

## ALL WORKING PEOPLE SHOULD BE ABLE TO SUPPORT THEMSELVES AND THEIR FAMILIES.

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#### ABOUT THE NATIONAL WOMEN'S LAW CENTER

The National Women's Law Center fights for gender justice—in the courts, in public policy, and in our society—working across the issues that are central to the lives of women and girls. NWLC uses the law in all its forms to change culture and drive solutions to the gender inequity that shapes our society and to break down the barriers that harm all of us—especially those who face multiple forms of discrimination, including women of color, LGBTQ people, and low-income women and families. For more than 45 years, NWLC has been on the leading edge of every major legal and policy victory for women.

#### **AUTHORS**

Jasmine Tucker, NWLC's Director of Research, and Julie Vogtman, NWLC's Director of Job Quality & Senior Counsel, authored this report.

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All working people should be able to support themselves and their families. But far too often, employers do not provide the wages, hours, or benefits that people need to achieve economic security and stability.

This is especially true for women, and for women of color most of all. Although women make up just under half of the workforce in the United States, they represent nearly twothirds of the workforce in the 40 lowest-paying jobs (referred to generally in this analysis as "low-paid jobs").1 Women of every race—especially Latinas, Native American women, and Black women—are overrepresented in low-paid jobs. Women born outside the United States, too, make up a larger share of the low-paid workforce than they do of the workforce overall.

This report examines who women in low-paid jobs are and how they were faring in 2018, the most recent year for which national data on poverty and income are available—and it finds that in a vear in which by some measures our economy was booming, millions of women in low-paid jobs were facing severe economic hardship. In 2020, as the covid-19 pandemic unfolds, it is these women and their families who are likely to be hit first and hardest by the recession that is sure to follow.

Women in low-paid jobs work hard serving food, cleaning homes and offices, caring for children and elderly adults, and more. But for generations, these essential tasks have been undervalued precisely because they are viewed as "women's work." Policy choices made by lawmakers and parallel patterns of private discrimination have reinforced power structures dominated by the largely white, male, and wealthy elites who built them-and have continued to push women, especially women of color, into poorly paid jobs and keep them there.<sup>3</sup> Employers are less likely to hire women than men for high-wage jobs, 4 and women are also discouraged from entering higher paying fields like science and engineering. 5 Employers' negative stereotypes about mothers and their ability and commitment to do higher level work also contribute to mothers' overrepresentation in the low-paid workforce. 6 and women of color—especially women of color who are mothers—face intersecting biases that make it even harder to get and keep good jobs.7 The failure to address the changing nature of work and of working families through public policy—which leads to the lack of paid leave and affordable child care, for example—also prevent women from advancing in the workplace.



More broadly, the rules of our economy allow-even encourage—employers to pay the women who care for our children and loved ones, keep our homes and workplaces clean, and serve our food wages that are so low they are left wondering whether they will be able to pay the rent. Lower tax rates on the highest earners encourage executives, managers, and other highly paid professionals (the majority of whom are white men) to bargain for ever higher compensation, exacerbating inequality with the women and people of color whose underpaid labor drives corporate profit.8 Decades of tax cuts on rising corporate profits and the incomes of the wealthy have also resulted in insufficient revenues, undermining public funding for Medicaid, child care assistance, and many more programs that are both a key source of women's jobs and a critical support for their families.9 And our laws have weakened unions and eroded labor standards,10 leaving employers free to maximize their own profits by minimizing their employees' pay.

## Too often, these structural barriers are masked by assumptions about who works in low-paid jobs and why.

But while many assume that those working for low wages are primarily people who have not completed high school, or teens holding their first jobs, or women who are working part-time to supplement a primary breadwinner's earnings, that is not the case. The vast majority of women in low-paid jobs are not teenagers, nor do they lack high school diplomas. Most who have children are the sole or primary breadwinner

for their families. Many are working full time and/or year-round—and many who are working part time would prefer to work more hours, or have caregiving responsibilities, school, or other obligations that preclude full-time work.

For millions of these women and their families, education and hard work is simply not enough to boost their incomes above the poverty line. And millions more live near poverty (defined here as household income below twice the federal poverty line), where a medical emergency, a car breakdown, or a few cut shifts can mean that families won't have enough to pay for basics, like food, rent, utilities, or child care. In fact, most families have to earn much more than twice the federal poverty line to make sure they can make ends meet: for example, while the official poverty line for a parent with two children in 2018 was \$20,231,11 the Economic Policy Institute estimates that a family of that size living in Columbus, Ohio, would need more than three times a poverty-level income (\$67,180) to maintain a basic but adequate standard of living12—and far more is necessary in higher cost regions.

The following analysis presents a profile of women working in low-paid jobs in 2018. It examines the rates at which they lived in and near poverty—with a focus on women of color and women supporting children, who face the highest risk of economic hardship. And it makes clear what a low unemployment rate often obscures: **having a job is no guarantee of having enough income to make ends meet.** 





### WHO ARE THE WOMEN WORKING IN LOW-PAID JOBS?

Across the United States, more than **22.2 million people work in the 40 lowest** 

paying jobs— and women make up nearly two-thirds (64 percent) of this workforce. 13

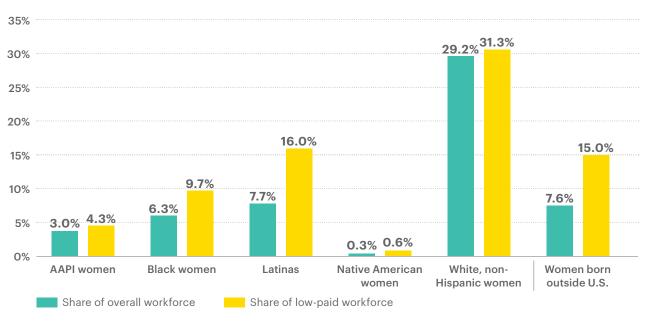
The work they do is vitally important to our economy and our society: they are child care workers, personal care and home health aides, restaurant servers, cooks, bartenders, cashiers, housekeepers, hair stylists, dry cleaners, and more. But employers typically pay people who hold these jobs less than \$12 per hour.

See **Appendix I** for median wages, size of the workforce, and share of the workforce who are women in each of the 40 lowest paying jobs.

- While women of every race are overrepresented in low-paid jobs compared to their share of the overall workforce, this disproportionate representation is especially stark for women of color.<sup>14</sup> See Figure 1.
  - Latinas make up a share of the low-paid workforce that is more than twice as large as their share of the workforce overall.
  - Native American women's share of the low-paid workforce is twice as large as their share of the workforce overall.
  - Black women's share of the low-paid workforce is 1.5 times larger than their share of the overall workforce.
  - o Asian American and Pacific Islander (AAPI) women's

- share of the low-paid workforce is about 1.3 times larger than their share of the overall workforce.
- White, non-Hispanic women's share of the low-paid workforce (31 percent) is the closest to proportionate, at only 1.1 times larger than their share of the workforce overall (29 percent).
- Women born outside of the United States are also overrepresented in the low-paid workforce, at roughly twice their share of the overall workforce. They make up nearly 8 percent of workers in the overall workforce and 15 percent of workers in the low-paid workforce.
- Seven percent of women in the low-paid workforce have a disability, compared to 6 percent in the workforce overall. 15 But while the share of women with disabilities in low-paid jobs is similar to their representation in the overall workforce, many women with disabilities are shut out of the workforce altogether—and some work in "sheltered workshops" in which federal law allows their employers to pay wages well below the minimum wage (see "Women with disabilities face substantial barriers to fair earnings and employment," next page).

