply, from 24 percent in 1988 to 16 percent in 2008. About 63 percent of nonearned income for female-headed families with children in poverty is government cash transfer income.

Family Income by Family Type

(Family Heads Under Age 65, in 2008 Dollars, 1988 and 2008)



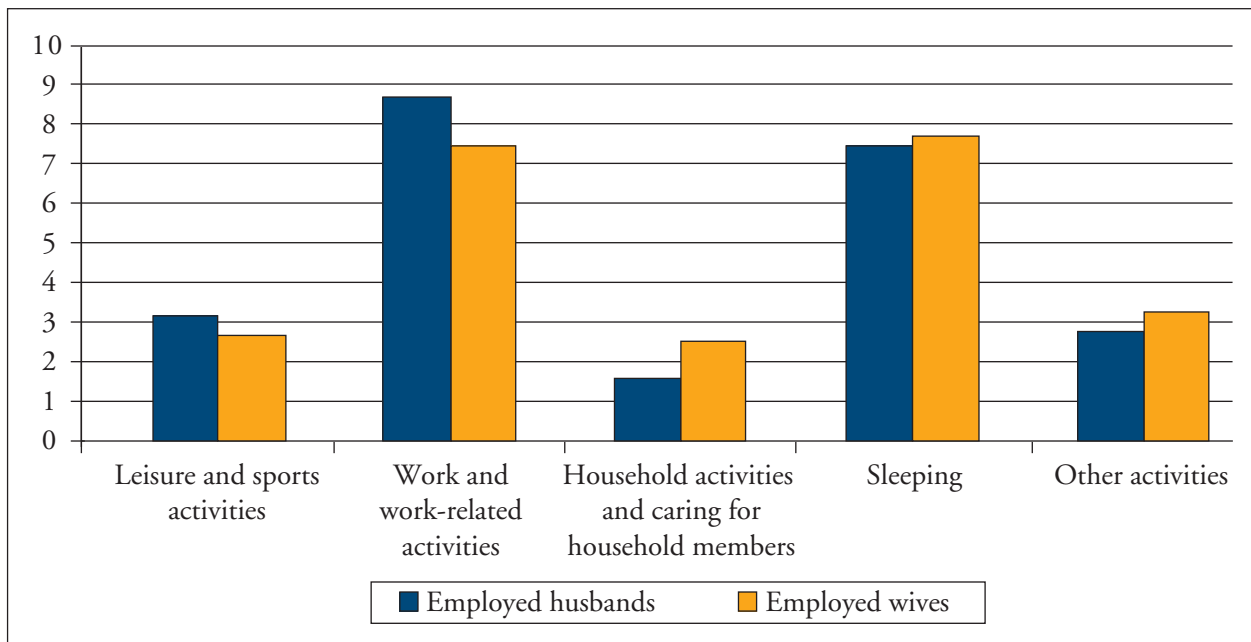
Source: Census Bureau

7. In families where both husband and wife are employed, employed wives spend more time in household activities than do employed husbands.

- On an average workday in 2009, employed married women spent 1.6 hours in household activities and an additional hour caring for household members. In contrast, employed married men spent nearly one hour in household activities and about 40 minutes caring for household members. (See chart.)
- On average in 2009, employed husbands spent about 3.2 hours engaged in leisure and sports activities on workdays, and employed wives spent about 2.7 hours. (See chart.) For both employed husbands and wives, watching television accounted for just over half of this time (1.8 hours and 1.4 hours, respectively).
- Employed married men spent more time in labor market work and related activities (including commuting) on an average workday in 2009 than did employed married women—8.8 hours and 7.6 hours, respectively. (See chart.)
- On days that they worked, 87 percent of married women also engaged in household activities in 2009, compared to 65 percent of married men. Wives were more likely to do housework and prepare food, while husbands were more likely to care for the lawn and do home maintenance.
- On an average workday in 2009, employed single mothers spent 37 minutes more in labor market work and related activities than did employed married mothers.

Time Spent on Workdays

(Average Hours in Selected Activities on a Workday by Employed, Married Persons Age 25–54, 2009)



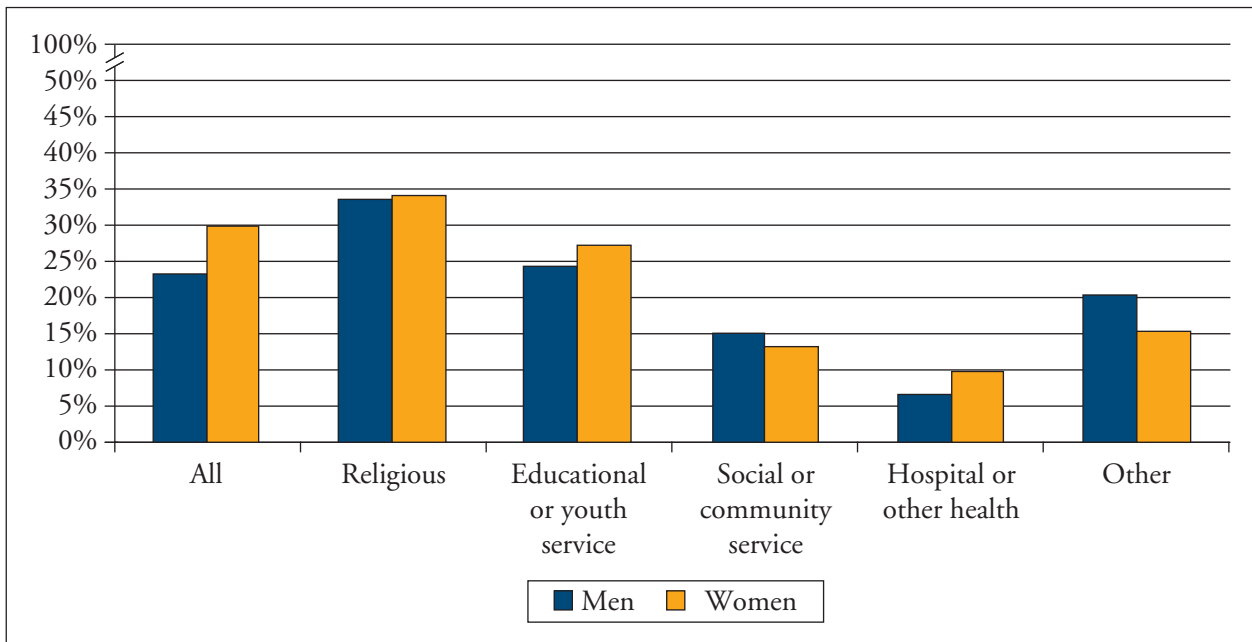
Source: Bureau of Labor Statistics

8. Women are more likely than men to do volunteer work.

- In 2009, 30 percent of women volunteered, compared to 23 percent of men. Women most frequently volunteered with religious organizations (34 percent of all female volunteers), followed by educational or youth service related organizations (28 percent). (See chart.)
- Female volunteers were most likely to fundraise (13 percent); collect, prepare, distribute, or serve food (12 percent); or tutor or teach (11 percent). Male volunteers were most likely to engage in general labor (12 percent); coach, referee, or supervise sports teams (9 percent); provide professional or management assistance (9 percent); or fundraise (9 percent).

Volunteer Work

(Percent of Persons Age 16 and Older Doing Unpaid Volunteer Activities Through or for a Main Organization, by Type of Organization, 2009)



Source: Bureau of Labor Statistics

IV. HEALTH



IV. Health

The health status of the U.S. population has generally improved over the decades, although measuring this change is challenging because health has multiple dimensions. “Health” includes pathologies that define different disease states or impairments, the environmental, social, and behavioral characteristics that affect our chances of developing diseases or experiencing injuries, and the effects that disease and injury have on our ability to function and to fully participate in society. In addition, access to and use of health care affect outcomes through both prevention and treatment. The health of U.S. women has been improving according to some metrics, but progress across measures is not uniform and some declines can be seen. Moreover, women are more likely than men to face certain health problems, such as mobility restrictions and chronic medical conditions.

General Health Status

Life expectancy, one overall health measure, has generally increased over time for U.S. women and remains longer than that of men, although the gender gap has been narrowing since 1975.¹ U.S. women do not fare well in international comparisons of this metric; in 2005, female life expectancy in the United States was below that of most of the industrialized countries that submitted data to the Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development.²

Another measure, self-reported health status, has been gradually declining among women since the mid-1990s even after taking into account the aging of the population. In 2006-2008, an estimated 60 percent of U.S. women age 18 and older reported having very good or excellent health, but that rate was only 39 percent among women age 65 years and older.³

Health can also be described by the impact of disease and impairment on limitations in physical, sensory, cognitive, and psychological functioning, all of which affect a person’s ability to participate fully in society. For example, in 2009, 17 percent of women reported difficulty in physical functioning⁴ and 13 percent reported difficulty walking a moderate distance.⁵

Health Conditions and Risk Factors

Mortality from heart disease, the leading cause of death for women, has decreased 68 percent since 1950.⁶ However, the mortality rate for cancer, the second leading cause of death among women, has decreased by only 17 percent since 1950,⁷ and the lung cancer death rate has risen more than 500 percent.⁸ The maternal mortality rate in the United States, which had fallen appreciably from before 1950 until the mid-1980s, is significantly higher than for many European countries.⁹

Due only in part to their rising life expectancy, increasing numbers of U.S. women live with chronic health conditions. Such conditions may not prove fatal but affect full participation in society. Several conditions—including arthritis,¹⁰ asthma,¹¹ and mental illness¹²—are more prevalent among women than men. In addition, increasing numbers of women live with conditions such as obesity,¹³ hypertension,¹⁴ and diabetes.¹⁵

Certain behaviors can affect the probability that an individual will develop a condition, as well as the course of that condition. In 2009, just over one quarter of all women reported eating fruits and vegetables five or more times per day.¹⁶ Only 15 percent of women participated in the Federally recommended amount of regular aerobic and muscle strengthening activities.¹⁷ Almost one out of seven adult women smoked cigarettes every day.¹⁸

Access to and Utilization of Health Care

Availability of and access to good quality health care services directly affects health. People who are uninsured are less likely to seek health care than those with insurance.¹⁹ With the availability of Medicaid and the Children's Health Insurance Program for low-income children and Medicare for persons over age 65, most of the uninsured are nonelderly adults. Eighteen percent of nonelderly women had no health insurance in 2009.²⁰ The percent of uninsured Hispanic women was much higher than that of non-Hispanic White or non-Hispanic Black women.²⁰ Nonelderly adults are also most likely not to have a usual source of health care.²¹

Women generally use the health care system—both inpatient and outpatient services—more than men, in part from a need for obstetric and gynecological services. Childbirth, for example, accounted for 4.1 million hospital discharges among women age 15–44 in 2006,²² and women made 12.8 million visits to physicians' offices for gynecological examinations.²³ The percent of live births delivered by cesarean section has been increasing since 1996.^{24,25} Women also use more health care services because they have higher rates of certain chronic conditions. For instance, more women than men have osteoporosis and arthritis, which put them at higher risk of falls and fractures. Approximately 13.6 per 10,000 women were hospitalized for hip fractures, compared to 6.1 per 10,000 men in 2007.²⁶

Women generally use preventive care more than men, although not to the recommended degree. In 2008, 53 percent of women age 50 and older received an influenza vaccination in the past year, and 62 percent of women age 65 and older had ever had a pneumococcal vaccination.²⁷ Furthermore, 70 percent of women age 50 and older had a mammogram in the past two years,²⁸ and 75 percent of women age 18 and older had a Pap smear within the past three years—each down slightly over the previous decade.²⁹

Demographic Factors

Minority women are disproportionately affected by many diseases and health conditions, including hypertension,¹⁴ diabetes,¹⁵ and HIV/AIDS.³⁰ Obesity among Black and Hispanic women is significantly higher than among White women.¹³ In 2009, 11 percent of non-Hispanic White women reported being in fair or poor health, compared to 18 percent of Hispanic women and 21 percent of Black women.³¹

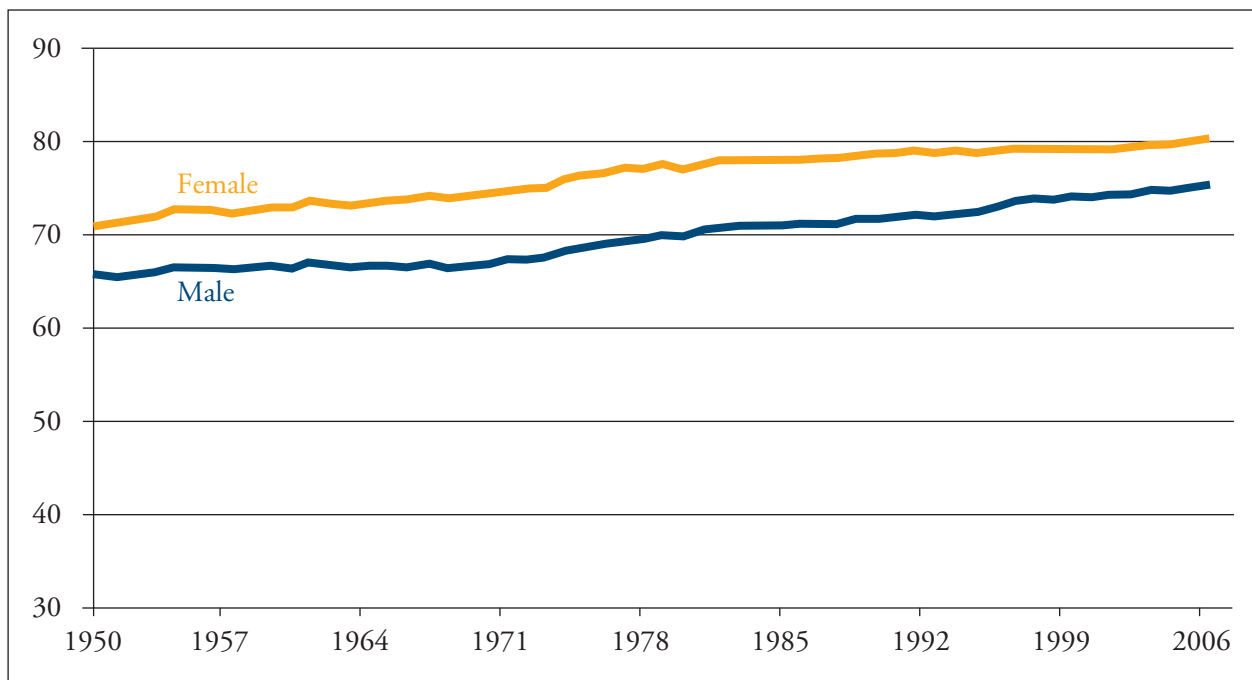
Education level and family income are important factors that affect women's health and access to health care. For example, less-educated women report higher rates of hypertension, while among men hypertension is not associated with educational attainment.³² Women with family incomes below the poverty line are more likely to smoke cigarettes³³ and are 2.5 times more likely to report experiencing depression.³⁴ Some conditions and health risks, such as asthma¹¹ and untreated tooth decay,³⁵ are more closely linked to family income than to other factors such as race and ethnicity.

1. Women have longer life expectancy than men, but the gap is decreasing.

- At birth, female infants born in 2007 had a life expectancy of 80 years, compared to 75 years for male infants. (See chart.)
- From 1975 through 2007, the difference in life expectancy at birth by sex has decreased from eight years to five years. (See chart.)
- At birth, White females born in 2007 had a longer life expectancy (81 years) than Black females (77 years).
- In 2007, the difference between female and male life expectancy at birth was greater among Blacks (7 years) than among Whites (5 years).

Life Expectancy at Birth

(In Years, 1950–2007)



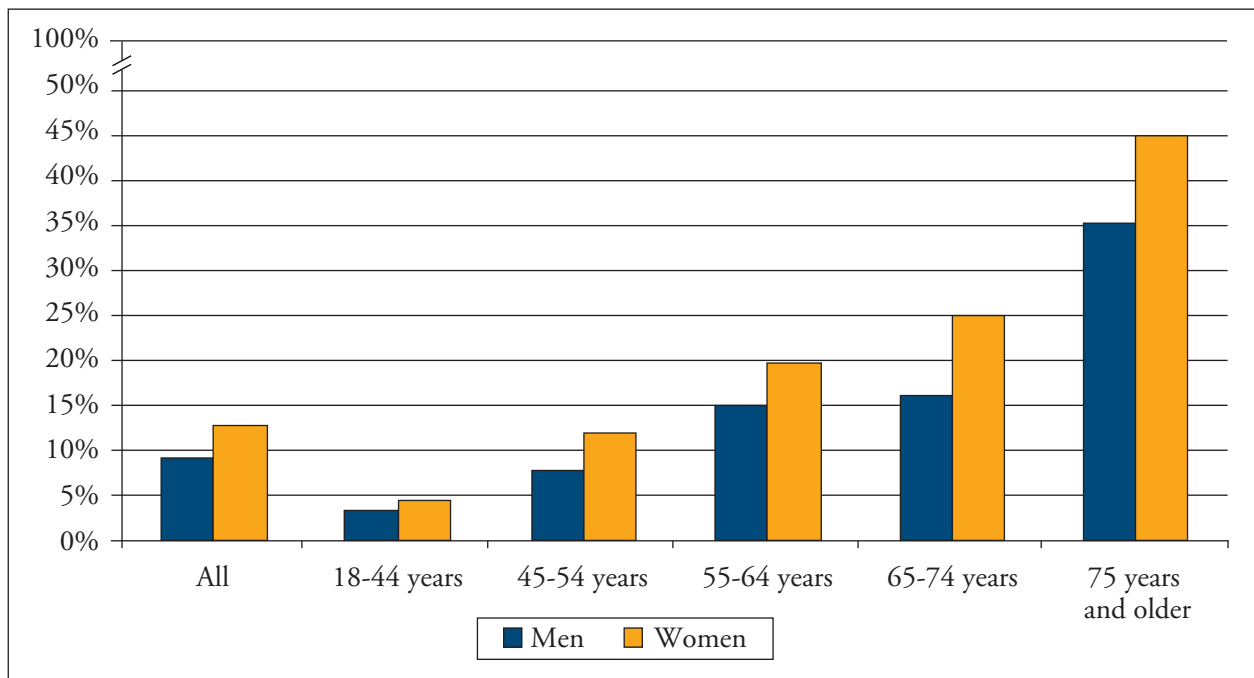
Source: National Center for Health Statistics

2. Women are almost 40 percent more likely than men to report difficulty walking.

- Difficulty walking is an important general health indicator since it can result from a wide range of health conditions (including arthritis and other musculoskeletal conditions, heart disease, pulmonary conditions, neurological conditions, and sensory limitations such as poor sight) and can affect an individual's ability to fully take part in all aspects of life. In 2009, 13 percent of women reported at least some difficulty walking a quarter of a mile—about three city blocks—compared to 9 percent of men. (See chart.)
- Women who did not complete high school (23 percent) were twice as likely to report difficulty walking as women who have had at least some college (11 percent).
- Difficulty walking increases with age, with women more likely to report walking difficulty than men at every age level. (See chart.)
- Non-Hispanic Black women (18 percent) were more likely to report difficulty walking than Non-Hispanic White women (12 percent) and Hispanic women (11 percent).

