

# Briefing Paper



IWPR #507

February 2016

## The Gender Wage Gap and Public Policy

### Introduction

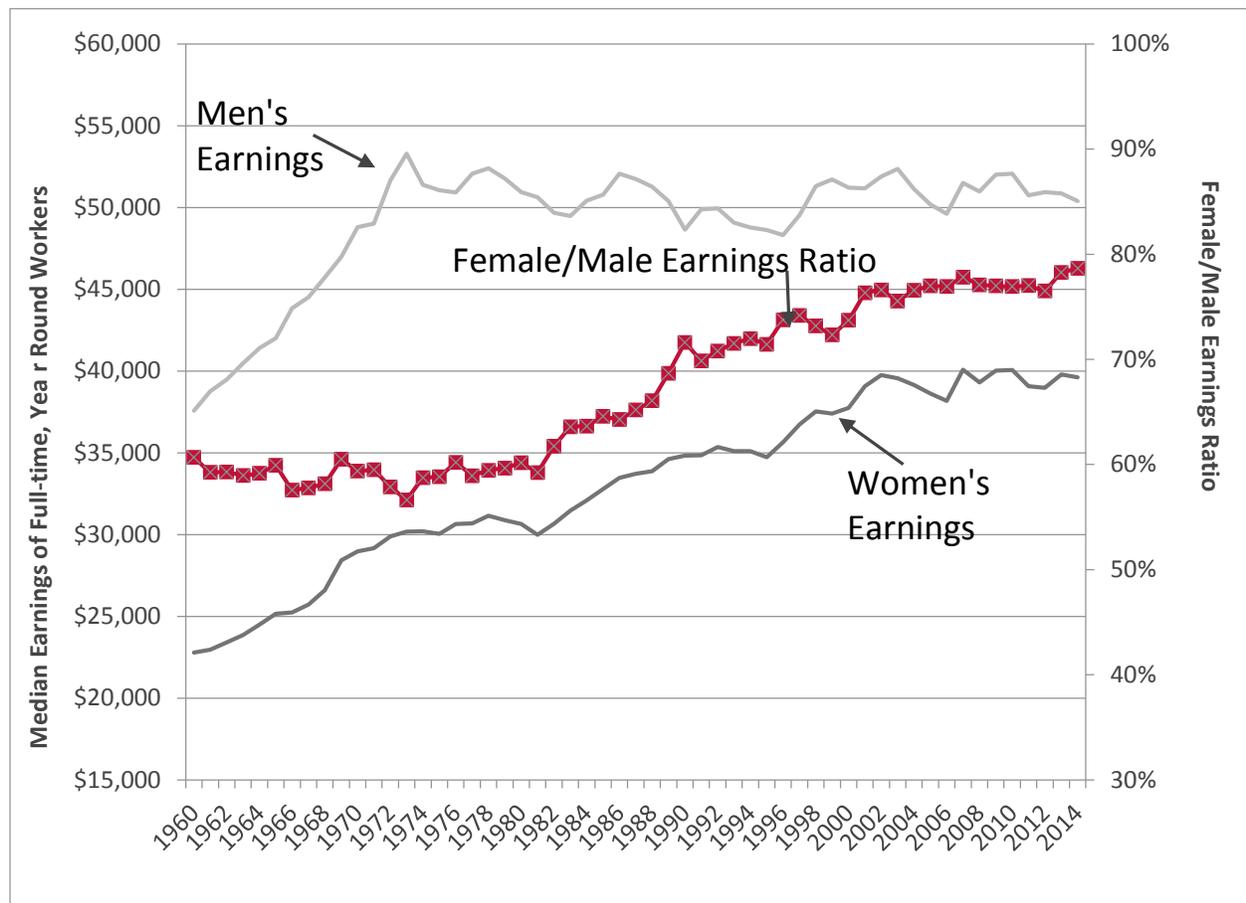
Women's earnings are crucial to their families' economic well-being. Women are close to half of all employees in the United States, they are half of all workers with college degrees, and they are the co- or main breadwinners in close to two thirds of families with children,<sup>1</sup> yet they persistently earn less than men. Whether the gender wage gap is measured based on annual, weekly or hourly earnings, within or across occupations, women's median earnings are lower than men's. If progress toward closing the gender wage gap continues at the same pace as during recent decades, women and men will not reach equal pay until 2058 (Hess et al. 2015).

This briefing paper sets out the basic facts about the gender wage gap, summarizing data on earnings differences between women and men by race and ethnicity, education, and occupation. It then discusses reasons for the gender wage gap, its consequences for women and their families, and policies that can help to close it.

### Basic Facts on the Gender Wage Gap

Following significant progress toward closing the gender wage gap during the 1980s and 1990s, the last decade has seen no further improvement. In 2014, women who worked full-time year-round had median earnings<sup>2</sup> of only 78.6 percent of what men earned across all occupations. This represents a gender wage gap of 21.4 percent and close to \$10,800 in lower earnings. This is the most common measure of the gender wage gap. Calculating the gender wage gap for full-time, year round workers allows the longest historical comparison of earnings data.<sup>3</sup> One of the reasons for the narrowing of the gender wage gap during the 1980s and 1990s was the stagnation of men's earnings in real terms while women's earnings, from a lower base, continued to grow. Yet, during the last decade, women's earnings have also failed to grow. Figure 1 tracks the gender earnings ratio and median earnings for women and men since 1960.