Figure 1. Women in the Overall and Low-Paid Workforces by Race/Ethnicity and Nativity, 2018



## WOMEN WITH DISABILITIES FACE SUBSTANTIAL BARRIERS TO FAIR EARNINGS AND EMPLOYMENT

An economy in which overall unemployment is low often masks not only the quality of the jobs people hold but also the disparities in employment rates—as well as labor force participation rates—among different groups. This disparity is stark for the roughly one in four people in the United States living with a disability, <sup>16</sup> who face an unemployment rate that is twice that of the workforce overall and who participate in the labor force at less than half the rate of the total population. <sup>17</sup> In 2018, just 31 percent of women with a disability were in the labor force—compared to 71 percent of women without a disability, 83 percent of men without a disability, and 36 percent of men with a disability. <sup>18</sup> Workers with a disability, and especially working women with a disability, are also far more likely to work part time than their counterparts without a disability. <sup>19</sup>

The factors impacting employment opportunities for individuals with disabilities are varied and complex, <sup>20</sup> but research makes clear that stigma and discrimination play a role: one recent study, for example, found that employers were less likely to respond to applications from job candidates who disclosed disabilities, even when the candidates had qualifications equal to those without disabilities. <sup>21</sup> And while legislation like the Americans with Disabilities Act has established important protections, its implementation and enforcement has yet to fulfill its promise, <sup>22</sup> and federal and state policies too often still reflect and reinforce harmful assumptions about people with disabilities. To name just one striking example, the federal Fair Labor Standards Act and the law in most states allows employers to pay below minimum wage—sometimes just pennies per hour<sup>23</sup>—to people with disabilities working in segregated environments known as "sheltered workshops."<sup>24</sup> Policy makers have also failed to ensure that housing and transportation are affordable and accessible for people with disabilities, or to provide the additional services and supports necessary for people with disabilities and their families to thrive. <sup>25</sup> As a result of these structural barriers to employment and economic security, people with disabilities—particularly women and people of color—typically have lower incomes and face a higher risk of poverty and economic hardship than people without disabilities.<sup>26</sup>



Figure 2. Women in the Low-Paid Workforce by Age, 2018

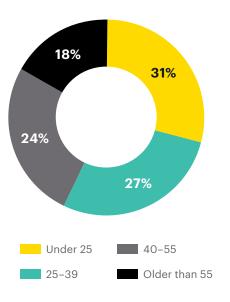
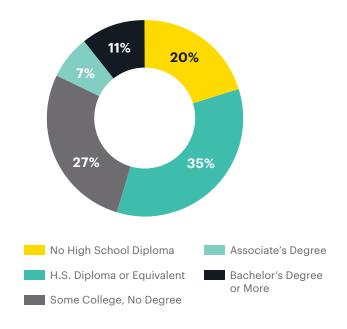


Figure 3. Women in the Low-Paid Workforce by Education Level, 2018

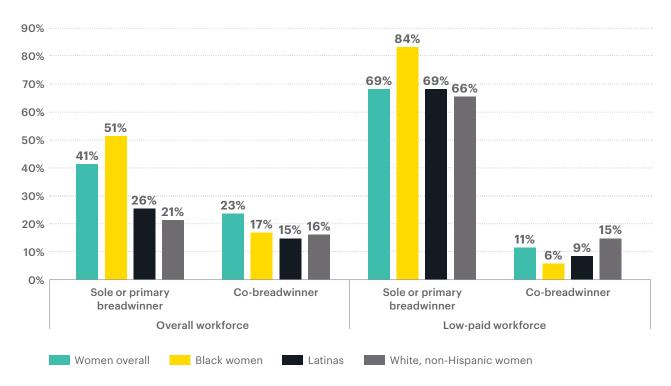


- Close to nine in 10 women in the low-paid workforce are age 20 or older. Millennials (ages 25 to 39), Gen Xers (ages 40–55), and Gen Zers (under 25) each represent about one-quarter or more of women in the low-paid workforce See Figure 2.<sup>27</sup>
- Eight in 10 women in the 40 lowest paying jobs (80 percent) have a high school diploma or a higher education level. More than two in five women in low-paid jobs (45 percent) have at least some college education, and more than one in six (18 percent) has completed a degree. See Figure 3.

- More than one in four women in the low-paid workforce (27 percent) have at least one child under 18 at home. About one in 12 (8 percent) is supporting at least one child under 4 years old. The share of women in the overall workforce who are mothers is similar: 33 percent of all working women have one or more children under 18, including 10 percent who have at least one child under age 4.
- The vast majority of mothers in the 40 lowest paying jobs are the sole or primary breadwinners for their families especially Black mothers. See Figure 4.
  - More than two-thirds of mothers in the low-paid workforce (69 percent) are the sole or primary breadwinners for their families, bringing home at least half of their

- household's total earnings, and another 11 percent are co-breadwinners, earning between 25 and 49 percent of the total.<sup>28</sup> In the workforce overall, 41 percent of mothers are sole or primary breadwinners and another 23 percent are co-breadwinners.<sup>29</sup>
- Among Black mothers in the low-paid workforce, 84 percent are sole or primary breadwinners and another 6 percent are co-breadwinners.<sup>30</sup>
- Among Latina mothers in the low-paid workforce, 69 percent are sole or primary breadwinners and another
   9 percent are co-breadwinners.<sup>31</sup>
- About two-thirds (66 percent) of white, non-Hispanic mothers in the low-paid workforce are sole or primary breadwinners and another 15 percent are cobreadwinners.<sup>32</sup>



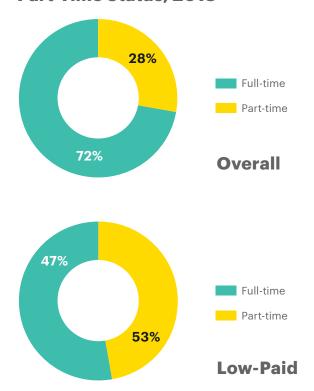


Source: Center for American Progress (CAP) analysis of Current Population Survey data. Figures are for 2017. "Sole or primary breadwinner" refers to a mother responsible for at least half of her household's total earnings; "co-breadwinner" refers to a married mother earning between 25 and 49 percent of the total. For data on overall workforce and methodology, see Sarah Jane Glynn, CAP, <u>Breadwinning Mothers Continue to Be the U.S. Norm</u> (May 2019). Data on breadwinners in the low-paid workforce is on file with authors; data for breadwinning mothers in low-paid jobs who are AAPI or Native women not available due to insufficient sample size.



- Almost half of women in the low-paid workforce (47 percent) work full time, and four in 10 work full time, year-round.
  - Women in low-paid jobs, however, are nearly twice as likely to work part time as women in the workforce overall<sup>33</sup>—and among women working part time in these jobs in 2018, more than one in five (22 percent) were doing so involuntarily and wanted to find full-time work.<sup>34</sup> This estimate of involuntary part-time work does not capture people who want to work part-time but receive fewer hours than they are seeking from their employer—a scenario that is common in many low-paid service sector jobs.<sup>35</sup>
  - In addition, more than one in five women working part time in low-paid jobs (23 percent) in 2018 reported that they work part time due to child care problems or other family or personal obligations.<sup>36</sup> While some of these workers may prefer to work part time, for others the "choice" of part-time work is forced by, for example, the unaffordability or unavailability of child care.

Figure 5. Women in the Overall and Low-Paid Workforces, by Full- or Part-Time Status, 2018



## FOR MANY PEOPLE WORKING IN LOW-PAID JOBS, INADEQUATE WAGES ARE JUST ONE OF THE CHALLENGING CONDITIONS THEY FACE.

These jobs also frequently lack health insurance or other benefits—like paid sick days and paid family and medical leave—and feature work schedules with unstable, inadequate hours that produce unstable, inadequate income; this is particularly true for people who work part-time hours.<sup>37</sup> In states that have not expanded Medicaid, people working in low-paid jobs may have incomes that are above Medicaid eligibility limits but below the eligibility threshold for tax credits to help pay for health insurance through the state Marketplace, leaving them without a source of affordable coverage. And when employers pay low wages and deny benefits to the people who need them most, employees have to live paycheck to paycheck, with little ability to build wealth and retire with dignity.



