

Foreword

Valuing Families: The State of Oregon's Families inaugurates a new working paper series, *Policy Matters*, that examines public policy issues affecting women and their families in Oregon. The goal of the series is to gather and analyze the best research available about important issues that affect the lives of women, particularly in Oregon and the Northwest. We hope the series will be a valuable tool for policy makers, advocates, researchers and the general public as we work together to create the conditions that will allow all Oregonians to thrive. As a publication of the Center for the Study of Women in Society, the state's only University-based research center with a mandate to generate, support and disseminate high-quality research about women, the *Policy Matters* series will bring the expertise of independent researchers to bear on difficult, and often controversial, public policy questions.

We chose to initiate the series with a paper on families for a number of reasons. First, we believe it is time to move the public policy dialogue beyond "family values" and toward "valuing families." As this paper strongly suggests, moving beyond rhetoric to action will require bold, determined policies that address the economic needs of families, safety and dignity within families, and the complex issues involved in balancing work and family. Second, we share with many other Oregonians the belief that strong families are critical to meeting many of the other goals we have as a state, including strengthening our communities, our economy, and our polity.

However, too often policies purportedly designed to "strengthen families" leave out or disadvantage some families, especially families of color, families headed by women, poor families, and families headed by gay or lesbian parents. In the process of searching for information to include in this report, author Leslie Harris found that while Oregon's families are diverse, information that could specify the needs, for example, of families of color or families headed by gay or lesbian parents is either not routinely collected by the state and many researchers, or is not accessible.

Finally, while it is certainly not the case that enlightened family policies can solve all the equity issues facing women in Oregon, such policies would go a long way toward meeting some of the most important and heartfelt everyday needs of Oregon's women.

While it is tempting to address some of the family policy issues being debated in the legislature, this series is not designed as an advocacy tool for particular policy solutions. Our goal is to collect, compile, and analyze information and to participate in policy discussions taking place in various venues and communities in the state. For example, in the Afterword to this report I look at how major findings of *Valuing Families* converge with the data in the Oregon Progress Board's 1999 report to the Legislative Assembly *Achieving the Oregon Shines Vision: 1999 Benchmark Performance Report*. It is clear that the solutions to the problems facing Oregon's diverse families will require actions in and beyond the legislature, including by elected officials at all levels of government, advocates, educators, human service agencies, community-based organizations, labor, and business communities.

But just as no one sector by itself can solve the difficult issues facing families, no sector can shirk its responsibility for Oregon's future. Oregon's future depends on supporting strong, diverse families. But with poverty rates among Oregon children as high as 15-20 percent (depending on the age of the child), a growing income gap between the state's richest and poorest families, and a stubbornly continuing wage gap between men and women, it is clear that good family policies will need to encompass innovative economic policies. We hope this report can be part of stimulating the dialogue and action necessary for Oregon to become a leader in developing family policies that make a positive difference for all Oregon families, across racial, ethnic, class, and other divides.

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*Director, Center for the
Study of Women in Society*

Valuing Families

The State of Oregon's Families

Policy Matters Paper #1

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University of Oregon*

Policy Matters Paper #1

Valuing Families: The State of Oregon's Families

*by **Leslie Harris**, Dorothy Kliks Fones Professor of Law, University of Oregon*

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Part 1

Introduction

Chapter 1

Introduction

Families—we all care about them very much, rightly believing that strong families are essential to personal and societal well-being. We look first to families to provide economic support, personal care, guidance and education for our children. Most adults also find their greatest personal fulfillment in their families, and many look to family members for material help as well.

It seems that we are perennially anxious about the state of families, particularly in times of rapid social change, such as the one that we live in now. Talk of “family values” and the decline of the family have surrounded us for years. Much of this “family values” discussion has concerned sexuality, gender roles, and related moral issues. One persistent message has been that if people would just return to “traditional” family ways, most of the problems that society confronts would be solved. Public discussion has focused on issues such as divorce, teen pregnancy, abortion, reproduction rights, same-sex marriage, and welfare reform.

Much of this discussion about families has been ideological; relatively little has included information useful to policy makers or members of the public. The purpose of this paper is to provide a wide variety of information about families in Oregon. The paper presents data which illuminate important issues affecting Oregon families. We hope this information will assist law and policy makers, family advocates, interested members of the community and scholars to help all Oregon families thrive. The first chapter after this introduction provides information about the diversity of Oregon families.

The second part of the paper examines the economic well-being of Oregon families. It begins with a descriptive section about availability and distribution of income, followed by sections on wages, child support for children not living with both parents, the tax burden on families, the incidence of poverty and Oregon’s public assistance programs. It concludes with a discussion of access to health insurance, since, for most people, having insurance is essential to obtaining adequate health care. Both employment-based and publicly funded insurance programs are included here.

Programs and policies to assist workers accommodate their work and family responsibilities is the topic of the third part. After an overview of the issues, the section examines child care, the most important need of working parents. The next chapter examines employment policies and conditions that can enable workers to spend time on the needs of their families while also performing well on the job.

The fourth part of this paper looks at a major threat to family success—domestic violence. It includes information about the incidence of violence between family members, as well as social and legal responses.

While a paper like this cannot cover everything, it presents data about some of the most important issues affecting families across class, racial and ethnic, and regional lines. Some important issues are not covered, either because they are so large that they require papers devoted entirely to them

or because there is too little statewide data about them. For example, this paper only discusses access to health insurance and not the much larger topic of health care. Instead, this will be the sole topic of the second paper in this CSWS policy series. Child abuse and juvenile delinquency are critically related the well-being of families; nevertheless, they are not covered here because they are so large and because there is no statewide information about certain dimensions of these issues.

A note on language

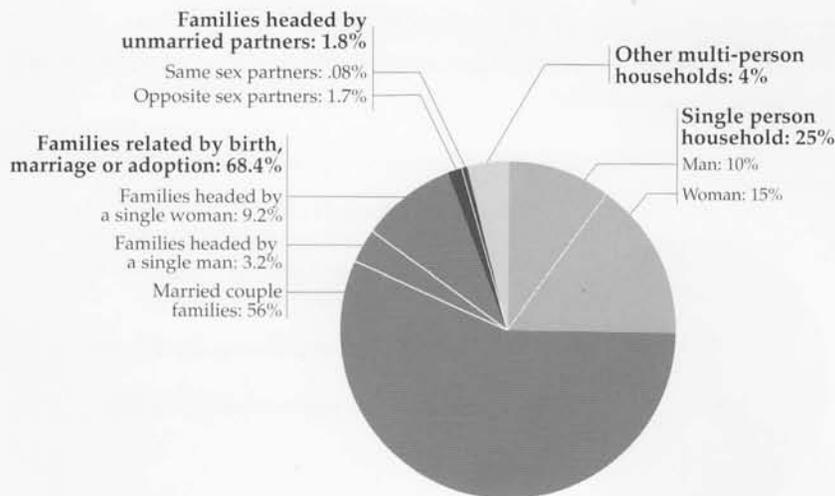
Some of the data in this report deal with issues of race and ethnicity. In reporting these findings, we have chosen to use the racial categories as defined by the sources as a matter of being faithful to the original data. Thus, this report contains variances in describing racial/ethnic categories, with the appearance, for example, of "White" or "Black" in some data and "Caucasian" or "African American" in others. For the same reason, in Chapter 12, which deals with domestic violence, we have chosen to retain the word "victim"—while recognizing the important argument on the part of domestic violence advocates for using the term "survivor"—because the former was used by the original sources in data collection.

Chapter 2

The Diversity of Oregon Households

Between 1990 and 1997, Oregon's population grew almost 13.2 percent, to 3.22 million.¹ More than 70 percent of all Oregonians live with other family members, as Figure 2.1 shows. A quarter of the population lives alone, and the remainder live with roommates or other unrelated people. The families are very diverse in terms of the number and marital status of adults in the family, the age of family members, and the ethnicity and race of family members.

Figure 2.1 Composition of Oregon Households, 1990



Sources: 1996 Oregon Population Survey Summary; 1990 Census of Population and Housing; General Profile of Oregon, available online (visited June 2, 1998) <<http://govinfo.library.orst.edu/>>; Census Bureau, 1990 Census of Population, Social and Economic Characteristics—Oregon 45, Table 21—Fertility and Household and Family Composition: 1990 (1990 CP-2-39 1993).

Number and marital status of adults living in families

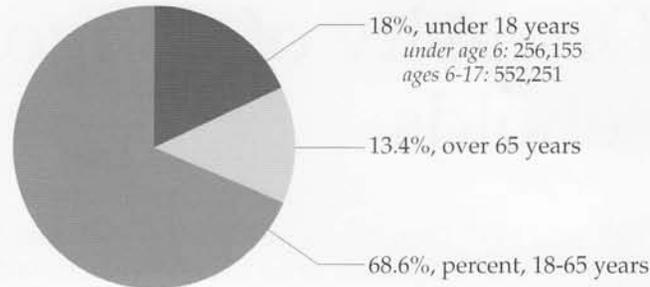
Most Oregon households are families, and in 1990, the most recent year for which complete data are available, most of these families were headed by married couples. However, almost 15 percent were headed by single women, 4 percent by single men, and more than 2 percent by unmarried partners.² Of the unmarried partners, 4.5 percent were of the same sex.³ In 1997, 24 percent of all Oregon families consisted of a single parent living with children younger than 18.⁴

Age of family members

While two-thirds of Oregon's population is between the ages of 18 and 65 (see Figure 2.2), most of the households include children under 18 or adults older than 65. In 1990, about one-third of Oregon's households consisted of children younger than 18 living with adult caretakers.⁵ Adults older than 65 head more than one-fifth of the households.⁶

Figure 2.2 Composition of Oregon's Population by Age

Source: Census Bureau, *Statistical Abstract of the United States—1997*, State Profile for Oregon 62, Table 73 (117th ed. 1997).



The composition of children's families

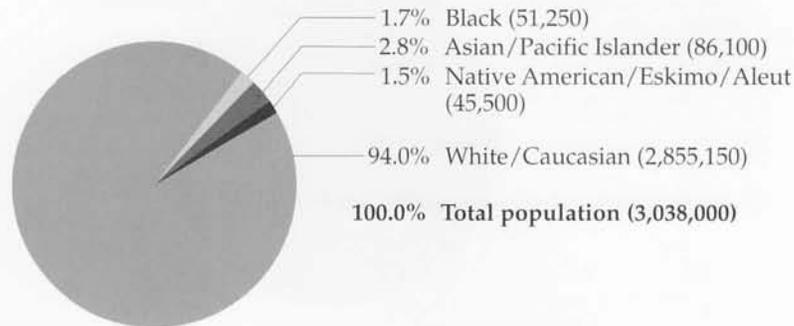
While 70 percent of Oregon children younger than six live in two-parent families, more than a quarter live with a single parent.⁷ About 29 percent of all children born in Oregon were born to unmarried mothers.⁸

The race and ethnicity of Oregon families

As Figure 2.3 shows, about 94 percent of Oregonians identify themselves as White or Caucasian.

Source: Portland State University Center for Population Research and Census, *Experimental Race Estimates for Oregon and Its Counties: July 1, 1993*, available online (visited June 2, 1998) <<http://www.upa.pdx.edu/CPRc/>>. For purposes of these calculations, the persons in the category "Hispanics" may belong to any racial group. This survey used census categories of four racial groups (White, Black, Asian, Native American) and two ethnic groups (Hispanic and Non-Hispanic). The figures for the four racial groups should add up to the total population. E-mail message to Leslie Harris from Barry Edmonton, June 5, 1998.

Figure 2.3 Racial Composition of Oregon's Population

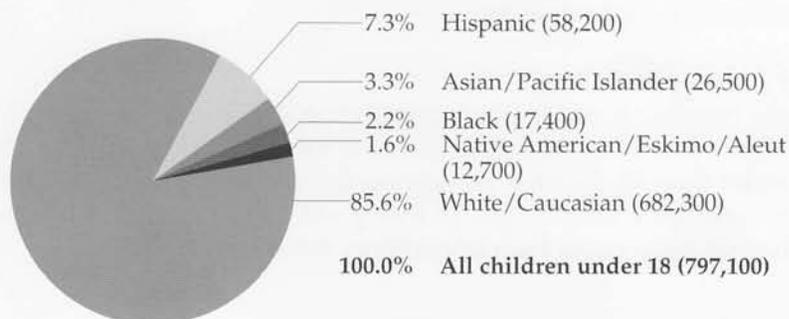


People of Hispanic descent, who may be of any race, constitute almost 5 percent of the state's population.

Oregon's children younger than 18 are more racially diverse than the general population, as Figure 2.4 shows.

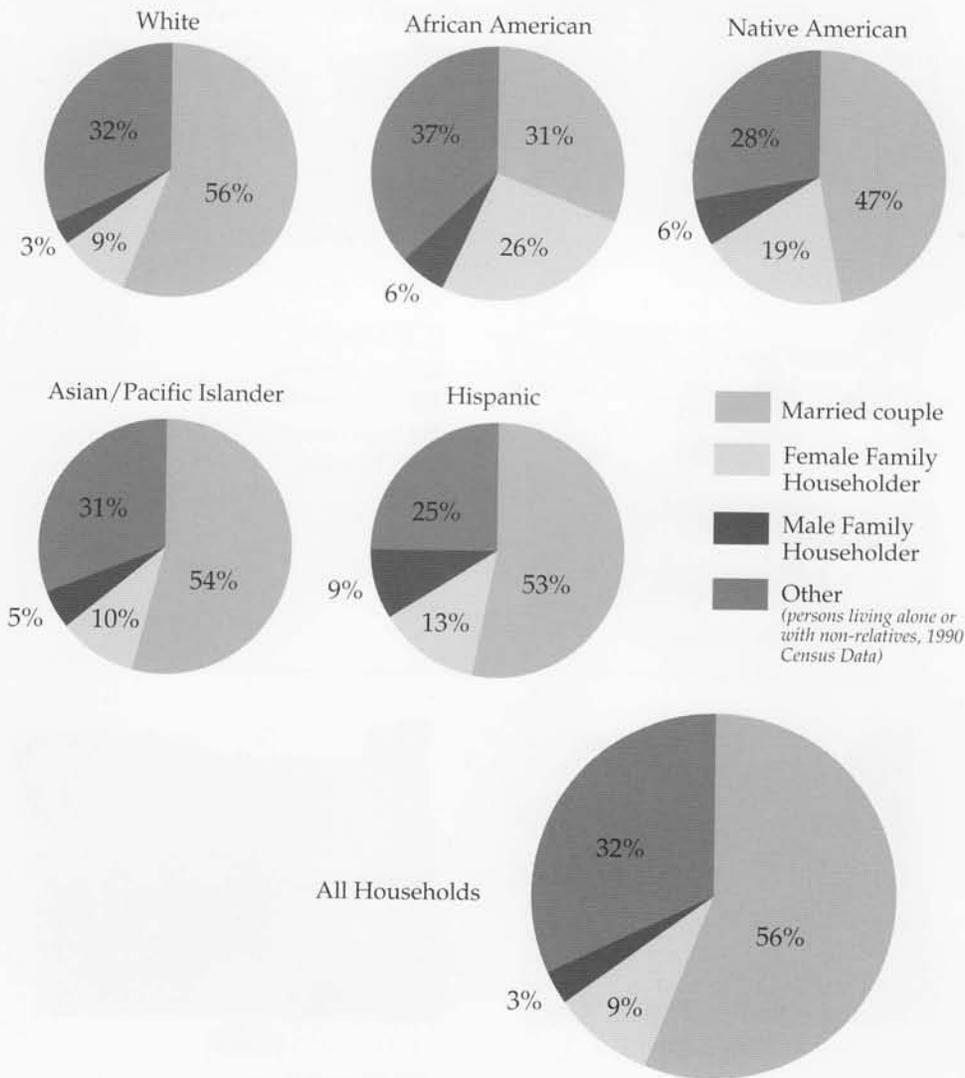
Source: Annie E. Casey Foundation, "Ethnicity of Children in 1995," in 1997 State Profile of Oregon, based upon Population Reference Bureau, analysis of state estimate and projection data from the U.S. Bureau of the Census. Available online (visited July 12, 1998) <<http://www.census.gov/population/estimates/state/>>. This data set, unlike the one used to generate Figure 2.3, treats Hispanics as a separate group whose members do not overlap the other groups.

Figure 2.4 Race and Ethnicity of Children under 18



Household composition varies significantly among the state's racial and ethnic groups, as Figure 2.5 shows. In 1990, the most recent year for which data are available, among Whites, Asian/Pacific Islanders, and Hispanics more than half of all households were headed by a married couple. Married couples headed 31 percent of African American households and 47 percent of Native American households. The percentage of households headed by a single man varied from 3 to 9 percent, and those headed by a single woman ranged from 9 percent among Whites to more than 25 percent among African Americans.

Figure 2.5 Household Type by Racial/Ethnic Group
State of Oregon, 1990



Source: Center for the Study of Women in Society & Labor Education and Research Center, *Women in Oregon: A Profile from the 1990 Census* 29 (1993), based upon 1990 Census data.

More than 80 percent of Oregonians who identify themselves as Black and two-thirds of those who identify themselves as Asian/Pacific Islander live in the Portland metropolitan area (Multnomah, Washington, and Clackamas counties). About one-quarter of the state's Native Americans and one-third of people of Hispanic descent live in that area as well.⁹ (See Appendix A.) Figure 2.6 shows racial and ethnic distribution of the population among the state's counties.

Figure 2.6 Racial and Ethnic Distribution by County, 1993

Source: Portland State University Center for Population Research and Census, "Experimental Race Estimates for Oregon and Its Counties: July 1, 1993", available online at <<http://www.upa.pdx.edu/CPRC/>>, visited 6/2/98.



- < 1.5 percent
- 1.51-4.0 percent
- 4.01-7.5 percent
- 7.51-15 percent
- > 15 percent

- < 80 percent
- 80-90 percent
- > 90 percent

Availability of information about family diversity

To the extent possible, this paper presents data that shows how issues and policies affect different kinds of families differently. However, in many instances there is no statewide data that deals with specific kinds of families, for example, families of color, gay and lesbian families, blended families, or families with special needs parents or children. As long as the experiences and needs of these families are invisible, it is unlikely that their particular situations will be addressed. We had hoped to shed more light on the issues facing these families than we were able to; we need more research about how policies could strengthen and meet the needs of families—all kinds of families—in this state.

Part 2

Economic Issues

Chapter 3

The Economic Status of Oregon Families

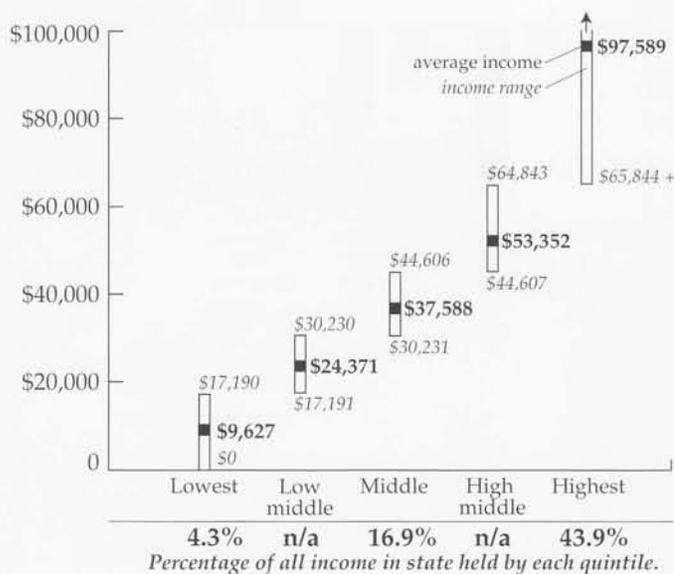
As a whole, Oregonians' economic status has improved in recent years, but not everyone has shared equally in this increasing prosperity. The families whose incomes have increased the most in the last decade are those who already had the highest incomes; families in the lower economic brackets have lost ground.

Poverty rates are essentially the same as they were in 1990—15 percent for families with children¹ and almost 12 percent for all Oregonians.² Poverty is higher among children and the elderly than among adults younger than 65, and it is higher among single-parent households headed by mothers than among any other group. As a whole, women are less well-off economically than men, and people of color are less well-off than whites.

The growing income gap

The median household income in Oregon, \$36,777, is slightly above the national median of \$36,656,³ but the median income for families with children under 18 is below the national mark.⁴ A recent national study confirms a trend previously reported by the Oregon Employment Department⁵—income distribution in the state is quite unequal, and the disparity is growing. According to the national study, in the mid-90s, the average income of the richest 20 percent of Oregon families with children was ten times as large as that of the poorest 20 percent and two-and-a-half times as large as that of the middle 20 percent⁶ (see Figure 3.1).⁶

Figure 3.1 Incomes of Oregon Families with at Least One Child Younger than 18



Source: Kathryn Larin & Elizabeth McNichol, *Pulling Apart: A State-by-State Analysis of Income Trends*, Table 2 "Ratio of Incomes of Top and Bottom Fifths of Families with Children, '94-'96"; Table 4 "Share of State Income Held by Bottom and Top Fifths of Families with Children, '78-'80 through '94-'96"; Appendix Table 3 "Income Ranges for Each Fifth of Families with Children, by State, '94-'96"; Appendix Table 4 "Average Incomes of Fifths of Families with Children in '78-'80 through '94-'96, by State," The Center on Budget and Policy Priorities (last modified December 16, 1997) <<http://www.cbpp.org/pa-2.htm>> and appendix tables available at <<http://www.cbpp.org/pa-meth.htm>>, using an average of Current Population Survey data (1994-1996).