**Figure 1. Women’s and Men’s Median Annual Earnings and the Gender Earnings Ratio, 1960-2014**



Notes: Full-time, year round workers in the civilian labor force, aged 15 years and older. From 2014 CPS ASEC applied redesigned income questions; the 2013 estimate of the gender earnings ratio under the old survey design was 78.3-shown here, not significantly different from the measure estimated on the new design (77.6).  
 Source: IWPR compilation based on Table A-4 in DeNavas-Walt, Carmen and Bernadette D. Proctor, U.S. Census Bureau, Current Population Reports, P60-252, Income and Poverty in the United States: 2014, U.S. Government Printing Office, Washington, DC, 2015.

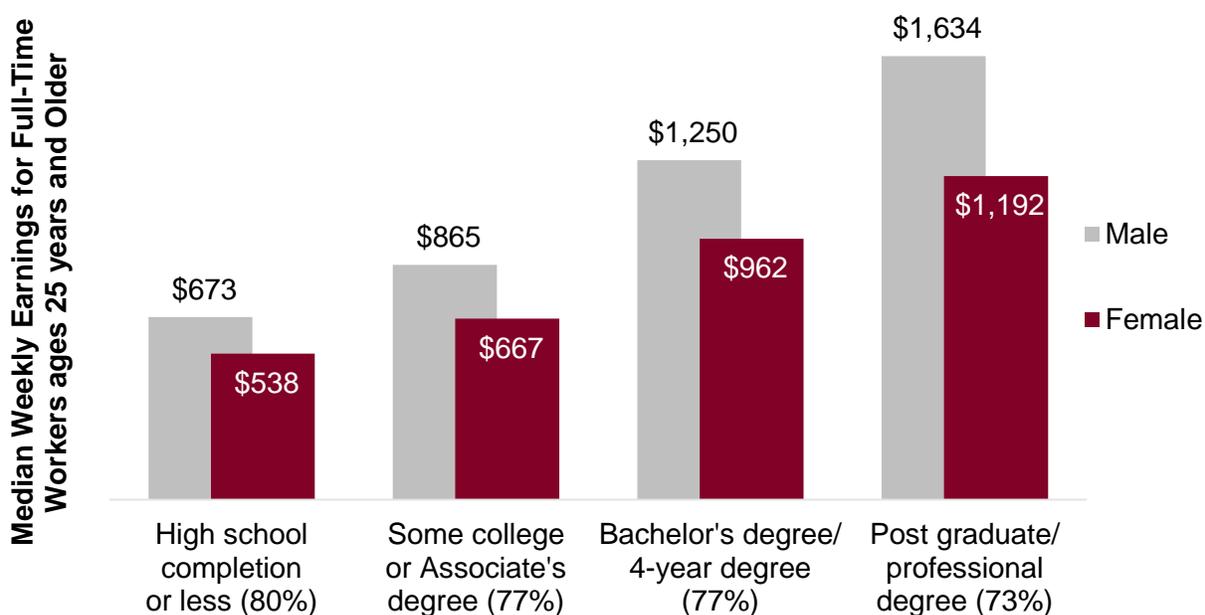
### A Wage Gap Even in Female-Dominated Professions

Whether women work in occupations that are mainly done by women, mainly done by men, or fairly integrated between men and women, they earn, on average, less than men. Among the 20 most common occupations for women and 20 most common occupations for men, ‘Financial managers’ face the largest gender gap in earnings: women’s median weekly earnings for full-time work were only 67.4 percent of men’s in 2014; for ‘retail salespersons’ workers’ the gender earnings ratio was 70.3 percent (IWPR 2015). Even in teaching and nursing, heavily professionalized occupations with a strong union presence, women’s earnings are below those of men: women elementary and middle school teachers had median weekly earnings of 87.2 percent of men working in the occupation, and women registered nurses had earnings of 90.4 percent of male registered nurses (IWPR 2015).

## Education and the Wage Gap

Educational attainment raises earnings but it does not eliminate the gender wage gap. Figure 2 compares weekly earnings for full-time workers- all at least 25 years of age- by highest level of educational attainment. For both women and men, earnings are substantially higher for those with higher levels of education. The median weekly earnings for women with a high school credential or less were only \$538, in comparison to women with some college (\$667), a Bachelor’s degree (\$962) or a graduate or professional degree (\$1,192). Yet, the gender wage gap exists at every level of education, and women with graduate degrees experience the widest wage ratio of 73 percent, earning almost \$450 less per week than their male counterparts.

**Figure 2. Median Weekly Earnings for Women and Men at Different Levels of Educational Attainment, 2013**



Notes: Full-time workers (working at least 35 hours per week) aged 25 years and older in the civilian workforce; percentage in brackets shows women’s earnings as percent of men’s.

Source: IWPR microdata analysis of Current Population Survey Outgoing Rotation Group as provided by the Center for Economic and Policy Research.

## The Wage Gap for Women of Color

Hispanic and black women have much lower earnings than white and Asian women and men. In 2014, the largest wage gap in median weekly earnings was for Hispanic women, who earned \$548 a week and only 61 percent of what white men earned (\$897). There was also a considerable wage gap for African-American women whose median weekly earnings of \$611 were 68 percent of what white men earned. The wage gap was smaller for Asian women (94 percent) and white women (82 percent) due to their higher median weekly earnings of \$841 (for Asian women) and \$734 (for white women; Hegewisch, Ellis, and Hartmann 2015).