## WOMEN IN LOW-PAID JOBS STRUGGLE TO MAKE ENDS MEET, EVEN IF THEY ARE ABLE TO WORK FULL-TIME HOURS.

- Not surprisingly, compared to workers overall, people working in low-paid jobs are more likely to be poor, or near poor. Nearly four in 10 low-paid workers (39 percent) had household incomes below twice the poverty line in 2018, compared to about one in five people (19 percent) in the overall workforce.
- Among low-paid workers, women are more likely to be poor, or near poor, than men. In 2018, 42 percent of women in the low-paid workforce were living near or below the federal poverty line, compared to 34 percent of men.
- Even when working full time, women in low-paid jobs face a high risk of falling below or near the poverty line—and those odds are greatest for women of color.
  - Close to four in 10 women (39 percent) working full time in low-paid jobs had household incomes below twice the poverty line in 2018, including 11 percent who lived in poverty. See Figure 6.
  - Among all women of color working full time in low-paid jobs, 43 percent lived in or near poverty in 2018, compared to 35 percent of white, non-Hispanic women. Closer to half of Latinas (44 percent), Native American women (46 percent), and Black women (49 percent) working full time in low-paid jobs had household incomes below twice the poverty line. The share of AAPI women working full time in low-paid jobs who lived in or near poverty was notably lower, at 29 percent. See Figure 7.
- Women in low-paid jobs who work part time because they can't find full-time work or need to manage other

## obligations face an even higher risk of poverty and economic insecurity.

- Two in five women working fewer than 20 hours per week in low-paid jobs (40 percent) lived in or near poverty in 2018. See Figure 6.
- More than half (51 percent) of women of color working these hours in low-paid jobs had household incomes below twice the federal poverty line in 2018—1.6 times the rate faced by white, non-Hispanic women (32 percent). Among Latinas and Black women working fewer than 20 hours per week in low-paid jobs, more than half had household incomes below twice the poverty line, including over one-quarter of each of these groups who had poverty-level incomes. And among Native American women working fewer than 20 hours per week in these jobs, two-thirds had incomes below twice the poverty line, including more than two in five who lived in poverty. See Figure 7.
- Women of color working in low-paid jobs faced a lower risk of experiencing poverty when they worked between 20 and 34 hours per week rather than under 20—but near-poverty rates did not markedly decline for women working more hours in low-paid, part-time jobs. Black women, AAPI women, and white, non-Hispanic women working 20 to 34 hours per week in low-paid jobs in 2018, in fact, were slightly more likely to have household incomes below twice the poverty line than their counterparts working fewer than 20 hours per week.

See **Appendix II, Tables 1 and 2,** for detailed comparisons of poverty and near-poverty rates for women and men working in low-paid jobs.

Figure 6. Poverty and Near-Poverty Rates Among Women in Low-Paid Jobs and Workers Overall, 2018

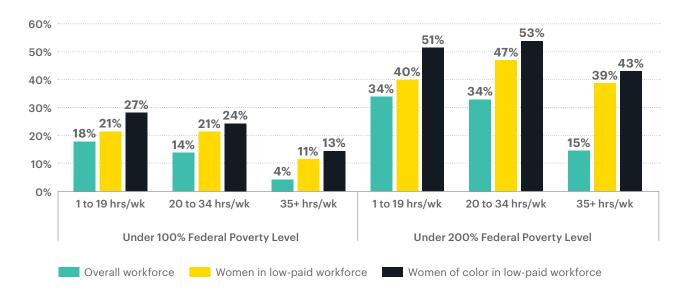
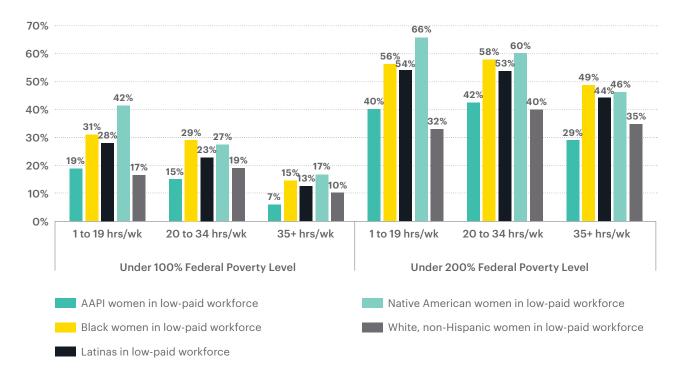


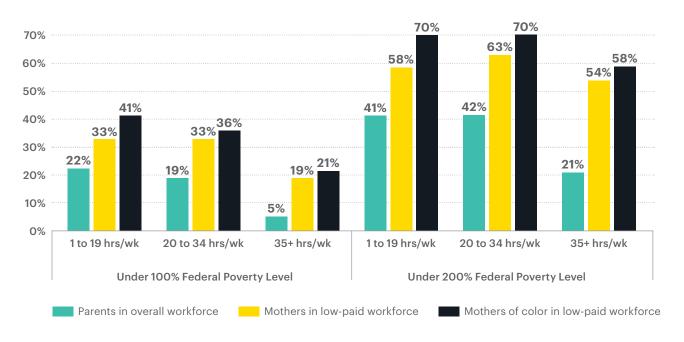
Figure 7. Poverty and Near-Poverty Rates Among Women in Low-Paid Jobs, by Race/Ethnicity, 2018





- Among parents in low-paid jobs, nearly three-quarters
   (74 percent) are mothers. While all working mothers face
   a higher risk of economic insecurity than working fathers,
   mothers in low-paid jobs are especially likely to struggle
   to make ends meet.
- Nearly six in 10 mothers in low-paid jobs (57 percent) fell
  near or below the poverty line in 2018, compared to 48
  percent of fathers in the low-paid workforce, 27 percent
  of mothers in the workforce overall, and 22 percent of
  fathers in the workforce overall.
- Mothers who are women of color are even more likely to be poor, or near poor. Nearly two-thirds (63 percent) of mothers of color in the low-paid workforce had incomes near or below the poverty line in 2018.
  - Even when they worked full time, 58 percent of women of color who are mothers working in low-paid jobs had incomes below twice the poverty line in 2018, including more than one in five who lived in poverty. See Figure 8.
  - Among full-time working parents overall, 24 percent had incomes below twice the poverty line, and 7 percent lived in poverty.

Figure 8. Poverty and Near-Poverty Rates Among Mothers in Low-Paid Jobs and Parents Overall, 2018

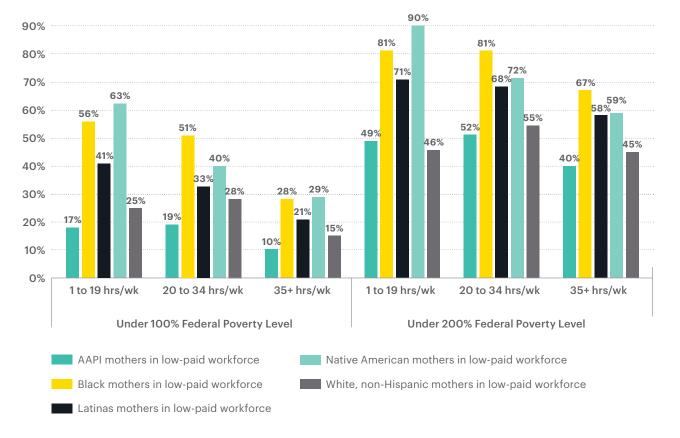




- In the low-paid workforce, more than two in five mothers (45 percent) work part time, compared to 19 percent of fathers; in the overall workforce, close to one in four mothers works part time, compared to 6 percent of fathers. Mothers—especially mothers who are women of color—who work part time face an extraordinarily high risk of poverty and economic insecurity.
  - Whether they worked fewer than 20 hours per week or between 20 and 34 hours per week, seven in 10 women of color in low-paid jobs who are mothers had incomes below twice the poverty line in 2018. For Black mothers, this share climbs to 81 percent. AAPI mothers working part time in low-paid jobs experienced economic
- insecurity at lower rates than their Black, Latina, and Native counterparts—but about half still had incomes below twice the poverty line (similar to rates for white, non-Hispanic women). See **Figure 9.**
- More than two in five women of color who are mothers working fewer than 20 hours per week in low-paid jobs (41 percent) were poor in 2018. Among Black mothers working these hours in low-paid jobs, more than half (56 percent) experienced poverty, as well as 63 percent of Native American mothers.