As Figure 3.2 shows, between the late 70s and mid-90s, in Oregon the average income of the bottom fifth of families with children declined 21 percent, while that of the top fifth grew by 15 percent.

Figure 3.2 Changes in Income of Oregon Families with Children
Early 1980s to Mid-1990s

Source: Kathryn Larin & Elizabeth McNichol, *Pulling Apart: A State-by-State Analysis of Income Trends*, Table 1 "Dollar and Percent Change in Average Incomes of Bottom and Top Fifths of Families with Children, '78-'80 to '94-'96"; Table 5 "Dollar and Percentage Change in Average Incomes of Middle and Top Fifths of Families with Children, '78-'80 to '94-'96," *The Center on Budget and Policy Priorities* (last modified December 16, 1997) <<http://www.cbpp.org/pa-2.htm>>.

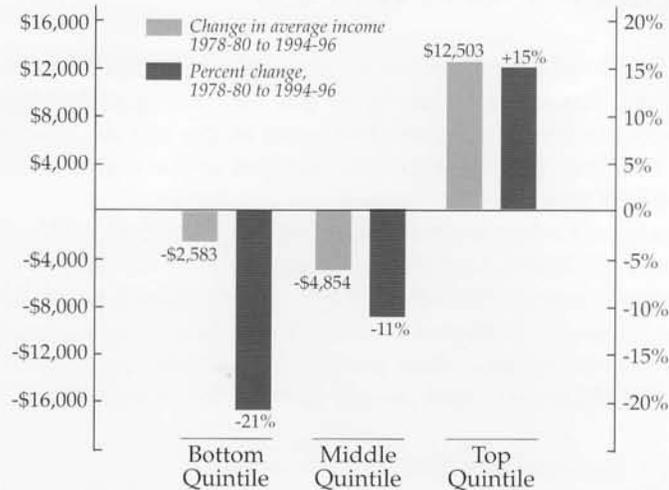
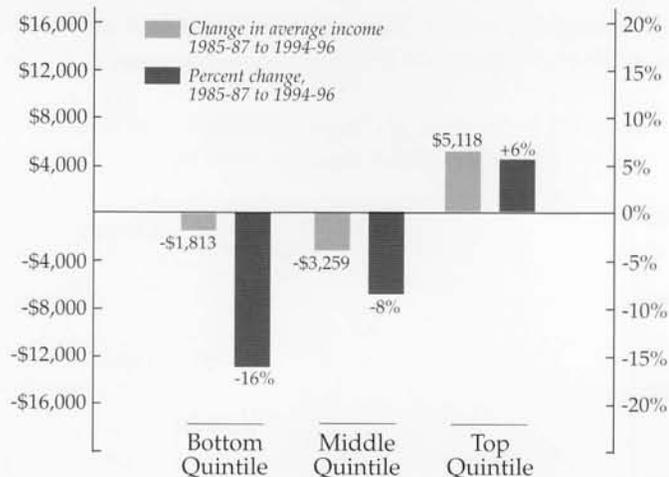


Figure 3.3 shows that the disparity between the top and bottom quintiles increased even more rapidly from the mid-80s to the mid-90s.

Figure 3.3 Changes in Income of Oregon Families with Children
Mid-1980s to Mid-1990s

Source: Kathryn Larin & Elizabeth McNichol, *Pulling Apart: A State-by-State Analysis of Income Trends*, Table 9 "Percentage Change in Average Incomes of Bottom and Top Fifths of Families with Children, '85-'87 to '94-'96"; Table 11 "Share of State Income Held by Bottom and Top Fifths of Families with Children, '85-'87 through '94-'96"; Table 12 "Percentage Change in Average Incomes of Middle and Top Fifths of Families with Children, '85-'87 to '94-'96"; Table 14 "Share of State Income Held by the Middle and Top Fifths of Families with Children, '85-'87 through '94-'96," *The Center on Budget and Policy Priorities* (last modified December 16, 1997) <<http://www.cbpp.org/pa-3.htm>>.



Income and poverty variation among the counties

Income distribution and poverty rates in the state vary substantially by locale. Households in the counties surrounding Portland (Clackamas, Multnomah, Washington and Yamhill) have the highest median income in the state. Generally, income in metropolitan areas is substantially higher than in non-metropolitan areas.⁷

No matter where you live in Oregon, poverty exists, but there is a wide range in the poverty rate among the counties, as Figure 3.4 shows. In 1993, the most recent year for which county-by-county data are available, the counties with poverty rates below 10 percent were Gilliam, Morrow, Clackamas, Washington, Columbia, and Wheeler. More than a quarter of the counties had poverty rates above 15 percent, including Multnomah County.⁸ (See Appendix B.)

Figure 3.4 1993 General Poverty Rates by County



Source: 1993 Bureau of the Census intercensal poverty estimates, as reported in Oregon Employment Department, 1998 Regional Economic Profile, State of Oregon 98 (December 1997).

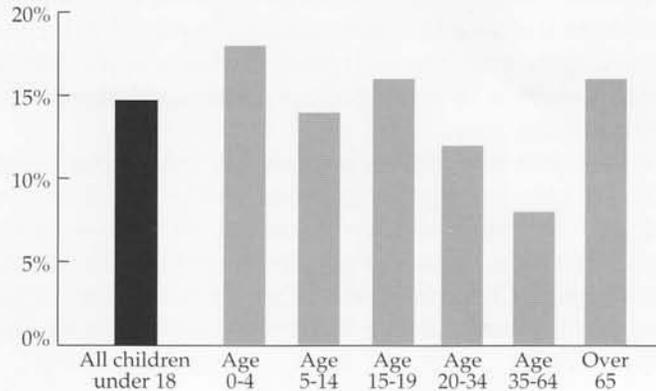
Poverty among children and the elderly

The oldest and youngest Oregonians are relatively the poorest. As Figure 3.5 shows, the poorest group of all Oregonians is children younger than 5 years old; almost one in five of them live in poverty. Almost 15 percent of all Oregon children younger than 18 live in a family with income below the federal poverty level, compared to 19.9 percent nationwide.⁹ Seven percent of Oregon children under 18 live in extreme poverty—in families with incomes below 50 percent of the U.S. poverty level, compared to 9 percent nationwide.¹⁰

Figure 3.5 also shows that poverty is more common among the elderly than among younger adults. About 16 percent of Oregonians over 65 years old are poor. While Oregon children as a group are not as poor as children nationally, the poverty rate for those 65 and older in Oregon is substantially higher than the national figure of 10.5 percent.¹¹

Figure 3.5 The Relationship between Poverty and Age

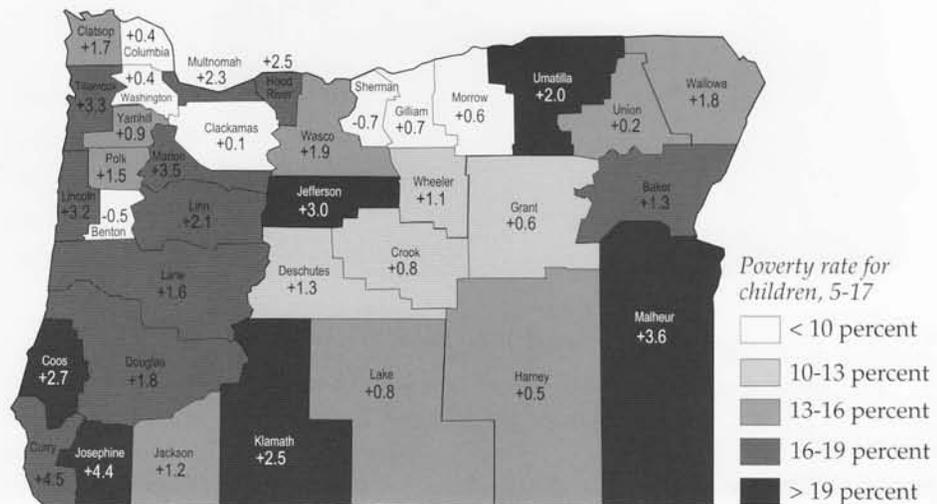
Source: Kanhaiya L. Vaidya, 1996 Oregon Population Survey Summary 3, Office of Economic Analysis, Department of Administrative Services, State of Oregon (February 1997).



In all but two counties the poverty rate for school-age children is greater than the poverty rate for the general population, as Figure 3.6 shows. In the two counties with the highest child poverty rate, about one-fourth of all children are poor.

Figure 3.6 1993 Children's Poverty Rates by County, Compared to General Poverty Rates by County

Source: 1993 Bureau of the Census intercensal poverty estimates, as reported in Oregon Employment Department, 1998 Regional Economic Profile, State of Oregon 98 (December 1997).



Relationships among income, poverty, gender, and marital status

Gender correlates with economic well-being in Oregon. As a whole, women are less economically prosperous than men. Oregon women earn about the same median annual income that women in the nation as a whole earn (\$24,900), but the median earnings of Oregon men are higher than for the nation as a whole (\$35,800 and \$34,400 respectively).¹² Nationwide, in every field except architecture and environmental design, men earn more than women with the same level of education.¹³

Gender and marital status are also strongly correlated with poverty rates, as Figure 3.7 shows. In Oregon, almost one-third of all households headed by single women live below the 1998 federal poverty level (\$13,656 for a family of three.) The poverty rate for households headed by single men is almost half that of women, while households headed by married couples were least likely of all households to be poor.¹⁴

Figure 3.7 Poverty Rates by Marital Status of Householder

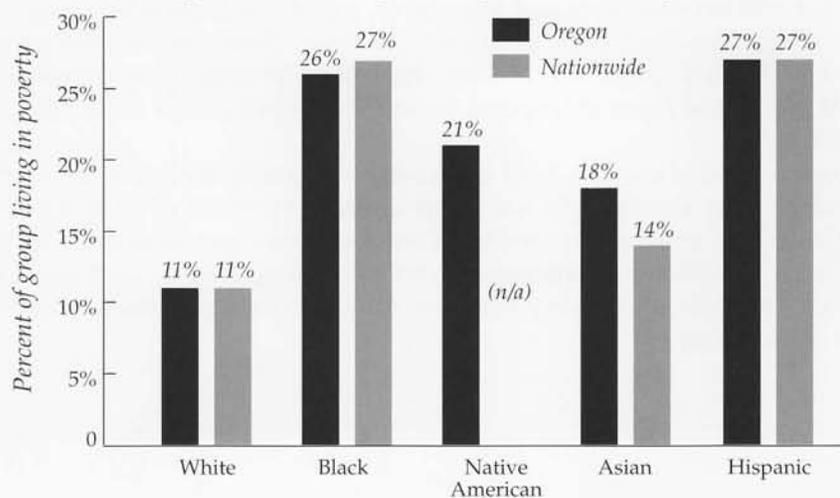


Source: Kanhaiya L. Vaidya, 1996 Oregon Population Survey Summary 3, Office of Economic Analysis, Department of Administrative Services, State of Oregon (February 1997).

People of color and poverty

People of color have substantially higher poverty rates than do Whites, both in Oregon and nationally, as Figure 3.8 shows. In Oregon one-fourth to one-fifth of African Americans, Native Americans and Asians are poor, while 10 percent of Whites are. More than one in four Hispanics are poor. National rates are similar except for people of Asian heritage, whose national poverty rate is lower than the Oregon rate.

Figure 3.8 Poverty Rates by Race/Ethnicity



Sources: Kanhaiya L. Vaidya, 1996 Oregon Population Survey Summary, Office of Economic Analysis, Department of Administrative Services, State of Oregon (February 1997); Dalaker, Joseph and Mary Naifeh, U.S. Bureau of the Census, Current Population Reports, Series P60-201, Poverty in the United States: 1997 vii, Table A, U.S. Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C. (1998).

Some major impacts of income disparity

For the thousands of Oregonians with incomes at or near the poverty level, obtaining basic resources, including adequate housing and food, is a struggle. In addition, because housing costs are relatively high, middle income people also have difficulties.

Housing costs

Relative to wages, the cost of homes in Oregon is among the nation's highest. All of the Oregon communities included in a 1998 national survey by the National Association of Home Builders ranked among the 25 least affordable metropolitan areas in the country, as Table 3.1 shows.

Table 3.1 *Affordability of Homes for Sale*

<i>Community</i>	<i>Share of homes affordable for median income (%)</i>	<i>Median family income</i>	<i>Median sales price</i>	<i>Affordability rank*</i>
National average	64.8%	\$45,300	\$135,000	n/a
Eugene/Springfield	32.1%	\$39,700	\$125,000	191
Portland/Vancouver	32.9%	\$49,600	\$158,000	190
Medford/Ashland	37.5%	\$38,000	\$122,000	186
Salem	47.3%	\$42,200	\$120,000	176

*of 191 total, 1 = most affordable.

Source: National Association of Home Builders, *Housing Opportunity Index: Second Quarter 1998* (visited November 3, 1998) <<http://www.nahb.com/alpha1.html>>.

Nationwide, almost two-thirds of homes are considered affordable for families with median incomes. In the Portland metro area, Eugene-Springfield, and Medford-Ashland, only about one-third of homes were affordable, and in Salem, less than half were.

The gap between income and housing costs is particularly pronounced for poor Oregonians. In 1998, for seven out of ten poor Oregon renters, housing and utilities were not affordable, using the federal housing affordability standard of 30 percent of income.¹⁵ Poor people who own their own homes spend less of their income on average than do renters, but 38 percent of them still spend more than 30 percent of their income on housing.¹⁶

As Table 3.2 shows, in 1997 a four-person family with income at the federal poverty level would have had to pay 40 percent of its income to pay the lowest fair market rent for a two-bedroom apartment in Oregon. Families with income at the poverty level for three people, and families receiving welfare or working full-time for the minimum wage would have fared even worse.

Table 3.2 1997 Housing Costs in Oregon at Selected Income Levels

Facts	\$/month	\$/year	
1997 Lowest fair market rent for a two-bedroom apartment	\$548	\$6,576	
1997 Oregon minimum wage, \$5.50/hr	\$917	\$11,004	<i>Lowest fmv rent is 60% of this</i>
1997 Poverty level income for a single parent with two children	\$1,067	\$12,804	<i>Lowest fmv rent is 50% of this</i>
1997 Poverty level income for two parents and two children	\$1,367	\$16,404	<i>Lowest fmv rent is 40% of this</i>
Maximum welfare payment plus food stamps for single parent with two children (using 1997 figures)	\$815	\$9,780	<i>Lowest fmv rent is 67% of this</i>

Hunger in Oregon

An even more stark consequence of poverty in Oregon is hunger, which is a reality for many Oregonians. In fiscal year 1998, approximately one-eighth of all Oregonians received food assistance from one of the 650 not-for-profit hunger relief agencies in the state. More than 400,000 people received an emergency food box, and the agencies served more than 2.6 million meals.¹⁷

The Oregon Food Bank surveyed 2,615 people who received food assistance in the state during 1998 to learn more about the depth of hunger and the factors that contribute to hunger. In 71 percent of the households, people had to choose between buying food and paying other household expenses such as rent and utilities. Because of lack of money for food, 71 percent of adults cut the size of or skipped meals, and in 15 percent of households children's meals were reduced in size or skipped.¹⁸

The survey found that about 40 percent of the people in households that received a food box were children younger than 18.¹⁹ Thirty-three percent of the households were two-parent families, and 24 percent were headed by single parents.²⁰ More than 90 percent of the households that received food assistance had incomes below the federal poverty level; almost two-thirds had incomes below 50 percent of the poverty level.²¹ About one-fourth of the households receiving assistance included at least one person working full-time.²²

Conclusions and comments

Because of improved economic conditions in Oregon over the last few years, the most wealthy fifth of the population are significantly better off. However, the position of people in the middle and lower socio-economic groups has not improved to the same extent. Poverty rates have remained the same, meaning that the absolute number of poor people is rising.

Poverty rates vary substantially from county to county. Poverty hits children especially hard; almost 15 percent of all children are poor, as are almost 30 percent of all families headed by a single mother with children.

Another indicator of poverty is the growing number of people who seek assistance from food banks and other agencies. The effects of income disparity are magnified by the relatively high cost of housing in the state.

Sources: Children's Defense Fund, *Children in the States: 1998 Data, 1998 Oregon Profile* (visited April 30, 1998) <http://www.childrensdefense.org/states/data_or.html>. The rent figure is from U.S. Department Of Housing and Urban Development, *Federal Register*, vol. 62, no. 83 (April 30, 1997), pp.23551-23611. The minimum wage/rent comparison was calculated by the Children's Defense Fund using this figure and a minimum wage of \$5.50 per hour, the minimum wage in 1997. The poverty level figures are from Nicholas Johnson, Michael Mazerov, Elizabeth McNichol, & Alan Berube, *State Income Tax Burdens on Low-Income Families in 1997: Assessing the Burden and Opportunities for Relief 2*, the Center on Budget and Policy Priorities (visited April 14, 1998) <<http://www.cbpp.org/>>.

The rest of this section looks more closely at a variety of factors that help explain why so many Oregonians have not shared in the economic prosperity of recent years.

Chapter 4

Wages

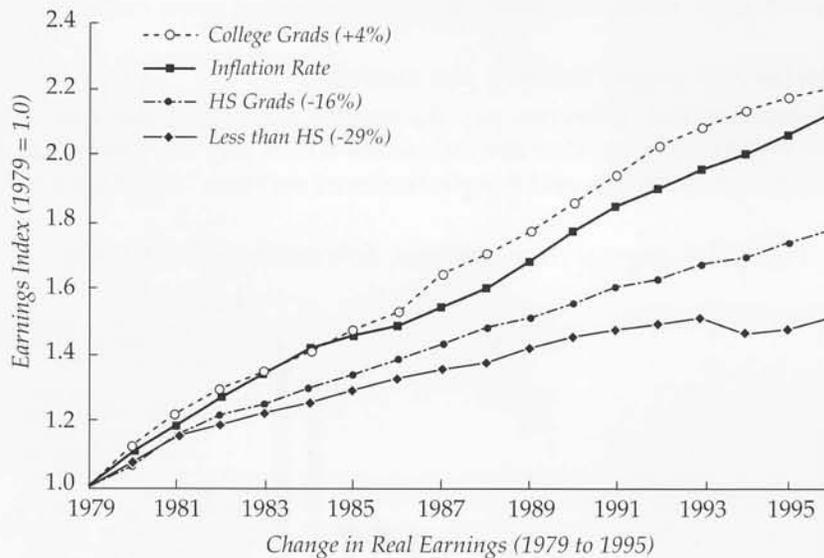
Most Oregonians' major source of income is wages. In 1996 the average wage in Oregon was \$27,031, which was 93 percent of the average U.S. wage.¹ In Oregon, wages are correlated with a worker's level of education, the industry in which he or she works, and the county in which he or she lives.

Oregonians as a group do not have a particularly high level of educational attainment, and the counties with the highest concentrations of jobs that do not require much education report the lowest wage levels. Workers with the lowest earnings—those who are paid the minimum wage—do not make enough to support a family of three above the federal poverty level.

The economic value of education

Wages are strongly related to level of education, and the economic value of education has increased substantially since 1979. Nationwide, in 1979 a college graduate earned 38 percent more than the average high school graduate. In 1996 the difference had grown to 71 percent. For those with advanced degrees, the difference in income grew from 52 percent in 1979 to 106 percent in 1996² (see Figure 4.1).²

Figure 4.1 Median Weekly Full-Time Earnings of U.S. Wage and Salary Workers, age 25+

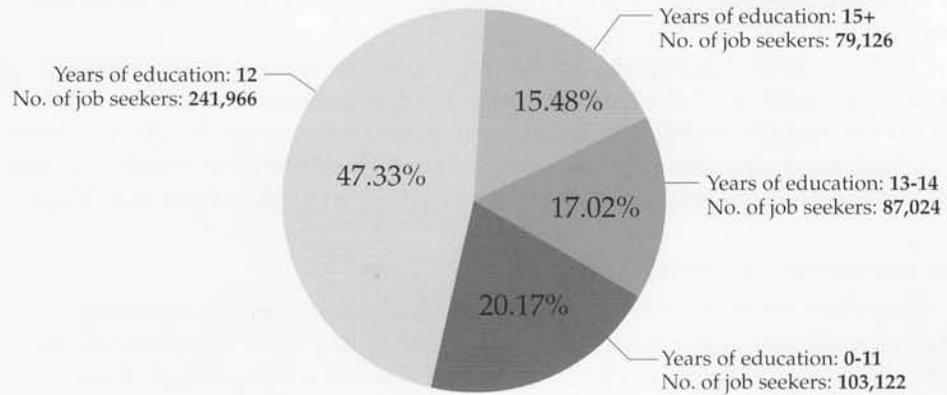


Source: Oregon Employment Department, 1998 *Regional Economic Profile, State of Oregon 67* (December 1997), line graph from the U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics.