Differences in earnings by race and ethnicity are partly a reflection of higher educational attainment of Asian and white women, compared with African American and Hispanic women. Yet, having higher levels of education does not eliminate earnings differences between women. In 2013, the median weekly earnings for Asian women with a Bachelor's degree were \$1,157, compared with \$980 for white women, \$900 for African American women, and \$865 for Hispanic women.<sup>4</sup>

## **The Wage Gap by Age**

Women's earnings are closer to their male counterparts at the beginning of their careers but the wage gap increases over time. From the ages of 25 to 34, women's median weekly earnings (for full-time workers) are about 90 percent of men's earnings (U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics 2015). As women age, the gap widens considerably: Women between the ages of 35 and 44 earn 81 percent of what men earn, while women between the ages of 45 and 54 earn about 77 percent, and women ages 55-64 just 76.4 percent of what men earn (U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics 2015). This widening of the pay gap corresponds to the years when families' childcare and caregiving responsibilities are the greatest.

## **Causes of the Gender Wage Gap**

A number of factors contribute to the gender wage gap, including discrimination, occupational segregation and the undervaluation of work typically done by women, the low minimum wage, and women's caregiving responsibilities.

### **Discrimination**

Researchers have estimated that 38 percent of the total gap in earnings between men and women may be the result of discrimination (Blau and Kahn 2016).<sup>5</sup> Discriminating against women in employment is illegal, and has been for 50 years. Congress passed the Equal Pay Act in 1963, requiring employers to give male and female employees "equal pay for equal work." This was followed in 1964 with passage of the Civil Rights Act, prohibiting all discrimination in hiring, firing, promotion, and wages on the basis of race, color, religion, sex, or national origin (U.S. Equal Opportunities Commission n.d.).

One challenge for women (and men) in uncovering discrimination is the lack of transparency in earnings. A survey conducted by IWPR found that the majority of workers in the private sector (62 percent of women and 60 percent of men) say that they are either contractually forbidden or strongly discouraged from discussing their earnings with coworkers (IWPR 2014a). In the absence of pay transparency, court cases have revealed different aspects of discrimination, from outright wage discrimination (paying women lower hourly rates than men for the same work), discrimination in promotions, restricting women's access to the jobs with the highest commission payments, to inequality in access to the most lucrative clients (Hegewisch, Deitch and Murphy 2011).

### **Occupational Segregation and the Undervaluation of Women's Work**

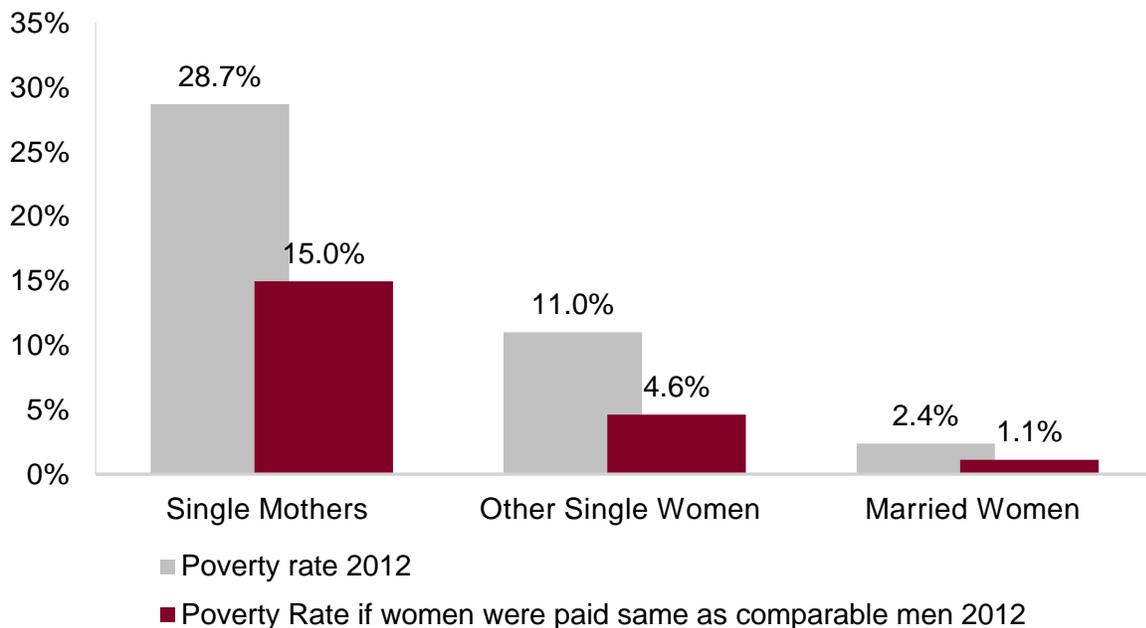
Four in ten women work in occupations where at least 75 percent of workers are women. On average, these occupations have lower earnings than more mixed or predominantly male occupations. The gap in earnings is particularly large in occupations requiring at least 4 years of college (Hegewisch and Hartmann 2014). For example, the median earnings of librarians or elementary and middle school teacher (occupations that are mainly done by women) are much lower than the median earnings of a civil engineer or software developer (occupations mainly done by men; U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics 2015a). The median hourly earnings of pre-school teachers (a job that requires at least an Associate's degree) are

lower than the median hourly earnings of construction laborers and helpers, a job that does not require completed high school education (U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics 2014b).