See **Appendix II, Tables 1 and 2**, for detailed comparisons of poverty and near-poverty rates for mothers and fathers working in low-paid jobs.

Figure 9. Poverty and Near-Poverty Rates Among Mothers in Low-Paid Jobs, by Race/Ethnicity, 2018





# ACROSS THE WORKFORCE, WORKING WOMEN OF COLOR AND MOTHERS—AND ESPECIALLY MOTHERS WHO ARE WOMEN OF COLOR—EXPERIENCE POVERTY AND ECONOMIC INSECURITY AT MUCH HIGHER LEVELS THAN OTHER WORKERS.

- Three percent of all full-time working men and 4 percent of all full-time working women lived in poverty in 2018; this share climbs to 6 percent for all full-time working mothers as well as for all women of color, and 10 percent for full-time working mothers who are women of color.
- More than one in seven full-time workers struggled to make ends meet with household income below twice the poverty line in 2018—as did one in three full-time working mothers who are women of color.
- People working part-time face an elevated risk of poverty and economic insecurity.
  - In the workforce overall, nearly one in five people working fewer than 20 hours per week lived in poverty in 2018; one in four women of color working fewer than 20 hours per week lived in poverty, as did nearly one in three women of color who are mothers working fewer than 20 hours per week.
  - More than one in three people working fewer than 20 hours per week had household income below twice the poverty line in 2018—a share that rises to nearly one in two among women of color working those hours, and even higher (57 percent) among all women of color who are mothers.

See **Appendix II, Tables 3 and 4**, for detailed comparisons of poverty and near-poverty rates for women, men, and parents in the workforce overall.



When the people who have been most historically marginalized, including women of color, are doing well—when they are paid a living wage, able to invest and build wealth, and able to provide a healthy and quality life for themselves, their families, and their communities—it's a sign that the economy is working well for everyone. But in 2018, with low unemployment nationwide, millions of women in low-paid jobs—especially women of color and women supporting children—were struggling to make ends meet, even when working full time.

Today, the rapid spread of the new coronavirus has dramatically shifted our economic landscape, with the onset of a deep recession near certain. Millions of women working in the service sector jobs profiled in this analysis—restaurant servers and bartenders, fast food workers, hotel clerks, housekeeping

cleaners, retail salespersons, nail salon workers, staff at theaters and other entertainment venues, and more—face a high risk of losing their jobs altogether.<sup>38</sup> And many other women in the lowest paying jobs—including the personal care and home health aides caring for people managing illness in their homes, the cashiers staffing grocery stores, and the child care workers caring for the children of health care workers and first responders—find that their work is more essential than ever but no less undervalued, with decent pay and basic benefits still out of reach.

The COVID-19 pandemic has highlighted the deep gaps in our economic and social infrastructure that have resulted from decades of undervaluing the work that women and people of color do and underinvesting in the supports that families with low and moderate incomes need. To mitigate

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the vast impact of this public health crisis and stabilize our economy writ large, it is critically important for policy makers to deliver relief for women and their families now while making comprehensive public investments that remedy underlying flaws in our programs and systems. In the short term, that relief includes protecting the health care, child care, retail, and other front-line workers whose work is critical to our public health; boosting income for families to mitigate widespread economic hardship and stabilize the economy; supporting state governments and ensuring they have the tools they need to provide health coverage, continue essential services, and prevent layoffs; and ensuring equitable access to food, housing, medical care, and other necessities. Any corporate bailout deemed necessary in this time of emergency must be conditioned on employers enacting reforms that help and protect their workers, including by rejecting layoffs and keeping workers on payroll, paying at least \$15 per hour to their employees, and ensuring worker representation on corporate boards.

And in the long term, to promote an equitable recovery and ensure that everyone can live, work, and retire with dignity, we need policies that:

- Build worker power, including supporting organizing and collective bargaining through traditional unions and collective action by new worker justice organizations.
- Expand opportunity by, for example, strengthening and enforcing protections against all forms of employment discrimination, providing a path to citizenship for immigrants, reducing barriers to employment for people

with criminal records, making higher education more affordable, and increasing women's access to higher paying, nontraditional fields.

- Set higher standards for employers, so that every job—whether full-time or part-time—pays fair wages and provides working people with the input and stability in their work hours, as well as the paid time off, that they need to balance their jobs with the rest of their lives.
- Invest in public goods that benefit all of us—like education, child care, health care, and infrastructure—to ensure that everyone has access to high-quality services and that teachers, child care workers, home care workers, and many more essential service providers have good jobs.
- **Fund robust public supports** to make sure that families can put food on the table, get the medical care they need, and keep a roof over their heads when they are facing tough economic times.
- Raise tax revenue from the wealthy and corporations to support investments that bolster economic opportunity for low- and moderate-income people, reduce economic inequality, and incentivize employers to equitably distribute profits.

When we center the Black and brown women most likely to be in low-paid jobs in driving a policy agenda to correct these inequities, *all* of us will benefit from an economy that works for all of us—not just the wealthy few.

## **APPENDIX I: The 40 Lowest Paying Jobs**

	Occupation	Median Hourly Wage in 2018	Number of Workers, 2019	Share of Workers Who Are Women, 2019
1	Gaming Dealers ***	\$9.68	_	_
2	Combined Food Preparation and Serving Workers, Including Fast Food	\$10.22	372,000	62%
3	Shampooers *	\$10.40	409,000	86%
4	Waiters and Waitresses	\$10.47	1,038,000	71%
5	Hosts and Hostesses, Restaurant, Lounge, and Coffee Shop	\$10.65	322,000	82%
6	Ushers, Lobby Attendants, and Ticket Takers	\$10.70	38,000	_
7	Amusement and Recreation Attendants ***	\$10.70	_	_
8	Dining Room and Cafeteria Attendants and Bartender Helpers	\$10.71	338,000	41%
9	Cooks, Fast Food **	\$10.74	2,031,000	42%
10	Counter Attendants, Cafeteria, Food Concession, and Coffee Shop	\$10.74	200,000	59%
11	Lifeguards, Ski Patrol, and Other Recreational Protective Service Workers	\$10.77	139,000	49%
12	Cashiers	\$10.78	3,164,000	71%
13	Bartenders	\$10.84	464,000	53%
14	Dishwashers	\$10.93	264,000	21%
15	Motion Picture Projectionists	\$10.94	1,000	_
16	Laundry and Dry-Cleaning Workers	\$11.16	134,000	75%
17	Child Care Workers	\$11.17	1,193,000	93%
18	Food Servers, Nonrestaurant	\$11.20	191,000	66%
19	Pressers, Textile, Garment, and Related Materials	\$11.23	28,000	_
20	Hotel, Motel, and Resort Desk Clerks	\$11.39	116,000	75%
21	Food Preparation Workers	\$11.41	1,079,000	59%
22	Nonfarm Animal Caretakers	\$11.42	296,000	75%
23	Maids and Housekeeping Cleaners	\$11.43	1,475,000	89%
24	Models ****	\$11.43	62,000	73%
25	Cooks, Short Order **	\$11.44	2,031,000	42%
26	Food Preparation and Serving Related Workers, All Other	\$11.47	7,000	_