Walking Difficulty by Age

(Percent of Persons Age 18 and Older, 2009)



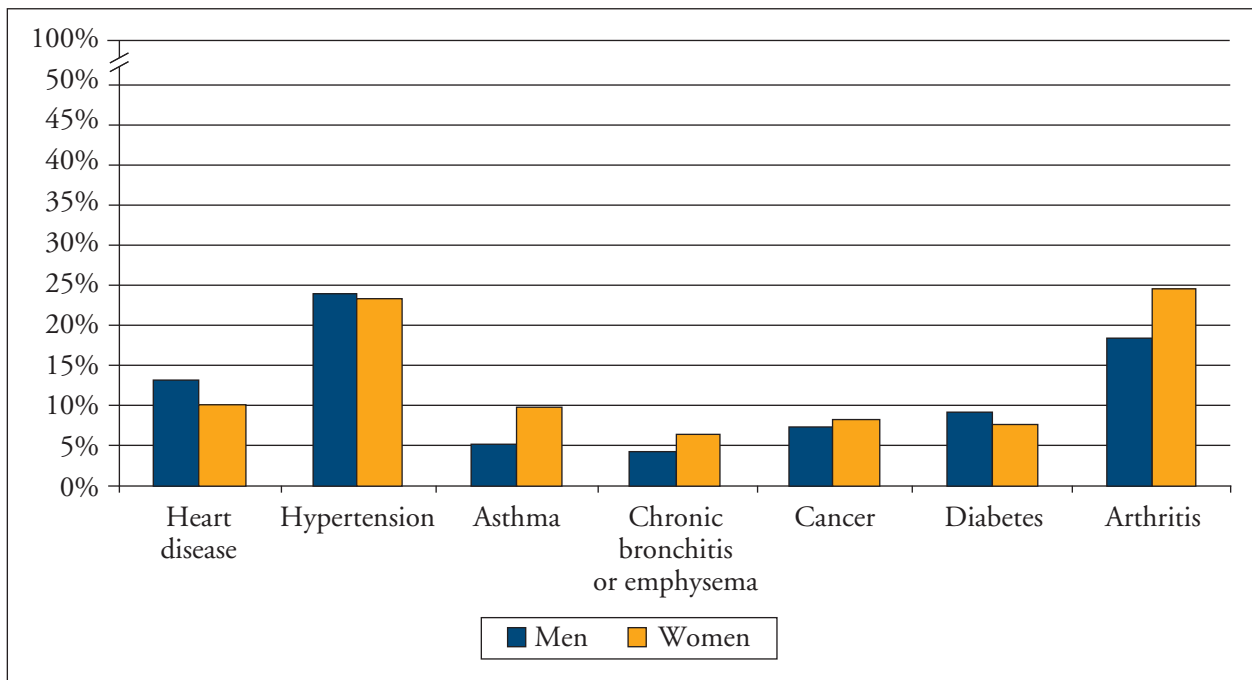
Source: National Center for Health Statistics

3. More women than men report having a chronic medical condition.

- Women report a higher prevalence of asthma, chronic bronchitis and emphysema, cancer, and arthritis. Men report a higher prevalence of heart disease and diabetes. (See chart.)
- Arthritis is reported by a quarter of women. (See chart.) As with many chronic conditions, arthritis prevalence increases with age, from 10 percent among women age 18–44 to 59 percent among women age 65 and older.
- Hypertension affects almost a quarter of all adult women. (See chart.) Non-Hispanic Black women (35 percent) are more likely to report having hypertension than Hispanic women and non-Hispanic White women (both 22 percent). Less-educated women report higher rates of hypertension than more-educated women, while among men hypertension is not associated with educational attainment.

Chronic Health Conditions

(Percent of Persons Age 18 and Older, 2009)



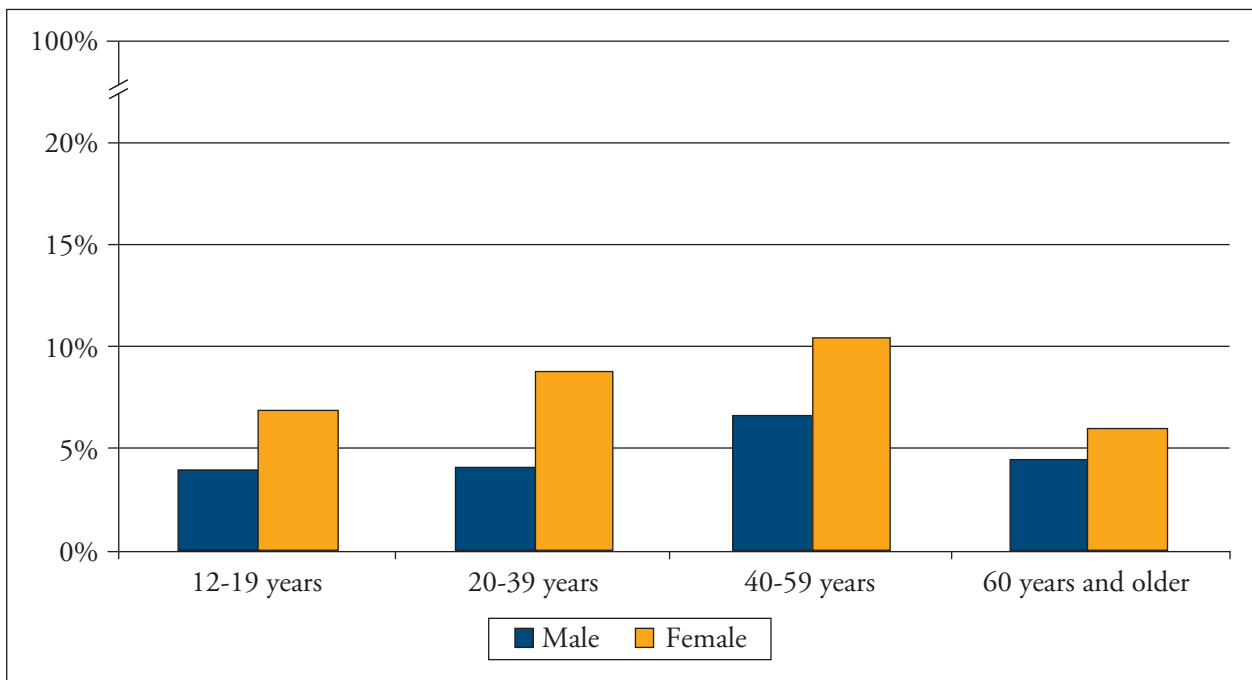
Source: National Center for Health Statistics

4. Females age 12 and older are more likely than males to report experiencing depression.

- At all ages, females experience higher rates of depression than males. In any two-week period, 8 percent of women and girls report experiencing clinically significant depression, compared to 5 percent for men and boys.
- The rate of depression reported by females is highest among those age 40–59 and lowest among those age 60 and older. (See chart.)
- Women and girls living below the poverty line are almost three times as likely to report experiencing depression as females living above the poverty line.
- Non-Hispanic Black women and girls (11 percent) report higher rates of depression than non-Hispanic White women and girls (8 percent).
- Only 29 percent of women and girls who reported experiencing depression also reported contact with a mental health professional during the previous 12 months.

Depression Rates by Age

(Percent of Persons Age 12 and Older, 2005–2008)



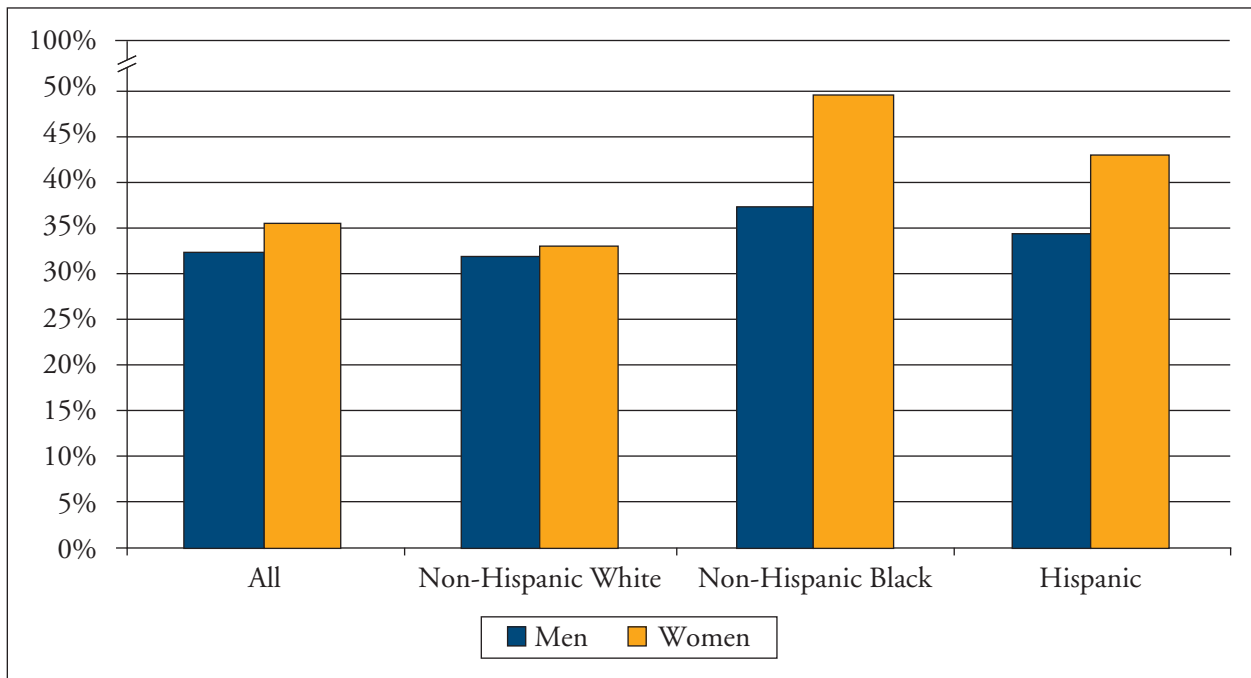
Source: National Center for Health Statistics

5. More than one-third of all women age 20 and older are obese.

- The proportions of women and men age 20 and older who are obese are similar. (See chart.)
- The prevalence of obesity among women increased from 25 percent to 35 percent between 1988–1994 and 1999–2000, but it did not change significantly between 1999–2000 and 2007–2008.
- Obesity rates for women differ by race and ethnicity. Non-Hispanic Black women (50 percent) and Hispanic women (43 percent) were more likely to be obese than non-Hispanic White women (33 percent). The differences by race and ethnicity among men are not significant. (See chart.)
- About 7 percent of women are severely obese. Severe obesity is also more prevalent among non-Hispanic Black women (14 percent) than Hispanic (7 percent) and non-Hispanic White women (6 percent).
- Women age 40–59 (38 percent) are slightly more likely to be obese than their younger and older counterparts (about 34 percent each).

Obesity by Race and Ethnicity

(Percent of Persons Age 20 and Older, 2007–2008)



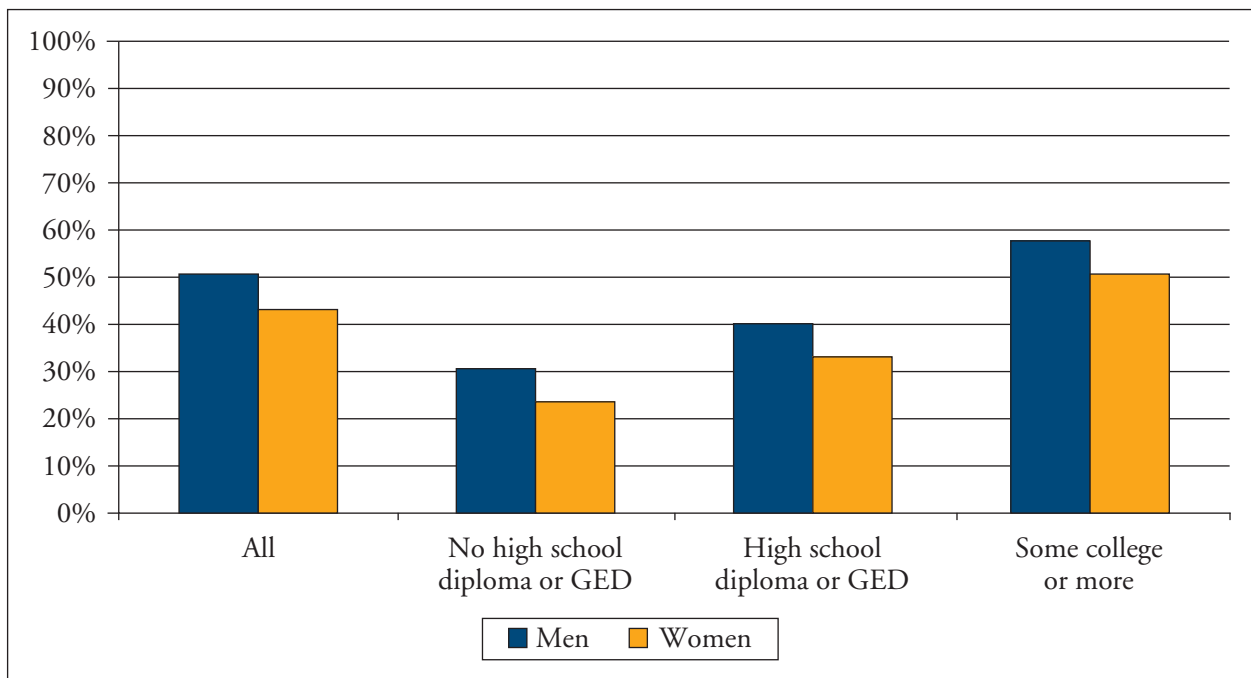
Source: National Center for Health Statistics

6. Less than half of all women meet the Federal physical activity guidelines for aerobic activity.

- Overall, 43 percent of women age 25 and older met the Federal aerobic physical activity guidelines in 2009, compared to 51 percent of men. (See chart.)
- Less-educated women are less likely to meet the physical activity guidelines than women with higher education. About 24 percent of women with less than a high school education met the physical activity guidelines, compared to 51 percent of those who have some college education. (See chart.)
- The percentage of women meeting physical activity guidelines decreases with age, from almost 50 percent of women age 18–44 to 19 percent of women age 75 and older. The decline in physical activity as women age is larger than the decline among men.
- The percentage of women who met aerobic physical activity guidelines was higher in 2009 (43 percent) than it was in 2000 (38 percent).

Aerobic Physical Activity by Educational Attainment

(Percent of Persons Age 25 and Older Meeting Federal Guidelines, 2009)



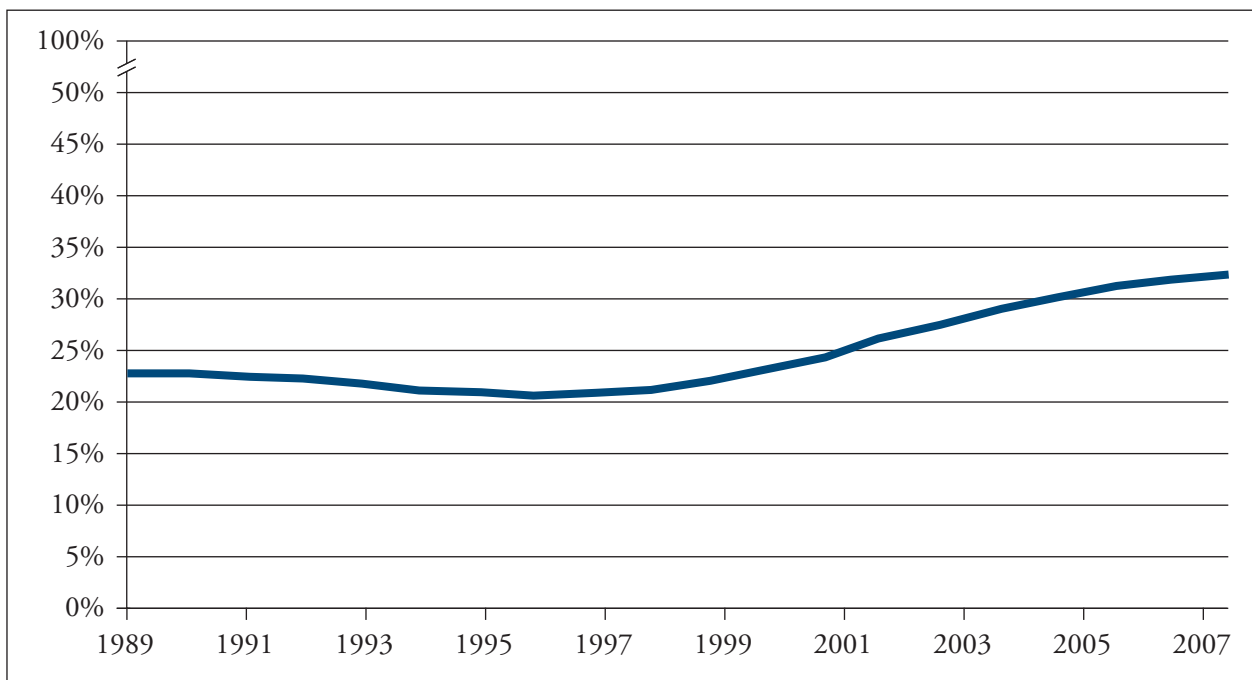
Source: National Center for Health Statistics

7. In 2008, the cesarean rate was the highest ever reported in the United States.

- The cesarean rate rose from 21 percent in 1996 to 32 percent in 2008, the highest rate ever reported in the United States. (See chart.)
- Although there are clear clinical indications for a cesarean delivery, cesarean delivery involves major abdominal surgery and is associated with higher rates of surgical complications and maternal rehospitalization, as well as with complications requiring neonatal intensive care unit admission. In addition, hospital charges for a cesarean delivery are almost double those for a vaginal delivery.
- Rates of cesarean delivery generally rise with increasing maternal age. The rate for mothers age 40–54 in 2008 was more than twice the rate for mothers under age 20 (49 percent and 23 percent, respectively).
- From 1996 to 2008, the cesarean rate increased for mothers in all racial and Hispanic origin groups. Non-Hispanic Black women were more likely to deliver by cesarean (34 percent) than non-Hispanic White (32 percent) and Hispanic (31 percent) women.