During the 1970s and 1980s, considerable progress was made towards breaking down occupational segregation by sex, with more women entering male-dominated occupations. This was a period when Title IX opened doors for women, civil rights laws and affirmative action broke down barriers for women, and advocacy focused on expanding opportunities for women in non-traditional occupations (AAUW 2014). Since the mid-1990s, progress toward integrating male-dominated occupations to achieve a more even balance between women and men has stalled (Hegewisch and Hartmann 2014).

IWPR estimates that if women's work was valued as much as men's, and if women were to receive the same hourly rate of pay as men with the same levels of education and experience, women's poverty would be cut in half (Figure 3).

**Figure 3. Equal Pay Would Reduce Poverty by Half for Families with a Working Woman**



Source: Hartmann, Hayes and Clark. 2014.

## Women's Concentration in Low-Wage Jobs and the Low Minimum Wage

Women are the majority of workers in occupations such as cashiers, nursing, psychiatric and home health aides, and maids and housekeeping cleaners, occupations with such low median earnings that working full-time, year round would leave a worker supporting a household of four below the federal poverty line (Hegewisch and Ellis 2015). In 2014, almost two of three workers who were paid at or below the minimum wage were women (U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics 2015b). The federal minimum wage is just \$7.25 an hour and the federal minimum wage for tipped workers (mostly restaurant workers) is only \$2.13 an hour. Because neither minimum wage is indexed for inflation, the buying power of the minimum wage has decreased over time. This is a principal factor in poverty among women and families: 40 hours per week paid at the federal minimum wage for 52 weeks a year (and many low wage jobs do not provide

an opportunity for such regular full-time earnings) translates into annual earnings of only \$15,080, too little to lift a family of one adult and child above the federal poverty threshold (U.S. Department of Health and Human Services 2014).

## **Women's Caregiving Responsibilities**

The fact that women remain the primary caregivers in our society is an important factor in the pay gap. Mothers spend almost twice as many hours on childcare (13.5 hours) as fathers (7.3 hours; Parker and Wang 2013). Two out of three unpaid caregivers for sick, elderly, or disabled family members are women (National Alliance for Caregiving and AARP. 2009). Nearly 20 percent of employed caregivers report that they have missed professional opportunities, suffered financial losses, and/or needed to take time off from work due to caregiving responsibilities (Glynn and Farrell 2014).

Although women are close to half of all workers, and close to 70 percent of mothers of children under 18 are in the labor force ( U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics 2014) employer and government policies have not caught up to this reality. Lack of quality, affordable child care can create significant conflict for working mothers (and fathers). With the annual cost of full-time child care ranging from \$3,900 to \$15,000, many working parents simply cannot afford child care. In many states, long waiting lists for child care assistance means that many families wait months before a slot opens up, and for many, that time never comes (Schulman and Blank 2013).

Policies to cover job-protected leave for caregiving are woefully inadequate. The Family and Medical Leave Act (FMLA) provides up to 12 weeks annually of job-protected, unpaid leave to employees in firms with 50 or more employees to be used for their own illness, to care for a new child, or to care for a sick family member. This restriction in coverage leaves four in ten workers without a right to FMLA leave (Klerman, Daley and Pozniac 2014). For women who need time off for childbirth or to care for a seriously ill child or adult relative, this can mean losing their job, leading not only to short term financial hardship but also restricting their wage growth over time.

## **Consequences of the Gender Wage Gap**

The wage gap has a significant impact on the economic security of women and families.

### **Poverty**

The gender wage gap is a major factor in high poverty rates among women (Hartmann, Hayes and Clark 2014). In 2014, 16 percent of women were living in poverty, compared with 13 percent of men (U.S. Census Bureau 2016b).

### **Lost Earnings over a Lifetime**

The gender wage gap also has a cumulative effect on women's lifetime earnings. The National Women's Law Center (2014a) estimates that over a lifetime of working full-time, year round, the wage gap results in lost earnings of \$464,320 for a typical woman who worked full time, year round. In practice the loss of earnings is even greater because women are less likely to work full-time for each year of their working lives and are more likely than men to spend some time working part-time or to leave paid employment for a time to raise children or care for family members. When comparing all men and women (not only those

who worked full-time) one study found that over a 15 year period women's earnings were no more than 38 percent of men's (Rose and Hartmann 2004).

## Retirement Income Gap

Lower lifetime earnings, combined with different work patterns, translate into a retirement income gap as well. In 2011, the average annual Social Security income received by women 65 years and older was \$10,418, compared with \$13,234 for men (Fischer and Hayes 2013). Fewer women than men receive income from pensions (29 and 46 percent respectively; Fischer and Hayes 2013) and when they do, pension payments received typically are lower than those received by men: women's median annual pension income (\$9600) was only 57 percent of men's pension income (\$16,800; Employee Benefit Research Institute 2014).