The economic advantage of education is also reflected in Oregon's unemployment statistics. Almost two-thirds of those who are unemployed and registered with the Oregon Employment Department had a high school education or less, while only 15.5 percent of the unemployed registered with the department had three years of college or more (see Figure 4.2).

Figure 4.2 Job Seekers Registered with Oregon Employment Department, 1996

Source: Oregon Employment Department, 1998 Regional Economic Profile, State of Oregon 21 (December 1997).



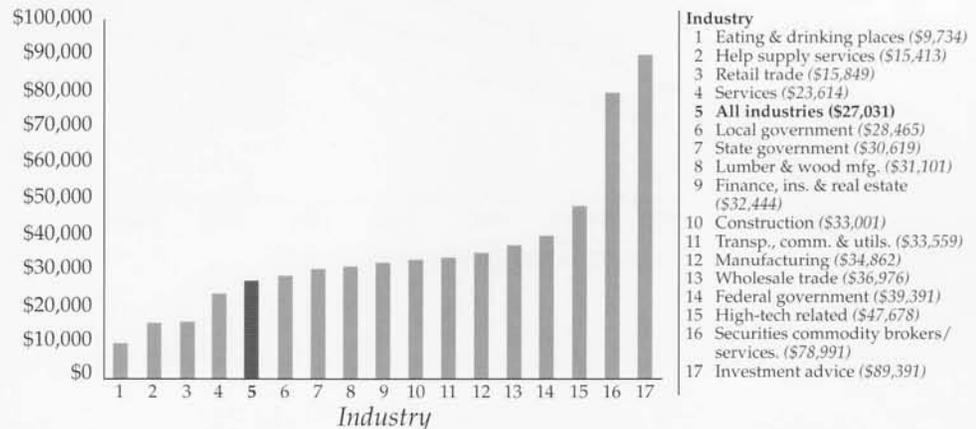
Many Oregonians lack basic educational credentials. The high school drop out rate is 6.7 percent and has increased since 1990.³ Almost 10 percent of adults 25 years old and older have not completed high school and have not obtained a GED.⁴ Less than a third of adults have completed a bachelor's degree, though 60 percent have completed some college.⁵

Distribution of wages among the counties

High-tech related industries pay the highest average wages and require relatively more education than the industries which pay the lowest average annual wage—retail trade and nonprofessional services.⁶ (See Figure 4.3.)

Figure 4.3 Average Annual Wages, Selected Oregon Industries

Source: Oregon Employment Department, 1998 Regional Economic Profile, State of Oregon 72 (December 1997).



The counties in which high-tech companies are concentrated report much higher wages than other counties, as Table 4.1 shows. For example, high-tech related industries are concentrated in the four counties with wages above the state average—Washington, Multnomah, Benton, and Clackamas. In Washington County the average annual wage was \$32,764, almost twice the average annual wage in Sherman County. Differences in industries and occupations are, in fact, the major factors affecting wage differences in the counties.⁷

Table 4.1 Average Annual Wages by County

Rank	County	1996 Average Annual Wage	Percent of Oregon
1	Washington	\$32,764	121.2%
2	Multnomah	\$30,632	113.3%
3	Benton	\$29,248	108.2%
4	Clackamas	\$27,219	100.7%
5	Columbia	\$25,596	94.7%
6	Linn	\$25,585	94.6%
7	Crook	\$24,293	89.9%
8	Lane	\$24,173	89.4%
9	Marion	\$24,057	89.0%
10	Douglas	\$23,604	87.3%
11	Yamhill	\$23,555	87.1%
12	Morrow	\$23,212	85.9%
13	Klamath	\$23,108	85.5%
14	Jefferson	\$22,986	85.0%
15	Jackson	\$22,669	83.9%
16	Gilliam	\$22,639	83.8%
17	Deschutes	\$22,469	83.1%
18	Coos	\$22,405	83.1%
19	Clatsop	\$21,918	81.1%
20	Grant	\$21,831	80.8%
21	Polk	\$21,112	78.1%
22	Umatilla	\$20,996	77.7%
23	Wasco	\$20,914	77.4%
24	Union	\$20,851	77.1%
25	Josephine	\$20,675	76.5%
26	Baker	\$20,650	76.4%
27	Lincoln	\$20,566	76.1%
28	Wallowa	\$20,511	75.9%
29	Lake	\$20,335	75.2%
30	Harney	\$20,263	75.0%
31	Tillamook	\$20,018	74.1%
32	Curry	\$19,274	71.3%
33	Hood River	\$19,117	70.7%
34	Malheur	\$18,617	68.9%
35	Wheeler	\$18,458	68.3%
36	Sherman	\$17,903	66.2%
	Oregon	\$27,031	100.0%
	United States	\$28,945	107.1%

Source: Oregon Employment Department, 1998 *Regional Economic Profile, State of Oregon 70* (December 1997).

Minimum wage work

Minimum wage jobs also require relatively little education; most minimum wage workers are employed in retail trade and in nonprofessional service occupations. In 1996, just over half the workers in these occupational categories earned the minimum wage.⁸

While the Oregon minimum wage of \$6.50 per hour is one of the highest in the country, a person working full-time at this wage does not earn enough to support a family of three above the federal poverty threshold, which in 1998 was \$13,656 for a single-parent family of three and \$16,452 for a two-parent family of four. In comparison, thirty years ago, in 1968 a person earning the federal minimum wage of \$1.40 per hour made enough to support a family of three at 118 percent of the federal poverty level.⁹

Conclusions and comments

As is well known, Oregon is in the midst of transforming its economic base from natural resource extraction and is seeking to attract jobs in high-paying industries, which require employees to be well-educated. State policies that help people stay or go back to school will benefit not only individuals but the state as a whole.

The state also needs to continue its efforts to increase pay levels for minimum wage work. A person working full-time at any kind of job should at least be able to support a small family above the federal poverty level, which is quite low.

Chapter 5

Child Support Collections

For many families, especially those headed by a single mother, child support is a potentially critical source of income. Efforts to establish and collect child support have increased greatly in recent years. Data about the state-federal collection program show that total collections in Oregon have increased, but most of the improvements have been on behalf of children not receiving public assistance.

Total child support collections

On average, only 43 percent of female-headed families in Oregon received child support or alimony in 1993-97.¹ A third of child support ordered by a court was not paid in Oregon in 1998.²

Oregon's government-funded child support enforcement program

In Oregon, as in other states, the state and federal governments work together to provide child support enforcement services for all children receiving welfare cash assistance and for children not receiving assistance whose custodians sign up for the service. Some undetermined number of children receive child support from absent parents who pay through private channels, rather than through the governmental system.

The total number of dollars of child support collected in Oregon through the governmental system has been increasing over the last five years.³ However, child support collections for families receiving public assistance remain low. Figures from the state agency which administers the program, Adult and Family Services, show that the state collects child support for less than 20 percent of families receiving TANF cash assistance.⁴ In June 1998, of 23,423 TANF-related cases, only 9,523, about 40 percent, had child support orders, and of these only 3,643, about 15 percent, recorded a payment.⁵

As Table 5.1 shows, in fiscal year 1996, across the state the number of state and local employees working on child support enforcement increased by almost 25 percent.⁶ Many measures of performance improved as well, including total collections, number of paternities and support orders established, and number of absent parents located. The overall cost effectiveness of the support enforcement program improved more than 16 percent. However, collections in welfare-related cases totaled only a little more than \$31 million, an increase of less than 2 percent, compared to an increase of 6.2 percent nationally.

The data do not show why collections in welfare cases are so low, but the same is true across the country.⁷ Studies suggest that the reasons include the inability of child support enforcement agencies to locate absent parents⁸ and the poverty of many of these parents.⁹

Table 5.1 Child Support State Box Scores for FY 1996

Source: ACF/Office of Child Support Enforcement, *Twenty-First OCSE Annual Report to Congress*, Appendix B: State and National "Box Scores" for FY 1996 (last modified July 31, 1998)
<<http://www.acf.dhhs.gov/programs/cse/prgrpt.htm>>.

	Oregon	% change from fy 95	National	% change from fy 95
AFDC collections	\$31,152,281	1.9	\$2,855,066,037	6.2
NonAFDC collections	\$147,275,756	16.7	\$9,164,723,387	12.6
Total collections	\$178,428,037	13.8	\$12,019,789,424	11.0
Total expenditures	\$31,874,444	-2.2	\$3,054,821,424	1.4
Cost/effectiveness-all	\$5.60	16.4	\$3.93	9.5
Cost/effectiveness AFDC	\$0.98	4.2	\$0.93	4.7
Cost/effectiveness NonAFDC	\$4.62	19.3	\$3.00	11.1
Paternities estab.	5,740	11.3	718,152	8.9
Support orders estab.	15,542	14.5	1,081,981	2.9
Absent parents located	108,988	8.6	5,779,489	16.8
FTE employees	672	23.8	50,734	1.3
AFDC caseload	114,305	-1.5	9,970,816	3.9
NonAFDC caseload	157,704	14.7	9,347,875	6.4
Total caseload	272,009	7.3	19,318,691	0.8

Conclusions and comments

The data presented here, which mostly describe the state-federal child support enforcement program, show that the program has had increasing success in establishing and enforcing child support obligations for children not receiving welfare cash payments. However, the picture is less positive for children whose families receive TANF, and it seems likely that many families who leave TANF through the state welfare-to-work program, which is discussed in Chapter 7, also will not be able to rely on steady child support payments.

Chapter 6

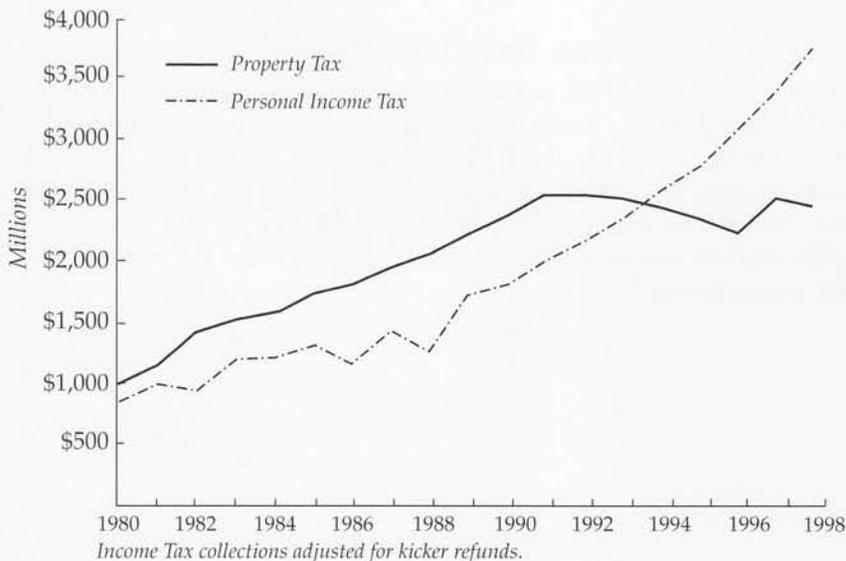
The Tax Burden on Families

Because of decreases in property taxes in the aftermath of Ballot Measures 5 and 50, Oregonians pay a smaller percentage of their income in state and local taxes. However, the decrease in property taxes benefitted business more than individual property. In addition, the total amount of personal income tax collected has increased more in recent years than corporate tax collections. For these reasons, the share of all taxes collected in Oregon paid by individuals and families is greater than it was ten years ago, and the share paid by businesses has declined correspondingly.¹ Moreover, despite tax reforms enacted by the 1997 legislature, Oregon still collects income taxes from working people with incomes below the federal poverty level.

Comparing the tax burdens of individuals and businesses

The percentage of income that all Oregonians pay in state and local taxes has decreased from 12 percent in 1990 to 10.4 percent in 1997 and was projected to decrease to 10.1 percent in 1998-99.² The main cause of the decline in the tax burden is the decrease in property taxes since Ballot Measure 5 was enacted in 1990.³ During the same time period, the fraction of income taken in personal and corporate income taxes has remained relatively constant.⁴ Total property tax collections have, therefore, leveled off while personal income tax collections have grown (see Figure 6.1).

Figure 6.1 *Personal Income Tax Collections vs. Property Tax Levies Imposed*

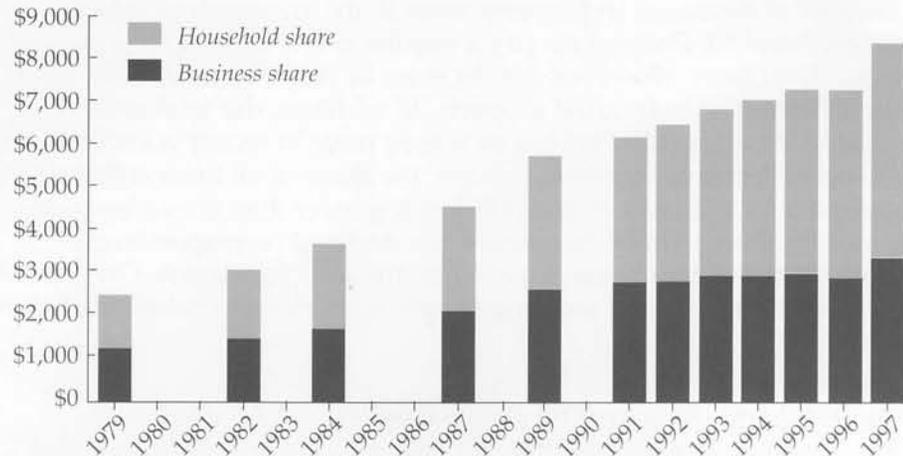


Source: Governor's Tax Review Technical Advisory Committee, *Review of Oregon's Tax System 13*, Figure 1.6 (June 1998).

Businesses have benefitted more from the decrease in property taxes than have individual households, and businesses pay a smaller share of the total amount collected in income taxes than do individuals. As a result, since 1978-79, the share of state and local taxes that households pay increased from 51 percent to 61 percent, while the share paid by businesses correspondingly decreased from 49 percent to 39 percent⁵ (see Figure 6.2).

Figure 6.2 Oregon's Initial Tax Burden

Source: Governor's Tax Review Technical Advisory Committee, *Review of Oregon's Tax System 33*, Figure 3.1 (June 1998).



Business gains from property tax cuts

By the time Measure 5 was fully implemented in 1996, all property taxes had declined 12 percent from 1990.⁶ Because of Measures 5 and 50, the 1997-98 property tax collections were \$59 million below the 1990-91 level.⁷

The distribution of the tax decrease has been quite uneven, however. In 1978-79, households paid 40 percent of property taxes, while businesses paid 60 percent. By 1995-96, the share paid by households had risen to 55 percent, while businesses' share fell to 45 percent.⁸

Changes in income taxes benefit businesses

Between 1985 and 1996, personal income tax collections in Oregon increased 121.4 percent, while corporate income tax collections rose 95.3 percent.⁹ During the 1990s, the 2 Percent Surplus Kicker law required corporate income tax credits of 50.1 percent during the 1993-95 biennium and 42.2 percent during the 1995-97 biennium. During the same periods the credit refunds for personal income taxpayers were 6.3 percent and 14.4 percent, respectively.¹⁰

State income taxation of individuals

Oregon's personal income tax rate is progressive, which means that as income rises, so does the tax rate. However, Oregon still taxes the income of workers with incomes below the federal poverty level.

Because of the state's progressive income tax rates, in 1995 taxpayers with incomes above \$40,000 accounted for 29.3 percent of returns and paid 75 percent of personal income taxes. Taxpayers with incomes above \$60,000 paid 55 percent of taxes and accounted for 14 percent of returns.¹¹

The progressivity of Oregon's income tax tends to ease the tax burden on the poor. However, Oregon was one of 19 states that in 1998 imposed state income tax on single-parent families of three with incomes below the poverty line and on two-parent families of four below the poverty line¹² (see Table 6.1). In 1998 the single-parent family of three in Oregon whose income was at the federal poverty level owed \$57 in income taxes.¹³ The two-parent family of four with an income at the federal poverty level paid \$235 in income taxes.¹⁴

Table 6.1 *Poverty and Income Taxes, 1998*

For family of three

Poverty line: \$13,656/year

State income tax threshold: \$12,300

For family of four

Poverty line: \$16,452/year

State income tax threshold: \$14,200

Source: Nicholas Johnson, Christina Smith Fitzpatrick, and Elizabeth C. McNichol, *State Income Tax Burdens on Low-Income Families in 1998: Assessing the Burden and Opportunities for Relief*, Tables 1A, 1B
<<http://www.cbpp.org/>>.

The impact of federal and state earned income tax credits

Poor wage-earning Oregonians, like poor workers in other states, benefit from the federal earned income tax credit (EITC), which was established in 1975. The federal EITC has been called "the nation's most effective antipoverty program for working families."¹⁵ In addition, Oregon, like nine other states, has a state earned income tax credit.¹⁶ Oregon also gives an income tax credit against child care costs for working families with incomes below 200 percent of the federal poverty level.

The size of the federal EITC depends on the number of people in the family and the family's income. In 1998, families with two or more children received 40 cents for each dollar earned, to a maximum of \$9,390; the maximum credit was \$3,756. Families with one child received 34 cents for each dollar earned up to \$6,680, and the maximum credit was \$2,271.¹⁷ The credit begins to phase out when a family's income reaches \$12,260, and is completely eliminated for families with two or more children with incomes of \$30,095 or more and for families with one child with incomes at or above \$26,473.¹⁸ In the 1996 tax year, 201,743 Oregon families received the earned income tax credit.¹⁹

The federal credit is refundable, which means that if a family is entitled to a credit greater than the income tax which it owes, the family receives the balance as a refund. This feature means that the federal EITC offsets

federal Social Security and Medicare payroll taxes, which fall relatively more heavily on low-income workers.²⁰

Oregon's state earned income tax credit, which complements the federal credit, was enacted in 1997. At 5 percent of the federal credit, the Oregon EITC is one of the lowest state EITCs. Wisconsin's credit varies from 4 percent of the federal credit for families with one child to 43 percent for families with three children; Iowa's credit is 6.5 percent of the federal credit. The Kansas and Massachusetts credits are 10 percent of the federal credit, and Maryland's refundable credit is 10 percent in 1998 and goes to 15 percent in 2001. (People in Maryland can choose instead a nonrefundable credit, which is 50 percent of the federal credit.) In New York, Vermont and Rhode Island the credit ranges from 20 to 27 percent of the federal credit. The Minnesota credit is 15 percent of the federal credit for families without children and ranges from 20 to 42 percent for families with children.²¹

The Oregon EITC is not refundable, which means that a family which is entitled to a greater credit than it owes in income taxes loses the benefit of the balance of the credit. Seven of the other states have refundable credits, and two others, like Oregon, do not.²²

A second income tax credit, the Oregon Working Family Tax Credit, offsets child care expenses of low-income families. The credit varies inversely with family income, from a high of 40 percent of child care expenses to no credit for families with incomes above 200 percent of the poverty level.²³ This credit is also nonrefundable.

Both the Oregon EITC and the Working Family Tax Credit help raise the tax threshold and lighten the tax burden of low-income workers. However, some workers with incomes below the poverty level who receive the credits still owe income taxes. According to the Oregon Center for Public Policy, in 1998 a family of three with income at the federal poverty level (\$13,656) would have to have received an earned income tax credit of 8.2 percent to avoid state income taxes, and a family of four with federal poverty level-income (\$16,452), would not have been taxed if the earned income tax credit were 12.8 percent.²⁴ In addition, because the credits are nonrefundable, families with higher incomes benefit more from the credits than the poorest working families, who owe less or no income taxes and so lose some or all of the benefit of the credits.

Conclusions and comments

Changes in Oregon's tax structure over the last decade have been relatively more beneficial for businesses than for individuals, largely because decreases in property tax on business property have been greater than decreases on residential property. Income tax rates during this time have remained relatively constant, but here too one reform—the 2 Percent Kicker—has been relatively more beneficial to businesses than to individuals. Two income tax reforms, the state earned income tax credit and the Working Families Tax Credit, are helping the poorest working Oregonians by lowering the amount they owe in income taxes. However, these credits are not high enough to eliminate the imposition of state income taxes on people with incomes below the federal poverty level. And because the credits are not refundable, they do not help raise the incomes of the poorest workers in the state, unlike the federal earned income tax credit.