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	Occupation	Median Hourly Wage in 2018	Number of Workers, 2018	Share of Workers Who Are Women, 2018
27	Parking Lot Attendants	\$11.47	83,000	15%
28	Locker Room, Coatroom, and Dressing Room Attendants ***	\$11.55	_	_
29	Personal Care Aides	\$11.55	1,458,000	86%
30	Home Health Aides ****	\$11.63	2,086,000	88%
31	Retail Salespersons	\$11.63	3,105,000	49%
32	Baggage Porters and Bellhops	\$11.64	92,000	24%
33	Automotive and Watercraft Service Attendants	\$11.64	88,000	18%
34	Entertainment Attendants and Related Workers, All Other	\$11.68	210,000	39%
35	Farmworkers and Laborers, Crop, Nursery, and Greenhouse ***	\$11.69	_	_
36	Manicurists and Pedicurists *	\$11.70	409,000	86%
37	Gaming and Sports Book Writers and Runners ***	\$11.74	_	_
38	Graders and Sorters, Agricultural Products	\$11.75	88,000	65%
39	Cleaners of Vehicles and Equipment	\$11.79	344,000	16%
40	Packers and Packagers, Hand	\$11.82	628,000	55%

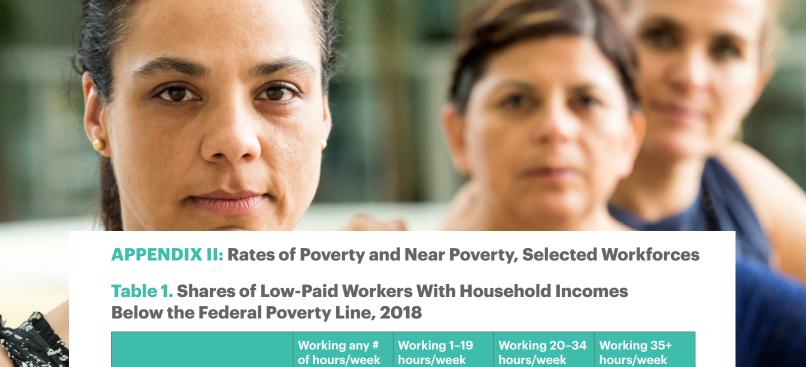
Sources: Occupations and median hourly wages are from U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics (BLS), May 2018 National Occupational Employment & Wage Estimates, <a href="https://www.bls.gov/oes/2018/may/oes\_nat.htm">https://www.bls.gov/oes/2018/may/oes\_nat.htm</a>. Number of workers and share of workers who are women are from U.S. Department of Labor, BLS, Current Population Survey, Household Data, 2019 Annual Averages, Table 11, <a href="https://www.bls.gov/cps/cpsaat11.htm">https://www.bls.gov/cps/cpsaat11.htm</a>. Dashes indicate data is unavailable. In a few instances, the two BLS sources required for this table define occupations in slightly different ways; see additional notes below for details. \* Shampooers, manicurists, and pedicurists fall into one "Miscellaneous personal appearance worker" occupation in the Current Population Survey; figures on number of workers and share of workers who are women in both rows reflect that of "Miscellaneous personal appearance worker."

<sup>\*\*</sup> Fast food cooks and short order cooks fall into one "Cooks" detailed occupation in the Current Population Survey; figures on number of workers and share of workers who are women in both rows reflect that of "Cooks."

<sup>\*\*\*</sup> There were neither exact nor similar matches in the Current Population Survey for the following occupations identified in the National Occupational Employment & Wage Estimates: Gaming Dealers; Amusement and Recreation Attendants; Locker Room, Coatroom, and Dressing Attendants; Farmworkers and Laborers, Crop, Nursery, and Greenhouse; Gaming and Sports Book Writers and Runners.

<sup>\*\*\*\*</sup> Home health aides are not separated out as detailed occupation in the Current Population Survey; figures on number of workers and share of workers who are women reflect that of "Nursing, psychiatric, and home health aides."

<sup>\*\*\*\*\*</sup> Models are not separated out as detailed occupation in the Current Population Survey; figures on number of workers and share of workers who are women in both rows reflect that of "Models, demonstrators, and product promoters."



	Working any # of hours/week	Working 1–19 hours/week	Working 20-34 hours/week	Working 35+ hours/week
All low-paid workers	15%	20%	19%	10%
Men	11%	17%	16%	7%
Women	16%	21%	21%	11%
White, non-Hispanic women	14%	17%	19%	10%
Women of color	18%	27%	24%	13%
Black women	22%	31%	29%	15%
Latinas	18%	28%	23%	13%
AAPI women	11%	19%	15%	7%
Native American women	24%	42%	27%	17%
Fathers	17%	43%	30%	13%
Mothers	25%	33%	33%	19%
Mothers of color	28%	41%	36%	21%
Black mothers	37%	56%	51%	28%
Latina mothers	27%	41%	33%	21%
AAPI mothers	14%	17%	19%	10%
Native American mothers	37%	63%	40%	29%
White, non-Hispanic mothers	21%	25%	28%	15%

NWLC calculations based on U.S. Census Bureau, 2018 American Community Survey (ACS) using IPUMS. ACS respondents reported the number of hours they usually worked per week in 2018. The federal poverty line varies by family size and composition; for a parent with two children, the poverty line was \$20,231 in 2018, and 200 percent of the poverty line was \$40,462.



**200 Percent of the Federal Poverty Line, 2018** 

	Working any # of hours/week	Working 1–19 hours/week	Working 20-34 hours/week	Working 35+ hours/week
All low-paid workers	39%	38%	44%	36%
Men	34%	33%	39%	31%
Women	42%	40%	47%	39%
White, non-Hispanic women	36%	32%	40%	35%
Women of color	48%	51%	53%	43%
Black women	53%	56%	58%	49%
Latinas	49%	54%	53%	44%
AAPI women	34%	40%	42%	29%
Native American women	53%	66%	60%	46%
Fathers	48%	68%	65%	44%
Mothers	57%	58%	63%	54%
Mothers of color	63%	70%	70%	58%
Black mothers	73%	81%	81%	67%
Latina mothers	63%	71%	68%	58%
AAPI mothers	45%	49%	52%	40%
Native American mothers	67%	90%	72%	59%
White, non-Hispanic mothers	49%	46%	55%	45%

NWLC calculations based on U.S. Census Bureau, 2018 American Community Survey (ACS) using IPUMS. ACS respondents reported the number of hours they usually worked per week in 2018. The federal poverty line varies by family size and composition; for a parent with two children, the poverty line was \$20,231 in 2018, and 200 percent of the poverty line was \$40,462.



	Working any # of hours/week	Working 1–19 hours/week	Working 20-34 hours/week	Working 35+ hours/week
All workers	6%	18%	14%	4%
Men	5%	18%	14%	3%
Women	7%	18%	14%	4%
White, non-Hispanic women	5%	14%	11%	3%
Women of color	10%	25%	19%	6%
Black women	11%	30%	25%	7%
Latinas	11%	25%	19%	7%
AAPI women	6%	20%	12%	3%
Native American women	12%	35%	21%	8%
Fathers	6%	31%	23%	5%
Mothers	9%	20%	18%	6%
Mothers of color	14%	32%	27%	10%
Black mothers	17%	48%	40%	12%
Latina mothers	15%	33%	26%	11%
AAPI mothers	5%	14%	11%	3%
Native American mothers	18%	49%	34%	12%
White, non-Hispanic mothers	6%	14%	12%	3%

NWLC calculations based on U.S. Census Bureau, 2018 American Community Survey (ACS) using IPUMS. ACS respondents reported the number of hours they usually worked per week in 2018. The federal poverty line varies by family size and composition; for a parent with two children, the poverty line was \$20,231 in 2018, and 200 percent of the poverty line was \$40,462.