## Impact on Two-Earner Families

The pay gap has a significant impact on the economic security of families who rely on both parents' earnings. Over the last forty years, families have increasingly come to rely on women's financial contributions. The proportion of married mothers who were the main or co-breadwinners (those bringing home at least a quarter of their families' earnings) more than doubled from 28 percent in 1967 to 64 percent in 2010 (Boushey 2014). Women's earnings are especially important to dual-earner families with low incomes: In 2011, 70 percent of wives in households in the bottom fifth of the income distribution earned as much or more than their husbands, compared with 33 percent in the couples in the highest income bracket (Boushey 2014). In other words, because two-earner families rely so heavily on women's earnings, higher earnings for men in these families do not compensate for the lower wages that women are paid.

## Single Mother Households

The impact of the gender wage gap is particularly severe on the 8.6 million families headed by a single mother. In 2013, the median total family income of female-headed families was only \$23,726 (U.S. Census Bureau 2014). The rise in families headed by a single mother has been a major change over the last fifty years: the proportion of families headed by a woman with children under the age of 18 tripled from just 8 percent in 1963 to 25 percent of all households with children in 2013 (U.S. Census Bureau 2014a). Close to half of all children of single mothers (45.8 percent) live in poverty (DeNavas and Proctor 2014). Lower earnings as a result of the gender wage gap make it harder for single mothers to provide economic security for their families and themselves.

## Closing the Gender Wage Gap

Closing the gender wage gap requires a concerted effort on a number of policy fronts, including greater pay transparency and increased enforcement of anti-discrimination laws, measures to tackle women's concentration in lower paid, predominantly female occupations, an increase in the minimum wage, and improved work family supports.

## Strengthen Equal Pay Laws

The *Lilly Ledbetter Fair Pay Act of 2009*, the first piece of legislation signed into law by President Obama, represented an important step toward equal pay. This legislation clarifies that pay discrimination occurs each time a woman receives a discriminatory pay check, not just when an employer first makes a

discriminatory pay decision, giving her 180 days to make a discrimination complaint to the Equal Employment Opportunity Commission after each pay check is received (AAUW 2014). Yet, the *Lilly Ledbetter Fair Pay Act* left unaddressed one of the central problems for Lilly Ledbetter in her discrimination case, that her employer prohibited employees from discussing their pay. The *Paycheck Fairness Act* would make it illegal for employers to retaliate against employees who discussed their pay rates with other workers; it would also increase data collection on earnings and update the Equal Pay Act by clarifying the “legitimate business reasons” for unequal pay and by aligning the level of available remedies with those available for employment discrimination claims brought under Title VII of the Civil Rights Act. Although the House of Representatives passed the *Paycheck Fairness Act* in 2009, the Senate defeated it in 2012. The *Paycheck Fairness Act* was reintroduced in the 114<sup>th</sup> Congress (Congress.gov 2016).

Eleven states have passed laws against pay secrecy, and several states have passed laws to strengthen other aspects of pay fairness (Hess et al 2015; National Women’s Law Center 2016). At the federal level, since January 2016 private employers selling goods or services to the government are also prohibited from retaliating against employees discussing their pay (U.S. Department of Labor 2015a). Rule to oblige federal contractors and larger employers to submit equal pay reports, as part of general reporting rules on equal employment opportunities, are in preparation (U.S. Department of Labor 2015b; U.S. Equal Employment Opportunities Commission 2016).

## **Tackle Women’s Underrepresentation in High-Wage, Predominantly Male Occupations**

A number of program and policy interventions can help to expand opportunities for women in technical jobs and the trades (e.g., jobs in construction, plumbing, and transportation) as well as jobs in the STEM fields of science, technology, computing, and math. Reauthorization of the *Perkins Career and Technical Education Improvement Act* provides an important opportunity to increase training slots for women and girls in nontraditional fields by strengthening the provisions that hold states accountable for serving underrepresented groups (National Coalition for Women & Girls in Education and National Coalition on Women, Jobs, and Job Training 2013). In addition, federal agencies must establish clear guidelines, measures, and enforcement mechanisms to ensure compliance with Title IX in STEM fields at institutions of higher learning, including community colleges (Costello 2012).

## **Raise the Minimum Wage**

Raising the minimum wage is a critical step toward closing the wage gap. Proposals to increase the minimum wage include *The Fair Minimum Wage Act* and the *Minimum Wage Fairness Act*, which would increase the federal minimum wage to \$10.10 an hour by 2016, and gradually raise the tipped minimum wage to 70 percent of the minimum wage—and both minimums would be indexed for inflation. The majority of workers benefiting from this law would be women. Such an initiative would increase wages for more than 15 million women, more than one in five of whom is a working mother (NWLC 2014b). Twenty nine states and the District of Columbia have had successful campaigns to raise the state minimum wage above the federal level and/or increase the minimum wage for tipped workers (U.S. Department of Labor 2015c).

## **Support Unionization of Working Women**

Unionization of working women would also help to narrow the wage gap (Anderson, Hegewisch, and Hayes 2015). On average, women who are members of or represented by a union earn about 13 percent (or about \$2.50 an hour) more than non-union female workers with similar characteristics. Unionized

women are also more likely to have an employer-provided pension plan and health insurance than their non-union counterparts (Schmitt and Woo 2013). Unionizing women in fields that employ large numbers of women such as nursing and child care could narrow the wage gap in those occupations.