Chapter 7

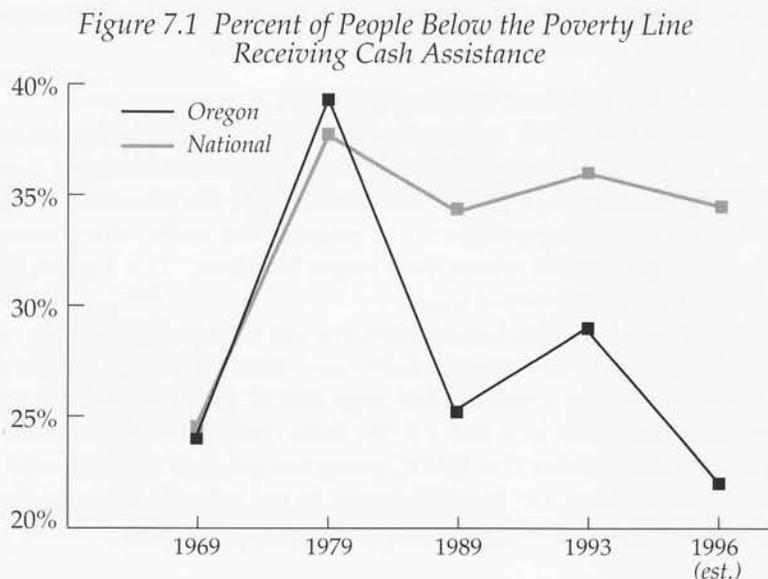
Poverty and Public Assistance

Contrary to popular perception, most Oregon families with incomes below the federal poverty level do not receive cash public assistance. Moreover, while the number of Oregon families receiving welfare cash grants (Temporary Assistance to Needy Families or TANF) has declined dramatically over the last few years, the number of poor people has risen. Families leaving TANF for work initially experience an increase in income above the poverty level, but, ironically, as their wages rise, the spendable income of some falls when they lose non-cash benefits.

Oregon's cash assistance program and the poverty rate

Nationwide and in Oregon most families receiving public assistance live well below the federal poverty level. In 1998 the maximum TANF cash grant in Oregon for a single-parent family with two children was \$503 per month, and the family was also eligible for \$284 in food stamps. Thus, the family had cash income of \$787 per month, 69 percent of the 1998 federal poverty level (\$1,138 per month).

The percentage of poor people in Oregon who received cash assistance rose in the 1970s, and rose faster than the national average. Since the late 1970s, however, the percentage of the poor in Oregon receiving cash assistance has declined by 17 percent, a rate much greater than the national average. In 1996 only 22 percent of Oregonians classified as poor received TANF cash assistance, compared to 34.6 percent of the poor nationally.¹ (See Figure 7.1.)



Source: ECONorthwest, *Comparing Recent Declines in Oregon's Cash Assistance Caseload with Trends in the Poverty Population*, Table 3, The Oregon Center for Public Policy (August 1998).

The decline in the welfare rolls has continued since 1996. In 1997 about 1.8 percent of Oregonians received cash assistance, a rate less than half the national average.² Between July 1997 and June 1998, Oregon's TANF caseload declined by an additional 16.7 percent.³ Since 1990, however, the percentage of Oregon's population with incomes below the federal poverty level has remained stable.⁴

Oregon's welfare-to-work program

The decrease in the number of Oregonians receiving cash assistance began at the same time that Oregon began to experiment with welfare-to-work programs, about 20 years ago. The current version of the program, which was implemented in 1996, has tight work requirements, even for parents of very young children, and provides increased child care and medical support for families who leave welfare. Key provisions of the current Oregon welfare-to-work plan include:⁵

- Parents of newborn children are subject to the work requirement as soon as their children are 90 days old.
- The work requirement can be satisfied by unsubsidized employment, subsidized private-sector employment, subsidized public-sector employment, work experience, on-the-job training, job search and job readiness assistance, vocational education training, jobs skills training directly related to employment, satisfactory attendance at secondary school or equivalent, and unlimited job search.
- A parent or caretaker relative is eligible for assistance only for 24 months in any seven-year period.
- A graduated series of sanctions can be imposed on those who do not comply with the program requirements. The sanctions culminate in denial of cash assistance to the entire family, not just the noncompliant adult.

When families leave TANF for work, most continue to be eligible for other forms of public assistance. The most important are child care subsidies, health insurance through the Oregon Health Plan, food stamps, and the earned income tax credit.

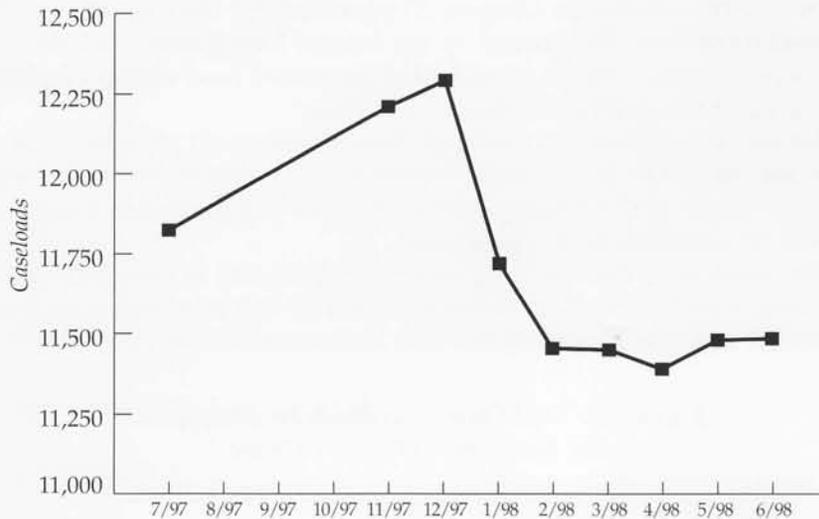
Child care costs for families leaving welfare⁶

Oregon subsidizes child care costs for low-income families, including families leaving welfare for work through Employment-Related Day Care (ERDC).⁶ The program pays for all child care costs for parents receiving welfare who are attending programs to prepare for work, but parents must begin to make copayments when they begin working. The higher the family income, the higher the copayment.

The current level at which subsidies are set is determined by a survey of 1994 market rates, even though child care costs have risen since then. Because many child care providers charge ERDC families the going market rate, many families must pay extra from their own pockets for child care.⁷ Claims for subsidies under the ERDC program decline significantly as family income rises because the difference in the copayment and the full cost of care is not great enough to justify the paperwork and other requirements.⁸

From July 1997 to June 1998, the cash assistance caseload declined, but the employment-related child care caseload did not change significantly, as Figure 7.2 shows. This may indicate that people leaving cash assistance for work are using unpaid child care or paying for it from their own funds, or they may already have been using subsidized child care before they left.

Figure 7.2 *Employment-Related Day Care Caseloads*



Source: Adult and Family Services Division, Oregon Adult and Family Services Division, Public Assistance Programs, Branch and District Data 12, "Employment-Related Daycare Caseloads" (June 1998), (visited August 7, 1998) <<http://www.afs.hr.state.or.us/bb9806.pdf>>.

Health insurance and public assistance⁹

Families receiving TANF cash assistance are automatically eligible for health insurance under the Oregon Health Plan. When a parent goes to work and the family leaves cash assistance, the family remains eligible for OHP but they may have to begin paying premiums or copayments.⁹

Food stamps

The food stamp program provides food subsidies to families with incomes up to 130 percent of the federal poverty level. Federal data show that 91 percent of food stamp recipients have incomes at or below the poverty level.¹⁰ Unlike the welfare cash assistance program (TANF), the Food Stamp Program is governed mostly by federal law. Eligibility for food stamps is based largely on federal rules, and food stamps are not block granted; benefits are provided to anyone who meets the eligibility requirements.¹¹

The 1996 federal welfare reform act did not change basic eligibility requirements, but it reduced the level of food stamp benefits. The average food stamp benefit per recipient dropped from \$73.22 per month in fiscal year 1996 to \$71.34 per month in fiscal year 1997.¹² In Oregon in 1997, the average monthly benefit was \$69.28 per person.¹³ A total of \$17.2 million in food stamps benefits is paid to Oregonians every month.¹⁴ The state provides supplemental payments to some TANF families to offset the decline in the federal payment.¹⁵

The 1996 federal welfare reform law also eliminated food stamp eligibility for most legal immigrants and imposed a work requirement on able-bodied adults without dependent children. Legal immigrants are not eligible until they become citizens, have worked in the U.S. at least 10

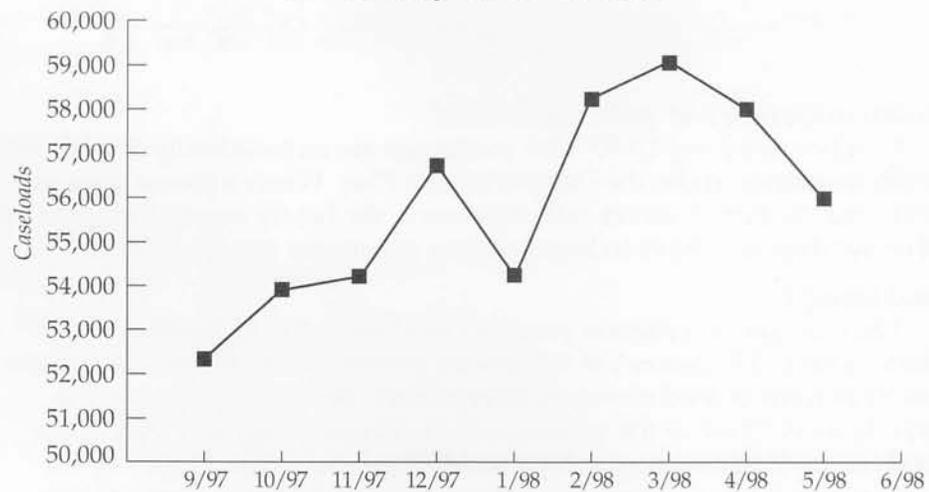
years or are veterans with an honorable discharge. Legal immigrants who are refugees are eligible during their first five years in the U.S. Able-bodied recipients between the ages of 18 and 50 with no dependents can receive food stamps only for 3 months in every 36 unless they work or participate in a work training program for at least 20 hours per week.

Federal law allows states to seek waivers from the work requirements for areas of high unemployment, but Oregon is one of a small number that have not sought waivers. In Oregon, 25 counties and the City of Springfield have been designated by the federal Department of Labor as "labor surplus areas," which would have increased food stamp eligibility in these areas if Oregon had obtained a waiver.¹⁶

States are also allowed to establish their own benefit programs for people who are ineligible for the federal food stamp program because they are not citizens or are able-bodied adults with work requirements. Oregon has not chosen to establish such a program.

At the same time that the cash assistance caseload in Oregon began to decline dramatically, the food stamp caseload at first rose and then began to fall, but at a slower rate than the cash assistance decline. (See Figure 7.3.)

Figure 7.3 Food Stamp Caseloads for Recipients Not Receiving Public Assistance



Source: Adult and Family Services Division, Oregon Adult and Family Services Division, Public Assistance Programs, Branch and District Data 15, chart showing "Non-Public Assistance Food Stamp Caseload" (June 1998), (visited August 7, 1998) <<http://www.afs.hr.state.or.us/bb9806.pdf>>.

The economic position of people leaving cash assistance

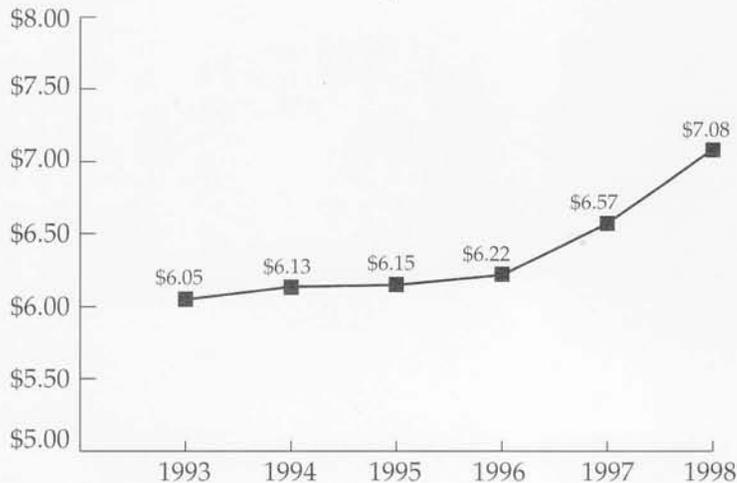
Families that leave TANF for work initially fare better in economic terms. As discussed earlier in this report,¹⁷ full-time work at Oregon's minimum wage of \$6.50 per hour is not enough for a family of three to live above the federal poverty level of \$13,656 per year. However, if the family receives the state child care subsidy, food stamps and the earned income tax credit, its income will be above the poverty level.

As a worker's wages rise, however, the family becomes ineligible for food stamps, the federal earned income tax credit, and the child care subsidy. Because of the high cost of child care and the rapid decline in the child care subsidy, a family's spendable income actually goes down as the worker's wages rise.¹⁸ According to calculations by the Oregon Center for

Public Policy, a family of three's monthly spendable income declines below the federal poverty level when the worker's wages reach \$10 per hour. The family's spendable income rises back above the poverty level only when wages are \$14 per hour.¹⁹

While the average wages of adults leaving cash assistance have increased steadily since 1993, in the second quarter of 1998 the average wage was just \$7.08 per hour, as Figure 7.4 shows.

Figure 7.4 Average Hourly Wage for Full-Time Placement
(2nd quarter)



Source: Adult and Family Services, Average Hourly Wage for Full-Time Job Placements, Oregon Department of Health and Human Resources, available online (visited November 18, 1998) <http://dhrdirector.hr.state.or.us/data/afs_avg_wage.htm>.

How Oregon spends money saved by reducing TANF rolls

Because of an increase in the federal contribution to TANF in Oregon²⁰ and the declining number of TANF recipients, the state was able to reduce the amount of state funds spent on TANF by nearly \$55.2 million during the 1997-1999 biennium.²¹ The federal share of the state's TANF program expenses is now 68 percent, compared to 56 percent previously.²² Still, in 1997 the state spent 27 percent more in state funds per recipient than it spent in 1996.²³

The state funds saved were reallocated to other programs in human services such as the Oregon Health Plan.²⁴ Unlike some states, Oregon has not used any of the money saved for a rainy day fund.²⁵

Conclusions and comments

Oregon has a well-deserved reputation for encouraging people to leave cash assistance for work, and it provides important assistance through its subsidized child care program and the Oregon Health Plan. Families who leave TANF for work are better off financially than those still on assistance, but not because they earn high wages. Instead, the TANF leavers do better initially because TANF cash payments are quite low and because those leaving to go to work continue to receive food stamps, earned income tax credits, and assistance with the costs of child care and health insurance. As the income of those leaving TANF rises, they become ineligible for these other forms of assistance, and some falter financially.

At a minimum, these facts indicate the critical importance of maintain-

ing and improving programs to assist the working poor, including the Oregon Health Plan, child care subsidies, food stamps, and the state earned income tax credit. In addition, these facts raise serious doubts about the wisdom of state policy which does not allow people to obtain much, if any, schooling past high school while they are on cash assistance. People with relatively little education tend to wind up in the lowest paying jobs, as was discussed earlier in this report. Consideration should be given to allowing people otherwise eligible for cash assistance who have the ability and desire to get more education to do so while still receiving TANF.

Chapter 8

Access to Health Insurance

Oregon has had greater success than most states at providing basic health insurance coverage for its citizens. The proportion of Oregonians covered by employer-provided health insurance is about 10 percent higher than the national average, and publicly funded health insurance programs also cover a greater proportion of the population than programs in other states. Nevertheless, more than one in ten of all Oregonians lack health insurance, indicating the need for expanded insurance programs and effective outreach to uninsured people who are eligible for existing programs.

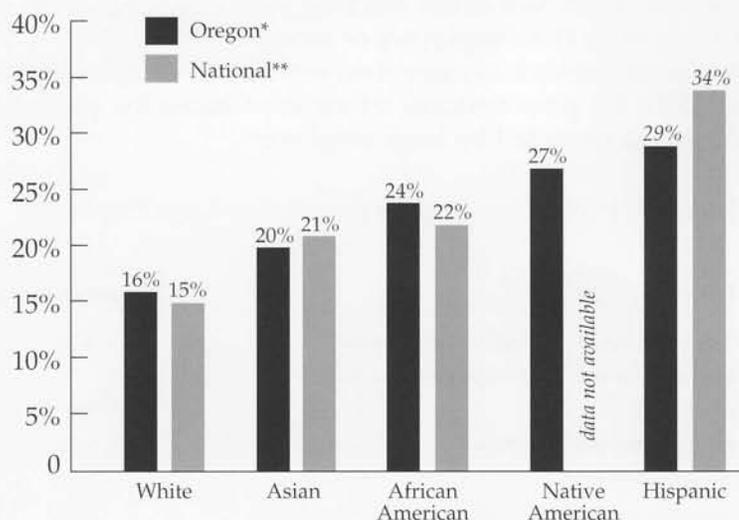
Who lacks insurance?

In 1997, 87 percent of all Oregonians had health insurance, an increase from 84 percent in 1990.¹ Nationally, 84 percent of the population has health insurance.² In 20 states a greater proportion of the populace had health insurance than Oregon; the states with the highest insured populations were Hawaii (92.5 percent) and Wisconsin (92 percent).³

The proportion of Oregon children covered by health insurance grew even more, from 80 percent in 1990 to 92 percent in 1996.⁴ In contrast, nationally, in 1997, only 85 percent of children had health insurance.

As Figure 8.1 shows, nationally and in Oregon, the highest uninsured rate was among people of Hispanic origin. About one-third lacked health insurance, as did about one-fourth of African Americans and Native Americans. About 15 percent of Whites and 20 percent of Asians also were without insurance.

Figure 8.1 Percentage Lacking Health Insurance



Sources:

* Oregon Department of Human Resources, *Health Status of Racial and Ethnic Groups in Oregon, Percentage Lacking Health Insurance*, Oregon Health Division (visited June 15, 1998) <<http://www.ohd.hr.state.or.us/cdpe/chs/hsrace/noinsur.htm>> (four-year average, 1991-1994).

** Robert L. Bennefield, "Health Insurance Coverage: 1997," *Current Population Reports 2*, Figure 2, U.S. Bureau of the Census, P60-202, U.S. Department of Commerce, Economics and Statistics Administration (September 1998).

In Oregon, 14 percent of Hispanic children and 9 percent of other minority children are uninsured, compared to only 7 percent of White children. Most uninsured children live in households earning less than \$25,000 per year.⁵ The percentage of uninsured children double in the rural areas of the state. Moreover, children in rural areas are more dependent on publicly provided insurance than children in the metropolitan regions.⁶

In contrast, the elderly generally have health insurance because of Medicare. Nationally, only 1 percent of those over 65 are uninsured.⁷

Employment-based insurance

In Oregon, as in the rest of the U.S., most people receive health insurance through their own employment or employment of a family member. Employers provide insurance for nearly 72 percent of Oregonians, compared to 61 percent nationally.⁸ Employer-based coverage accounts for 82 percent of all children's health insurance coverage in Oregon.⁹

Traditionally, employment-based insurance has been available only for employees and those related to them by birth or marriage. Since June 1, 1998, however, domestic partners (of either sex) of state employees have been eligible to receive health insurance through their partners' workplace. In December of the same year, the Oregon Court of Appeals ruled that the state constitution requires all public employers to extend this benefit to the same-sex domestic partners of their employees.¹⁰ However, the impact of allowing people to enroll in their domestic partners' health insurance programs is uncertain. An important reason is that the benefit has adverse federal income tax consequences; health benefits provided to an employee's domestic partner and the partner's dependents are taxed as wages to the employee, while similar benefits provided to a spouse and a spouse's dependents are not.¹¹ As of January 1999, 183 public employees had a partner enrolled in the domestic partners' health insurance program, out of a total employee population of approximately 10,000.¹²

National data show that poor workers are less likely to be covered than poor nonworkers; about half of the working poor were uninsured in 1997.¹³ Workers in large firms (100 employees or more) are more likely to have employment-based health insurance than workers in companies with fewer employees.¹⁴ Table 8.1 gives national information about the various types of health care benefits provided by large employers.

Table 8.1 Health Care Benefits Provided by Large Employers

<i>Health care benefit</i>	<i>percent of companies that provide benefit</i>
Personal health insurance for full-time employees	97%
Health insurance for part-time employees on a full or pro-rated basis	33%
Health insurance for family members	95%
Full or part payment of premium for family members	87%
Health insurance for unmarried partners who live together	14%

Source: Families and Work Institute, 1998 *Business Work-Life Study, Executive Summary X Table J* (1998) (visited November 12, 1998) <<http://www.familiesandworkinst.org/announce/worklife.html>> based on a survey of non-profit and for profit employers with 100 or more employees.

Government-provided insurance

About one-fourth of all people nationally who have health insurance are covered by a government program (Medicare, Medicaid or military health insurance). Half of the poor are covered by a government plan, most of them by Medicaid.¹⁵ Public sources provide 13 percent of all children's health insurance coverage in Oregon.¹⁶ As of mid-October 1998, the Oregon Health Plan (OHP), which is the name for Medicaid in Oregon, provided health insurance for about 350,000 Oregonians.¹⁷

As originally designed, OHP covered Oregonians of all ages whose income is below the federal poverty level and whose liquid assets do not exceed \$5,000¹⁸ and all children younger than six living in families with incomes less than 133 percent of the federal poverty level.¹⁹ Enrollees pay monthly premiums of \$6 to \$28 per household, except that no premiums are charged for children and pregnant women.