Cesarean Section Delivery

(Percent of Live Births, 1989–2008)



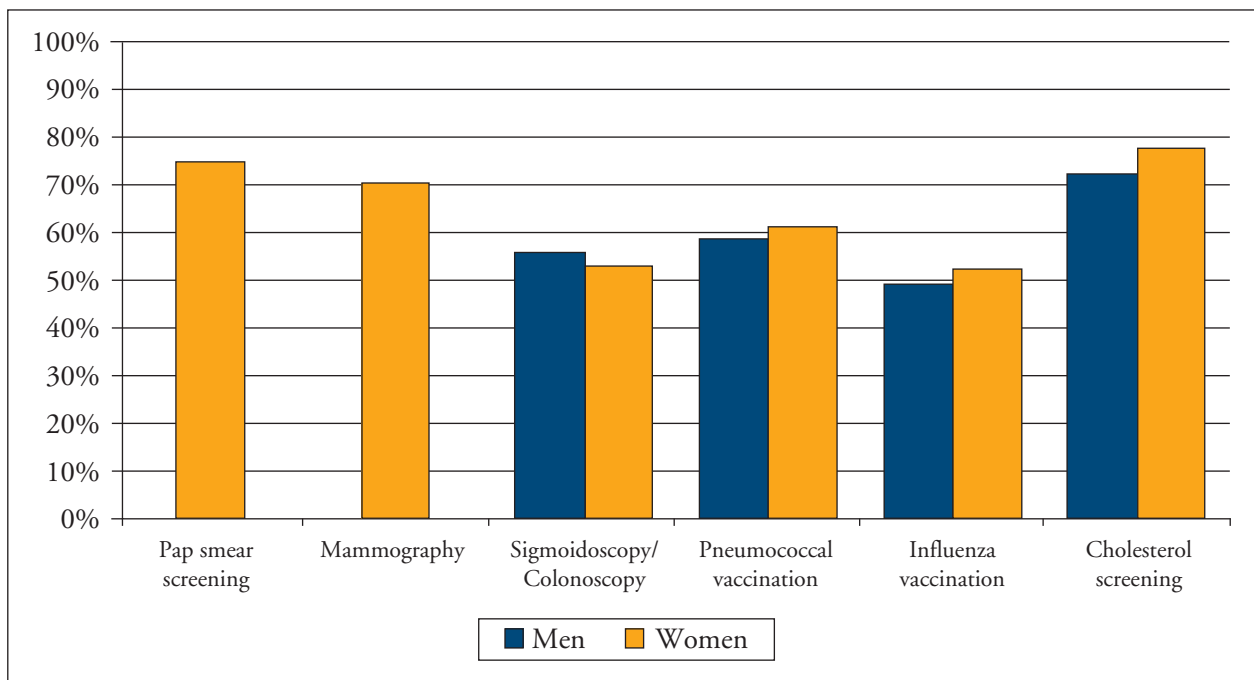
Source: National Center for Health Statistics

8. Many women do not receive specific recommended preventive care.

- Recommendations for screenings and immunizations vary by age and risk status.
- Seventy-five percent of women age 18 and older had a Pap smear test in the last three years, while 70 percent of women age 50 and older had a mammogram in the last two years. (See chart.)
- Only 53 percent of women age 50 and older have ever received a sigmoidoscopy or colonoscopy. Men are somewhat more likely to report ever having these treatments (56 percent) than women in this age group. (See chart.)
- Women age 50 and older are somewhat more likely than men to have obtained an influenza immunization in the last year (53 percent compared to 49 percent) but the shares of women and men age 65 and older having ever received a pneumococcal immunization were similar. (See chart.)
- Women age 18 and older are more likely to have had their blood cholesterol checked in the last 5 years than men (78 percent and 73 percent, respectively). (See chart.)

Rates of Immunizations and Preventive Screenings

(Percent of Persons, Differing Age Groupings and Data Years)

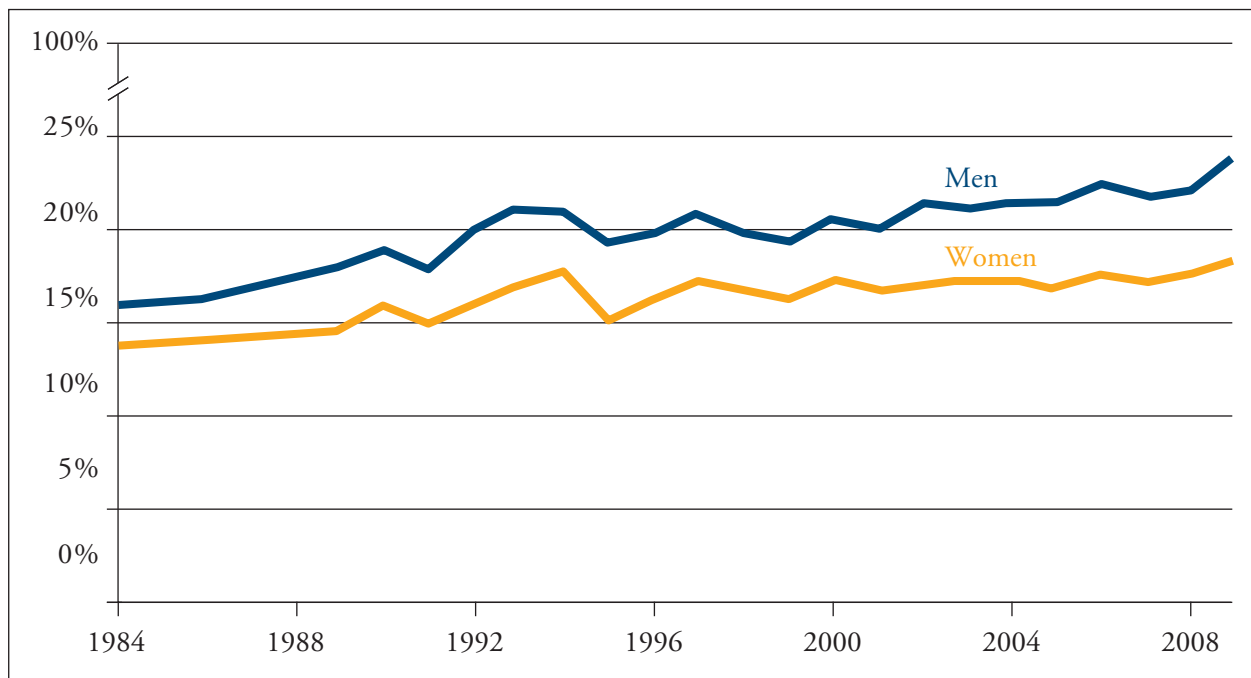


Source: National Center for Health Statistics

9. The share of women age 18–64 without health insurance has increased.

- In 2009, 18 percent of nonelderly women (age 18–64) lacked health insurance, compared to 13 percent in 1984. For men, the percentage of uninsured rose from 16 percent to 24 percent. (See chart.)
- Over the last 25 years, the share of nonelderly women covered by private health insurance fell 11 percentage points to 67 percent, while the proportion covered by Medicaid increased 5 percentage points to 11 percent.
- About a quarter of unmarried women under age 65 lacked health insurance, compared to 14 percent of nonelderly married women in 2009.
- Non-Hispanic Black women (21 percent) and Hispanic women (38 percent) were more likely to be uninsured than non-Hispanic White women in 2009 (14 percent).

Nonelderly Adults Lacking Health Insurance
(Percent of Persons Age 18–64 Without Coverage, 1984–2009)



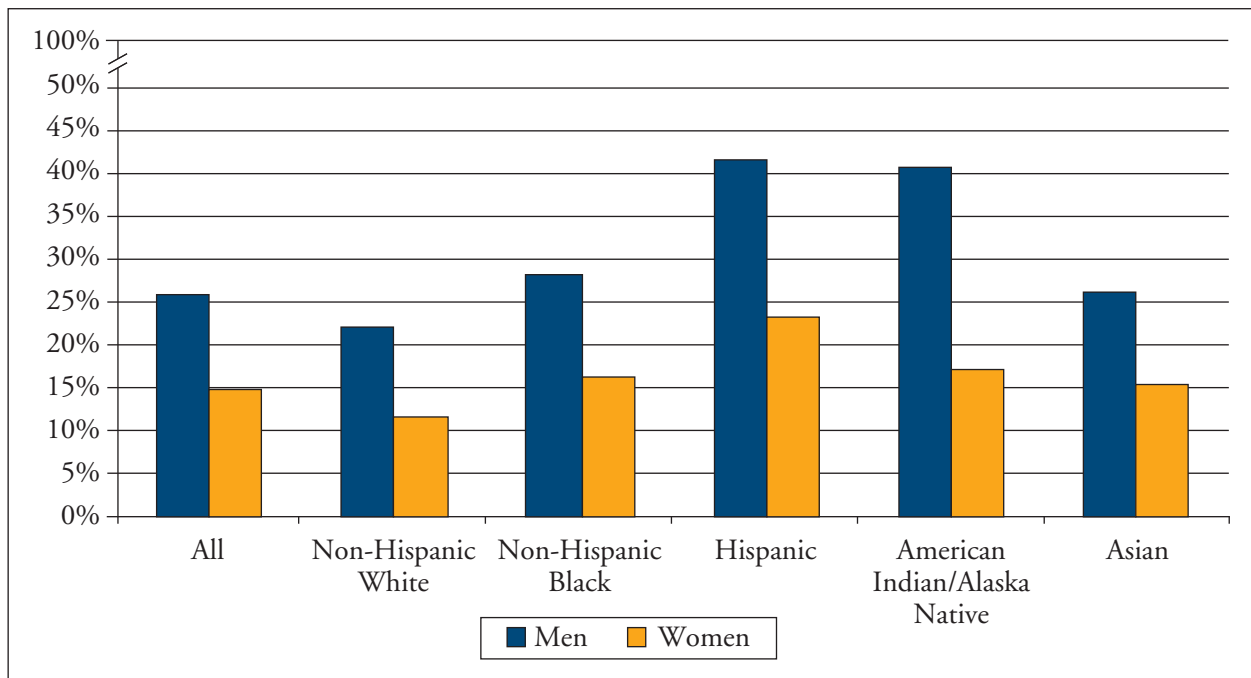
Source: National Center for Health Statistics

10. One out of seven women age 18–64 has no usual source of health care.

- Approximately 15 percent of women and 26 percent of men age 18–64 have no usual source of health care. (See chart.)
- Lack of a usual source of health care is higher for Hispanic (24 percent) and non-Hispanic Black (16 percent) women than for non-Hispanic White women (12 percent) in this age range. (See chart.)
- Women age 18–44 are almost twice as likely to have no usual source of health care as are women age 45–64 (18 percent and 10 percent, respectively).
- Lack of a usual source of health care is highly associated with lack of health insurance. Almost half of all women who were uninsured for more than 12 months had no usual source of care, compared to 7 percent of women who had been continuously insured for the prior 12 months.

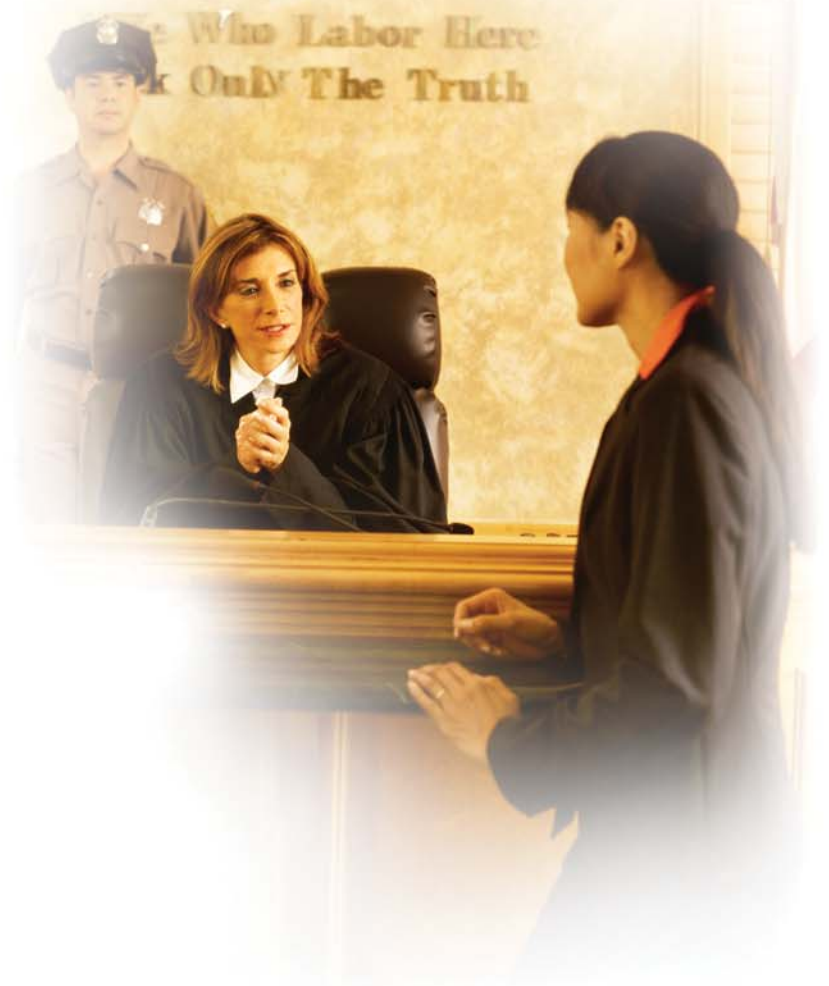
Nonelderly Adults with No Usual Source of Health Care

(Percent of Persons Age 18–64, 2009)



Source: National Center for Health Statistics

V. CRIME AND VIOLENCE



V. Crime and Violence

Criminal activity affects a large number of individuals, both women and men, and their communities. This section examines multiple indicators of women as both victims and perpetrators of crime. Women have historically been victims of crime at lower rates than men. Since the early- to mid-1990s, the rate at which women have been victims of crime has declined sharply. During those same years, women have accounted for a growing proportion of all persons arrested for and convicted of violent crimes. Finally, a growing number of women are incarcerated or are under community correctional supervision on probation or parole.

Information about criminal activity is available from two primary sources: victimization surveys and data collected from law enforcement officials. Victimization surveys provide a better measure of the amount of crime, since a significant proportion of crimes is never brought to the attention of law enforcement agencies. The National Crime Victimization Survey, the principal source of criminal victimization information in the United States, reports that the rate of nonfatal violent victimization of women has declined significantly since the early 1990s. In 2008, there were 18 violent victimizations of women per 1,000 females, down from 43 per 1,000 in 1993. The rate at which women, particularly Black women, have been victims of homicide has also fallen since the early 1990s, according to the FBI Uniform Crime Reports.

Other sources of information about victimization come from Federal service data. The Department of Health and Human Services reported that in FY 2009, domestic violence programs funded by the Family Violence and Prevention Services Act sheltered 270,457 individuals and provided nonresidential services to an additional 956,397 individuals. However, the programs were unable to meet 167,069 requests for shelter due to lack of capacity.

Crimes Against Women

Sexual victimization and intimate partner violence disproportionately affect women. Intimate partners were responsible for 5 percent of all violence against males and 26 percent of all violence against females in 2008.¹ The rate of rape against females age 12 or older, as defined by the National Crime Victimization Survey, declined by 60 percent between 1993 and 2000 and has remained at these relatively lower levels during the past decade. Rape, however, is among the most underreported crimes in America. According to the National Crime Victimization Survey, between 2004 and 2008, police were not notified of approximately half of all incidents of rape.