## Strengthen Work-Family Policies

Policies to support women's caregiving responsibilities are important to helping them remain in the labor force (or smoothly re-enter after an absence). Such supports include paid family and medical leave, earned sick days, an expansion of quality, affordable childcare and early education, including universal pre-kindergarten, as well as supports for families caring for elderly relatives or a family member with a disability. This is critical for women's ability to contribute to their families' economic security and save for their own retirement.

## Notes

<sup>1</sup>Co-breadwinner is defined as a mother who contributes at least 25 percent of the family's income (Boushey 2014).

<sup>2</sup> 'Full-time, year-round' includes everyone who works at least 35 hours per week for at least 50 weeks of the year. Median earnings are the mid-point of the earnings distribution, where approximately 50 percent of earners earn less, and 50 percent more; the median is less likely to be skewed by a few very high earning individuals than the mean or average of all earnings.

<sup>3</sup> The gender earnings ratio (and its inverse, the gender wage gap) can also be measured by comparing the median weekly earnings of women and men. Unlike the annual earnings measure, the weekly measure excludes the self-employed and does not capture annual bonus or commissions. Because gender inequality is larger among the self-employed and those getting annual bonus, the weekly gender wage gap is typically lower than the annual gender wage gap. In 2013, the weekly gender earnings ratio was 82 percent, a gender wage gap of 22 percent. The gender wage gap is lowest for hourly paid workers; in 2012 the median hourly earnings ratio was 86 percent, a gender wage gap of 14 percent (U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics 2013). The hourly ratio is lower for two reasons: hourly workers are more likely to work in occupations where earnings are lower for all workers, men and women; and the measure includes women who work part-time in professional jobs; part-time work in better paid occupations is much less common for men than women.

<sup>4</sup> IWPR microdata analysis of Current Population Survey Outgoing Rotation Group as provided by the Center for Economic and Policy Research.

<sup>5</sup> Such studies first examine the impact of other factors that would be expected to influence wages, such as age, work experience, hours worked, education, and occupation; the wage gap that remains unexplained after all known factors are taken into account is considered possibly or likely the result of discrimination (Hartmann 2012).

## References

American Association of University Women (AAUW). 2014. *The Simple Truth about the Gender Pay Gap (2014 edition)*. Washington, DC: American Association of University Women. <<http://www.aauw.org/files/2014/03/The-Simple-Truth.pdf>> (accessed March 20, 2014).

Anderson, Julie, Ariane Hegewisch, and Jeff Hayes. 2015. "The Union Advantage for Women." Briefing Paper, IWPR #R409. Washington, DC: Institute for Women's Policy Research.

Blau, Francine and Lawrence D. Kahn. 2016. "The Gender Wage Gap: Extent, Trends, and Explanations." *NBER Working Paper* No. 21913. Cambridge, MA: National Bureau of Economic Research. <<http://www.nber.org/papers/w21913>> (accessed February 8, 2016).

Boushey, Heather. 2014. "A Woman's Workplace Is in the Middle Class." In *The Shriver Report: A Woman's Nation Pushes Back from the Brink*, ed. Olivia Morgan and Karen Skelton. New York: Rosetta Books, pp. 48-96.

Congress.gov. 2016. "H.R.1619 - Paycheck Fairness Act." <<https://www.congress.gov/bill/114th-congress/house-bill/1619>> (accessed January 16, 2016).

Costello, Cynthia. 2012. *Increasing Opportunities for Low-Income Women and Student Parents in Science, Technology, Engineering and Math at Community Colleges*. Report, IWPR #C388. Washington DC: Institute for Women's Policy Research.

DeNavas-Walt, Carmen, and Bernadette D. Proctor. 2014. *Income, Poverty, and Health Insurance Coverage in the United States: 2013*. U.S. Census Bureau, Current Population Reports P60-245. Washington, DC: U.S. Government Printing Office. <<http://www.census.gov/content/dam/Census/library/publications/2014/demo/p60-249.pdf>> (accessed September 24, 2014).

"Developing America's Potential: An Agenda for Affordable, High Quality Child Care." n.d. Developed and endorsed by the American Federation of state, County and Municipal Employees; Center for law and Social Policy; The Children's Project; Early Care and Education Consortium; National Association for the Education of Young Children; National Association for Family Child Care; National Council of La Raza, National Women's Law Center, Service Employees International Union; and Zero to Three. <<https://www.naeyc.org/files/naeyc/file/policy/federal/ChildCareAgenda.pdf>> (accessed March 30, 2014).

Employee Benefit Research Institute (EBRI). 2014. "EBRI Databook on Employee Benefits." <<http://www.ebri.org/publications/books/index.cfm?fa=databook>> (accessed March 30, 2014).

Fischer, Jocelyn and Jeff Hayes. 2013. *The Importance of Social Security in the Incomes of Older Americans: Differences by Gender, Age, Race/Ethnicity, and Marital Status*. Briefing Paper, IWPR #D503. Washington, DC: Institute for Women's Policy Research.

Glynn, Sarah Jane and Jane Farrell. 2014. *Family Matters: Caregiving in America*. Washington, DC: Center for American Progress. <<https://cdn.americanprogress.org/wp-content/uploads/2014/02/Caregiving-brief.pdf>> (accessed March 29, 2014).