Because of state and federal programs established in 1997 and 1998, coverage for children has expanded. In 1997, the legislature voted to use money generated by a tobacco tax enacted by the voters in 1996 to expand health insurance coverage for the uninsured. As a result of this legislation, the Oregon Health Plan covers young children living in families with incomes up to 170 percent of the federal poverty level. Beginning July 1, 1998, Oregon children up to age 19 who live in families with incomes below this level are eligible for health insurance through the new state-federal Children's Health Insurance Program (CHIP).²⁰

Many other states which are participating in CHIP cover children at higher income levels than Oregon, which ranks 29th among the states in terms of income level covered. Some states cover children in families with income up to 300 percent of the federal poverty level.²¹ However, Oregon is one of only seven states that does not require that children's families pay any premiums, deductibles or copayments under the CHIP program.²² According to the Children's Defense Fund, Oregon's CHIP program is one of the most affordable of all the states' programs, ranking behind only states that are insuring children at higher income levels.²³

As of January 1997, the state reported that because of the OHP coverage, the number of uninsured children had declined from 14 percent to 8 percent.²⁴ The state anticipates that 20,000 children will be covered by CHIP, reducing the percentage of Oregon children without health care coverage to less than 5 percent.²⁵ As of October 1998, a total of 6,786 children had enrolled in CHIP, and about 475 were enrolling each week.²⁶

The 1997 Oregon legislature created another program to increase health insurance coverage, the Family Health Insurance Assistance Program (FHIAP). This program gives a subsidy to families with incomes below 170 percent of the federal poverty level to help them pay for insurance available through employment or in the private market. Qualifying families and individuals receive a subsidy covering 70 percent to 95 percent of their monthly health insurance premium, based on a sliding scale.²⁷ Money sufficient to cover 16,000 to 17,000 people is budgeted, and more than 100,000 Oregonians are theoretically eligible for the program. However, by mid-October 1998, only 915 people were enrolled, and another 2,988 had been accepted into the program. These figures were expected to rise because the enrollment process is lengthy, taking several months, and inquiries about the program have been coming in steadily, according to state officials.²⁸

Conclusions and comments

Because of both employment-based and publicly funded programs, the proportion of Oregonians with health insurance is significantly higher than comparable national figures. The state has been especially successful at increasing insurance coverage for children, and the new programs created in 1997 promise to improve this picture even more.

However, in almost half the states, a higher percentage of the population is insured than in Oregon. At least part of this difference is due to the way that the other states organize their publicly funded insurance programs. For example, in more than half the states, the Children's Health Insurance Program covers families with incomes higher than in Oregon. The data discussed above also show that some of the new programs in Oregon have room for many more people to enroll, raising questions about why eligible people have not enrolled.

The official long-range planning goal for the state is that 96 percent of all Oregonians will have health insurance by 2010.²⁹ To achieve this goal, the state must continue to fund the Oregon Health Plan and affiliated programs fully, and it must find ways to reach and help those who do not have insurance, are eligible for programs, and yet do not participate in them.

Part 3

Work and Family

Chapter 9

Integrating Work and Family Life

In the great majority of Oregon families, as in most American families, the adult or adults are employed outside the home and also have substantial responsibilities to care for children, elderly relatives, or both. National studies also show that workers are having greater and greater difficulty accommodating the demands of both their families and their jobs.

Of all Oregon women with children younger than 18 years old, 68 percent are in the labor force, compared to 67 percent nationally. Of Oregon women with children younger than 6 years old, 61 percent are employed, compared to 62 percent nationally.¹ Both adults work in 62 percent of Oregon families consisting of two married parents with children younger than 18 years old. Both adults work in 54 percent of families consisting of married couples with children younger than 6 years old.²

Another way of considering these data is from the perspective of children. In Oregon, more than two-thirds of children under age 6 live with working parents, compared to 63 percent of all such children nationally. Fifty-three percent of children ages 6–12 live with working parents, compared to 51 percent nationally.³

A 1997 survey conducted by the Families and Work Institute documented the heavy burden that employment and family responsibilities impose on people.⁴ The survey disclosed that across the U.S., 85 percent of adults who are employed live with family members and also have immediate, day-to-day family responsibilities.⁵ Forty-six percent have children younger than 18 who live with them at least half the time,⁶ and while only 13 percent were providing special assistance to someone 65 years or older when interviewed, 25 percent had provided elder care during the preceding year. One in five working parents also cared for elderly relatives.⁷

The survey was also used to study how these workers are torn between caring for their families and doing well on the job. According to the survey,

- Almost three-fourths of parents feel they do not have enough time with their children.⁸ On average, mothers spend 3.2 hours with their children on work days, a figure which has not changed significantly since 1977. Fathers spend an average of 2.3 hours per work day with their children, an increase of 30 minutes per work day since 1977.⁹
- Jobs demand increasing amounts of workers' time, and 63 percent of employees would like to work less. Compared to 20 years ago, men's total hours have increased 2.8 hours per week from 47.1 to 49.9. Women's hours have increased 5 hours per week from 39 to 44. Employed fathers with children under 18 work longer paid and unpaid hours (50.9 hours) than other men (48 hours). Employed mothers with children under 18 work 41.4 hours compared to 43.4 hours for other women. Fathers' total work time has increased by

3.1 hours in the past 20 years, and mothers' time has increased by 5 hours.¹⁰

- Working conditions for many employees are also very demanding. Almost one in five employees are required to work paid or unpaid overtime hours once a week or more with little or no notice, and one-fifth of all employees regularly take overnight business trips. One in three employees bring home work once a week or more, an increase of 10 percent since 1977. Sixty-eight percent of workers say they have to work very fast, 88 percent say they have to work very hard, and 60 percent say they do not have enough time to get everything done. These are much higher proportions than 20 years ago.¹¹
- Employees with elder care responsibilities spend an average of nearly 11 hours per week providing assistance. More than one-third of workers with elder care responsibilities reduced their work hours or took time off to provide that care.¹²
- Married employees with children spend less time on personal activities than employees 20 years ago. Fathers spend an average of 1.2 hours on their own free-time activities on workdays, 54 minutes less than 20 years ago. Mothers spend 0.9 hours on personal activities on work days, 42 minutes less per work day than 20 years ago.¹³

These data alone indicate the importance of employer and government programs to help workers accommodate the demands of work and family life. This conclusion is further supported by employee responses to questions on the Families and Work Institute survey that concern their own productivity. The survey shows that one of the two most important predictors of high worker productivity is supportiveness of the workplace, which was defined as "flexibility in work arrangements, supervisor support, supportive workplace culture, positive coworker relations, absence of discrimination, respect in the workplace, and equal opportunity for workers of all backgrounds."¹⁴

The next two chapters of this paper deal with public and private support for workers with families. Chapter 10 addresses child care which is, for working parents, absolutely essential. Chapter 11 concerns other workplace features, particularly benefits which allow workers to spend precious time with their families.

Chapter 10

Child Care

Affordable, high quality child care is one of the most critical needs of working parents. While efforts to increase the amount of child care in Oregon are succeeding, availability varies greatly across the state. Throughout the state there are substantial unmet needs for care for infants, special needs children, children who are ill and for after-school care. Low-income parents, who tend to have fewer child care options, are particularly in need of affordable, good quality care.

Demand for child care

In 1996, just over 40 percent of all Oregon children were in child care, as Table 10.1 shows. From 1994 to 1996 the proportion of Oregon children in care declined by 6 percent. All the decrease was seen in a decline in the proportion of children in unpaid care. The proportion of children in paid day care remained constant at about one-third of all children.

Table 10.1 Child Care Arrangements for Oregon's Children

Child care Arrangement	Percent of children	
	1994	1996
paid child care	total 33%	34%
day care center	10%	12%
in-home care (babysitter)	8%	9%
relative's home	5%	3%
non-relative's home	8%	8%
group activities	2%	2%
unpaid child care	14%	7%
no day care	53%	59%

Source: Oregon Employment Department, *Child Care in Oregon: 1994 and 1996 Oregon Population Surveys*, Oregon Employment Department.

Not surprisingly, of all parents, employed single parents living alone are most likely to use paid child care, followed by two-parent families in which both parents work. Table 10.2 shows that more than two-thirds of

Table 10.2 Profile of Child Care Use by Family Type

Family type	percent of Oregon families	average hours paid care	average hrs per child of care	percent using paid care
Couple, one employed	36.1	32	20	30.1
Couple, two employed	39.9	32	21	51.7
Employed parent, living alone	6.8	45	27	67.7
Employed parent, in shared house	6.0	35	27	36.1
No employed parent	11.2	30	19	36.5
All households	100.0	33	—	42.3

Source: Oregon Employment Department, *Oregon's Children 14*, Figure 19, RTA Wage Unit of Oregon Employment Department (June 1995), using data for children under age 13 from the 1994 Oregon Population Survey.

employed single parents placed their children in paid care, as did more than half of families with two employed parents. About one-third of all other families used paid child care. The greatest demand for paid care is for preschool children; more than 45 percent of all Oregon children in paid care (except for group activities) are younger than five years old.¹

Availability of child care

The availability of child care in Oregon is improving. On average, in 1998, there were 21 child care slots for every 100 children in Oregon younger than 13, an increase since 1990 of 7 slots per 100.² In 1996 several counties had 21 or more slots³—Benton, Deschutes, Hood River, Jackson, Klamath, Lane, Multnomah, Tillamook, Union, and Washington Counties. On the other hand, lack of child care remains a significant problem in some counties. For example, Grant, Yamhill, Morrow, Douglas, Jefferson, Lake, Polk and Wasco Counties average 16 or fewer day care slots per 100.⁴

Most child care resource and referral agencies in the state report an adequate to ample supply of care for children between the ages of 3 and 5 years. However, they report significant shortages of child care for infants, care provided during evenings and weekends, supplemental care for children who are ill, care for school-age children and care for children with special needs.⁵

Affordability of child care

Child care is expensive. For example, in 1997, full-time child care for one year in a center for an infant or pre-schooler cost, on average, \$4,723 in Salem and \$3,858 in Hood River or Wasco County.⁶

The average cost of child care for all families in Oregon is lower because some children are in care only part-time and because costs vary across the state and for different kinds of care. In 1996 the average family using paid child care in Oregon spent \$268 per month.⁷ The average amount spent varied surprisingly little with family income. Families with incomes below \$25,000 spent, on average, \$226 per month; those with incomes between \$25,000 and \$45,000 spent \$231, and those with incomes of \$45,000 or more spent \$316.⁸

While low-income families purchase child care at a lower price per hour than do middle- and higher-income families, they use more hours of child care because they are more likely to be solo parents who lack shared-care family alternatives to paid care. For this reason, low-income families spend about as much per month as middle-income families.⁹

The Oregon Progress Board has set a statewide goal for at least 70 percent of all families to have access to affordable child care by the year 2000, and 75 percent of families by 2010.¹⁰ In general, child care is considered "affordable" if it costs less than 10 percent of a family's income. In 1998, 67 percent of Oregon families had access to affordable child care by this measure.¹¹ The most recent analysis shows, however, that only 41 percent of families earning less than \$25,000 per year met the affordability standard, compared to 89 percent of families earning \$45,000 or more. Higher income families (\$45,000 or more) spend an average of 5 percent of their incomes on child care; low-income families (under \$25,000) spend an average of 37 percent.¹² (See Table 10.3.)

Table 10.3 *Affordability of Child Care, 1994*

	Household Income			
	\$0-\$25,000	\$25,000-\$44,999	\$45,000+	all income levels
percent of families in category	35.8%	32.3%	31.9%	100.0%
percent of families using paid care	38.5%	42.9%	49.1%	42.3%
mean percent of household income spent on childcare	37.0%	8.0%	5.0%	16.0%

Source: Oregon Employment Department, *Oregon's Children 14*, Figure 20, RTA Wage Unit of Oregon Employment Department (June 1995), using data from 1994 *Oregon Population Survey* analyzed by Art Emlen and Associates, Inc.

Sources of financial assistance for child care

Help in finding and paying for child care comes from two main sources. Some low-income Oregon parents are eligible for public subsidies. Some employers also provide financial and other forms of assistance to help workers obtain child care.

Publicly funded child care subsidies

Oregon, like other states, uses federal and state funds to subsidize child care for families required to work under welfare reform and for some families who have left the welfare rolls. As in other states, Oregon's program does not provide subsidies to all the families who could be eligible under federal guidelines.¹³ The number of children served by the state's child care subsidy program increased from 9,005 in July 1992 to 21,322 in February 1997, an increase of 137 percent.¹⁴

Eligibility for a child care subsidy depends on the age of the children, the family's income, and membership in a group targeted by the program. The amount of the subsidy varies with the family's income.

Age

Children must be younger than 13, except that children up to age 18 are eligible if they are physically or mentally incapable of self care or both.¹⁵ Care is not allowed for children age 13 and older who are under court supervision.

Income

The family's income may not exceed 85 percent of the state median income for a family of the same size, which for a family of three is \$2,751 per month. Federal law would allow Oregon to offer subsidies to families with somewhat higher incomes and to waive the income requirements for cases in which children receive or need to receive protective services. Oregon has not done so, however.¹⁶

Other eligibility requirements

A family must be on welfare and the adult or adults must be in high school or participating in required activities intended to increase their employability, or they must have left welfare for work and still meet the income criteria above. In addition, children of migrant and seasonal farm workers, and children at risk of abuse or neglect because of parental abuse of alcohol or other substances are eligible. Priority is given to parents participating in an approved drug treatment program.¹⁷

Copayments

Families with an income below the poverty level are not required to pay a fee if they are in a high-risk targeted population described above or are receiving TANF benefits, or if the adults are participating in programs designed to make them job-ready.¹⁸ However, other families must make a copayment, with the amount increasing as income increases. The required copayment can be more than 30 percent of the family's income at higher income levels.¹⁹ The state recognizes that the high family copayment level discourages higher income families from remaining in the subsidized child care program and actually intends this result. The philosophy behind the copayment policy is to use price to control access to the subsidies and to give priority to lower income families.²⁰

The subsidy program is also limited by Oregon's choice not to pay subsidies at levels that meet current market rates for child care. Though federal law requires states to determine reimbursement rates based on market surveys, Oregon does not use its most current survey.²¹

In FY 1996 Oregon spent \$76 million in state and federal funds on the child care subsidy program, and in FY 1997 it was expected to spend \$85 million, an increase of 12 percent.²² Oregon spends substantially more state funds on this program than are necessary to receive the maximum federal grant.²³

Child care-related employment benefits

Data about child care-related employment benefits in Oregon are not available, although the Child Care Division of the Oregon Employment Department is gathering some of this information. However, information from a 1997 national survey suggests the importance of these benefits.

The national survey found that 29 percent of employees had access to a dependent care assistance plan, which allows the worker to pay for child care with pre-tax dollars. Eleven percent had access to on- or near-site child care services, and 13 percent to financial assistance for purchasing child care services.²⁴ A companion survey of employers with 100 workers or more found that about half of them offer their workers a dependent care assistance plan. A third of the employers had child care information and referral programs. Only a small proportion of companies offer other programs to assist employees with young children, and even fewer have programs for employees' teenage children.²⁵

Quality of child care

Determining the quality of child care is more controversial than measuring available quantity or cost. Government regulation of facilities provides some measure of quality, but regulatory programs are very limited. Pioneering studies in Oregon which look to parental satisfaction as a measure of quality find that satisfaction is strongly correlated with the flexibility of the child care arrangement, in the context of the parents' work obligations.

Government regulation of child care

The General Accounting Office conducted a study of child care under welfare reform and reported,

Most states regulate only a small portion of their providers and may exempt a significant number of providers from their standards. Also, in-home care and care provided by relatives are almost always exempt, although a relative provider must be at least 18 to receive [federal subsidies]. Other types of child care that states may exempt are those sponsored by religious organizations, in government entities like schools, or operating for part of the day. Further, for those providers that are regulated, different standards apply to different types of providers. Centers usually must meet more rigorous standards than other types of providers, in that states license and conduct regular inspections of the facilities. Standards for family providers vary among the states, but family providers generally receive fewer inspections than child care centers.²⁶

Oregon's child care regulatory system fits this model. The state licensing program for center-based providers and group homes involves an annual renewal on-site inspection by the Child Care Division of the Employment Department. A Division certifier also visits most centers semi-annually on a drop-in basis. In contrast, in Oregon family child care homes caring for more than three children from more than one family must only be registered with the Child Care Division. Family child care home requirements are enforced through Child Care Division investigation of complaints only. Serious complaints are investigated by an on-site inspection.²⁷ Other child care providers are largely unregulated by the state.

In February 1996 Oregon had 13,442 licensed child care providers and in 1997 had 14.5 inspectors and regulatory staff for child care facilities.²⁸ Because of this low level of staffing, the state Child Care Division responds to just 1 percent of complaints received.²⁹

State officials estimate that nearly half the people on welfare who are participating in the welfare reform work-readiness program use informal child care arrangements, that is, noninstitutional child care not subject to state licensing or regulation.³⁰

Table 10.4 shows the relationship between family income and the type of child care used. Of the Oregon families who use paid child care, low-income families (those earning less than \$25,000 per year) use less center care, less in-home care, more care in a relative's home, and slightly less family child care.³¹ Thus, they are more likely than higher income families to use paid child care that is subject to minimal or no state regulation.

Table 10.4 Percent of all Oregon Families Using Various Types of Paid Child Care

	Household Income			
	\$0-\$25,000	\$25,000-\$44,999	\$45,000+	all income levels
Paid center care	10.8%	15.2	17.2%	14.1%
In-home paid care	7.4%	12.4%	11.5%	10.2%
Paid care in home of relative	12.1%	6.3%	2.5%	6.9%
Paid care in home of non-relative	8.1%	10.8%	13.1%	10.1%
Paid group activity	2.1%	1.3%	6.1%	3.1%

Source: Oregon Employment Department, *Oregon's Children 14*, Figure 20, RTA Wage Unit of Oregon Employment Department (June 1995), using data from 1994 *Oregon Population Survey* analyzed by Art Emlen and Associates, Inc.

Parental assessment of child care quality

Another way of measuring the quality of child care is to ask parents their opinion. Since 1996 the Oregon Population Survey has included questions that seek parents' opinions about their child care.³² Regardless of income level, most parents evaluated their child care arrangements very favorably. (See Table 10.5.)

Table 10.5 Parental Assessment of Quality of Child Care

A. Percent who say child feels safe and secure in paid care				
Income	never	sometimes	often	always
<\$25,000	1.2	5.4	4.1	89.3
\$25,000-\$44,999	0.6	3.3	13.2	82.9
>\$44,999	0.1	2.5	3.5	93.8

B. Percent who say caregiver is open to new information				
Income	never	sometimes	often	always
<\$25,000	2.7	14.4	8.9	74.1
\$25,000-\$44,999	0.9	11.3	20.7	67.0
>\$44,999	0.7	4.1	18.0	77.2

C. Percent who say child gets attention from paid caregiver				
Income	never	sometimes	often	always
<\$25,000	4.2	14.1	21.2	60.5
\$25,000-\$44,999	0.1	18.6	25.3	56.0
>\$44,999	1.0	13.7	23.2	62.1

Source: Oregon Employment Department, *Child Care in Oregon*; 1994 and 1996 Oregon Population Surveys, Oregon Employment Department (1998) (information provided by Linda Burgin). All data pertain to the 1996 survey.

Other surveys conducted in Oregon show that parental satisfaction was somewhat related to the age of the child because of a drop in reported quality for school-age children. Satisfaction was not correlated with how long a child had been in the particular child care placement, the sex of the child, or household income.³³

Researchers in Oregon have concluded that the most important determinant of parental satisfaction with child care is whether the arrangement, when put in context of the parents' work, provides enough flexibility to deal with the exigencies of work and family life.³⁴

Each type of child care chosen by parents was associated with a unique pattern of flexibility from the three major sources: work, family, and caregiver. . . . Parents compensated for lack of flexibility in family resources by finding flexibility from work or from a caregiver. Recipients of child-care assistance, who were mostly single parents, reported low family flexibility, but they made up for that by finding flexible caregivers.³⁵

Parents of children with emotional or behavioral disabilities rated the quality of their children's care much lower than other parents. The parents "reported low work and family flexibility, but could not adequately compensate for that by finding extra-flexible caregivers—not because they

didn't try, but because of the extra behavioral difficulties of their children. These parents were 20 times more likely to have reported having had caregivers who quit or let their kids go because of behavioral problems."³⁶

Conclusions and comments

Oregon has made real progress in increasing the availability of affordable child care. In some parts of the state, the slots available exceed targets for the year 2000. However, in other areas of the state, particularly some rural counties, child care is still quite scarce. Throughout the state, care for infants and special needs children is lacking, as is after-school care for older children. Poor, single parents have the greatest need and the least ability to purchase good quality care.