Violence directed against women by intimate partners has historically been perceived as a private matter best resolved by the persons involved. However, since the passage of the Violence Against Women Act in 1994 and other legislation, changes in law and practice have promoted, and in some cases mandated, more active involvement in domestic disputes by law enforcement and justice system officials. The rate of nonfatal intimate partner violence against women declined by more than 50 percent between 1994 and 2008.² Declining rates of intimate partner violence are a promising sign not only for women themselves, but also for children who may be exposed to the violence. Research demonstrates significant adverse impacts on children's health and developmental well-being as a result of exposure to domestic violence.³

While crimes against both women and men have declined nationally, it is important to bear in mind that crime rates vary by regional and local conditions and by type of crime. There are many possible explanations as to why crime rates have dropped in the past two decades but little agreement as to the principal causes.

Crimes Committed by Women

Women are often perceived primarily as victims, not perpetrators, of crime. Men do commit crimes, particularly violent crimes, at higher rates than women. Yet in the past two decades, during a period when overall crimes declined, women have represented a growing proportion of those who come in contact with the criminal justice system. For example, women represented 18 percent of all arrestees for violent felony offenses in 2008, up from 11 percent in 1990. The female proportion of arrestees for property crimes, such as burglary or larceny, grew from 25 percent to 35 percent during the same period. Not surprisingly, women have represented a growing share of persons convicted of these offenses.

Correctional Supervision

The past few decades have seen substantial growth in the overall number of women under correctional supervision. While the vast majority of persons under correctional supervision are men, an estimated 206,000 adult women were incarcerated in state or Federal prison or local jails in 2008 and more than 1,111,000 adult women were under community supervision on probation or parole. Overall, the number of adult women under some form of correctional supervision increased 121 percent between 1990 and 2008.

Incarceration can have significant and long-lasting effects on families and communities. It may remove from the community violent offenders who would otherwise endanger families. At the same time, it may separate parents from their children; an estimated 62 percent of women incarcerated in 2004 had one or more minor children. While removed from the community, incarcerated mothers are unable to support and raise their children during their formative years. The separation due to incarceration of parents (mothers or fathers) from children can have multiple negative consequences for children, ranging from decreased school performance to emotional health problems.⁴ Incarcerated women, whether parents or not, also face the collateral consequences of incarceration upon reentry to the community, including limited access to social services, lack of access to public housing, and difficulties in securing employment.

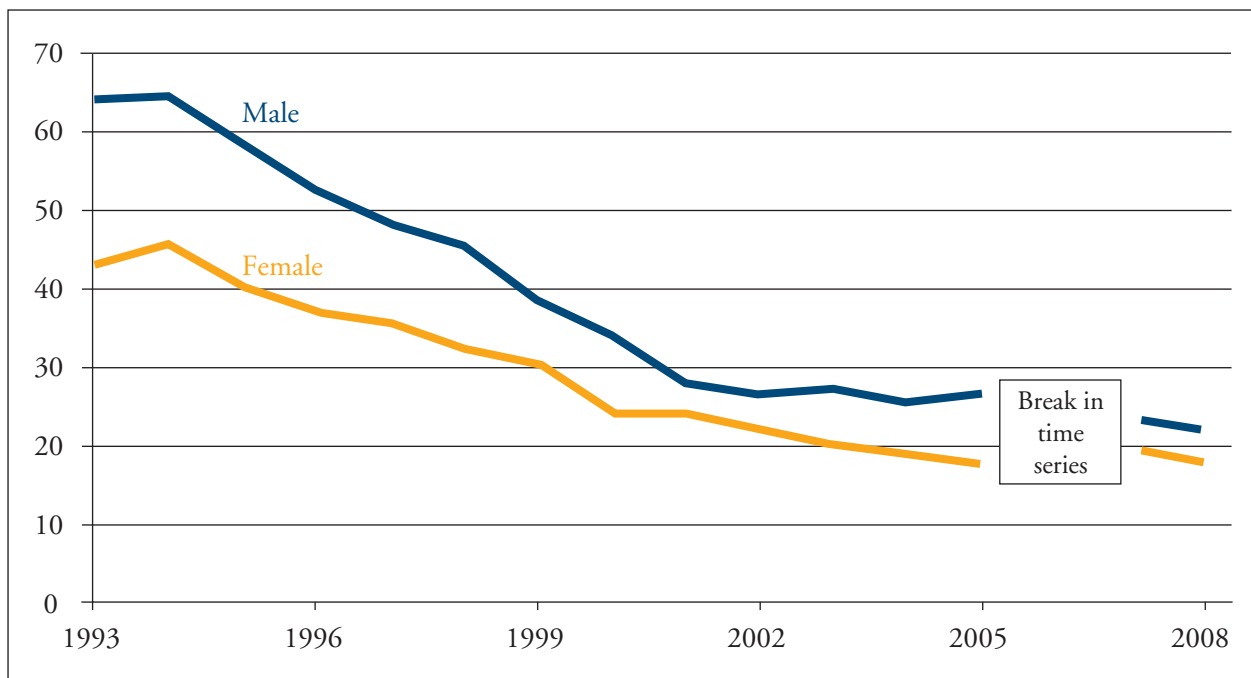
Many risk factors can contribute to women's criminal behavior, including substance abuse, mental illness, and prior victimization. In 2004, 62 percent of women in state prison reported a history of prior physical or sexual abuse, and 59 percent reported having used drugs in the month prior to their arrest.

1. Nonfatal violent crimes against women declined between 1993 and 2008.

- The nonfatal violent victimization rate for women fell from 43 per 1,000 women in 1993 to 18 per 1,000 in 2008. During the same period, the rate of nonfatal violent victimization of men declined from 64 to 22 per 1,000 men. (See chart.)
- A decline in nonfatal violent victimization of Black women—who have generally been more vulnerable to victimization than White women—drove the overall decline. The nonfatal violent victimization rate for Black women declined from 61 per 1,000 in 1993 to 23 per 1,000 in 2003 and has remained relatively stable since 2003.
- In 2008, simple assault was the most common form of nonfatal violent victimization of women (12 per 1,000 women). Aggravated assault (2.9 per 1,000) and robbery (1.8 per 1,000) were less common forms of nonfatal violent victimization of women.
- In 2008, half of the nonfatal violent crimes against women were reported to the police, compared to 44 percent of those against men. Nonfatal violent crimes against Black women (69 percent) were reported to the police more often than those against White women (48 percent).

Nonfatal Violent Victimization

(Number of Persons Victimized per 1,000 Persons Age 12 and Older, 1993–2008)



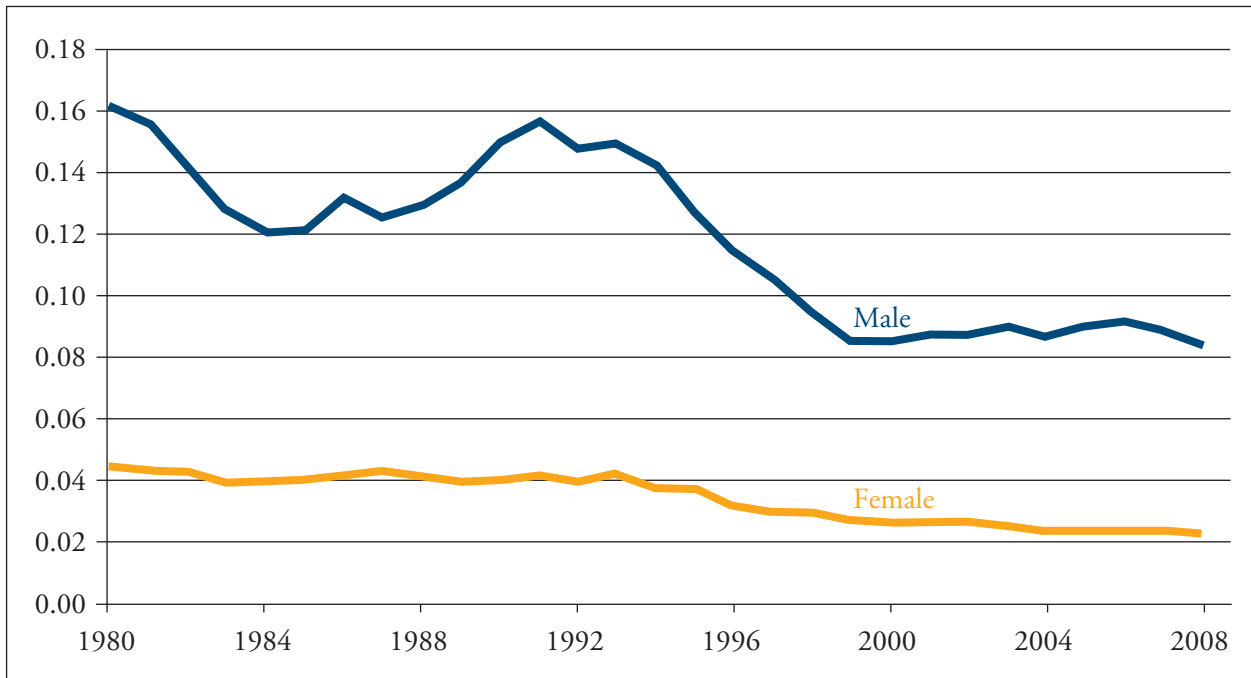
Source: Bureau of Justice Statistics

2. Homicides of females declined between 1993 and 2008.

- The rate of homicides against females fell from 0.042 per 1,000 females in 1993 to 0.023 per 1,000 females in 2008. (See chart.)
- In 2008, young adults (age 18–24) were most likely to be victims of homicide (0.039 per 1,000 women and 0.23 per 1,000 men).
- In 2008, 3,541 females and 12,731 males were victims of homicide.
- There was a steep decline in the number of Black female victims of homicide since the 1990s—from approximately 2,300 in 1993 to about 1,200 in 2008. In contrast, the number for White female homicide victims held steady over the past decade (about 2,200 in 2008).
- Females comprised 70 percent of victims killed by an intimate partner in 2007 and the proportion has remained mostly unchanged since 1993.

Homicides

(Number per 1,000 Persons, All Ages, 1980–2008)



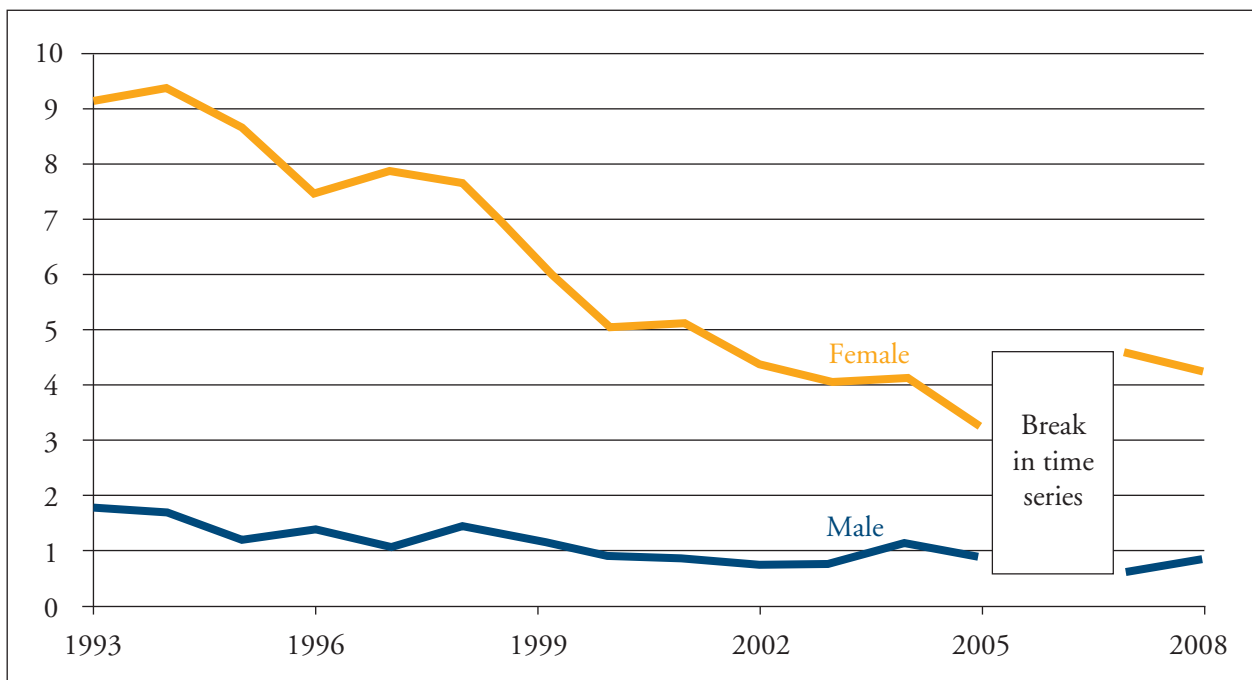
Source: Bureau of Justice Statistics

3. Nonfatal attacks on women by intimate partners declined between 1994 and 2008.

- In 2008, 4.3 per 1,000 women suffered nonfatal attacks at the hands of their intimate partners. (See chart.)
- The reported rate of violence against women by intimate partners fell 54 percent between 1994 and 2008, from 9.4 victimizations per 1,000 women to 4.3 per 1,000. (See chart.)
- In 2008, White women suffered violent attacks from intimate partners at a reported rate of 4.6 per 1,000 women. The reported rate was lower among Black women (2.4 per 1,000 women).
- Between 2003 and 2008, women age 20–24 suffered the highest rate of violent attacks by intimate partners, 11.8 per 1,000 women. During those same years, the rate was lowest among women age 65 and older (0.2 per 1,000 women).

Nonfatal Intimate Partner Violence

(Number of Victimizations per 1,000 Persons Age 12 and Older, 1993–2008)



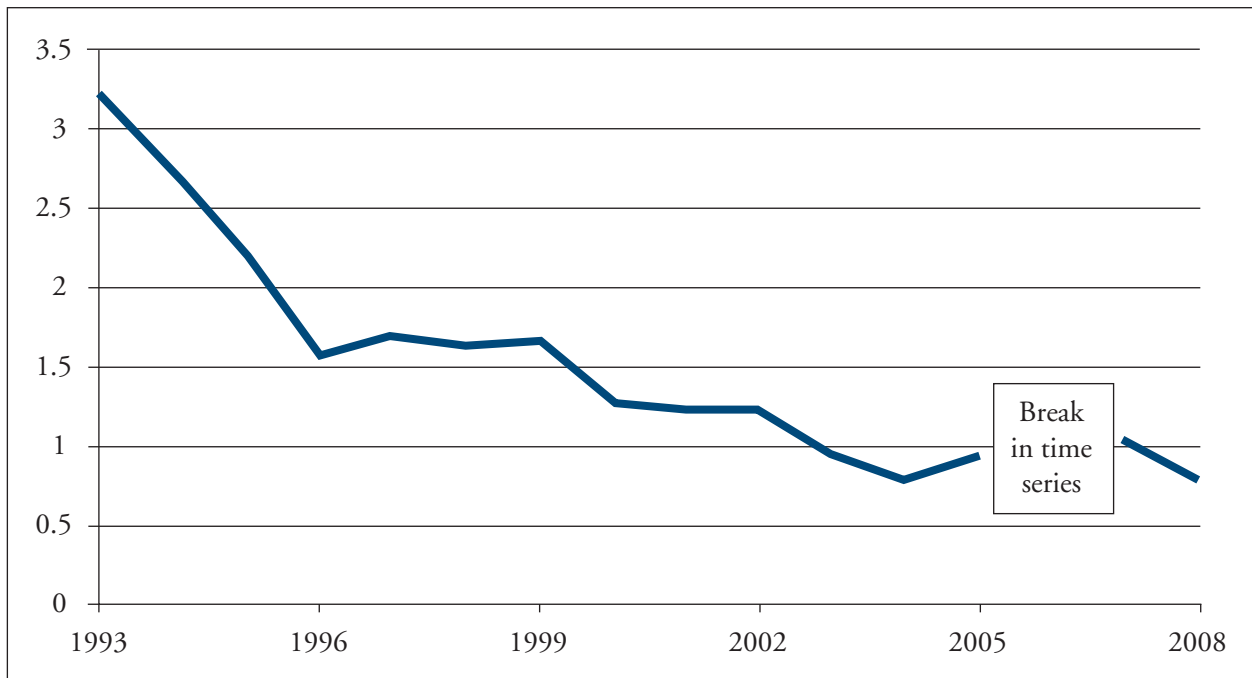
Source: Bureau of Justice Statistics

4. Reported rape rates declined during the 1990s and have remained stable in recent years.

- The rate of rape against females age 12 or older, as defined by the National Crime Victimization Survey, declined by about 60 percent, from 3.2 per 1,000 females in 1993 to 1.3 per 1,000 in 2000. Since 2000, the rape rate has remained at these lower levels. (See chart.)
- In 2008, state or local law enforcement agencies made an estimated 22,300 arrests in which rape of a female by a male was the most serious charge (equivalent to about 15 arrests per 100,000 men).
- In the five-year period 2004–2008, according to the National Crime Victimization Survey, 54 percent of females who reported having been raped said that the police were not notified.
- The majority of rapes and sexual assaults were committed by someone known to the victim. In 2008, 63 percent were committed by acquaintances, including 18 percent that were committed by an intimate partner.