Hartmann, Heidi. 2012. "Obama is Right about his Wage Gap Statistics." Blog post on June 13, 2012. <<http://www.iwpr.org/blog/2012/06/13/obama-is-right-about-his-wage-gap-statistics/>> (accessed March 23, 2014).

Hartmann, Heidi, Jeffrey Hayes, and Jennifer Clark. 2014. "How Equal Pay Would Reduce Poverty and Grow the American Economy." Briefing Paper, IWPR #C411. Washington DC: Institute for Women's Policy Research.

Hegewisch, Ariane, Cynthia Deitch and Evelyn Murphy. 2011. *Ending Sex and Race Discrimination in the Workplace*. Report, IWPR #379. Washington, DC: Institute for Women's Policy Research.

Hegewisch, Ariane and Heidi Hartmann. 2014. "Occupational Segregation and the Gender Wage Gap: A Job Half Done" *Scholars' Paper Series in commemoration of the 50th Anniversary of American Women: Report of the President's Commission on the Status of Women, 1963*. Washington, DC: U.S. Department of Labor. <<http://www.dol.gov/asp/evaluation/reports/WBPaperSeries.pdf>> (accessed. March 9, 2015).

Hegewisch, Ariane, Emily Ellis, and Heidi Hartmann. 2015. "The Gender Wage Gap: 2014; Earnings Differences by Race and Ethnicity." Fact Sheet, IWPR #C430. Washington DC: Institute for Women's Policy Research. <<http://www.iwpr.org/publications/pubs/the-gender-wage-gap-2014-earnings-differences-by-race-and-ethnicity>> (accessed January 8, 2016).

Hess, Cynthia et al. 2015. *The Status of Women in the States: 2015* Washington, DC: Institute for Women's Policy Research. <<http://statusofwomendata.org/app/uploads/2015/02/Status-of-Women-in-the-States-2015-Full-National-Report.pdf>> (accessed February 2, 2016).

Institute for Women's Policy Research. 2014a. *Pay Secrecy and Wage Discrimination*. Quick Figure, IWPR #Q016. Washington DC: Institute for Women's Policy Research.

Institute for Women's Policy Research. 2014b. IWPR analysis of data from the 2013 American Community Survey accessed through American Fact Finder. Table B17001B-D, H-I. Poverty Status in the Past 12 Months by Sex by Age. <[http://factfinder2.census.gov/faces/tableservices/jsf/pages/productview.xhtml?\\_afpt=table](http://factfinder2.census.gov/faces/tableservices/jsf/pages/productview.xhtml?_afpt=table)> (accessed October 22, 2014).

Institute for Women's Policy Research. 2015. IWPR calculations based on "Table 39. Median weekly earnings of full-time wage and salary workers by detailed occupation and sex, 2014" from the U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics. *Labor Force Statistics from the Current Population Survey*; on the internet at <<http://www.bls.gov/cps/cpsaat39.htm>> (accessed February 20, 2015).

Klerman, Jacob Alex, Kelly Daley, and Alyssa Pozniak. 2014. *Family and Medical Leave in 2012: Technical Report*. Cambridge, MA: Abt Associates, Inc. <<http://www.dol.gov/asp/evaluation/fmla/FMLA-2012-Technical-Report.pdf>> (accessed March 9, 2015).

National Alliance for Caregiving and AARP. 2009. *Caregiving in the U.S. 2009*. National Alliance for Caregiving. Washington, DC: National Alliance for Caregiving in collaboration with AARP. <[http://www.caregiving.org/data/Caregiving\\_in\\_the\\_US\\_2009\\_full\\_report.pdf](http://www.caregiving.org/data/Caregiving_in_the_US_2009_full_report.pdf)> (accessed October 20, 2014)

National Coalition for Women & Girls in Education and National Coalition on Women, Jobs, and Job Training. 2013. *Education Data Show Gender Gap in Career Preparation*. Washington, DC: National Coalition for Women & Girls in Education and National Coalition on Women, Jobs, and Job Training. <<http://www.iwpr.org/publications/pubs/education-data-show-gender-gap-in-career-preparation>> (accessed March 28, 2014).

National Women's Law Center (NWLC). 2014a. "How the Wage Gap Hurts Women and Families." <<http://www.nwlc.org/resource/how-wage-gap-hurts-women-and-families>> (accessed March 22, 2014).

National Women's Law Center (NWLC). 2014b. *10 Reasons Raising the Minimum Wage to \$10.10 is a Women's Issue*. Washington DC: National Women's Law Center. <[http://www.nwlc.org/sites/default/files/pdfs/10.10\\_minimumwagefactsheet\\_green.pdf](http://www.nwlc.org/sites/default/files/pdfs/10.10_minimumwagefactsheet_green.pdf)> (accessed March 22, 2014).

National Women's Law Center (NWLC). 2016. "Progress in the States for Equal Pay." Washington, DC: NWLC <<http://nwlc.org/wp-content/uploads/2016/01/Progress-in-the-States-for-Equal-Pay-1.29.161.pdf>> (accessed February 2, 2016).