In Oregon, as in the rest of the country, paying for child care is largely treated as a problem for individual parents. Relatively few working parents receive assistance from public sources or from employers. Public subsidies for child care are very limited, even though Oregon spends relatively more on its welfare-to-work-related child care program than do many states. Many working parents have trouble finding affordable care but are not eligible for subsidies. National data show that employers are not filling the gap. Relatively few workers get direct financial help from their employers to pay for child care. Less than a third of all employees have access to the most commonly available form of financial assistance, dependent care assistance plans. Further, this kind of plan helps only those parents who make enough money to have a substantial federal income tax liability.

Assuring quality of child care is also a problem. While most Oregon parents say they are satisfied with the quality of their children's care, most of the child care providers in the state are not regulated or licensed. Therefore, we lack basic information about the nature and adequacy of the care that many children receive.

Chapter 11

Family Leave, Flex Time, and Related Work Benefits

Besides child care, flexibility in work arrangements is one of the most important benefits for workers with family responsibilities. Workers need to be able to adapt their work schedules so that they have time to care for family members and attend family-related activities. Federal and state laws protect the right of employees who work for large employers to take leave to care for new children and ill family members, but not other work conditions affecting flexibility. Therefore, private arrangements determine the availability of these other benefits for all workers, as well as the availability of family leave for employees of smaller businesses.

Family and medical leave

Both Congress and the Oregon legislature have enacted laws which give some employees unpaid, job-protected leave to attend to major medical needs of their families, as well as themselves. A recent national study shows that most employers are complying with the federal law and that many employees take leaves provided by the laws. Whether an employee is eligible for pay while on leave is an important factor in determining whether the employee will take needed leave. However, highly paid employees, who are more likely to be eligible for paid leave, are also less likely to take leave than their lower-paid counterparts. Comparable information about the operation of the Oregon law has not been published.

Employees rights under the federal and state laws

The federal Family and Medical Leave law applies only to companies having 50 or more employees within a 75-mile radius of one of their work sites. The law requires covered employers to provide at least 12 weeks of unpaid, job-guaranteed leave for childbirth, adoption, foster care placement, a serious personal medical condition, or care of a child or spouse with a serious medical condition. Employees are covered if they have worked at least 1,250 hours the preceding year.

Oregon laws cover a larger group of employers—all those with 25 or more employees. Employees of these employers are eligible if they have worked 25 hours per week or more for at least 180 days before the leave begins. Employees may take leave under the same conditions provided for in the federal law, and to care for sick children who must be at home, even if they are not “seriously” ill.¹

Employer compliance with federal law

In 1996 the national Commission on Family and Medical Leave, which was appointed by Congress, issued a report on the implementation of the federal act.² The Commission found that most covered employers comply with the federal act and that their leave policies are significantly different from those of employers not covered. Over 90 percent of covered worksites

provide up to 12 weeks of leave for family and medical reasons, while only 32.3 percent of non-covered worksites offer parental leave, and only 41.7 percent offer leave to care for a seriously ill child, spouse or parent.

Employers reported that complying with the federal act has not been burdensome. More than 90 percent found it "very" or "somewhat" easy to determine whether the act applies to them and to determine employee eligibility. Between 89.2 and 98.5 percent of covered worksites reported no costs or small costs in complying with the act. Only 1.3 percent of employers said that they reduced benefits to offset costs associated with the act. Between 86.4 and 95.8 percent of worksites reported no noticeable effect of the act on productivity, profitability and growth. Most employers felt that the act has no effect on employee performance.

Employees who take leave

The national commission also surveyed employees and found that 16.8 percent of them took leave for a reason covered by the federal act, and 3.4 percent needed but did not take leave. Those who take leave are generally similar to the overall employee population except that employees aged 25 to 34 years are more likely than younger or older employees to take leave. Employees between 35 and 49 are numerically the largest group of leave-takers. Employees with one or more children, hourly employees and employees with family incomes of \$20,000 to \$30,000 per year are more likely to take leave than employees with higher family incomes.

Almost 80 percent of leaves are taken to care for a seriously ill child, spouse or parent or for medical leave for one's own health. Half of the employees take leave because of their own serious health problems (not counting women who take maternity leave). About 25 percent of leave is taken by parents to care for children at birth or adoption or with a serious illness, and 10 percent is taken to care for ill parents or spouses. Men generally take more leave because of their own health problems. Women are somewhat more likely than men to need leave, to take leave and to take longer periods of leave. Men are slightly more likely to take leave to care for an ill spouse than women; some of this may be caring for a spouse around the time of childbirth.

Replacement pay for leave-takers

Of the 3.4 percent of employees who need leave but do not take it, 63.9 percent could not afford the loss of wages. Hourly workers, African Americans, and employees with some college education were most likely to be among those employees who need but do not take leave.

Even though the law does not require it, 46.7 percent of leave-takers receive full wage replacement during leave, and 19.6 percent receive partial wage replacement. The employees most likely to get wage replacement pay are salaried employees, more highly educated employees, unionized employees, men, and those with higher household income. The employees least likely to receive wage replacement are the youngest and oldest employees, non-salaried workers, and non-union workers, workers who have never been married, those in the lowest income and education groups, and Latino employees. Nine percent of all leave-takers use public assistance to supplement income during periods of leave, and 11.6 percent of women leave-takers use public assistance. Women and employees with

annual family incomes of less than \$20,000 per year are more likely to need public assistance.

A 1998 national survey of employers with 100 or more employees provides further information about wage replacement during family and medical leave. The results, which are shown in Table 11.1, indicate that replacement pay is most commonly provided for women taking maternity leave.³

*Table 11.1 Replacement Pay
During Leave*

<i>leave policy</i>	<i>percent of companies giving some pay</i>
maternity leave	53.0%
paternity leave	13.0%
adoption/foster care leave	12.5%

Source: Families and Work Institute, 1998 Business Work-Life Study, Executive Summary 4 (1998), (visited November 12, 1998), <<http://www.familiesandworkinst.org/announce/worklife.html>>.

Flexibility in work hours and conditions

Federal and state law do not regulate the flexibility of working conditions. Therefore, employers, or employers in conjunction with unions, determine the extent to which employees will be offered flex time and related benefits. In 1997 and 1998 the Families and Work Institute conducted national surveys of employees and of employers with 100 or more employees about the availability of flexible work arrangements. Comparable information about employers only in Oregon is not available.

As Table 11.2 shows, both surveys found that the most common flexible work arrangement policy was allowing workers to take time off to attend to family matters. A significantly higher percentage of large employers provide flexible work benefits than the percentage of employees who have access to the benefit. We cannot tell from the surveys why the employee and employer reports are so different. They may reflect the fact that large employers are more likely to have flexible work-time policies, lack of employee knowledge about employers' policies, or other reasons not discernible from the surveys.

Table 11.2 Availability of Flexible Work Arrangements

<i>Policy</i>	<i>percent of employees who say they have this option</i>	<i>percent of employers who say they provide this option</i>
Take time off work to attend school/child care functions	66%	88%
Periodically change starting and quitting time	45%	68%
Change starting and quitting times on a daily basis	25%	24%
Work at home occasionally	—	55%
Work at home regularly	26%	33%
Move back and forth from full-time to part-time	—	57%
Job sharing	—	37.5%

*The employee survey only recorded how many employees said they spend at least part of the work week working at home; 19 percent said they did so, and another 7 percent said they could if they wished.

Sources: Families and Work Institute, The 1997 National Study of the Changing Workforce, Executive Summary 10-11 (1997) (visited November 12, 1998) <<http://www.familiesandworkinst.org/announce/workforce.html>>; Families and Work Institute, 1998 Business Work-Life Study, Executive Summary III (1998) (visited November 12, 1998) <<http://www.familiesandworkinst.org/announce/worklife.html>>.

Of the companies that offer one or more flexible work arrangements, 18 percent reported that the costs outweigh the benefits; 36 percent said the arrangements are cost neutral, and 46 percent said that the benefits are greater than costs.⁴

The survey of employers also provides information about what companies are most likely to allow employees flexibility in their working conditions. The most important predictor of whether a workplace has this kind of policy is which industry it belongs to; the finance/insurance/real estate industry has the most of these policies.⁵ A company's size is also related to the availability of these benefits. Larger companies are more likely to have flexible work options, longer maternity leaves, paternity leaves, leaves for adoptive parents, and wage replacement during maternity leave. Smaller companies are more likely to provide paid paternity leaves.⁶

The gender and race of company executives and employees is also correlated with these policies. Companies with more women and more people of color in top executive positions were more likely to have family-friendly policies than companies whose top executives were predominantly white men.⁷ Companies with more women employees were more likely to have job sharing, part-time work, time off for parents to attend school functions, longer maternity leaves, care for children during school vacation, and direct subsidies for child care. On the other hand, companies were more likely to provide certain options when women were a smaller proportion of the workforce, including paid maternity leave, personal and family health insurance coverage, and paid family health insurance.⁸

Whether workers were paid on an hourly basis or salaried and the extent to which the work force was unionized were also related to the availability of flexible options. Companies with larger proportions of hourly workers were less likely than other companies to provide many forms of assistance.⁹ Companies with larger proportions of unionized workers were less likely to allow part-time work, a gradual return to work after childbirth, and flexibility in moving from full- to part-time work. They were more likely to provide longer leaves for paternity and adoption, paid maternity leave, leave for mildly ill children, and health benefits.¹⁰

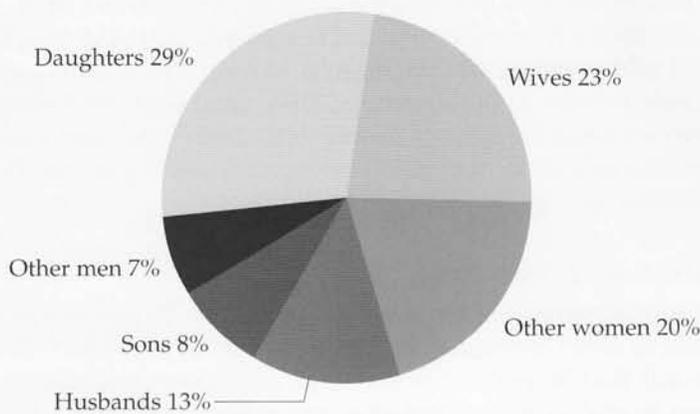
Workers with elder care responsibilities

In almost a fourth of all U.S. households, someone has provided care to an elderly person within the last year.¹¹ Most of the care given to the elderly is provided in the community by female friends and relatives, most of whom are also employed. A 1997 national survey found that 13 percent of workers were providing care to someone 65 years or older and that 25 percent had done so during the preceding year.¹² Few workers who care for an elderly person quit work altogether, but most had to change their working conditions.

Who the caregivers are

In Oregon, as in the rest of the nation, family members provide most of the care and assistance that older people need. As Figure 11.1 shows, female relatives and friends provide more than 70 percent of community-based care to the elderly.¹³

Figure 11.1 Percentage of Caregivers by their Relationship to the Elderly Care Recipient Oregon



Source: Clara C. Pratt, Jennifer Sasser-Coen, & Alan Acock, Long-Term Care 7-4 in Margaret B. Neal, Clara C. Pratt & Edward Schafer, *Aging Oregonians: Trends and Projections, 1993* (Oregon Needs Assessment Steering Committee and Oregon Gerontological Association).

National surveys indicate that the typical caregiver is a married woman in her mid-forties who works full-time, is a high school graduate, and has an annual household income of \$35,000.¹⁴ Informal caregiving is more common among Asian and Black households (31.7 percent and 29.4 percent respectively) than among Hispanic households (26.8 percent) or White households (24 percent).¹⁵ Two-thirds of caregivers are married, 13 percent are single, 13 percent are separated or divorced and 8 percent are widowed. Two out of five caregivers have one or more children under age 18 living in their households. More than half of all Black, Hispanic, and Asian caregivers report having one or more children under age 18 in their households, in contrast with 39 percent of White caregivers. Almost two-thirds of caregivers are working, and 16 percent are retired.¹⁶

Time spent on caregiving

One of five (21 percent) care recipients live in the same household as the caregiver; slightly more than half live alone, and the remaining 37 percent live with another family member or friend.¹⁷ On average, caregivers provide almost 18 hours per week of care. Almost half of all caregivers provide care for at least 8 hours per week, 21 percent spend between 9 and 20 hours per week, and 19 percent provide constant care or care for at least 40 hours per week.¹⁸

Impact on employment

Employed caregivers provided an average of 11 hours of care per week. In the past year, more than one-third of caregivers had taken time off or reduced their work hours to provide care.¹⁹

Few caregivers report that they had given up work altogether, but more than half the employed caregivers had made changes at work to accommodate caregiving. The most common (49 percent of caregivers who work) was changing the work schedule—going in late, leaving early, or taking time off during the day.²⁰ One-fifth of all caregivers who worked gave up work temporarily or permanently, and 7 percent changed from full-time to part-time work.²¹

Elder care-related employment benefits

Employees who responded to the 1997 national survey discussed above reported that many employers are informally supportive of workers who need to take time off or reduce hours to provide care, but employees in managerial and professional positions and employees with higher earnings are more able to take as much time as they need without losing pay.²² A 1998 survey of large employers found that about 9 percent make available long-term care insurance for family members, and 5 percent directly support local elder care programs.²³

Information and counseling resources

The national survey of employees found that 20 percent of employees have access to child care information and referral services.²⁴ The employer survey found that 36 percent of the large employers provide employees with access to child care information and referral services, and 23 percent provide elder care referral services. Fifty-six percent have employee assistance programs to help employees deal with problems that may affect work or personal life, and 25 percent have workshops or seminars on parenting, child development, elder care, or work-family problems.²⁵

Conclusions and comments

The state and federal laws providing for family and medical leave seem to be very successful. They have not imposed substantial burdens on employers while providing important benefits to the workers covered by the laws. Less than one-fifth of all employees covered by the federal law have taken a leave under the law. Of these leaves, half have allowed the worker to deal with his or her own medical problem, and half have allowed the worker to care for a family member. While the laws do not require employers to pay workers who are on leave, almost two-thirds of employees are eligible for at least some wage replacement, and this is an important determinant of whether a worker takes leave when he or she needs it. Still, many workers are not entitled to these leaves because they work for smaller businesses or work part-time.

Most workers also enjoy some flexibility in their workplaces which allows them to attend to family obligations. Nationwide, two-thirds can take time off to attend school or child care functions, almost half are eligible for flex time, and a fourth have the option of working at home, at least part of the time.

Increasingly, workers need accommodations at work to allow them to care for elderly relatives, and most are able to adapt their work hours for this reason. Employers provide very little in the way of other benefits that would help employees who provide care for elders.

Part 4

Domestic Violence

Chapter 12

Domestic Violence

In the last few years "domestic violence," violence between family members and current and former domestic partners,¹ has increasingly been recognized as a major social problem in Oregon, as in the rest of the nation. More social services are available for victims, and legal mechanisms to protect them have been improved. Yet many victims have needs for shelter, legal assistance, and other services that cannot be met by existing programs. In addition, much basic information crucial to the development of solutions to domestic violence is not being collected.

The incidence of violence between domestic partners

In Oregon, as in other states, there is no definitive count of how many people are victims of violence at the hands of spouses, ex-spouses and other current and former domestic partners. However, Oregon does record how many reports of domestic violence are made to the police, how many victims seek assistance from domestic violence programs, and how many obtain domestic violence restraining orders. Together, these data give an indication of the incidence of domestic violence in the state.

Police reports and arrest records

In most states, police reports and arrest information do not reveal whether alleged criminal conduct occurs in a domestic setting. Since 1994, however, this information has been collected in Oregon.² While the general crime rate in Oregon increased 6.9 percent from 1996 to 1997, the number of reported crimes that occurred in a domestic setting decreased by one-third, declining from 29,965 in 1996 to 19,801 in 1997. The number of arrests for offenses in a domestic setting, other than violations of restraining orders, fell from 18,926 in 1996 to 13,525 in 1997.³ These police data are purely numerical and do not reveal why domestic violence reports and arrests have declined during this period.

Table 12.1 Crime Type that Occurred in the Context of Domestic Incident, 1997

<i>Crime</i>	<i>Incidents</i>	<i>Arrests</i>
Homicide	9	4
Rape	49	24
Aggravated Assault	2,455	1,697
Burglary	210	84
Simple Assault	10,984	8,620
Vandalism	451	162
Other Sex Crimes	34	16
Disorderly Conduct	2,410	872
Trespass	814	282
Criminal Threat	688	378
All Other	1,697	1,386
Totals	36,416	15,190
Domestic Restraining Order Violations	3,685	1,665
Non-criminal Domestic Disturbance	12,930	0

Source: Law Enforcement Data System, Domestic Disturbance Reporting January through December 1997 3-5 (June 1998).

Table 12.1 shows that assaults are by far the most common kind of offense that is reported and for which arrests are made. Table 12.1 also shows that domestic violence conflicts often turn deadly. Between 1991 and 1995, one-fifth of all Oregon homicides occurred in a domestic setting.⁴ In Portland, domestic homicides account for nearly 40 percent of all homicides.⁵

Emergency shelter programs

Across the state, 38 programs provide services to victims of domestic violence and sexual assault.⁶ As of July 1997, only 21 of the programs had shelter facilities, and the others provided shelter through safe homes or motels.⁷

As Table 12.2 shows, in FY 1996, more than 5,000 people were sheltered by one of these programs for at least one night, a figure which is not significantly different from the year before. The need for shelter greatly exceeds capacity. In FY 1996, the shelters received 12,434 requests for shelter that they could not satisfy because of lack of space.⁸

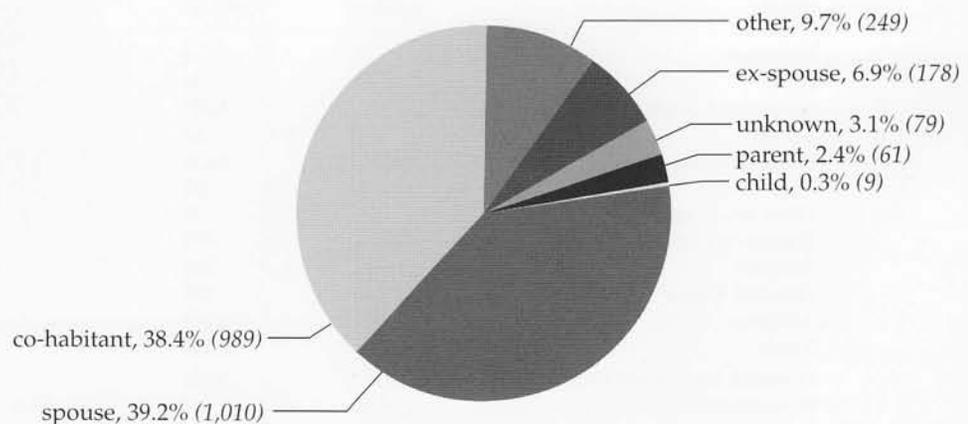
Table 12.2 Number of Victims Sheltered and Shelter Nights in Oregon for FY 1996

Total adults sheltered	2,575
Total children under age 6 sheltered	1,564
Total children over age 6 sheltered	1,297
Total adult nights in shelters	31,362
Total child nights in shelters	36,201

Source: Oregon State Office for Services to Children and Families, Family Violence Prevention and Services Act Funding, Annual Performance and Program Report, Fiscal Year 96 (October 1996 through September 1997) 6-7 (1998)(information provided by Bonnie Braeutigan).

While there are no complete data about the victims or perpetrators of domestic violence, the emergency shelters collect information about those who use their services. More than two-thirds of those seeking shelter were married to or cohabiting with their alleged abuser, and almost 82 percent of the adults sheltered were between the ages of 21 and 45.⁹ (See Figure 12.1.) While information about the gender of the people seeking shelter is not tracked, the "overwhelming majority" are women. Of the women sheltered, 1,467 (57 percent) had children.¹⁰

Figure 12.1 Relationship between Victims in Shelters and Their Assailants



Source: Oregon State Office for Services to Children and Families, Family Violence Prevention and Services Act Funding, Annual Performance and Program Report, Fiscal Year 96 (October 1996 through September 1997) 8 (1998)(information provided by Bonnie Braeutigan).

The great majority of those who seek shelter are Caucasian and not of Hispanic origin, but people of color are over-represented in comparison to their numbers in the total population, as Table 12.3 shows. The data do not indicate the reason for this disparity.

Table 12.3 Race and Ethnicity of Victims in Shelters

	number	percent of total	percent of total population
Black	238	9.2%	1.7%
Caucasian	1,737	67.5%	94%
Native American	176	6.8%	1.5%
Hispanic	218	8.5%	4.85%
Asian	35	1.4%	2.8%
Other	23	0.9%	not used in survey
Multi-ethnic	69	2.7%	not used in survey
Unknown	79	3.1%	not used in survey

Domestic violence restraining orders

Between January 1 and December 31, 1997, a total of 15,464 domestic violence restraining orders were filed in Oregon. The largest number, 3,335, were filed in Multnomah County.¹² In the same year, there were 3,685 violations of domestic violence restraining orders, resulting in 1,665 arrests.