**Table 4. Shares of All Workers With Household Incomes Below 200 Percent of the Federal Poverty Line, 2018** 

	Working any # of hours/week	Working 1-19 hours/week	Working 20-34 hours/week	Working 35+ hours/week
All workers	19%	34%	34%	15%
Men	18%	34%	34%	15%
Women	21%	34%	34%	16%
White, non-Hispanic women	16%	28%	27%	12%
Women of color	29%	47%	46%	23%
Black women	32%	52%	53%	26%
Latinas	33%	49%	46%	27%
AAPI women	16%	37%	31%	11%
Native American women	34%	56%	52%	27%
Fathers	22%	54%	50%	20%
Mothers	27%	39%	40%	23%
Mothers of color	38%	57%	56%	33%
Black mothers	45%	72%	70%	39%
Latina mothers	42%	61%	57%	36%
AAPI mothers	17%	35%	31%	13%
Native American mothers	44%	70%	65%	37%
White, non-Hispanic mothers	18%	29%	29%	15%

NWLC calculations based on U.S. Census Bureau, 2018 American Community Survey (ACS) using IPUMS. ACS respondents reported the number of hours they usually worked per week in 2018. The federal poverty line varies by family size and composition; for a parent with two children, the poverty line was \$20,231 in 2018, and 200 percent of the poverty line was \$40,462

- Women are 47 percent of the overall workforce in the U.S. and 64 percent of the low-paid workforce. NWLC calculations based on U.S. Census Bureau, 2018 American Community Survey (ACS) using Steven Ruggles, Sarah Flood, Ronald Goeken, Josia Grover, Erin Meyer, Jose Pacas, and Matthew Sobek. IPUMS USA: Version 10.0 [dataset]. Minneapolis, MN: IPUMS, 2020, available at <a href="https://usa.ipums.org">https://usa.ipums.org</a>. Unless otherwise noted, all data points in this analysis regarding women's representation in the low-paid workforce (i.e., in the 40 lowest paying jobs) and rates of poverty/near poverty are calculated from the 2018 ACS using IPUMS. Definitions of "low-wage" or "low-paid" jobs vary; NWLC focuses this analysis on the 40 lowest paying jobs because these jobs particularly illuminate women's overrepresentation at the low end of the pay spectrum. See Appendix I for detailed source information regarding the 40 lowest-paying jobs.
- For example, a study of more than 50 years of data revealed that when women moved into a field in large numbers, wages declined, even when controlling for experience, skills, education, race and region—indicating that "women's jobs" often pay less because women do them. Asaf Levanon, Paula England & Paul Allison, Occupational Feminization and Pay: Assessing Causal Dynamic Using 1950-2000 U.S. Census Data, Social Forces (Dec. 2009), available at <a href="http://sf.oxfordjournals.org/content/88/2/865.short">http://sf.oxfordjournals.org/content/88/2/865.short</a>. See also, e.g., Philip N. Cohen, Devaluing and Revaluing Women's Work, Huffington Post (May 25, 2011), <a href="http://www.huffingtonpost.com/philip-n-cohen/devaluing-and-revaluing-wb-444215.html">http://www.huffingtonpost.com/philip-n-cohen/devaluing-and-revaluing-wb-444215.html</a>; Julie Vogtman, NWLC, Undervalued: A BRIEF HISTORY OF WOMEN'S CARE WORK AND CHILD CARE POLICY IN THE UNITED STATES (Dec. 2017), <a href="https://nwlc-ciw49tixgw5lbab.stackpathdns.com/wp-content/uploads/2017/12/final\_nwlc\_Undervalued2017.pdf">https://nwlc-ciw49tixgw5lbab.stackpathdns.com/wp-content/uploads/2017/12/final\_nwlc\_Undervalued2017.pdf</a>.
- 3 See generally, e.g., NWLC in partnership with Groundwork Collaborative, Roosevelt Inst., and Georgetown Ctr. on Poverty & Inequality, Tax Justice Is Gender Justice: Advancing Gender and Racial Equity by Harnessing the Power of the U.S. Tax Code, Executive Summary (Nov. 2019), <a href="https://nwlc-ciw49tixgw5lbab.stackpathdns.com/wp-content/uploads/2019/11/NWLC-Tax-Executive-Summary-Accessible.pdf">https://nwlc-ciw49tixgw5lbab.stackpathdns.com/wp-content/uploads/2019/11/NWLC-Tax-Executive-Summary-Accessible.pdf</a>.
- 4 See generally Francine Blau & Lawrence Kahn, The Gender Wage Gap: Extent, Trends and Explanations, Nat'l Bureau of Economic Research, NBER Working Paper 21913 (Jan. 2016), <a href="https://www.nber.org/papers/w21913.pdf">https://www.nber.org/papers/w21913.pdf</a>. See also, e.g., Corrine A. Moss-Racusin et al., Science Faculty's Subtle Gender Biases Favor Male Students, Proceedings of the Nat'l Academy of Sciences of the U.S.A. (Aug. 2012), <a href="https://www.pnas.org/content/pnas/109/41/16474.full.pdf">https://www.pnas.org/content/pnas/109/41/16474.full.pdf</a> (study showing that when presented with identical resumes, one with the name John and one with the name Jennifer, science professors offered the male applicant for a lab manager position a salary of nearly \$4,000 more and judged him to be significantly more competent and hirable).
- 5 See, e.g., Dawn Johnson, Campus Racial Climate Perceptions and Overall Sense of Belonging Among Racially Diverse Women in STEM Majors, Journal of College Student Development 336 (March/April 2012), <a href="https://muse.jhu.edu/article/469349">https://muse.jhu.edu/article/469349</a>.
- See, e.g., Shelley J. Correll, Stephan Benard & In Paik, Getting a Job: Is There a Motherhood Penalty, 11 AM. J. Sociology 1297 (Mar. 2007), available at <a href="http://gap.hks.harvard.edu/getting-job-there-motherhood-penalty">http://gap.hks.harvard.edu/getting-job-there-motherhood-penalty</a>; Joan C. Williams & Stephanie Bornstein, Caregivers in the Courtroom: The Growing Trend of Family Responsibility Discrimination, 41 U. S. F. L. Rev. 171, 177-78 (2006); Vicki Schultz, Life's Work, 100 Colum. L. Rev. 1881, 1894-96 (2000); Joan C. Williams & Stephanie Bornstein, The Evolution of 'FReD': Family Responsibilities Discrimination and Developments in the Law of Stereotyping and Implicit Bias, 59 Hastings L.J. 1311, 1326 (2008).
- See, e.g., Joan C. Williams, Katherine W. Phillips & Erika V. Hall, Double Jeopardy? Gender Bias Against Women in Science (2014), https://worklifelaw.org/publications/Double-Jeopardy-Report v6 full web-sm.pdf; Catalyst, Women in Male-Dominated Industries and Occupations: Quick Take (Feb. 2020), https://www.catalyst.org/research/women-in-male-dominated-industries-and-occupations/.
- 8 See generally Katy Milani et al., NWLC & Roosevelt Inst., Reckoning with the Hidden Rules of Gender in the Tax Code: How Low Taxes on the Wealthy and Corporations Impact Women's Economic Security (Nov. 2019), <a href="https://nwlc-ciw49tixgw5lbab.stackpathdns.com/wp-content/uploads/2019/11/NWLC-ReckoningTheHiddenRules-accessibleNov12.pdf">https://nwlc-ciw49tixgw5lbab.stackpathdns.com/wp-content/uploads/2019/11/NWLC-ReckoningTheHiddenRules-accessibleNov12.pdf</a>.
- See id. and Melissa Boteach et al., NWLC & Georgetown Ctr. on Poverty & Inequality, A Tax Code for the Rest of Us: A Framework and Recommendations for Advancing Gender and Racial Equity Through Tax Credits (Nov. 2019), <a href="https://nwlc-ciw49tixgw5lbab.stackpathdns.com/wp-content/uploads/2019/11/NWLC-GCPI-Tax-Code-for-the-Rest-of-Us-Nov14.pdf">https://nwlc-ciw49tixgw5lbab.stackpathdns.com/wp-content/uploads/2019/11/NWLC-GCPI-Tax-Code-for-the-Rest-of-Us-Nov14.pdf</a>.
- See generally, e.g., Heidi Shierholz, Econ. Policy Inst., Working People Have Been Thwarted in Their Efforts to Bargain for Better Wages by Attacks on Unions (Aug. 2019), <a href="https://www.epi.org/files/pdf/173263.pdf">https://www.epi.org/files/pdf/173263.pdf</a>; Kate Andrias & Brishen Rogers, Roosevelt Inst., Rebuilding Worker Voice in Today's Economy (Aug. 2018), <a href="https://rooseveltinstitute.org/wp-content/uploads/2018/07/Rebuilding-Worker-Voices-final-2.pdf">https://rooseveltinstitute.org/wp-content/uploads/2018/07/Rebuilding-Worker-Voices-final-2.pdf</a>.
- U.S. Census Bureau, Poverty Thresholds for 2018, <a href="https://www.census.gov/data/tables/time-series/demo/income-poverty/historical-poverty-thresholds.">https://www.census.gov/data/tables/time-series/demo/income-poverty/historical-poverty-thresholds.</a>
  <a href="https://html">httml</a> (last visited Feb. 28, 2020).
- 12 See Econ. Policy Inst., Family Budget Calculator, https://www.epi.org/resources/budget/ (last visited Feb. 28, 2020).
- 13 Respondents self-identified their sex as either male or female in the 2018 ACS. For more information, see the full questionnaire: https://www2.census.gov/programs-surveys/acs/methodology/questionnaires/2018/quest18.pdf.
- 14 Respondents self-identified their race in the 2018 ACS. AAPI women self-identified as Asian American or Other Pacific Islander. Black women self-identified as Black or African American. Native American women self-identified as American Indian or Alaskan Native. Latinas are those who self-identified that they are of Hispanic, Latino, or Spanish origin and may be of any race. White, non-Hispanic women self-identified as white but who indicated they are not of Hispanic, Latino, or Spanish origin.