Parker, Kim and Wendy Wang. 2013. *Modern Parenthood Roles of Moms and Dads Converge as They Balance Work and Family*. Washington, DC: Pew Research Center. <[http://www.pewsocialtrends.org/files/2013/03/FINAL\\_modern\\_parenthood\\_03-2013.pdf](http://www.pewsocialtrends.org/files/2013/03/FINAL_modern_parenthood_03-2013.pdf)> (accessed October 20, 2014).

- Rose, Stephen and Heidi Hartmann. 2004. *Still a Man's Labor Market*. Report, IWPR #C355. Washington, DC: Institute for Women's Policy Research.
- Schmitt, John and Nicole Woo. 2013. *Women Workers and Unions*. Washington DC: Center for Economic and Policy. <<http://www.cepr.net/documents/union-women-2013-12.pdf>> (accessed March 21, 2014).
- The White House. 2014. *The Impact of Raising the Minimum Wage for Women and the Importance of Ensuring a Robust Tipped Minimum Wage*. Report prepared by the National Economic Council, the Council of Economic Advisers, the Domestic Policy Council, and the Department of Labor. Washington, DC: The White House. <<http://www.whitehouse.gov/sites/default/files/docs/20140325minimumwageandwomenreportfinal.pdf>> (accessed March 22, 2014).
- U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics. 2014. *Women in the Labor Force: A Databook*. Report #1040. Washington, DC: U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics. <<http://www.bls.gov/cps/wlf-databook-2013.pdf>> (accessed May 29, 2014).
- U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics. 2015a. "Labor Force Statistics from the Current Population Survey: Table 39. Median Weekly Earnings of Full-time Wage and Salary Workers by Detailed Occupation and Sex." <<http://www.bls.gov/cps/cpsaat39.pdf>> (accessed September 24, 2015).
- U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics. 2014b. "Occupational Outlook Handbook." <<http://www.bls.gov/ooh/>> (accessed September 24, 2014).
- U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics. 2015b. *Highlights of Women's Earnings in 2014*. Report #1058. Washington, DC: U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics. <<http://www.bls.gov/opub/reports/cps/highlights-of-womens-earnings-in-2014.pdf>> (accessed January 8, 2016).
- U.S. Department of Labor 2015a. "OFCCP Final Rule Promotes Pay Secrecy." <<http://www.dol.gov/ofccp/PayTransparency.html>> (accessed January 20, 2016).
- U.S. Department of Labor 2015b. "OFCCP Proposes Rule to Collect Summary Compensation Data from Contractors in New Equal Pay Report." <<http://www.dol.gov/ofccp/epr.html>> (accessed January 20, 2016).
- U.S. Department of Labor 2015c. "Minimum Wage Laws in the States - January 1, 2015." <<http://www.dol.gov/whd/minwage/america.htm#Consolidated>> (accessed January 20, 2015).
- U.S. Census Bureau. 2014. "Median Family Income in the Past 12 Months (in 2013 Inflation-Adjusted Dollars) by Family Type by Presence of Own Children under 18 Years" On the internet at <[http://factfinder2.census.gov/faces/tableservices/jsf/pages/productview.xhtml?pid=ACS\\_13\\_1YR\\_B19126&prodType=table](http://factfinder2.census.gov/faces/tableservices/jsf/pages/productview.xhtml?pid=ACS_13_1YR_B19126&prodType=table)> (accessed October 21, 2014).
- U.S. Census Bureau. 2014a. "Families and Living Arrangements: Table FM1." <<http://www.census.gov/hhes/families/data/families.html>> (accessed October 10, 2014).
- US Census Bureau. 2016. "Current Population Survey (CPS). CPS Table Creator." <<http://www.census.gov/cps/data/cpstablecreator.html>> (accessed January 12, 2016).
- U.S. Census Bureau. 2016b. "Poverty Thresholds by Size of Family and Number of Children—2014." <<http://www.census.gov/hhes/www/poverty/data/threshld/>> (accessed January 12, 2016).

U.S. Equal Employment Opportunities Commission. 2016. "EEOC Announces Proposed Addition of Pay Data to Annual EEO-1 Reports." Press Release 1-29-16. <<http://www.eeoc.gov/eeoc/newsroom/release/1-29-16.cfm>> (accessed February 2, 2016).

U.S. Equal Employment Opportunities Commission. n.d. "Facts About Equal Pay and Compensation Discrimination." <<http://www.eeoc.gov/eeoc/publications/fs-epa.cfm>> (accessed May 29, 2014).

*This briefing paper was prepared by Cynthia Costello and Ariane Hegewisch of the Institute for Women's Policy Research (IWPR), with support from the National Education Association.*

**For more information on IWPR reports or membership, please  
call (202) 785-5100, email [iwpr@iwpr.org](mailto:iwpr@iwpr.org), or visit [www.iwpr.org](http://www.iwpr.org).**

*The Institute for Women's Policy Research (IWPR) conducts rigorous research and disseminates its findings to address the needs of women, promote public dialogue, and strengthen families, communities, and societies. The Institute works with policymakers, scholars, and public interest groups to design, execute, and disseminate research that illuminates economic and social policy issues affecting women and their families, and to build a network of individuals and organizations that conduct and use women-oriented policy research. IWPR's work is supported by foundation grants, government grants and contracts, donations from individuals, and contributions from organizations and corporations. IWPR is a 501 (c) (3) tax-exempt organization that also works in affiliation with the women's studies and public policy and public administration programs at The George Washington University.*