Social services for victims of domestic violence

In addition to providing shelter, domestic violence programs in the state provide other services, including information and referral, peer support, advocacy, services to children, and transportation. In FY 1996 the programs

- answered 69,548 calls about domestic violence and 63,349 about other matters;¹³
- provided services other than shelter to 22,679 domestic violence victims.¹⁴

Specific information is unavailable about the needs of domestic violence victims who belong to racial and ethnic minorities, but advocates generally say that services to members of these groups are insufficient, particularly for victims who do not speak English. Hiring bilingual staff and outreach workers have been priorities at the state level.¹⁵

Providing services to victims in rural parts of the state has also been identified as a major issue. Only one of Oregon's 36 counties does not have any program identified as its primary agency for domestic violence. However, four of the programs serve more than one county. Programs in two counties have subcontracted with crisis lines and women's centers in rural parts of their counties, but women from rural parts of those counties must still go the shelter in the urban area if they need shelter.¹⁶ Those who work with domestic violence victims generally agree that it is difficult to provide services to rural residents, though the extent of their unmet need has not been carefully studied.

Source (first two columns): Oregon State Office for Services to Children and Families, Family Violence Prevention and Services Act Funding, Annual Performance and Program Report, Fiscal Year 96 (October 1996 through September 1997) 7 (1998) (information provided by Bonnie Braeutigan).

Source (last column): Portland State University Center for Population Research and Census, Experimental Race Estimates for Oregon and Its Counties: July 1, 1993 available online (visited June 2, 1998) <<http://www.upa.pdx.edu/CPRC/race93.html>>. (Of a total population of 3,038,000, an estimated 2,855,150 are white/caucasian.)¹¹

Funding for service programs

In fiscal year 1996–97, programs providing services to domestic violence victims in Oregon received more than \$7.9 million, an increase of \$1.7 million over fiscal year 1995–96. Six programs have annual revenue of less than \$100,000, six between \$100,000 and \$200,000, and the rest over \$200,000. Most programs spent most of their money (more than 60 percent) on staff.¹⁷

As Table 12.4 shows, the largest source of funding for domestic violence services in Oregon is private contributions raised by the programs themselves and by the United Way, followed by various federal programs. State marriage license fees and criminal fines add another 15 percent, but no state general revenue funds are spent on these programs. Local governments provide almost as much as the state dedicated funds.

Table 12.4 *Funding for Programs that Serve Domestic Violence Victims*

Source	percent of total funds received
Contributions/fundraising	18.16%
Marriage license and criminal fine fees, administered by Oregon Office of Services to Children and Families	15.13%
Federal VOCA Victims' Assistance Funds, administered by Oregon Dept. of Justice Crime Victims' Assistance Section	6.60%
City/county funds	12.29%
United Way	9.12%
Federal Family Violence Prevention and Services Act, administered by SCF	4.09%
Federal Violence Against Women Act funds, administered by Oregon State Police Criminal Justice Services Division	4.43%
Community Development Block Grant/HUD funds	6.16%

Source: Oregon State Office for Services to Children and Families, Family Violence Prevention and Services Act Funding, Annual Performance and Program Report, Fiscal Year 96 (October 1996 through September 1997) 3 (1998) (information provided by Bonnie Braeutigan).

The 1998 STOP Violence Against Women State Implementation Plan identifies lack of stable funding as a major problem that affects all the programs and reports that much staff time is spent on fundraising rather than services provision. The plan also says that the relatively low wages that the programs are able to pay their staff members adversely affects the quality of services the programs can provide.¹⁸

Domestic violence in the legal system

The major ways in which the legal systems deals with domestic violence cases are criminal prosecutions, issuance and enforcement of domestic violence restraining orders, and resolution of family disputes. Oregon laws governing all of these have recently been amended to take better account of the safety of domestic violence victims.

Criminal prosecutions

In 1997 the legislature increased penalties for assaults likely to have been committed in a domestic setting—those in which the defendant previously assaulted the same person and those in which the assault was

committed in the presence of the defendant's or the victim's minor child or stepchild or a minor child residing within the household of the defendant or victim.¹⁹

In addition, recent legislation provides for criminal punishment for a person who stalks another, which is defined as knowingly alarming or coercing another person by engaging in repeated and unwanted contact with the person, if it is objectively reasonable for a person in the victim's situation to have been alarmed or coerced and if the victim had a reasonable apprehension for his or her personal safety or the safety of family or household members.²⁰

While we know how many domestic-violence-related arrests are made in the state each year, neither courts nor other agencies in Oregon collect complete and reliable information about how these incidents are prosecuted through the criminal justice and corrections systems.

Violations of restraining orders

Two different sets of Oregon statutes authorize victims of domestic to obtain restraining orders. Family Abuse Prevention Act (FAPA) orders are available against people who have physically harmed or threatened their spouses, former spouses, adult relatives, cohabitants, former cohabitants, lovers, and former lovers. These orders, which can be obtained without the assistance of a lawyer, can order the abuser to stay away from the petitioner, the petitioner's home or other places the petitioner frequents, or children in the petitioner's custody, and other relief that the court considers necessary.²¹ Victims of stalking can obtain similar protective orders.²²

As indicated above, records are kept about how many restraining orders are obtained and how many arrests are made for violating orders. However, we do not have complete and reliable information about how these arrests were resolved by the courts. Nor do we have complete and reliable information about the number of restraining orders sought or violated under the stalking statutes.

Domestic violence and family law

Under Oregon law, domestic violence and other forms of marital fault are not legally relevant to whether a divorce will be granted, nor to the division of property or award of spousal support.

Domestic violence is, however, relevant to child custody decisions. Oregon statutes provide that in deciding a custody dispute, the court's fundamental goal must be to serve the child's best interests, and the statutes recognize as a general principle that maintaining close and continuing contact with both parents is in the child's interests. Notwithstanding this principle, the statutes also say that a court may consider the impact of abuse of one parent by the other in determining the child's best interests. However, the statutes also say that the court may not consider the relative willingness of the parents to facilitate contact with each other if one of the parents has been shown to have "sexually assaulted or engaged in a pattern of behavior of abuse against the parent or a child" and the court is convinced "that a continuing relationship with the other parent will endanger the health or safety of either parent or child."²³

The Oregon statutes also express a strong policy preference for parents working out custodial arrangements rather than litigating them. To this end they require that courts offer mediation in all cases in which the

parties dispute custody or parenting time.²⁴ Parents in such cases may be required to attend an orientation session about mediation, but they must also be able to opt out of mediation after having heard the advantages and disadvantages.²⁵

The mediation statutes require courts to develop a plan that addresses domestic violence issues which is consistent with guidelines that include: (1) acknowledgment that mediation is not appropriate in all cases and that agreement is not necessarily the appropriate outcome of all mediation, (2) restraining orders may not be mediated, and (3) mediation services must screen for domestic violence and have safety procedures to minimize the likelihood of intimidation or violence during the orientation session or mediation itself, or in the building before or after sessions. Continuing education for mediators on domestic violence is also required.²⁶

The 1998 STOP Violence Against Women State Implementation Plan identifies lack of support and resources for domestic violence victims within the legal system as a continuing problem. This is part of a larger problem in Oregon: lack of legal services for poor people involved in domestic relations disputes. Legal services programs throughout the state provide assistance to poor people in civil matters, including domestic violence restraining orders, divorce, custody, visitation, child support, and so on. Each year these programs provide services to approximately 11,300 clients in family law matters, and each year they turn down two-thirds of all those who request their services because of funding limitations.²⁷ Sources of help for victims who need assistance negotiating the legal system are declining, while the number of restraining orders is growing.

In addition, according to the state STOP plan, further problems are created by lack of knowledge among some officials, use of treatment programs of unproven effectiveness, inconsistent use of restraining orders, and lack of child care in courthouses.²⁸

Elder abuse

Elder abuse, which is committed mostly by family and household members, is also a form of domestic violence. Only a very limited amount of information is systematically collected about elder abuse. The Oregon Elder Abuse Reporting Act provides for reporting of elder abuse, defined as physical injury, neglect or abandonment of a person 65 or older, to Senior and Disabled Services.²⁹ Since 1989 both the absolute number and rate of reports have increased, as Table 12.5 shows.

Table 12.5 Elder Abuse Reports

<i>year</i>	<i>number of reports where victim < 65</i>	<i>number of reports where victim > 65</i>	<i>number of reports per 100,000 > 60</i>
1989	2,415	320	800
1990	2,283	329	748
1991	2,375	437	682
1992	2,925	573	834
1993	3,427	936	947
1994	3,849	1,159	1,030
1995	4,641	1,161	1,202

Source: Data sheets from Portland State University Center of Population Research & Census by County, Projected Population of 60 Years & Over, Senior and Disabled Services Division (August 1998)(information provided by Trish Jensen, Acting Manager of Data Analysis and Program Evaluation Unit, Oregon Department of Human Resources).

If investigators confirm the occurrence of elder abuse, services may be offered voluntarily, or, in the appropriate circumstances, a guardianship of the elderly person may be sought for his or her protection.

The Oregon Elder Abuse Prevention Act allows people 65 and older to obtain protective orders against anyone who has caused them physical injury, physically neglected or abandoned them, or harassed them.³⁰ Information about the extent to which this act is used has not been collected.

Conclusions and comments

While Oregon has made progress in addressing the problem of domestic violence in recent years, much work remains. One of the most critical needs is for more information, particularly about how the various laws dealing with domestic violence and elder abuse are being implemented. Without this information, formulating policy priorities is very difficult.

Available information does clearly demonstrate the need across the board for more social and legal services for victims of domestic violence. Services for victims who belong to racial and ethnic minorities and who live in rural areas are in especially short supply.

Afterword

Afterword

Envisioning Just and Effective Family Policies

Valuing families means developing strong, public policies that support *all* families as they strive to fulfill the sometimes conflicting responsibilities of nurturing, caring, and economically supporting children, spouses and partners, and other adults, such as parents. The data in this report underscore the need to do a better job of envisioning and implementing policies that support all of Oregon's families if we are to be able to count on those families to help build a strong future for our state. There is ample evidence that our current policies have been most successful in assisting high- and middle-income families, though even in these families there remain important unmet needs.

Valuing Families is not meant to be a detailed blueprint for solving the wide variety of issues addressed in this report. Rather, our goals are to 1) identify key areas that need attention and 2) show promising directions for change. Family policy is inextricably linked with other policies—economic development, tax, labor, health care, and housing, to name just a few—that are not always measured in terms of their impact on families.

After Professor Leslie Harris completed the *Valuing Families* report, I examined her findings in light of a recent policy analysis completed by the Oregon Progress Board, an independent planning and oversight agency created by the Oregon Legislature to track the state's progress in a number of important areas. The Board identified ninety-two outcome indicators known as the Oregon Benchmarks. The three outcomes that the Board identified as central to the state's strategic planning process were 1) quality jobs for all Oregonians; 2) caring and engaged communities; and 3) healthy, sustainable surroundings.

It is interesting—and somewhat troubling—to note that while each of these indicators is important for strong, healthy families, the support of families is not explicitly articulated as one of the driving goals of the state's strategic policy plan.

Given the significant state investment in the Oregon Benchmarks, it makes sense to read *Valuing Families* alongside the recently released Progress Board Report to the Legislative Assembly, *Achieving the Oregon Shines Vision: 1999 Benchmark Performance Report*. This can help reveal areas where Oregon's current policies fall short in meeting the outcomes that most directly affect families.

There are some critical issues that stand out in both the *Benchmark Report* and *Valuing Families*. The Progress Board reports that Oregon has made little or no progress (indicated by a grade of **D**) or may be headed in the wrong direction (**F**) for the following benchmarks that most concern families:

- #16 Percentage of Oregonians in the middle income range: **D**
- #35 Percentage of Oregonians who feel that they are part of their community: **D**
- #59 Percentage of Oregonians who are homeless on any given night: **D+**
- #78 Percentage of low-income households spending more than 30 percent of their household income on housing (including utilities): *renters F, owners C-*
- #1 Percentage of Oregonians employed outside the Willamette Valley and the Portland tri-county area: **F**
- #22 High school drop-out rate: **F**
- #51 Percentage of families for whom child care is affordable: **F**
- #54 Number of children abused or neglected per 1,000 persons under 18: **F**
- #55 Reported elder abuse rate per 1,000: **F**

These data make clear that the troubling evidence that Leslie Harris has compiled in *Valuing Families* converges with and adds to the assessment of the Progress Board that Oregon needs better policies in each of these areas.

In addition, there are areas where the Progress Board's assessment of progress (i.e., giving a grade of **C** which indicates "some progress towards the benchmark target") appears to be more optimistic than what the data in this report suggest is warranted. For example, the Progress Board gave Oregon a **C** on benchmark #57 (percentage of Oregonians with incomes below 100 percent of the federal poverty level). However, when one disaggregates the poverty level for particular groups of families, one finds much higher poverty levels among families headed by single mothers, families with children (particularly children under the age of 6), and seniors. These higher poverty rates among particular kinds of families indicate the need for policies that target aid to the state's most economically disadvantaged families.

As enlightening as the Progress Board reports are, they tend to mask differences among Oregonians because the reports do not routinely distinguish between men and women or racial and ethnic groups. Given some of the dramatic differences between men and women, Euro-Americans and people of color, and economically advantaged and disadvantaged families that are evident in *Valuing Families*, we must pay greater attention to these differences and design policies to ensure that all Oregonians share in a vision of a more secure, healthy, prosperous future.

Among the most troubling findings that are documented both in *Valuing Families* and the *1999 Benchmark Performance Report* are the following:

1. Poverty rates are too high, especially for children, women raising children on their own, families of color, and the elderly.
2. Work, even full time work, does not guarantee sufficient income (especially if the breadwinner is female, of color, or both) to provide families' basic needs for affordable, safe housing; child care; and healthy and adequate nutrition.

3. Too many children and adults live in families that are not safe from violence and abuse.
4. Too few workers are aided by workplace policies that help them balance the competing demands of their families and their employers.

Oregon is well situated to incorporate policies that better support families into its public policy agenda. Each of these four issues require complex, multi-sectoral solutions that will require changes in tax, labor, welfare, education, child protection, health care and economic development policies. Envisioning fair and effective solutions for *all* Oregonians requires that we have up-to-date and detailed information that specifies the needs of particular groups including women, communities of color, children, the elderly, the poor, gays and lesbians, individuals with disabilities, and our rural population. It also means actively seeking out the perspectives of each of these groups about appropriate solutions that match their perception of the problems since these groups tend to be less than adequately represented among decision-makers in government or in the private sector.

Policy Directions

If Oregon is to address the pressing economic problems faced by many families, research and common sense suggest strong consideration of the following directions:

- ensure that more of the state's jobs pay living wages;
- help lower-income families pay child care and housing costs;
- strengthen and expand the food stamp program and other sources of food assistance to combat hunger and nutritionally related illness;
- facilitate routes towards better jobs by offering opportunities for job training and post-secondary education, both of which have been strongly associated with higher life-time earnings and greater job satisfaction;
- assure that good job opportunities are equally available to women and men of all races and ethnic backgrounds, to others who have historically encountered discrimination and to Oregonians who live outside the Portland tri-county and Willamette Valley region;
- re-examine our tax policies so that low- and moderate-income families are not shouldering a disproportionate share of the state's tax burden and consider refundable state Earned Income Tax Credits and Working Family Credits that allow the most economically disadvantaged families to realize tax benefits currently available only to families with higher incomes.

As a state we would do well to closely ponder whether we believe that the growing income inequality in the state bodes well for our communities in terms of crime, social unrest, and the utilization of the collective talents of our increasingly diverse population.

We should recognize the complex roots of violence within our families and our communities and support a full complement of strategies to protect those who are most vulnerable, while seeking assistance for those

who were often themselves neglected and abused when they were most vulnerable.

Although business and industry are critical and valuable parts of the economy and society, we might balance the powerful voice of business and industry leaders against the often weaker, less audible voice of workers and their families who are struggling to help build Oregon's economy even as they try to meet their own economic and social needs. We need to find ways to reward employers who pay living wages, provide benefits to employees and develop family-friendly policies. We must encourage Oregon's business community to be an ally in achieving the goal of valuing and supporting all of Oregon's families.

Oregon is a leader in the public policy arena and there is no good reason why we cannot make significant progress in each of the areas Leslie Harris has identified as needing attention in this report. Of course, there are no instant solutions, but there is an extensive body of research about all of these issues and there are committed policy advocates, scholars and policy makers who together can be the architects of policies that can make a difference in helping all of Oregon's families to thrive. The mystery lies less in identifying particular solutions than in getting public and private sector leaders, policy advocates and the public to recognize that effective and fair solutions require partnerships, extensive community involvement and strategies that do not leave some groups behind.

SANDRA MORGEN
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Appendices

Appendix A

Oregon Population

Appendix A. Racial and Ethnic Population by County, 1993

County	Total county pop.	WHITE		BLACK		ASIAN/PACIF. ISLANDER		NATIVE AMERICAN		HISPANIC	
		pop.	% of total cnty pop.	pop.	% of total cnty pop.	pop.	% of total cnty pop.	pop.	% of total cnty pop.	pop.	% of total cnty pop.
Baker	16,100	15,801	98.14	30	0.19	59	0.37	210	1.30	265	1.65
Benton	73,300	67,661	92.31	728	0.99	4,265	5.82	646	0.88	2,179	2.97
Clackamas	302,000	291,710	96.59	1,582	0.52	6,459	2.14	2,249	0.74	9,329	3.09
Clatsop	33,700	32,533	96.54	129	0.38	523	1.55	515	1.53	871	2.58
Columbia	38,800	37,724	97.23	34	.09	374	0.96	668	1.72	703	1.81
Coos	62,500	60,010	96.02	146	0.23	686	1.10	1,658	2.65	1,608	2.57
Crook	15,300	14,949	97.71	10	0.07	77	0.50	264	1.73	459	3.00
Curry	21,300	20,375	95.66	20	0.09	175	0.82	730	3.43	541	2.54
Deschutes	86,800	85,373	98.36	98	0.11	562	0.65	767	0.88	1,960	2.26
Douglas	96,400	93,603	97.10	191	0.20	888	0.92	1,718	1.78	2,498	2.59
Gilliam	1,750	1,721	98.34	0	0.00	19	1.09	10	0.57	26	1.49
Grant	7,900	7,798	98.71	4	0.05	18	0.23	80	1.01	147	1.86
Harney	6,900	6,582	95.39	3	0.04	53	0.77	262	3.80	242	3.51
Hood River	17,900	17,312	96.72	73	0.41	307	1.72	208	1.16	3,429	19.16
Jackson	157,000	152,649	97.23	432	0.28	1,811	1.15	2,108	1.34	7,741	4.93
Jefferson	14,900	11,889	79.79	25	0.17	94	0.63	2,892	19.41	2,007	13.47
Josephine	66,600	64,955	97.53	164	0.25	489	0.73	992	1.49	2,270	3.41
Klamath	60,300	56,741	94.10	482	0.80	546	0.91	2,531	4.20	3,824	6.34
Lake	7,350	7,123	96.91	5	0.07	43	0.59	179	2.44	332	4.52
Lane	298,000	284,780	95.56	2,580	0.87	6,840	2.30	3,800	1.28	8,660	2.91
Lincoln	40,000	38,148	95.37	99	0.25	453	1.13	1,300	3.25	846	2.12
Linn	96,100	93,710	97.51	189	0.20	966	1.01	1,235	1.29	2,611	2.72
Malheur	27,500	26,168	95.16	69	0.25	839	3.05	424	1.54	6,141	22.33
Marion	247,400	235,840	95.33	2,286	0.92	5,033	2.03	4,241	1.71	25,055	10.13
Morrow	8,450	8,283	98.02	14	0.17	28	0.33	125	1.48	1,345	15.92
Multnomah	615,000	535,951	87.15	37,774	6.14	33,925	5.52	7,350	1.20	23,425	3.81
Polk	53,600	51,697	96.45	233	0.43	769	1.43	901	1.68	3,432	6.40
Sherman	1,850	1,820	98.38	0	0.00	12	0.65	18	0.97	47	2.54
Tillamook	22,900	22,320	97.47	46	0.20	197	0.86	337	1.47	470	2.05
Umatilla	63,000	59,715	94.79	381	0.60	652	1.03	2,252	3.57	6,543	10.39
Union	24,300	23,536	96.86	126	0.52	339	1.40	299	1.23	432	1.78
Wallowa	7,200	7,115	98.82	6	0.08	43	0.60	36	0.50	105	1.46
Wasco	22,500	21,040	93.51	88	0.39	327	1.45	1,045	4.64	1,604	7.13
Washington	351,000	328,566	93.61	2,800	0.80	17,261	4.92	2,373	0.68	20,731	5.91
Wheeler	1,500	1,490	99.33	1	0.07	2	0.13	7	0.47	18	1.20
Yamhill	70,900	68,462	96.56	402	0.57	966	1.36	1,070	1.51	5,404	7.62
TOTALS	3,038,000	2,855,150	—	51,250	—	86,100	—	45,500	—	147,300	—

Source: Portland State University Center for Population Research and Census, report entitled "Experimental Race Estimates for Oregon and Its Counties: July 1, 1993" available online at <<http://www.upa.pdx.cprc/>>, visited 6/2/98.