- 15 Figures are for 2018 and include ACS respondents who self-identified as having at least one of the following physical or cognitive difficulties: hearing difficulty, vision difficulty, difficulty remembering or decision-making, disability limiting mobility, disability limiting independent living, or personal care limitation.
- See Catherine Okoro et al., *Prevalence of Disabilities and Health Care Access by Disability Status and Type Among Adults United States*, 2016, 67 Morbility & Mortality Weekly Report 882, 885 (Aug. 17, 2018), <a href="https://www.cdc.gov/mmwr/volumes/67/wr/pdfs/mm6732a3-H.pdf">https://www.cdc.gov/mmwr/volumes/67/wr/pdfs/mm6732a3-H.pdf</a>. Note that there is no one definition of "disability," even for purposes of federal data collection and program administration. The Centers for Disease Control & Prevention study cited here, for example, analyzed 2016 Behavioral Risk Factor Surveillance System (BRFSS) data; like the ACS and the Current Population Survey (CPS), the BRFSS assesses whether respondents self-identify as having one or more of six physical or cognitive difficulties: hearing, vision, cognition, mobility, independent living, or self-care. The 1990 Americans with Disabilities Act takes a more expansive view, defining an "individual with a disability" as "a person who has a physical or mental impairment that substantially limits one or more major life activities, a person who has a history or record of such an impairment, or a person who is perceived by others as having such an impairment"—but definitions of disability for purposes of eligibility for government assistance, such as Social Security Disability Insurance, are typically much narrower. See AZZA ALTIRAIFI, CTR. FOR AM. PROGRESS, ADVANCING ECONOMIC SECURITY FOR PEOPLE WITH DISABILITIES (July 2019), <a href="https://www.americanprogress.org/issues/disability/reports/2019/07/26/472686/advancing-economic-security-people-disabilities/">https://www.americanprogress.org/issues/disability/reports/2019/07/26/472686/advancing-economic-security-people-disabilities/</a>. Moreover, "disabled" is not necessarily a static identity; people may acquire (or lose) this identity over time. Thus, any estimate of the population experiencing a disability—or experiencing employment-related or other impacts of that disability—is necessarily imprecise and often inadeq
- 17 U.S. Dep't of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics (BLS), Persons with a Disability: Labor Force Characteristics 2018 (Feb. 26, 2019), <a href="https://www.bls.gov/news.release/pdf/disabl.pdf">https://www.bls.gov/news.release/pdf/disabl.pdf</a> (Table 1: Employment status of the civilian noninstitutional population by disability status and selected characteristics, 2018 annual averages). Note that the BLS uses the same definition of disability as the CPS and ACS. See supra notes 15-16.
- 18 U.S. Dep't of Labor, BLS, Employment Characteristics of People with a Disability in 2018, TED: THE ECONOMICS DAILY (Oct. 29, 2019), https://www.bls.gov/opub/ted/2019/employment-characteristics-of-people-with-a-disability-in-2018.htm.
- 19 In 2018, nearly one-third of workers with a disability (32 percent) worked part time, while only 20 percent of workers without a disability worked part time; nearly four in ten working women with a disability (38 percent) worked part time, compared to 27 percent of working women without a disability. NWLC calculations based on 2018 ACS, supra note 15. The Bureau of Labor Statistics defines part-time work as less than 35 hours per week. BLS Handbook of Methods, Current Population Survey, <a href="https://www.bls.gov/opub/hom/cps/pdf/cps.pdf">https://www.bls.gov/opub/hom/cps/pdf/cps.pdf</a>.
- 20 See generally, e.g., Altiraifi, supra note 16; Martha Ross & Nicole Bateman, Only Four Out of Ten Working-Age Adults with Disabilities Are Employed, The Avenue (July 25, 2018), <a href="https://www.brookings.edu/blog/the-avenue/2018/07/25/only-four-out-of-ten-working-age-adults-with-disabilities-are-employed/">https://www.brookings.edu/blog/the-avenue/2018/07/25/only-four-out-of-ten-working-age-adults-with-disabilities-are-employed/</a>;
  U.S. Senate Comm. On Health, Education, Labor & Pensions, Fulfilling the Promise: Overcoming Persistent Barriers to Economic Self-Sufficiency for People with Disabilities (Sept. 2014), <a href="https://www.help.senate.gov/imo/media/doc/HELP%20Committee%20Disability%20and%20Poverty%20Report.pdf">https://www.help.senate.gov/imo/media/doc/HELP%20Committee%20Disability%20and%20Poverty%20Report.pdf</a>; Nat'l Council on Disability, National Disability Policy: A Progress Report (Oct. 2017), <a href="https://ncd.gov/sites/default/files/NCD\_A%20Progress%20Report\_508.pdf">https://ncd.gov/sites/default/files/NCD\_A%20Progress%20Report\_508.pdf</a>; Nat'l Disability Rights Network, Segregated and Exploited: The Failure of the Disability Service System to Provide Quality Work (Jan. 2011), <a href="https://www.ndrn.org/wp-content/uploads/2019/03/Segregated-and-Exploited.pdf">https://www.ndrn.org/wp-content/uploads/2019/03/Segregated-and-Exploited.pdf</a>.
- 21 Mason Ameri et al., The Disability Employment Puzzle: A Field Study on Employer Hiring Behavior, NBER Working Paper no. 21560 (Sept. 2015), https://www.nber.org/papers/w21560. See also, e.g., Nat'L Council on Disability, supra note 20, at 52-54.
- 22 See supra note 20.
- 23 See, e.g., Anna Schecter, Monica Alba & Marck Schone, More Disabled Workers Paid Just Pennies per Hour, NBC News (Aug. 20, 2013), https://www.nbcnews.com/news/investigations/more-disabled-workers-paid-just-pennies-hour-v19916979.
- 24 See U.S. Dep't of Labor, Community Rehabilitation Programs (CRPs) List, <a href="https://www.dol.gov/agencies/whd/workers-with-disabilities/section-14c/certificate-holders">https://www.dol.gov/agencies/whd/workers-with-disabilities/section-14c/certificate-holders</a> (last visited Feb. 13, 2020). See also Nat'L DISABILITY RIGHTS NETWORK, SUPRA NOTE 20; Nat'L COUNCIL ON DISABILITY, Supra note 20, at 54; Rabia Belt & Doron Dorfman, Subminimum Employment for People with Disabilities, SLS BLOGS: LEGAL AGGREGATE (Nov. 1, 2018), <a href="https://law.stanford.edu/2018/11/01/subminimum-employment-for-people-with-disabilities/">https://law.stanford.edu/2018/11/01/subminimum-employment-for-people-with-disabilities/</a>.
- 25 See, e.g., ALTIRAIFI, supra note 16.
- 26 See generally, e.g., Nat'L Council on Disability, supra note 20; U.S. Senate Comm. on Health, Education, Labor & Pensions, supra note 20; Baylor College of Medicine, Ctr. for Research on Women with Disabilities, Demographics, <a href="https://www.bcm.edu/research/centers/research-on-women-with-disabilities/general-info/demographics">https://www.bcm.edu/research/centers/research-on-women-with-disabilities/general-info/demographics</a> (last visited Feb. 13, 2020); Nanette Goodman, Michael Morris & Kelvin Boston, Nat'L Disability Inst., Financial Inequality: Disability, Race and Poverty in America (Sept. 2017), <a href="https://www.advancingstates.org/sites/nasuad/files/Disability-Race-Poverty-in-America.pdf">https://www.advancingstates.org/sites/nasuad/files/Disability-Race-Poverty-in-America.pdf</a>.
- 27 Age ranges refer to respondents' ages in 2018.