Reported Incidents of Rape

(Number per 1,000 Females Age 12 and Older, 1993–2008)



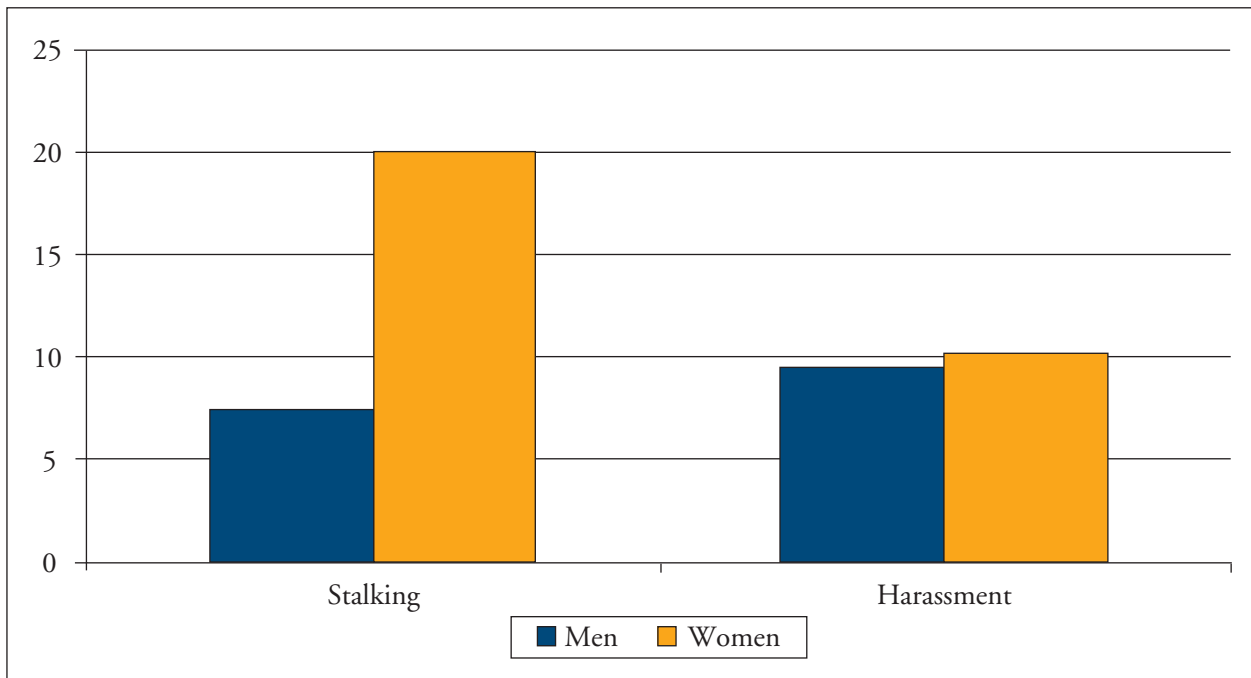
Source: Bureau of Justice Statistics

5. Women are at greater risk than men for stalking victimization.

- In 2006, women experienced, in the prior 12-month period, 20 stalking victimizations per 1,000 women age 18 and older. The stalking victimization rate for men was approximately 7 per 1,000 men age 18 and older.
- Men and women were equally likely to experience harassment (about 10 victimizations per 1,000 persons age 18 and older).
- Two-thirds (67 percent) of female stalking victims reported being stalked by a male, while 43 percent of male victims stated that the offender was a female.
- Male and female stalking victimizations were equally likely to be reported to the police. Thirty-seven percent of male and 41 percent of female victimizations were reported to the police by the victim or another person aware of the crime.

Stalking and Harassment Victimization

(Rate per 1,000 Persons Age 18 and Older, 2006)



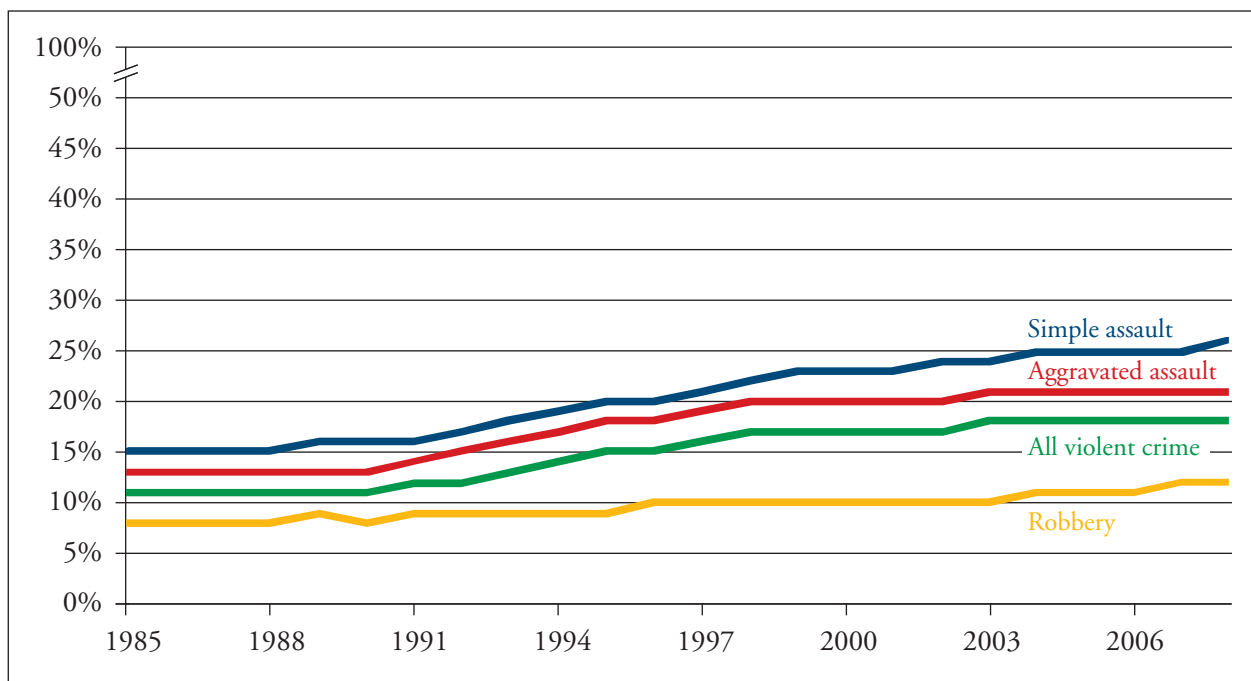
Source: Bureau of Justice Statistics

6. Females account for a small but growing share of persons arrested for violent crimes other than homicide.

- The female share of persons arrested for violent crimes rose from 11 percent in 1990 to 18 percent in 2008. This growth was driven by more females arrested for simple assault (female share rising from 16 percent to 26 percent) and aggravated assault (female share rising from 13 percent to 21 percent). (See chart.)
- The female share of arrests for property crimes including larceny, burglary, and fraud rose from 25 percent of arrestees in 1990 to 35 percent in 2008.
- Among women, those age 18–24 have the highest arrest rate for violent crime (207 per 100,000 women in 2008). This age group accounted for the highest arrest rate among men as well (955 per 100,000 men).
- Females accounted for 18 percent of those arrested for drug abuse violations in 2008, a proportion essentially unchanged from 1990.

Female Arrests by Type of Violent Crime Other Than Homicide

(Percent of Arrestees of All Ages Who Are Female, 1985–2008)

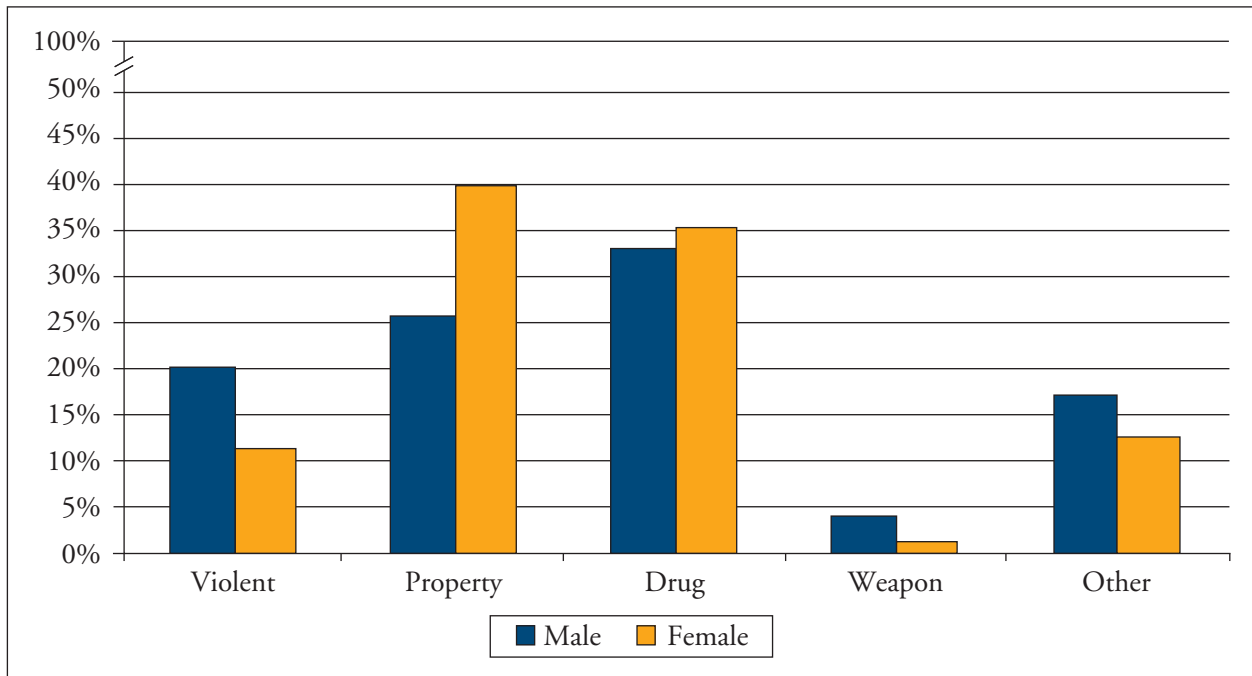


Source: Bureau of Justice Statistics

7. Females are convicted more frequently for property crimes than for violent crimes.

- Fewer females than males overall are convicted of crimes. However, 40 percent of female convictions in state courts are for property crimes vs. 26 percent for males; 20 percent of male convictions in state courts are for violent crimes vs. 11 percent of female convictions. (See chart.)
- In 2006, an estimated 68,020 females were convicted of a felony drug offense in state courts, a 55 percent increase from the 43,940 in 1990. Females still accounted for approximately one in five persons (18 percent) convicted of a felony drug offense in 2006.
- In 2006, females accounted for 17 percent of all persons convicted of a felony offense in state courts.
- Two-thirds of females and 59 percent of males convicted of a felony offense in state courts in 2006 were White. An estimated 31 percent of females and 39 percent of males convicted were Black.

Shares of Felony Convictions by Type of Crime
(2006)



Source: Bureau of Justice Statistics

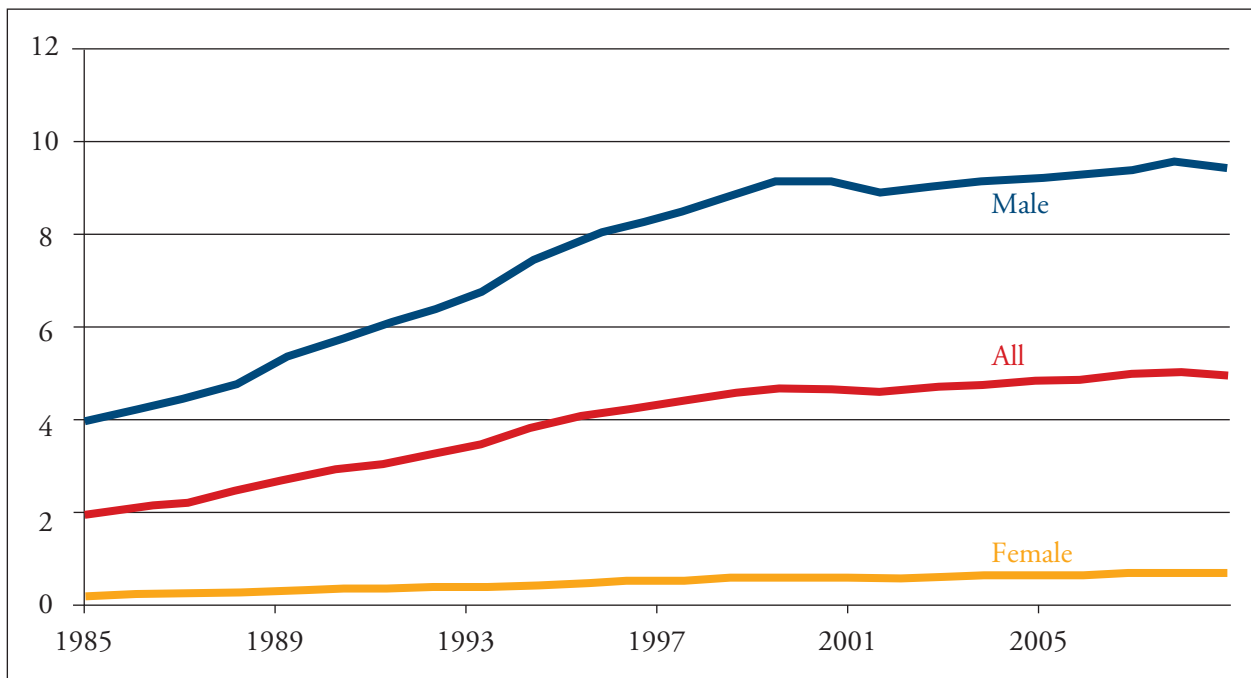
Note: Percents for males and females each sum to 100 percent.

8. The imprisonment rate for females has increased significantly.

- The imprisonment rate for females quadrupled between 1985 and 2008, from 0.17 per 1,000 females to 0.68 per 1,000 females. The 2008 rate was much greater for males (9.52 per 1,000 men) than for females. (See chart.)
- In 2004, 62 percent of females and 17 percent of males in state prison reported a history of prior physical or sexual abuse. During that same year, 59 percent of imprisoned females and 56 percent of imprisoned males reported having used drugs in the month prior to their arrest. About three out of five women imprisoned in 2004 had one or more minor children, compared to about half of imprisoned men.
- In 2006 women sentenced to state prison had an average sentence of 3 years and 9 months, compared to 5 years and 1 month for men. This partially reflects the differences in the types of crimes committed by men and women.
- Between 1999 and 2008, the imprisonment rate for non-Hispanic Black females declined by 30 percent, while the rate among non-Hispanic White females rose by 15 percent. An estimated 2.3 percent of non-Hispanic Black females are expected to enter state or Federal prison by the time they reach age 30, compared to 1.1 percent of Hispanic females and 0.4 percent of non-Hispanic White females.

Rates of Imprisonment

(Number per 1,000 Persons, All Ages, 1985–2008)



Source: Bureau of Justice Statistics

Detailed Sources and Notes

I. People, Families, and Income

In this section, unless otherwise noted, data for Whites do not include people of Hispanic origin and data for Blacks include all Blacks, regardless of Hispanic origin. Hispanics may be of any race.

Introduction

¹U.S. Census Bureau, Population Division. 2010. “Table 2. Annual Estimates of the Resident Population by Sex and Selected Age Groups for the United States: April 1, 2000 to July 1, 2009” (NC-EST2009-02), June 2010.

<http://www.census.gov/popest/national/asrh/NC-EST2009/NC-EST2009-02.xls>.

²Mothers near the end of their principal child-bearing years, 40-44 years old as of June 2008, had an average of 2.3 children per mother. The cumulative fertility rate for all women, 40-44 years old as of June 2008, is 1.9 children per woman. The 1.9 figure is an average for all women, both women who have had children and those who are childless. The 2.3 figure is an average only for women who have had children. Source: Data for all women: Dye, Jane Lawler, *Fertility of American Women: June 2008*, Table 1, Current Population Reports, P20-563, U.S. Census Bureau, Washington, D.C. The fertility rate for mothers was calculated using data from the same source.

1. While the populations of both men and women are aging, women continue to outnumber men at older ages.

Race/Ethnicity: U.S. Census Bureau. 1970 and 1990 Decennial Censuses and 2009 National Population Estimates, July 1.

The data for Whites, Blacks, Asians, and American Indians and Alaskan Natives include people of Hispanic origin. Hispanics may be of any race.

Chart: U.S. Census Bureau. 1970 and 1990 Decennial Censuses and 2009 National Population Estimates, July 1.

2. Both women and men are delaying marriage.

Education: U.S. Census Bureau. 2008 American Community Survey Public Use Microdata Sample, Data Ferret tabulation.

Race/Ethnicity: U.S. Census Bureau. 2008 American Community Survey Public Use Microdata Sample, Data Ferret tabulation.

Chart: U.S. Census Bureau. Current Population Survey, March and Annual Social and Economic Supplements, 2010 and earlier. “Table MS-2. Estimated Median Age at First Marriage, by Sex: 1890 to the Present,” November 2010.

<http://www.census.gov/population/socdemol/hh-fam/ms2.xls>.

3. Fewer women are married than in the past.

65 and Older: U.S. Census Bureau. Current Population Survey, 2009 Annual Social and Economic Supplement. “Table A1. Marital Status of People 15 Years and Over, by Age, Sex, Personal Earnings, Race, and Hispanic Origin/1, 2009,” January 2010.

<http://www.census.gov/population/socdemol/hh-fam/cps2009/tabA1-all.xls>.

Race/Ethnicity: U.S. Census Bureau. Current Population Survey, 2009 Annual Social and Economic Supplement. “Table A1. Marital Status of People 15 Years and Over, by Age, Sex, Personal Earnings, Race, and Hispanic Origin/1, 2009,” January 2010.
<http://www.census.gov/population/socdem/hh-fam/cps2009/tabA1-all.xls>.

Chart: U.S. Census Bureau. Current Population Survey, 2009 Annual Social and Economic Supplement. “Table A1. Marital Status of People 15 Years and Over, by Age, Sex, Personal Earnings, Race, and Hispanic Origin/1, 2009,” January 2010.
<http://www.census.gov/population/socdem/hh-fam/cps2009/tabA1-all.xls>.
Data for married includes those who reported their marital status as “separated.”

4. More women than in the past have never had a child.

Education: U.S. Census Bureau. 2008 Current Population Survey Public Use Microdata Sample, Data Ferret tabulation. June 2008.

Race/Ethnicity: Dye, Jane Lawler, *Fertility of American Women: June 2008*, Table 1, Current Population Reports, P20-563, U.S. Census Bureau, Washington, D.C.

Chart: U.S. Census Bureau. Current Population Survey, June 2008. Supplemental Fertility Tables. “Table SF1. Percent Childless and Births per 1,000 Women in the Last Year: Selected Years, 1976 to 2008.”

5. Women are giving birth to their first child at older ages.

Education: National Center for Health Statistics. 2002. *National Vital Statistics Reports*. 40(5). Table 7; National Center for Health Statistics. 2010. *National Vital Statistics Reports*. 58(24). Table 2; National Center for Health Statistics. 1997. *Monthly Vital Statistics Report*. 45(11S). Table 2; National Center for Health Statistics. National Center for Health Statistics. *Vital Statistics of the United States: 1980*, Volume 1–Natality. Table 2; and 1985, Volume 1–Natality. Table 2; and 1990, Volume 1–Natality. Table 2.

Birth Rate for Teenagers: National Center for Health Statistics. 2010. *National Vital Statistics Reports*. Table 4. 58(24).

Race/Ethnicity: National Center for Health Statistics. 2010. *National Vital Statistics Reports*. Tables 14 and 15. 58(24).

The data for Whites and Blacks do not include people of Hispanic origin. Hispanics may be of any race.

Chart: National Center for Health Statistics. 2002. *National Vital Statistics Reports*. 40(5). Table 7; National Center for Health Statistics. 2010. *National Vital Statistics Reports*. 58(24). Table 2; National Center for Health Statistics. 1997. *Monthly Vital Statistics Report*. 45(11S). Table 2; National Center for Health Statistics. National Center for Health Statistics. *Vital Statistics of the United States: 1980*, Volume 1–Natality. Table 2; and 1985, Volume 1–Natality. Table 2; and 1990, Volume 1–Natality. Table 2.

6. Women are having fewer children.

Race/Ethnicity: U.S. Census Bureau. 2008 Current Population Survey Public Use Microdata Sample, Data Ferret tabulation. June 2008.

Education: U.S. Census Bureau. 2008 Current Population Survey Public Use Microdata Sample, Data Ferret tabulation. June 2008.

Chart: Derived from selected June Current Population Surveys. 1976 and 1980 from P20-375, Table 12A; 1984 from P20-401, Table 1; 1988 from P20-436, Table 1; 1992 from P20-470, Table 1; 1995 from P20-499, Table 1; 2000 from <http://www.census.gov/population/socdemolfertility/p20-543/tab02.xls>; 2004 from <http://www.census.gov/population/socdemolfertility/cps2004/tab02-01.xls>.

7. Most adults live in households headed by married couples; single-mother households are more common than single-father households.

Definitions of chart categories:

Married couple: All people 15 and older who live in married-couple households, regardless of their relationship to the householder. For example, a 20-year-old living with 50-year-old married parents is included in this chart in the married-couple category even if the child is single.

Male householder, no spouse present: All people 15 and older living in households headed by males with no spouse present, regardless of the person's relationship to the householder.

Female householder, no spouse present: All people 15 and older living in households headed by females with no spouse present, regardless of the person's relationship to the householder.

Persons living together but not related: All people 15 and older who are living in households where there is no person related to the householder. This excludes persons living alone.

Persons living alone: Households consisting of a single person 15 and older who is living alone.

Race/Ethnicity: U.S. Census Bureau. 2008 American Community Survey Public Use Microdata Sample, Data Ferret tabulation.

Chart: U.S. Census Bureau. 2008 American Community Survey Public Use Microdata Sample, Data Ferret tabulation.

8. Women are more likely than men to be in poverty.

Poverty Threshold: U.S. Census Bureau. Current Population Survey Annual Social and Economic Supplement. 2010. "POV35: Poverty Thresholds by Size of Family and Number of Related Children Under 18 Years: 2009," http://www.census.gov/hhes/www/cpstables/032010/pov/new35_000.htm

65 and Older: U.S. Census Bureau. Current Population Survey Annual Social and Economic Supplement. 2010. "POV01: Age and Sex of All People, Family Members and Unrelated Individuals Iterated by Income-to-Poverty Ratio and Race: 2009," http://www.census.gov/hhes/www/cpstables/032010/pov/new01_000.htm. For information on confidentiality protection, sampling error, nonsampling error, and definitions, see <http://www.census.gov/apsd/techdoc/cps/cpsmar09.pdf>.

Female Workers: U.S. Census Bureau. Current Population Survey Annual Social and Economic Supplements. 2010. "POV22: Work Experience During Year by Age, Sex, Household Relationship and Poverty Status for People 16 Years Old and Over: 2009." http://www.census.gov/hhes/www/cpstables/032010/pov/new22_000.htm. For information on confidentiality protection, sampling error, nonsampling error, and definitions, see <http://www.census.gov/apsd/techdoc/cps/cpsmar09.pdf>.

Race/Ethnicity: U.S. Census Bureau. Current Population Survey Annual Social and Demographic Supplements. 2010. “POV01: Age and Sex of All People, Family Members and Unrelated Individuals Iterated by Income-to-Poverty Ratio and Race: 2009.” http://www.census.gov/hhes/www/cpstables/032010/pov/new01_000.htm. For information on confidentiality protection, sampling error, nonsampling error, and definitions, see <http://www.census.gov/apsd/techdoc/cps/cpsmar09.pdf>.

Chart: U.S. Census Bureau. Current Population Survey, Annual Social and Economic Supplements. “Historical Table 7” (Columns B through G) and “Historical Table 4” (All Races—With Children Under 18 Years Columns H through J).”

Data for male and female poverty rates are not available prior to 1966.

For information on confidentiality protection, sampling error, nonsampling error, and definitions, see <http://www.census.gov/apsd/techdoc/cps/cpsmar09.pdf>. Footnotes are available at <http://www.census.gov/hhes/www/poverty/histpov/footnotes.html>. The poverty rate for families headed by a female householder, no husband present, with children under age 18 includes grandmother heads of household with no husband present, living with their grandchildren; it excludes families with a female householder, no husband present, residing with adult children (age 18 and older).

II. Education

In this section, unless otherwise noted, data by race do not include people of Hispanic origin. Persons of Hispanic origin may be of any race.

Introduction

¹ Federal statistical agencies including the National Center for Education Statistics, the Bureau of Labor Statistics, and the Census Bureau began working together in late 2009 on a project to improve Federal measures of educational attainment to include postsecondary certificates and to begin collecting information about the prevalence of industry-recognized certifications among U.S. adults. These new measures will provide a more accurate picture of how education and training relate to employment outcomes.

² Aud, S., Hussar, W., Planty, M., Snyder, T., Bianco, K., Fox, M., Frohlich, L., Kemp, J., Drake, L. (2010). *The Condition of Education 2010* (NCES 2010-028). National Center for Education Statistics, Institute of Education Sciences, U.S. Department of Education. Washington, D.C. <http://nces.ed.gov/pubs2010/2010028.pdf>, p. 70.

³ Aud, S., Hussar, W., Planty, M., Snyder, T., Bianco, K., Fox, M., Frohlich, L., Kemp, J., Drake, L. (2010). *The Condition of Education 2010* (NCES 2010-028). National Center for Education Statistics, Institute of Education Sciences, U.S. Department of Education. Washington, D.C. <http://nces.ed.gov/pubs2010/2010028.pdf>, p. 36.

⁴ Fast Facts, *Total fall enrollment in degree-granting institutions, by student level: Selected years, 1970 through 2007*, NCES, <http://nces.ed.gov/fastfacts/display.asp?id=98>.

⁵ Aud, S., Hussar, W., Planty, M., Snyder, T., Bianco, K., Fox, M., Frohlich, L., Kemp, J., Drake, L. (2010). *The Condition of Education 2010* (NCES 2010-028). National Center for Education Statistics, Institute of Education Sciences, U.S. Department of Education. Washington, D.C. <http://nces.ed.gov/pubs2010/2010028.pdf>, p. 68.

⁶ The College Board. *Advanced Placement Program, National Summary Report, 1999–2009* http://www.collegeboard.com/prod_downloads/student/testing/ap/sumrpts/2009/xls/NATIONAL_Summary.xls.

⁷ Aud, S., Hussar, W., Planty, M., Snyder, T., Bianco, K., Fox, M., Frohlich, L., Kemp, J., Drake, L. (2010). *The Condition of Education 2010* (NCES 2010-028). National Center for Education Statistics, Institute of Education Sciences, U.S. Department of Education. Washington, D.C. <http://nces.ed.gov/pubs2010/2010028.pdf>, p. 76.

⁸ OECD, 2010, *Education at a Glance: OECD Indicators*, “Table A3.6. Percentage of tertiary qualifications awarded to females at tertiary level, by field of education (2008)”, www.oecd.org/leduleag2010.

⁹ Chen, X., 2009. *Stats in Brief: Students Who Study Science, Technology, Engineering, and Mathematics (STEM) in Postsecondary Education*, NCES 2009-16, <http://nces.ed.gov/pubsearch/pubsinfo.asp?pubid=2009161>.

¹⁰ OECD, 2010, *Education at a Glance: OECD Indicators*, “Table A3.6. Percentage of tertiary qualifications awarded to females at tertiary level, by field of education (2008),” www.oecd.org/leduleag2010.

¹¹ Dinkes, R., Kemp, J., and Baum, K. (2009). *Indicators of School Crime and Safety: 2009* (NCES 2010-012/NCJ 228478). National Center for Education Statistics, Institution of Education Sciences, U.S. Department of Education, and Bureau of Justice Statistics, Office of Justice Programs, U.S. Department of Justice, Washington, D.C. <http://nces.ed.gov/pubs2010/2010012.pdf>, p. 16.

¹² School Survey on Crime and Safety, NCES, 2007, “Table 14. Percentage of students ages 12–18 who reported being bullied by another student anywhere via electronic means and the frequency of electronic bullying, by selected student and school characteristics: School year 2006–07,” http://nces.ed.gov/surveys/ssocs/tables/scs_2007_tab_14.asp.

Science and Technology Education: For more detailed information on participation of women in science and technology education, see National Science Foundation/National Center for Science and Engineering Statistics, *Women, Minorities, and Persons with Disabilities in Science and Engineering*, NSF 09-305, Arlington, Va. <http://www.nsf.gov/statistics/wmpd/sex.cfm#degrees>.

1. Women’s gains in educational attainment have significantly outpaced those of men over the last 40 years.

OECD: *Education at a Glance 2010: OECD Indicators*, Web Only Tables A1.1b and A1.1c, http://www.oecd.org/document/52/0,3343,en_2649_39263238_45897844_1_1_1_1,00.html.

Race/Ethnicity: Aud, S., Fox, M., and KewalRamani, A. (2010). *Status and Trends in the Education of Racial and Ethnic Groups* (NCES 2010-015). U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office. <http://nces.ed.gov/pubs2010/2010015.pdf>. p.135.

Chart: U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, Current Population Survey, March 1970, 1990, 2009, previously unpublished tabulations (August 2010). Note: In 1992, the questionnaire items that defined educational attainment in the Current Population Survey changed. Prior to 1989, persons with General Educational Development certificates were not counted among high school graduates.

2. Female students score higher than males on reading assessments and lower than males on mathematics assessments.

NAEP Proficiency definitions:

2009 Reading: Twelfth-grade students performing at the Proficient level should be able to locate and integrate information using sophisticated analyses of the meaning and form of the text. These students should be able to provide specific text support for inferences, interpretative statements, and comparisons within and across texts.

1992- 2007 Reading: Twelfth-grade students performing at the Proficient level should be able to show an overall understanding of the text which includes inferential as well as literal information. When reading text appropriate to twelfth grade, they should be able to extend the ideas of the text by making inferences, drawing conclusions, and making connections to their own personal experiences and other readings. Connections between inferences and the text should be clear, even when implicit. These students should be able to analyze the author's use of literary devices.

1992-2009 Mathematics: Twelfth-grade students performing at the Proficient level should be able to select strategies to solve problems and integrate concepts and procedures. These students should be able to interpret an argument, justify a mathematical process, and make comparisons dealing with a wide variety of mathematical tasks. They should also be able to perform calculations involving similar figures including right triangle trigonometry. They should understand and apply properties of geometric figures and relationships between figures in two and three dimensions. Students at this level should select and use appropriate units of measure as they apply formulas to solve problems. Students performing at this level should be able to use measures of central tendency and variability of distributions to make decisions and predictions, calculate combinations and permutations to solve problems, and understand the use of the normal distribution to describe real-world situations. Students performing at the Proficient level should be able to identify, manipulate, graph, and apply linear, quadratic, exponential, and inverse functions ($y = k/x$); solve routine and non-routine problems involving functions expressed in algebraic, verbal, tabular, and graphical forms; and solve quadratic and rational equations in one variable and solve systems of linear equations.

Science: Grigg, W., Lauko, M., and Brockway, D. (2006). *The Nation's Report Card: Science 2005* (NCES 2006-466). U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics. Washington, D.C., U.S. Government Printing Office.
<http://nces.ed.gov/nationsreportcard/pdf/main2005/2006466.pdf>, pgs. 9, 18, and 33.

Arts: Aud, S., Hussar, W., Planty, M., Snyder, T., Bianco, K., Fox, M., Frohlich, L., Kemp, J., Drake, L. (2010). *The Condition of Education 2010* (NCES 2010-028). National Center for Education Statistics, Institute of Education Sciences, U.S. Department of Education. Washington, D.C. <http://nces.ed.gov/pubs2010/2010028.pdf>, p. 55.

Chart: U.S. Department of Education, Institute of Education Sciences, National Center for Education Statistics, National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP), 1990 and 2009 Mathematics Assessments; 1992 and 2009 Reading Assessments, previously unpublished tabulations (August 2010).

3. Higher percentages of women than men age 25–34 have earned a college degree.

Degrees Conferred and Enrollment: Aud, S., Hussar, W., Planty, M., Snyder, T., Bianco, K., Fox, M., Frohlich, L., Kemp, J., Drake, L. (2010). *The Condition of Education 2010* (NCES 2010-028). National Center for Education Statistics, Institute of Education Sciences, U.S. Department of Education. Washington, D.C. <http://nces.ed.gov/pubs2010/2010028.pdf>, pgs. 36 and 120.

Race/Ethnicity: Aud, S., Fox, M., and KewalRamani, A. (2010). *Status and Trends in the Education of Racial and Ethnic Groups* (NCES 2010-015). U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office. <http://nces.ed.gov/pubs2010/2010015.pdf>, p. 123.

Chart: U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, Current Population Survey, March 1968-2009, previously unpublished tabulations (August 2010). In 1992, the questionnaire items that defined educational attainment in the Current Population Survey changed. This change may be responsible for some of the difference in educational attainment between 1991 and 1992, which should be interpreted with caution.

4. More women than men have received a graduate education.

Race/Ethnicity: Aud, S., Fox, M., and KewalRamani, A. (2010). *Status and Trends in the Education of Racial and Ethnic Groups* (NCES 2010-015). U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office. <http://nces.ed.gov/pubs2010/2010015.pdf>, p. 125.

Enrollment Trends: Aud, S., Hussar, W., Planty, M., Snyder, T., Bianco, K., Fox, M., Frohlich, L., Kemp, J., Drake, L. (2010). *The Condition of Education 2010* (NCES 2010-028). National Center for Education Statistics, Institute of Education Sciences, U.S. Department of Education. Washington, D.C. <http://nces.ed.gov/pubs2010/2010028.pdf>, pgs. 38 and 120.

Chart: U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, Current Population Survey, March 1968-2009, previously unpublished tabulations (August 2010). In 1992, the questionnaire items that defined educational attainment in the Current Population Survey changed. This change may be responsible for some of the difference in educational attainment between 1991 and 1992, which should be interpreted with caution.

5. Women earn the majority of conferred degrees overall but earn fewer degrees than men in science and technology.

Bullets and chart: *Digest of Education Statistics: 2009*. “Table 275. Bachelor’s, master’s, and doctor’s degrees conferred by degree-granting institutions, by sex of student and discipline division: 2007-08.” http://nces.ed.gov/programs/digest/d09/tables/dt09_275.asp?referrer=list. *Digest of Education Statistics: 2000*. “Table 257. Bachelor’s, master’s, and doctor’s degrees conferred by degree-granting institutions, by sex of student and discipline division: 1997-98.” <http://nces.ed.gov/programs/digest/d00/dt257.asp>. [Accessed August 2010].

6. Higher percentages of women than men participate in adult education.

Adult education includes participation in any formal adult educational activities in the 12 months prior to the interview, excluding full-time only enrollments in college/university or vocational/technical credential programs. Included in this are the following: English as a Second Language (ESL) classes, basic skills or GED preparation classes, part-time college or university

degree or certificate programs, part-time vocational or technical diploma, degree, or certificate programs, apprenticeship programs, self-reported work-related courses or training, and self-reported personal-interest courses.

Educational attainment: *Percentage of adults who participated in adult education, by sex and race/ethnicity: 2005.* Supplementary Web Tables for: O'Donnell, K. (2006). *Adult Education Participation in 2004-05* (NCES 2006-077). National Center for Education Statistics, Institute of Education Sciences, U.S. Department of Education. Washington, D.C.
http://nces.ed.gov/pubs2006/adulted/tables/table_2006077_1.asp
[Accessed December 2010].

Race/Ethnicity: *Percentage of adults who participated in adult education, by sex and race/ethnicity: 2005* Supplementary Web Table for: O'Donnell, K. (2006). *Adult Education Participation in 2004-05* (NCES 2006-077). National Center for Education Statistics, Institute of Education Sciences, U.S. Department of Education. Washington, D.C.
http://nces.ed.gov/pubs2006/adulted/tables/table_2006077_2.asp [Accessed December 2010].