- Center for American Progress (CAP) analysis of Current Population Survey data (on file with authors). Figures are for 2017. In CAP's analysis, "sole or primary breadwinners" (or "breadwinners" or "breadwinning mothers") refer to unmarried working mothers—which includes those who have never married, as well as those who are divorced, separated, widowed, or married with an absent spouse—and married mothers who earn as much as or more than their husbands. "Co-breadwinners" or "co-breadwinning mothers" are defined as "a working wife bringing home at least 25 percent of her family's total earnings." This terminology maintains consistency across CAP's series of reports examining the evolution of mothers' breadwinning roles. See, e.g., Heather Boushey, The New Breadwinners, in Maria Shriver & CAP, The Shriver Report: A Woman's Nation Changes Everything 31, 37 (2009), available at <a href="http://cdn.americanprogress.org/wp-content/uploads/issues/2009/10/pdf/awn/chapters/economy.pdf">https://cdn.americanprogress.org/wp-content/uploads/issues/2009/10/pdf/awn/chapters/economy.pdf</a>; Sarah Jane Glynn, CAP, Breadwinning Mothers Continue to Be the U.S. Norm (May 2019), <a href="https://www.americanprogress.org/issues/women/reports/2019/05/10/469739/breadwinning-mothers-continue-u-s-norm/">https://www.americanprogress.org/issues/women/reports/2019/05/10/469739/breadwinning-mothers-continue-u-s-norm/</a>. Unfortunately, due to data limitations, it is not possible to analyze same-sex married couples, nor is it possible to differentiate LGBTQ unmarried mothers or parents who are gender nonconforming.
- 29 GLYNN, supra note 28.
- 30 CAP calculations, supra note 28.
- 31 Id
- 32 Id. Data for breadwinning mothers in low-paid jobs who are AAPI or Native American women not available due to insufficient sample size.
- 33 More than one in four women in the overall workforce (27.5 percent) worked part time in 2018, compared to nearly half (47.4 percent) of women in the low-paid workforce. NWLC calculations based on U.S. Census Bureau, 2018 ACS using IPUMS.
- 34 NWLC calculations based on U.S. Census Bureau, 2019 Current Population Survey (CPS) using IPUMS. Figures are for 2018.
- For example, new research indicates that up to 40 percent of all people working part time would prefer more hours, including half of people working part time in service occupations. Lonnie Golden & Jaeseung Kim, Ctr. for Law & Social Policy, Underemployment Just Isn't Working for U.S. Part-Time Workers (2020). See also, e.g., Shift Project, Working in the Service Sector in Washington State (Dec. 2018), <a href="https://shift.berkeley.edu/files/2018/12/Working-in-the-Service-Sector-in-Washington-State.pdf">https://shift.berkeley.edu/files/2018/12/Working-in-the-Service-Sector-in-Washington-State.pdf</a> (69 percent of hourly retail and food service employees working fewer than 30 hours per week report a desire for more hours); Shift Project, Working in the Service Sector in Connecticut.pdf (64 percent of those working fewer than 30 hours per week report a desire for more hours); Shift Project, Working in the Service Sector in New Jersey (Jan. 2020), <a href="https://shift.berkeley.edu/files/2020/01/Working-in-the-Service-Sector-in-New-Jersey.pdf">https://shift.berkeley.edu/files/2020/01/Working-in-the-Service-Sector-in-New-Jersey.pdf</a> (63 percent of those working fewer than 35 hours per week report a desire for more hours).
- 36 NWLC calculations based on US Census Bureau, 2019 CPS using IPUMS. Figures are for 2018. Five percent of women working part time in the low-paid workforce in 2018 reported working part time because of child care problems, and 18 percent reported working part time because of "other family/ personal obligations." *Id*.
- 37 See generally, e.g., Julie Vogtman & Karen Schulman, NWLC, Set Up to Fall: When Low-Wage Work Jeopardizes Parents' and Children's Success (Jan. 2016), <a href="https://nwlc-ciw49tixgw5lbab.stackpathdns.com/wp-content/uploads/2016/01/FINAL-Set-Up-To-Fail-When-Low-Wage-Work-Jeopardizes-Parents%E2%80%99-and-Children%E2%80%99-Success.pdf">https://nwlc-ciw49tixgw5lbab.stackpathdns.com/wp-content/uploads/2016/01/FINAL-Set-Up-To-Fail-When-Low-Wage-Work-Jeopardizes-Parents%E2%80%99-and-Children%E2%80%99-Success.pdf</a>; Claire Ewing-Nelson, NWLC, Part-Time Workers Are Paid Less, Have Less Access to Benefits—And Most Are Women (Feb. 2020), <a href="https://nwlc.org/resources/part-time-workers-are-paid-less-have-less-access-to-benefits-and-most-are-women/">https://nwlc.org/resources/part-time-workers-are-paid-less-have-less-access-to-benefits-and-most-are-women/</a>.
- 38 See, e.g., Emily Stuart & Christina Animashaun, How the Coronavirus Crisis Will Hurt American Workers, in One Chart, Vox (Mar. 24, 2020), https://www.vox.com/policy-and-politics/2020/3/24/21191075/coronavirus-recession-worker-layoffs-unemployment-economy-restaurants-stimulus-bill.



NATIONAL WOMEN'S LAW CENTER
11 Dupont Circle, NW Ste. 800
Washington, DC 20036
nwlc.org