Chart: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, The Adult Education Survey of the National Household Education Surveys Program, (AE:NHES:2005), previously unpublished tabulations (August 2010). Adult education is divided here into “Basic Skills & GED Courses” which includes basic skills, English as a Second Language, or General Educational Development preparation courses; “Credentials and Apprenticeships”, which includes part-time college or university degree or certificate programs, part-time vocational or technical diploma, degree, or certificate programs, and apprenticeship programs; “Work-related Courses”, which includes work-related courses or training; and “Personal Interest Courses” which includes courses for personal interests.

III. Employment

The estimates in this section of the report are based on sample surveys of the population and are, therefore, subject to sampling and nonsampling error. To the extent feasible, standard tests of statistical significance have been used to determine whether the differences between populations discussed in the text exist at generally accepted levels of confidence or whether they occurred by chance.

In this section, unless otherwise noted, data by race include people of Hispanic origin. Persons of Hispanic origin may be of any race.

Introduction

¹ The civilian labor force participation rate is the civilian labor force as a percent of the civilian noninstitutional population. The civilian labor force is comprised of all persons classified as employed or unemployed. Employed persons are those who, during the survey week, (a) did any work at all as paid civilians; (b) worked in their own business or profession or on their own farm; (c) worked 15 hours or more as unpaid workers in a family business; or (d) were temporarily absent from their jobs because of illness, vacation, bad weather, or another reason. Unemployed persons are those who had no employment during the survey week, were available for work at that time, and made specific efforts to find employment sometime in the prior 4 weeks. Persons laid off from their former jobs and awaiting recall did not need to be looking for work to be classified as unemployed.

² U.S. Department of Labor, U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, *Number of Jobs Held, Labor Market Activity, and Earnings Growth among the Youngest Baby Boomers: Results from a Longitudinal Survey*, USDL-10-1243, September 10, 2010. <http://www.bls.gov/news.release/pdf/nlsoy.pdf>.

³ The information on occupational category applies to the job held during the reference week. Persons with two or more jobs are classified in the occupation at which they worked the greatest number of hours. The occupational classification of CPS data is based on the 2002 Census Bureau occupational classification system, which is derived from the 2000 Standard Occupation Classification (SOC). Additional information about this classification is available at www.bls.gov/cps/cpsoccind.htm.

⁴ Wage and salary workers are workers who receive wages, salaries, commissions, tips, payment in kind, or piece rates. The group includes employees in both the private and public sectors but, for purposes of the earnings series, excludes all self-employed persons, both those with incorporated businesses as well as those with unincorporated businesses. Data on usual weekly earnings include wages and salaries before taxes and other deductions and include any overtime pay, commissions, or tips usually received (at the principal job in the case of multiple jobholders). Earnings of self-employed workers are excluded, regardless of whether their businesses are incorporated. Prior to 1994, respondents were asked to report earnings per week. Since January 1994, respondents have been asked to identify the easiest way for them to report earnings (hourly, weekly, biweekly, twice monthly, monthly, annually, or other) and how much they usually earn in the reported period. Earnings reported on a basis other than weekly are converted to a weekly equivalent. The term “usual” is as perceived by the respondent. If the respondent asks for a definition of usual, interviewers are instructed to define the term as “more than half the weeks worked during the past 4 or 5 months.”

⁵ The female-to-male-earnings ratio of 80 percent in 2009 is calculated using median weekly earnings of full-time male and female wage and salary workers, age 16 and older. Using median annual earnings of year-round full-time male and female workers, age 15 and older, gives a female-to-male-earnings ratio of 77 percent in 2009. Source: U.S. Department of Labor, U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, *Highlights of Women's Earnings in 2009*, Table 1, <http://www.bls.gov/cps/cpswom2009.pdf> (visited Nov. 18, 2010). DeNavas-Walt, C., Proctor, B.D., and Smith, J.C., U.S. Census Bureau, Current Population Reports, P60-238, *Income, Poverty, and Health Insurance Coverage in the United States: 2009*, U.S. Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C., 2010. Table A-4. <http://www.census.gov/prod/2010pubs/p60-238.pdf>

⁶ U.S. Department of Commerce, U.S. Census Bureau, Current Population Survey (CPS). These data were collected in the 1971, 1989, and 2009 Annual Social and Economic Supplement to the CPS and reflect earnings and work experience of the prior calendar year.

⁷ U.S. Department of Labor, U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics. Current Population Survey (CPS). Unpublished tabulations from the 1971 and 2009 Annual Social and Economic Supplement (ASEC) to the CPS.

1. After decades of significant increases, the labor force participation rate for women has held steady in recent years.

Mothers: U.S. Department of Labor, U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, *Employment Characteristics of Families*, USDL-10-0721, May 2010, Table 5, <http://www.bls.gov/news.release/famee.t05.htm>.

Race/Ethnicity: U.S. Department of Labor, U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics. Current Population Survey (CPS), data available from the historical series database on the Internet at <http://www.bls.gov/cps/demographics.htm#race> (visited Nov. 18, 2010).

Education: U.S. Department of Labor, U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics. Current Population Survey (CPS), data available from the historical series database on the Internet at <http://www.bls.gov/cps/demographics.htm#education> (visited Nov. 18, 2010).

Age 55 and Over: U.S. Department of Labor, U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics. Current Population Survey (CPS), data available from the historical series database on the Internet at <http://www.bls.gov/cps/demographics.htm#older> (visited Nov. 17, 2010).

Chart: U.S. Department of Labor, U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics. Current Population Survey. Beginning in 1994, data reflect the introduction of a major redesign of the Current Population Survey. Revisions to population controls were incorporated into the data in January of various years. These changes can affect comparability with data for prior periods.

2. Unemployment rates for women have risen less than for men in recent recessions.

Unemployment Rate: This rate represents the number of unemployed persons as a percent of the civilian labor force.

Recession: The Business Cycle Dating Committee of the National Bureau of Economic Research (NBER) is the unofficial—but widely recognized—arbiter of when the economy is in recession, which it defines as “a significant decline in economic activity spread across the economy, lasting more than a few months, normally visible in real GDP, real income, employment, industrial production, and wholesale-retail sales.” (NBER is a private, non-profit, non-partisan research organization.) More information is available online at <http://www.nber.org/cycles/cyclesmain.html>.

Occupations: U.S. Department of Labor, U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics. *Employment and Earnings*, February 2010, Table 17. <http://www.bls.gov/cps/cpsaat17.pdf> [Accessed November 18, 2010].

Chart: U.S. Department of Labor, U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, Current Population Survey. Shaded areas represent recessions (see definition above). Beginning in 1994, data reflect the introduction of a major redesign of the Current Population Survey. Revisions to population controls were incorporated into the data in January of various years. These changes can affect comparability with data for prior periods.

3. More women than men work part time, and women and men have roughly equal access to flexible work schedules.

Year-Round Work: U.S. Department of Labor, U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics. Current Population Survey (CPS), unpublished tabulations from the Annual Social and Economic Supplement (ASEC).

Flexible Schedules: McMenamin, Terence M. “A Time to Work: Recent Trends in Shift Work and Flexible Schedules,” *Monthly Labor Review*, December 2007
<http://www.bls.gov/opub/mlr/2007/12/art1abs.htm> [Accessed November 18, 2010].

Chart: U.S. Department of Labor, U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, Current Population Survey, <http://www.bls.gov/cps/lfcharacteristics.htm#fullpart>. Data for 1994 and subsequent years are not directly comparable with earlier years because of a major redesign of the Current Population Survey.

4. Education pays for both women and men, but the pay gap persists.

Trends by Educational Attainment: U.S. Department of Labor, U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, *Highlights of Women’s Earnings in 2009*, Tables 16-17, on the Internet at <http://www.bls.gov/cps/cpswom2009.pdf> (visited Nov. 18, 2010).

Age: U.S. Department of Labor, U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, *Highlights of Women’s Earnings in 2009*, Tables 12, on the Internet at <http://www.bls.gov/cps/cpswom2009.pdf> (visited Nov. 18, 2010).

Race/Ethnicity: U.S. Department of Labor, U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, *Highlights of Women’s Earnings in 2009*, <http://www.bls.gov/cps/cpswom2009.pdf> (visited January 6, 2011). Calculations using data from Table 1.

Chart: Source: U.S. Department of Labor, U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics. Current Population Survey (CPS), 2009 annual averages
http://www.bls.gov/news.release/archives/wkyeng_01212010.pdf.

5. Women and men continue to work in different occupations.

Education and Health Care Professional Occupations: U.S. Department of Labor, U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics. *Employment and Earnings*, February 2010, Table 11, on the Internet at <http://www.bls.gov/cps/cpsaat11.pdf> (visited Nov. 18, 2010).

Computer and Engineering Occupations: U.S. Department of Labor, U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics. *Employment and Earnings*, February 2010, Table 11, on the Internet at <http://www.bls.gov/cps/cpsaat11.pdf> (visited Nov. 18, 2010).

Management, Business, and Finance Occupations: U.S. Department of Labor, U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics. *Employment and Earnings*, February 2010, Table 11, on the Internet at <http://www.bls.gov/cps/cpsaat11.pdf> (visited Nov. 18, 2010).

Traditionally Female Occupations: U.S. Department of Labor, U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics. *Employment and Earnings*, February 2010, Table 11, on the Internet at <http://www.bls.gov/cps/cpsaat11.pdf> (visited Nov. 18, 2010).

Chart: U.S. Department of Labor, U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics. Current Population Survey. <http://www.bls.gov/cps/cpsaat9.pdf>.

6. Female-headed families have the lowest family earnings among all family types.

For family types displayed in the chart, please see definitions for People, Families, and Income, Indicator 7.

Trends Over Time: U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, Current Population Survey, March 1989 and 2009.

Chart: U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, Current Population Survey, March 1989 and 2009.

Family income includes money income received (exclusive of certain money receipts such as capital gains) before payments for personal income taxes, social security, union dues, medicare deductions, etc. It includes earnings of each family member, age 15 and older, as well as non-earned income received by each family member, age 15 and older. Non-earned income includes unemployment compensation; workers' compensation; social security; supplemental security income; public assistance; veterans' payments; survivor benefits; disability benefits; pension or retirement income; interest and dividends; rents, royalties, and estates and trusts; educational assistance; alimony; child support; financial assistance from outside of the household; and other income received on a regular basis. Also, money income does not reflect the fact that some families receive part of their income in the form of noncash benefits, such as food stamps, health benefits, rent-free housing, and goods produced and consumed on the farm.

7. In families where both husband and wife are employed, employed wives spend more time in household activities than do employed husbands.

Definitions:

Workday: A day on which employed persons spent time working for their main or other job, whether the persons worked just one minute of a day, 8 hours, or more. Estimates for workdays are averages for workers with many different types of work schedules and arrangements. They include work that was done on days persons usually work and on days they usually have off.

Leisure and sports: Time spent in sports, exercise, and recreation; socializing and communicating; and other leisure activities. Sports, exercise, and recreation activities include participating in—as well as attending or watching—sports, exercise, and recreational activities. Recreational activities are leisure activities that are active in nature, such as yard games like croquet or horseshoes. Socializing and communicating includes face-to-face social communication and hosting or attending social functions. Leisure activities include watching television; reading; relaxing or thinking; playing computer, board, or card games; and other activities, such as attending arts, cultural, and entertainment events. Travel related to these activities is also included in leisure and sports.

Household activities: Household activities are those done by persons to maintain their households. These include housework; cooking; lawn and garden care; pet care; vehicle maintenance and repair; home maintenance, repair, decoration, and renovation; and household management and organizational activities (such as filling out paperwork, balancing a checkbook, or planning a party); and travel related to household activities.

Caring for household members: Includes activities done to care for or help any child (under age 18) or adult in the household, regardless of relationship to the respondent or the physical or mental health status of the person being helped. Activities done to care for or help a child include providing physical care, playing with children, reading to children, assisting with homework, taking care of children's health needs, and doing other activities to care for and help household children under 18. Activities done to care for and help household adults includes a range of activities done to benefit adult members of households, such as providing physical and medical care, obtaining medical

services, and assisting with paperwork. Travel related to these activities is included in this category.

Work and work-related activities: Includes time spent working, doing activities as part of one's job, engaging in income-generating activities (not as part of one's job), job search activities, and travel related to all of these activities.

Other activities: Includes time spent in the following activities: personal care activities except for sleep; caring for and helping children and adults not living in the household; educational activities; purchasing goods and services; eating and drinking; organizational, civic and religious activities; telephone calls; and travel related to these activities.

Percent Engaged in Household Activities: U.S. Department of Labor, U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, American Time Use Survey, www.bls.gov/tus, Unpublished data, 2009.

Single Employed Mothers: U.S. Department of Labor, U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, American Time Use Survey, www.bls.gov/tus, Unpublished data, 2009.

Chart: U.S. Department of Labor, U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, American Time Use Survey, www.bls.gov/tus. Time use estimates are for married men and for married women age 25-54 who are employed, and are for days on which these men and women did some work. These annual estimates are an average across all seven days of the week in 2009.

8. Women are more likely than men to do volunteer work.

Volunteer Activities: U.S. Department of Labor, U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, *Volunteering in the United States—2009*, January 2010, Table A and Table 4, on the Internet at <http://www.bls.gov/news.release/pdf/volun.pdf> (visited November 19, 2010). Volunteers are persons who performed unpaid volunteer activities at any point from September 1, 2008, through the survey period in September 2009. The count of volunteers only includes persons who volunteered through or for an organization; the figures do not include persons who volunteered in a more informal manner.

Chart: U.S. Department of Labor, U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, Volunteer Supplement to the Current Population Survey, 2008 and 2009, <http://www.bls.gov/cps/demographics.htm#volunteer>. The reference period for the CPS volunteer supplement is the year beginning the prior September 1 and ending during the survey week.

IV. Health

Unless otherwise noted, all estimates that are not age-specific have been adjusted to reflect the overall age distribution of the population in 2000 to eliminate age-related differences in observed percentages across groups and over time. Age-adjustment has not been carried out for the cesarean section, preventive care, usual source of care, and health insurance coverage indicators. For more information on the method used for age adjustment, see Klein, R.J., Schoenborn, C.A., "Age adjustment using the 2000 projected U.S. population" *Healthy People Statistical Notes*, no. 20. Hyattsville, Maryland: National Center for Health Statistics. January 2001. <http://www.cdc.gov/nchs/data/statnt/statnt20.pdf>

In this section, life expectancy data by race include people of Hispanic origin. Persons of Hispanic origin may be of any race.

Introduction

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³⁴ Unpublished estimates by NCHS using National Health and Nutrition Examination Survey 2005-2008 data, http://www.cdc.gov/nchs/nhanes/nhanes_questionnaires.htm, [Accessed August, 2010].

³⁵ Centers for Disease Control and Prevention. National Center for Health Statistics. Health Data Interactive. <http://205.207.175.93/HDI/TableView/tableView.aspx?ReportId=106>. [November 24, 2010].

1. Women have longer life expectancy than men, but the gap is decreasing.

Race: Xu, J.Q., Kochanek, K.D., Murphy, S.L., Tejada-Vera, B., Deaths: Final data for 2007. *National Vital Statistics Reports*; 58(19). Hyattsville, Md.: National Center for Health Statistics. 2010, p. 27. http://www.cdc.gov/nchs/data/nvsr/nvsr58/nvsr58_19.pdf.

The data for Whites and Blacks include people of Hispanic origin.

Chart: U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, Centers for Disease Control and Prevention, National Center for Health Statistics: National Vital Statistics System. Xu, J.Q., Kochanek, K.D., Murphy, S.L., Tejada-Vera, B., Deaths: Final data for 2007. *National Vital Statistics Reports*; 58(19). Hyattsville, Md.: National Center for Health Statistics. 2010. p. 27. http://www.cdc.gov/nchs/data/nvsr/nvsr58/nvsr58_19.pdf.

2. Women are almost 40 percent more likely than men to report difficulty walking.

Difficulty walking is defined as having any difficulty walking three blocks or a quarter of a mile.

Education: U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, Centers for Disease Control and Prevention/National Center for Health Statistics: National Health Interview Survey. Previously unpublished tabulations (August 2010). Estimates are age-adjusted to the 2000 standard population using five age groups: 18–44 years, 45–54 years, 55–64 years, 65–74 years, and 75 years and over.

Race/Ethnicity: U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, Centers for Disease Control and Prevention/National Center for Health Statistics: National Health Interview Survey. Previously unpublished tabulations (August 2010). Estimates are age-adjusted to the 2000 standard population using five age groups: 18–44 years, 45–54 years, 55–64 years, 65–74 years, and 75 years and over.

Chart: U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, Centers for Disease Control and Prevention/National Center for Health Statistics: National Health Interview Survey. Previously unpublished tabulations (August 2010). Estimate for “All” ages are age-adjusted to the 2000 standard population using five age groups: 18–44 years, 45–54 years, 55–64 years, 65–74 years, and 75 years and over.

3. More women than men report having a chronic medical condition.

This chart presents the percentage of people who reported having ever been told by a doctor or other health care professional that they had heart disease, chronic bronchitis or emphysema, cancer of any kind, diabetes, arthritis, people who have been told on two or more occasions that they had hypertension, and people who had ever been told that they had asthma and still had asthma.

Age: U.S. Department of Health and Human Services/Centers for Disease Control and Prevention/National Center for Health Statistics: National Health Interview Survey. Previously unpublished tabulations (August 2010).

Race/Ethnicity and Education: U.S. Department of Health and Human Services/Centers for Disease Control and Prevention/National Center for Health Statistics: National Health Interview Survey. Previously unpublished tabulations (August 2010). Estimates are age-adjusted to the standard 2000 population using five age groups: 18–44 years, 45–54 years, 55–64 years, 65–74 years, and 75 years and over.

Chart: U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, Centers for Disease Control and Prevention. National Center for Health Statistics: National Health Interview Survey. Previously unpublished tabulations (August 2010). Estimates are age-adjusted to the standard 2000 population using five age groups: 18–44 years, 45–54 years, 55–64 years, 65–74 years, and 75 years and over.

4. Females age 12 and older are more likely than males to report experiencing depression.

Depression was measured using the Patient Health Questionnaire (PHQ-9), a nine-item screening instrument that asks questions about the frequency of symptoms of depression over the past 2 weeks. Depression was defined as a PHQ-9 score of 10 or higher, a cut point that has been well validated and is commonly used in clinical studies that measure depression (see Kroenke K, Spitzer RL, Williams JBW, “The PHQ-9: validity of a brief depression severity measure,” *Journal of General Internal Medicine* 16:606-13. 2001).

Poverty: U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, Centers for Disease Control and Prevention, National Center for Health Statistics: National Health and Nutrition Examination Survey. Previously unpublished tabulations (August 2010). Estimates are age-adjusted to the standard 2000 population using four age groups: 12–19, 20–39 years, 40–59 years, and 60 years and over.

Race: U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, Centers for Disease Control and Prevention, National Center for Health Statistics: National Health and Nutrition Examination Survey. Previously unpublished tabulations (August 2010). Estimates are age-adjusted to the standard 2000 population using four age groups: 12–19, 20–39 years, 40–59 years, and 60 years and over.

Mental Health Professional Contact: U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, Centers for Disease Control and Prevention, National Center for Health Statistics: National Health and Nutrition Examination Survey. Previously unpublished tabulations (August 2010). Estimates are age-adjusted to the standard 2000 population using four age groups: 12–19, 20–39 years, 40–59 years, and 60 years and over.

Chart: U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, Centers for Disease Control and Prevention, National Center for Health Statistics: National Health and Nutrition Examination Survey. Previously unpublished tabulations (August 2010).

5. More than one-third of all women age 20 and older are obese.

The source for all data on this indicator is National Health and Nutrition Examination Survey (NHANES), which obtains measured (as opposed to self-reported) data on height and weight. All obesity statistics cited in this report are multi-year averages of NHANES data and can be found in Flegal, K.M., Carroll, M.D., Ogden, C.L., and Curtin, L.R., “Prevalence and Trends in Obesity among U.S. Adults, 1999-2008,” *Journal of the American Medical Association* 303, no. 3 (January 13, 2010) <http://jama.ama-assn.org/content/303/3/235.full.pdf+html>. Estimates are age-adjusted to the year 2000 Census population using three age groups: 20–39 years, 40–59 years, and 60 years or older.

Obesity is defined using body mass index (BMI), which equals weight in kilograms divided by height in meters squared. Adults (over age 20) are considered “obese” if BMI is equal to or greater than 30.0 and “severely obese” if BMI is greater than or equal to 40.0. See “NCHS Data on Obesity,” http://www.cdc.gov/nchs/data/factsheets/factsheet_obesity.pdf for further details and references.

Obesity in women over time: Flegal, Carroll, Ogden, and Curtin, “Prevalence and Trends in Obesity.”

Severe Obesity: Flegal, Carroll, Ogden, and Curtin, “Prevalence and Trends in Obesity.”

Age: Flegal, Carroll, Ogden, and Curtin, “Prevalence and Trends in Obesity.” Estimates are not age adjusted.

Chart: U.S. Dept. of Health and Human Services, Centers for Disease Control and Prevention, National Center for Health Statistics: National Health and Nutrition Examination Survey. Flegal, Carroll, Ogden, and Curtin, “Prevalence and Trends in Obesity.”

6. Less than half of all women meet the Federal physical activity guidelines for aerobic activity.

Estimates are based on the current Federal guidelines that recommend adults perform at least 150 minutes (2 hours and 30 minutes) a week of moderate-intensity or 75 minutes (1 hour and 15 minutes) a week of vigorous-intensity aerobic activity, or an equivalent combination of moderate- and vigorous-intensity activity. Estimates are for all adults 18 years and older, except the estimates by educational attainment that are for adults 25 and older to allow for higher educational attainment.

GED: General educational development high school equivalency diploma.

Age: U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, Centers for Disease Control and Prevention, National Center for Health Statistics: National Health Interview Survey. National Center for Health Statistics. *Health, United States, 2010: with Special Feature on Death and Dying*. Hyattsville, Md. (forthcoming). Table 70.

Trend over time: U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, Centers for Disease Control and Prevention, National Center for Health Statistics: National Health Interview Survey. National Center for Health Statistics. *Health, United States, 2010: with Special Feature on Death and Dying*. Hyattsville, Md. (forthcoming). Table 70. Estimates are age adjusted to the 2000 standard population using five age groups: 18–44 years, 45–54 years, 55–64 years, 65–74 years, and 75 years and over.

Chart: U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, Centers for Disease Control and Prevention, National Center for Health Statistics: National Health Interview Survey. Previously unpublished tabulations (August 2010). Estimates are age adjusted to the 2000 standard population using five age groups: 25–44 years, 45–54 years, 55–64 years, 65–74 years, and 75 years and over.

7. In 2008, the cesarean rate was the highest ever reported in the United States.

Estimates are not age adjusted.

Maternal Age: Martin, J.A., Hamilton, B.E., Sutton, P.D., et al. Births: Final data for 2008. *National Vital Statistics Reports*; 59(1). Hyattsville, Md.: National Center for Health Statistics. 2010. pp. 18-19. http://www.cdc.gov/nchs/data/nvsr/nvsr59/nvsr59_01.pdf.

Maternal Race/Ethnicity: Martin, J.A., Hamilton, B.E., Sutton, P.D., et al. Births: Final data for 2008. *National Vital Statistics Reports*; 59(1). Hyattsville, Md.: National Center for Health Statistics. 2010. p. 19. http://www.cdc.gov/nchs/data/nvsr/nvsr59/nvsr59_01.pdf.

Chart: U. S. Department of Health and Human Services, Centers for Disease Control and Prevention, National Center for Health Statistics: National Vital Statistics System. Martin JA, Hamilton BE, Sutton PD, et al. Births: Final data for 2007. *National Vital Statistics Reports*; 58(24). Hyattsville, Md.: National Center for Health Statistics. 2010. p. 60 http://www.cdc.gov/nchs/data/nvsr/nvsr58/nvsr58_24.pdf and Martin, J.A., Hamilton, B.E., Sutton, P.D., et al. Births: Final data for 2008. *National Vital Statistics Reports*; 59(1). Hyattsville, Md.: National Center for Health Statistics. 2010. Internet table I-7. http://www.cdc.gov/nchs/data/nvsr/nvsr59/nvsr59_01_tables.pdf.

8. Many women do not receive specific recommended preventive care.

Definitions:

Pap smears: 2008 data, test received in the last 3 years, women age 18 and older;

Mammography: 2008 data, tested in the last 2 years, women age 50 and older;

Sigmoidoscopy: 2008 data, ever screened by sigmoidoscopy, colonoscopy, or proctoscopy, persons age 50 and older;

Pneumococcal vaccination: 2009 data, immunization ever received, persons age 65 and older;

Influenza vaccination: 2009 data, immunization received in the last 12 months, persons age 50 and older; Cholesterol screening: 2008 data, screened in the last 5 years, persons age 18 and older.

Estimates are not age adjusted.

Chart:

Pap smear screening and mammography: U.S. Dept. of Health and Human Services/Centers for Disease Control and Prevention/National Center for Health Statistics: National Health Interview Survey. National Center for Health Statistics. Health, United States, 2010: with Special Feature on Death and Dying. Hyattsville, Md. (forthcoming).

Sigmoidoscopy/colonoscopy and cholesterol screening: DATA2010, objectives 3-12b and 12-15, previously unreleased estimates (June 2010);

Influenza and pneumococcal vaccination: U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, Centers for Disease Control and Prevention, National Center for Health Statistics: National Health Interview Survey. Previously unpublished tabulations (December 2010).

9. The share of women age 18–64 without health insurance has increased.

Persons without health insurance coverage are defined as persons not covered at the time of the interview by the following programs or plans: private insurance, Medicaid, Children’s Health Insurance Program (CHIP), public assistance (through 1996), state-sponsored or other government-sponsored health plans (starting in 1997), Medicare, or military plans. Persons with only Indian Health Service coverage are considered to have no health insurance coverage. Data prior to 1997 are not strictly comparable with data for later years due to the 1997 questionnaire redesign. For more information, see. Centers for Disease Control and Prevention. National Center for Health Statistics, National Health Interview Survey. *Health, United States, 2010: with Special Feature on Medical Technology*. Appendix II. Hyattsville, Md., 2010, p. 516.. Beginning in quarter 3 of the 2004 NHIS, persons under 65 years with no reported coverage were asked explicitly about Medicaid coverage.

Estimates are not age adjusted.

Bullets and Chart: U. S. Department of Health and Human Services, Centers for Disease Control and Prevention, National Center for Health Statistics: National Health Interview Survey, 1984-2009, previously unpublished tabulations (August 2010).

10. One out of seven women age 18–64 has no usual source of health care.

Starting in 1997, “usual source of care” was measured in the National Health Interview Survey (NHIS) by asking the respondent “Is there a place that [person] usually goes when he/she is sick or you need advice about [his/her] health?” Persons who report the emergency department as their usual source of care are defined as having no usual source of care. For more information see National Center for Health Statistics. *Health, United States, 2009, With Special Feature on Medical Technology*. 2010. Appendix II, p. 548.

Estimates are not age-adjusted.

Bullets and Chart: U. S. Department of Health and Human Services, Centers for Disease Control and Prevention, National Center for Health Statistics, National Health Interview Survey, 2009, previously unpublished tabulations (August 2010).

V. Crime and Violence

In this section, unless otherwise noted, data by race include people of Hispanic origin. Persons of Hispanic origin may be of any race.

For questions regarding unpublished estimates, contact the Bureau of Justice Statistics at askbjs@usdoj.gov.

Introduction

¹ U.S. Department of Justice, Bureau of Justice Statistics, *Criminal Victimization, 2009*, <http://bjs.ojp.usdoj.gov/content/pub/pdf/cv09.pdf>

² Previously unpublished estimates by Bureau of Justice Statistics using National Crime Victimization Survey data.

³ Holt, S., Buckley, H., & Whelan, S. (2008). "The Impact of Exposure to Domestic Violence on Children and Young People: A Review of the Literature." *Child Abuse & Neglect*, 32: 797-810.

⁴ E.g., Dallaire, D. H. (2007). "Incarcerated Mothers and Fathers: A Comparison of Risks for Children and Families." *Family Relations*, 56: 440-453.

1. Nonfatal violent crimes against women declined between 1993 and 2008.

Race/Ethnicity: Unpublished estimates by Bureau of Justice Statistics using National Crime Victimization Survey, 1993-2003, performed June 2010.

Form of Violent Victimization: Unpublished estimates by Bureau of Justice Statistics using National Crime Victimization Survey, 2008, performed June 2010.

Reporting to Police: Unpublished estimates by Bureau of Justice Statistics using National Crime Victimization Survey, 2008, performed June 2010.

Chart: National Crime Victimization Survey. Violent crime includes rape, sexual assault, robbery, aggravated and simple assault. Changes to the NCVS and their impact upon the survey's estimates in 2006 are discussed in the Criminal Victimization, 2006 Technical Notes. All data are based on collection year and include series crimes and may differ slightly from previously published estimates for this reason.

2. Homicides of females declined between 1993 and 2008.

Age: Unpublished estimates by Bureau of Justice Statistics using Federal Bureau of Investigation Uniform Crime Reports, 2008, performed June 2010.

Number of Victims: Unpublished estimates by Bureau of Justice Statistics using Federal Bureau of Investigation Uniform Crime Reports, 2008, performed June 2010.

Race/Ethnicity: Unpublished estimates by Bureau of Justice Statistics using Federal Bureau of Investigation Uniform Crime Reports, 1993-2008, performed June 2010.

Females as Share of Homicides by Intimate Partners: Catalano, S., Smith, E., Snyder, H., and Rand, M. *Female Victims of Violence*. Bureau of Justice Statistics, Office of Justice Programs, U.S. Department of Justice. September 2009. NCJ 228356.

Chart: Unpublished estimates by Bureau of Justice Statistics using Federal Bureau of Investigation Uniform Crime Reports, 1980-2008, performed June 2010.

3. Nonfatal attacks on women by intimate partners declined between 1994 and 2008.

Race/Ethnicity: Unpublished estimates by Bureau of Justice Statistics using National Crime Victimization Survey, 2008, performed June 2010.

Age: Unpublished estimates by Bureau of Justice Statistics using National Crime Victimization Survey, 2003-2008 (data for 2006 are excluded), performed June 2010.

Chart: Unpublished estimates by Bureau of Justice Statistics using National Crime Victimization Survey data. Data for 2006 are excluded. Changes to the NCVS and their impact upon the survey's estimates in 2006 are discussed in the Criminal Victimization, 2006 Technical Notes. All data are based on collection year and include series crimes and may differ slightly from previously published estimates for this reason.

4. Reported rape rates declined during the 1990s and have remained stable in recent years.

¹National Crime Victimization Survey is a nationally-representative survey using a random sample of approximately 70,000 individuals in nearly 40,000 households in the U.S. asking questions addressing a wide variety of crimes. Other government studies that asked more detailed questions specifically about sexual assault have found higher rates of victimization.

Arrests: Unpublished estimates by Bureau of Justice Statistics using Federal Bureau of Investigation Uniform Crime Reports, 2008, performed June 2010.

Reporting to Police: Unpublished estimates by Bureau of Justice Statistics using National Crime Victimization Survey, 2004-2008 (data for 2006 are excluded), performed June 2010.

Relationship between Victim and Offender: Rand, Michael. *Criminal Victimization*, 2008. Bureau of Justice Statistics. U.S. Department of Justice. NCJ 227777. September 2009. Table 6.

Chart: National Crime Victimization Survey. Note: Includes both attempted and completed rapes. Data for 2006 are excluded. Changes to the NCVS and their impact upon the survey's estimates in 2006 are discussed in the Criminal Victimization, 2006 Technical Notes. All data are based on collection year and include series crimes and may differ slightly from previously published estimates for this reason.

5. Women are at greater risk than men for stalking victimization.

Bullets and Chart: Baum, K., Catalano, S., Rand, M., and Rose, K., *Stalking Victimization in the United States*. Bureau of Justice Statistics. Office of Justice Programs. U.S. Department of Justice. January 2009. NCJ 224527.

6. Females account for a small but growing share of persons arrested for violent crimes other than homicide.

Property Crimes: Unpublished estimates by Bureau of Justice Statistics using Federal Bureau of Investigation Uniform Crime Reports, 1990-2008, performed June 2010.

Age: Unpublished estimates by Bureau of Justice Statistics using Federal Bureau of Investigation Uniform Crime Reports, 2008, performed June 2010.

Drug Abuse Violations: Unpublished estimates by Bureau of Justice Statistics using Federal Bureau of Investigation Uniform Crime Reports, 2008, performed June 2010.

Chart: Unpublished estimates by Bureau of Justice Statistics using Federal Bureau of Investigation Uniform Crime Reports, 1985-2008, performed June 2010.

7. Females are convicted more frequently for property crimes than for violent crimes.

Property crime comprises larceny (including shoplifting), burglary, and fraud/forgery.

Women's Share of Persons Convicted: Property Crimes: Unpublished estimates by Bureau of Justice Statistics using data from National Judicial Reporting Program, 2006, performed June 2010.

Race/Ethnicity: Unpublished estimates by Bureau of Justice Statistics using data from National Judicial Reporting Program, 2006, performed June 2010.

Chart: Unpublished estimates by Bureau of Justice Statistics using data from National Judicial Reporting Program, 2006, performed June 2010.

8. The imprisonment rate for females has increased significantly.

Background of Incarcerated Persons: Drug use data taken from U.S. Department of Justice, Bureau of Justice Statistics, *Drug Use and Dependence, State and Federal Prisoners, 2004* (NCJ 213530), available at <http://bjs.ojp.usdoj.gov/content/pub/pdf/dudsfp04.pdf>. Physical and/or sexual abuse data based on unpublished estimates by Bureau of Justice Statistics using Survey of Inmates in State and Federal Correctional Facilities, 2004, performed June 2010.

Correctional Supervision: Unpublished estimates by Bureau of Justice Statistics using data from Annual Probation Survey, Annual Parole Survey, Annual Survey of Jails, Census of Jail Inmates, and National Prisoner Statistics Program, performed June 2010.

Difference in Sentencing: U.S. Department of Justice, Bureau of Justice Statistics, *Felony Sentences in State Courts, 2006 - Statistical Tables*.
<http://bjs.ojp.usdoj.gov/index.cfm?ty=pbdetail&iid=2152>.

Race/Ethnicity: The source of data regarding imprisonment rates is the National Prisoner Statistics data collection. The most recent report for the time period covered in this chart is *Prisoners in 2008* (NCJ 228417), available at <http://bjs.ojp.usdoj.gov/content/pub/pdf/p08.pdf>. The source of data regarding cumulative imprisonment rates to age 30 is *Prevalence of Imprisonment in the U.S. Population, 1974-2001* (NCJ 197976), available at <http://bjs.ojp.usdoj.gov/content/pub/pdf/piusp01.pdf>

The imprisonment data for Whites and Blacks do not include people of Hispanic origin.

Chart: Note: Imprisonment rate is defined as the number of inmates sentenced to more than 1 year under the jurisdiction of state or Federal correctional authorities per 1,000 U.S. residents. The source of all data is the National Prisoner Statistics data collection. The most recent report for the time period covered in this chart is *Prisoners in 2008* (NCJ 228417), available at <http://bjs.ojp.usdoj.gov/content/pub/pdf/p08.pdf>.



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