Appendix B

Oregon Poverty Rates

Appendix B. Oregon Poverty Rates by County, 1993

County	General Poverty Rates	Children's Poverty Rates	Children's vs. General Poverty Rates
Baker	15.7	17.0	+1.3
Benton	10.4	9.9	-0.5
Clackamas	7.7	7.8	+0.1
Clatsop	14.0	15.7	+1.7
Columbia	8.5	8.9	+0.4
Coos	17.1	19.8	+2.7
Crook	11.0	11.8	+0.8
Curry	14.0	18.5	+4.5
Deschutes	10.5	11.8	+1.3
Douglas	15.6	17.4	+1.8
Gilliam	6.3	7.0	+0.7
Grant	12.4	13.0	+0.6
Harney	12.9	13.4	+0.5
Hood River	16.1	18.6	+2.5
Jackson	14.1	15.3	+1.2
Jefferson	17.4	20.4	+3.0
Josephine	19.2	23.6	+4.4
Klamath	17.1	19.6	+2.5
Lake	13.2	14.0	+0.8
Lane	14.8	16.4	+1.6
Lincoln	14.7	17.9	+3.2
Linn	14.4	16.5	+2.1
Malheur	21.6	25.2	+3.6
Marion	14.7	18.2	+3.5
Morrow	7.3	7.9	+0.6
Multnomah	15.1	17.4	+2.3
Polk	12.0	13.5	+1.5
Sherman	10.3	9.6	-0.7
Tillamook	12.8	16.1	+3.3
Umatilla	17.1	19.1	+2.0
Union	13.9	14.1	+0.2
Wallowa	12.0	13.8	+1.8
Wasco	13.3	15.2	+1.9
Washington	8.2	8.6	+0.4
Wheeler	9.5	10.6	+1.1
Yamhill	12.5	13.4	+0.9

Source: 1993 Bureau of the Census intercensal poverty estimates, as reported in Oregon Employment Department, 1998 Regional Economic Profile, State of Oregon 98 (December 1997).

Notes

Notes

Notes to Chapter 2, The Diversity of Oregon Households

1. Center for Population Research and Census, Portland State University, *Components of Population Change by County: April 1, 1990–July 1, 1997*, available online (visited June 3, 1998) <<http://www.upa.pdx.edu/CPRC/cnty97.html>>.
2. Percentages calculated by author, based on data presented in Figure 2.1.
3. Census Bureau, *1990 Census of Population, Social and Economic Characteristics—Oregon 45, Table 21—Fertility and Household and Family Composition: 1990* (1990 CP-2-39 1993). Total unmarried partner households = 50,246; male and female = 47,983; both male = 881; both female = 1,382.
4. Annie E. Casey Foundation, *1997 State Profile of Oregon*, based upon special tabulations of 1984–1996 Current Population Survey microdata prepared by the U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, available online (visited May 5, 1998) <<http://www.aecf.org/kc1998/>>.
5. Rebecca Reid, *Oregon: A Statistical Overview*, based upon Oregon Census Abstract (data from *1990 Census of Population and Housing*), Oregon Department of Housing and Community Services (1993).
6. Census Bureau, *Statistical Abstract of the United States—1997, State Profile for Oregon*, p. 62, Table 73 (117th ed. 1997).
7. National Center for Children in Poverty, *Map and Track 96: State Initiatives for Young Children and Families*, May 1998 Edition.
8. U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, National Center for Health Statistics, *Monthly Vital Statistics Report, Vol. 45, No. 11, Supplement, "Report of Final Natality Statistics, 1995"* (June 10, 1997), Tables 8 and 16 (Number of Births to Unmarried Mothers in 1995 = 12,365; percentage of Total Births in 1995 = 29%), calculations by the Children's Defense Fund, available online (visited April 30, 1998) <http://www.childrensdefense.org/states/data_sources.html>; Rebecca Reid, *Oregon: A Statistical Overview 1996 8-9*, based upon Oregon Vital Statistics County Data 1994, Oregon Department of Human Resources, Health Division (In 1994 there were 12,007 births to unmarried mothers in Oregon which is 28.7 of all live births in the state for 1994.)
9. Calculations by Leslie Harris, based on Portland State University Center for Population Research and Census, *Experimental Race Estimates for Oregon and Its Counties: July 1, 1993*, available online (visited June 2, 1998) <<http://www.upa.pdx.edu/CPRC/race93.html>>.

Notes to Chapter 3, Economic Status of Oregon Families

1. Kanhaiya L. Vaidya, *1996 Oregon Population Survey Summary 3*, Office of Economic Analysis, Department of Administrative Services, State of Oregon (February 1997).
2. The Oregon Progress Board and the Governor's Oregon Shines Task Force, *Achieving the Oregon Shines Vision: The 1999 Benchmark Report*, Benchmark 57 (March 1999).
These poverty rates are lower than comparable national figures. The national poverty rate declined from 13.7 percent in 1995-96 to 13.3 percent in 1996-97, a statistically significant decline. Joseph Dalaker, and Mary Naifeh, U.S. Bureau of the Census, *Current Population Reports, Series P60-201, Poverty in the United States: 1997* vi, U.S. Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C. (1998).
Nationally, 19.9 percent of all children live in families with incomes below the poverty rate. *Ibid.* at vi-vii.
3. U.S. Bureau of the Census, *Current Population Reports, P60-200, Money Income in the United States: 1997* (With Separate Data on Valuation of Noncash Benefits) xiv, Table C, "Median Income of Households by State," U.S. Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C. (1998). This chart uses two-year moving averages of information taken from the *Current Population Survey* to reduce the chances of misinterpreting annual changes in state income estimates. *Ibid.* at xiii.

4. Annie E. Casey Foundation, *1998 Kids Count Data Online*, Profile for Oregon (visited May 5, 1998) <<http://www.aecf.org/cgi-bin/kc1998/>>, using an analysis of data from the U.S. Bureau of the Census, *Current Population Survey* (March Supplement) (1993-1997). The Oregon median was \$37,600, compared to the national median of \$38,100.
5. See Oregon Employment Department, *1998 Regional Economic Profile*, State of Oregon 64-65 (December 1997), reporting trends for 1969-1989.
6. Kathryn Larin & Elizabeth McNichol, *Pulling Apart: A State-by-State Analysis of Income Trends*, Table 2 "Ratio of Incomes of Top and Bottom Fifths of Families with Children, '94-'96," The Center on Budget and Policy Priorities (last modified December 16, 1997) <<http://www.cbpp.org/pa-or.htm>>. This analysis compares pooled data from the Current Population Survey public use files from 1994, 1995 and 1996 to similar three-year periods in the 1970s and mid-1980s. According to the report, the purpose of using pooled data is to increase the sample size to make analysis more precise. The three time-periods all reflect similar stages in the economic cycle—three to five years after a recession.
7. *1996 Oregon Population Survey Summary*, *op. cit.* note 1.
8. Oregon Employment Department, *1998 Regional Economic Profile*, *op. cit.* note 5 at 98.
9. Joseph Dalaker and Mary Naifeh, U.S. Bureau of the Census, *Current Population Reports*, Series P60-201, *Poverty in the United States: 1997* vii-viii, U.S. Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C., 1998; Annie E. Casey Foundation, *1998 Kids Count Data Online*, Profile for Oregon, *op. cit.* note 4.
10. *Ibid.*
11. *Ibid.*
12. Institute for Women's Policy Research, *The Status of Women in Oregon* 13, University of Oregon Center for the Study of Women in Society and the Institute for Women's Policy Research, Washington, D.C. (1998).
13. Deirdre B. Molander, *Oregon Update: Oregon Women: A Summary of Changes in the Workplace by Gender 1990-1997* 5, Oregon Progress Board (April 1998), citing national data.
14. In Multnomah County, in 1996, female-headed households with children under 18 had a poverty rate of 37.4 percent, and more than half, or 53.5 percent of female-headed households with children under 5 lived below the poverty level. U.S. Census Bureau, 1996 *American Community Survey* (ACS) Profile for Multnomah County (last revised March 31, 1998) <<http://www.census.gov/ACS/www/html/>>.
15. The Oregon Progress Board and the Governor's Oregon Shines Task Force, *Achieving the Oregon Shines Vision: The 1999 Benchmark Performance Report*, Oregon Benchmark #78; Center on Budget and Policy Priorities, *In Search of Shelter: The Growing Shortage of Affordable Rental Housing 1* (June 15, 1998) available online (visited June 25, 1998) at <<http://www.cbpp.org/615hous.pdf>>.
- The American Housing Survey of 1995 found that 82 percent of poor renters in Portland paid more than 30 percent of their income for housing, and 70 percent paid more than 50 percent of income. Only 28 percent were in subsidized housing. *Ibid.* at 49.
16. The Oregon Progress Board and the Governor's Oregon Shines Task Force, *Achieving the Oregon Shines Vision: The 1999 Benchmark Performance Report*, Oregon Benchmark #78.
17. Oregon Food Bank, *Profiles of Poverty and Hunger in Oregon—1998*, 7 (September 1998).
18. *Ibid.* at 8.
19. *Ibid.* at 4.
20. *Ibid.*
21. *Ibid.* at 11.
22. *Ibid.* at 12.

Notes to Chapter 4, Wages

1. Oregon Employment Department, *1998 Regional Economic Profile*, State of Oregon 69 (December 1997).
2. *Ibid.* at 67, citing information from the U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics.
3. The Oregon Progress Board and the Governor's Oregon Shines Task Force, *Achieving the Oregon Shines Vision: The 1999 Benchmark Performance Report*, Oregon Benchmark #22.
4. *Ibid.* at Benchmark #27.
5. *Ibid.* at Benchmarks #26, #28.

6. Oregon Employment Department, *1998 Regional Economic Profile*, State of Oregon, *op. cit.* note 1 at 72-74.
7. *Ibid.* at 70-74.
8. Oregon Employment Department, *1998 Regional Economic Profile*, *op. cit.* note 1 at 74.
9. Stephanie Coontz, *The Way We Really Are* 42 (Basic Books 1997).

Notes to Chapter 5, Child Support Collections

1. Annie E. Casey Foundation, *1998 Kids Count Data Online*, Profile for Oregon (visited May 5, 1998) <<http://www.aecf.org/kc1998/>>, using an analysis of data from the U.S. Bureau of the Census, Current Population Survey (March Supplement) (1993-1997). The data presented are an average of data from 1993 through 1997.
Some fraction of these families are headed by widows or by single women who have adopted or borne children by artificial insemination, and, therefore, there is no absent parent to pay child support. These families are, however, a small portion of the whole.
2. The Oregon Progress Board and the Governor's Oregon Shines Task Force, *Achieving the Oregon Shines Vision: The 1999 Benchmark Performance Report*, Oregon Benchmark #60.
3. Oregon Department of Health and Human Resources, *1998 Total Child Support Collections* - in millions (visited June 11, 1998) <http://dhrdirector.hr.state.or.us/data/child_support.htm>.
4. For example, in June of 1998, a child support payment was made in only 16.04 percent of all TANF cases. Adult & Family Services Division, *Oregon Adult & Family Services Division, Public Assistance Programs*, Branch and District Data 5, chart showing "Field Performance Measure for Child Support" (June 1998) (visited August 7, 1998) <<http://www.afs.hr.state.or.us/bb9806.pdf>>.
5. Adult & Family Services Division, *Oregon Adult & Family Services Division, Public Assistance Programs*, Branch and District Data 21, chart showing "TANF-Related Child Support" (June 1998) (visited August 7, 1998) <<http://www.afs.hr.state.or.us/bb9806.pdf>>.
6. ACF/Office of Child Support Enforcement, *Twenty-First OCSE Annual Report to Congress*, Appendix B: State "Box Scores" for FY 1996 (last modified July 31, 1998) <<http://www.acf.dhhs.gov/programs/cse/prgrpt.htm>>.
7. See, e.g., General Accounting Office, *Welfare Reform: Child Support an Uncertain Income Supplement for Families Leaving Welfare* 2 (Report to the Chairman, Subcommittee on Human Resources, Committee on Ways and Means, House of Representatives, August 1998) (In three states studied on 20 to 30 percent of families had child support collected for them in the 12 months before their welfare benefits were terminated); Fred Dolittle & Suzanne Lynn, *Working with Low-Income Cases: Lessons for the Child Support Enforcement System from Parents' Fair Share* at text accompanying Ch. 1, footnote 14 and cited sources (Manpower Demonstration Research Corporation May 1998).
8. General Accounting Office, *Welfare Reform: Child Support an Uncertain Income Supplement for Families Leaving Welfare* at 3; Fred Dolittle and Suzanne Lynn, *Working with Low-Income Cases*, *op. cit.* note 7.
9. Fred Dolittle and Suzanne Lynn, *Working with Low Income Cases*, *op. cit.* note 7.

Notes to Chapter 6, The Tax Burden on Families

1. Governor's Tax Review Technical Advisory Committee, *Review of Oregon's Tax System* 3 (June 1998).
2. Bruce A. Weber & Monica G. Fisher, *Oregon's Fiscal Choices: Historical Context and Long-term Implications* i (January 1997); Governor's Tax Review Technical Advisory Committee, *Review of Oregon's Tax System* 11, Figure 1.3 "Total Taxes as a Percentage of Personal Income," (June 1998) citing information from Legislative Review Office (1998).
3. *Review of Oregon's Tax System*, *op. cit.* note 1 at 32.
4. *Ibid.* at 32.
5. *Ibid.*
6. Bruce A. Weber and Monica G. Fisher, *Oregon's Fiscal Choices: Historical Context and Long-term Implications*, *op. cit.* at i; *Review of Oregon's Tax System*, *op. cit.* note 1 at 11, Figure

1.3 "Total Taxes as a Percentage of Personal Income," citing information from Legislative Review Office (1998).

7. *Review of Oregon's Tax System, op. cit.* note 1 at 13-14.

8. Brian Reeder, *Oregon Property Taxes—Overview* 11, as presented at the Senate Revenue Committee Orientation (Exhibit A, January 20, 1997). Between fiscal year 1993 and fiscal year 1995, average residential property taxes declined by 5 percent, but taxes on 40 percent of residences increased. Bruce A. Weber and Monica G. Fisher, *Oregon's Fiscal Choices: Historical Context and Long-term Implications, op. cit.* note 2 at 1.

9. *Review of Oregon's Tax System, op. cit.* note 1 at 12, Table 1.4 "Oregon Tax Revenue," using data from Legislative Revenue Office, Basic Tax Packet.

10. *Ibid.* at 26, Table 2.3 "2 Percent Surplus Kicker History," using data from the Legislative Revenue Office, Office of Economic Analysis. The 2 Percent Surplus Kicker law requires a refund of taxes collected when revenues exceed predicted levels.

11. *Ibid.* at 33.

12. Nicholas Johnson, Christina Smith Fitzpatrick, Elizabeth C. McNichol, *State Income Tax Burdens on Low-Income Families in 1998: Assessing the Burden and Opportunities for Relief*, Tables A and B, the Center on Budget and Policy Priorities (visited March 10, 1999) <<http://www.cbpp.org/>>. The calculations in this report are based on a married couple with two children and a single parent with two children. They assume that each family has one wage-earner and that the family's entire income comes from earnings. Tax thresholds are based on state personal and dependent exemptions, standard deductions, state earned income tax credits and other deductions or credits available to all low-income people. It does not include the dependent care credit because not all low-income people are eligible for it.

13. *Ibid.* at Table 2A.

14. *Ibid.* at Table 2B.

15. Nicholas Johnson & Ed Lazere, *Rising Number of States Offer Earned Income Tax Credits* 2 (Center on Budget and Policy Priorities, September 14, 1998), available online (visited September 16, 1998) <<http://www.cbpp.org/>>.

16. *Ibid.* at 1. The other states are Iowa, Kansas, Maryland, Massachusetts, Minnesota, New York, Rhode Island, Vermont, and Wisconsin. *Ibid.* at 3.

17. *Ibid.* at 5-6.

18. *Ibid.* at 6.

19. *Ibid.*

20. *Ibid.* at 8.

21. *Ibid.* at 16.

22. The other states with nonrefundable credits are Iowa and Rhode Island. *Ibid.* at 3.

23. Oregon Center for Public Policy, *Why Make the Working Family Tax Credit Refundable* (September 21, 1998).

24. Memorandum from Charles Sheketoff, Oregon Center for Public Policy, to Economic Disincentives Subcommittee, November 3, 1998.

Notes to Chapter 7, Poverty and Public Assistance

1. ECONorthwest, *Comparing Recent Declines in Oregon's Cash Assistance Caseload with Trends in the Poverty Population* 2 and Table 3, (Oregon Center for Public Policy August 1998), calculations based on data from the U.S. Census Bureau, U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, and the Oregon Department of Human Resources.

2. *Ibid.*

3. Adult & Family Services Division, *Oregon Adult & Family Services Division, Public Assistance Programs*, Branch and District Data 4, chart showing "Temporary Assistance for Needy Families One and Two Parent Families Combined" (June 1998), (visited August 7, 1998) <<http://www.afs.hr.state.or.us/bb9806.pdf>>.

4. Kanhaiya L. Vaidya, *1996 Oregon Population Survey Summary* 4, Office of Economic Analysis, Department of Administrative Services, State of Oregon (February 1997).

5. The source for all the following provisions is State of Oregon, *Transitional Assistance to Needy Families (TANF) State Plan* (1996).

1998) available online (visited June 9, 1998) <<http://www.omap.hr.state.or.us/library/chip1.pdf>>, based upon 1996 Oregon Population Survey data.

6. *CHIP State Plan* at 4.
7. Robert L. Bennefield, "Health Insurance Coverage: 1997," *op. cit.* note 1 at 1.
8. *Ibid.* at 1; 1996 *Oregon Population Survey Summary*, *op. cit.* note 1.
9. *CHIP State Plan*, *op. cit.* note 5 at 3.
10. *Tanner v. Oregon Health Sciences University*, 1998 Ore. App. LEXIS 2183 (December 9, 1998).
11. Letter from Denise A. Yunker, Oregon University System Benefits Manager, to Leslie Harris (June 18, 1998).
12. E-mail message from Carolyn E. Vandyke, Operations Coordinator, Public Employees' Benefit Board, to Leslie Harris (September 17, 1998).
13. Telephone conversation between Denise A. Yunker and Leslie Harris (March 1999).
14. Robert L. Bennefield, "Health Insurance Coverage: 1997," *op. cit.* note 1 at 3.
15. *Ibid.* at 1.
16. *CHIP State Plan*, *op. cit.* note 5 at 3.
17. Telephone conversation between Loretta Cole, Special Projects Analyst and Project Manager for Children's Health Insurance Program Development and Implementation, Oregon Medical Assistance Programs, and Leslie Harris (October 20, 1998).
18. In addition, people must be U.S. citizens or aliens legally in the U.S., and they must be Oregon residents. Additional eligibility requirements apply to college students.
19. Department of Human Resources, *Oregon Health Plan - An Overview* 12, Office of Medical Assistance Programs available online (last modified May 1998) <<http://www.omap.hr.state.or.us/library/overview98.pdf>>.
20. *CHIP State Plan*, *op. cit.* note 5 at 51. All but two states are covering children to the maximum age possible under the federal law, which is 18. Children's Defense Fund, *CHIP Checkup, A Healthy Start for Children*, Table 1a (last modified May 27, 1998) <http://www.childrensdefense.org/chipcheck_table1a.html>.

In addition to income ceilings, the following eligibility criteria must be satisfied:

 - family must not have more than \$5,000 in liquid assets
 - child must be Oregon resident, U.S. citizen or qualified resident alien
 - child must not be covered by any other creditable health coverage other than OHP/Medicaid for at least six months before application
 - redetermination of eligibility every six months. No limit on duration provided eligibility requirements are met.
21. Children's Defense Fund, *CHIP Checkup, A Healthy Start for Children*, Table 2 (last modified May 27, 1998) <http://www.childrensdefense.org/chipcheck_table2.html>.
22. *Ibid.* at Table 1b; *CHIP State Plan*, *op. cit.* note 5 at 35.
23. Children's Defense Fund, *CHIP Checkup*, *op. cit.* note 21 at Table 1a, Table 3 and Table 6.
24. Department of Human Resources, *Progress Report, the Oregon Health Plan, Medicaid Reform Demonstration Part II—The Health Care Program* 3, Office of Medical Assistance Programs (June 1997) available online (visited June 9, 1998) <<http://www.omap.hr.state.or.us/library/progress1.6.5.pdf>>.
25. *CHIP State Plan, Part II—Oregon's Children's Health Insurance Program Summary of Overall Strategy and Future Plans* 2-3.
26. Telephone conversation between Loretta Cole, Special Projects Analyst and Project Manager for Children's Health Insurance Program Development and Implementation, Oregon Medical Assistance Programs, and Leslie Harris (October 20, 1998).
27. State of Oregon Insurance Pool Governing Board, *FHIAP Fact Sheet* (June 1998).
28. Telephone conversation between Wanda Davis-Miller, Eligibility Specialist for FHIAP, State of Oregon Insurance Pool Governing Board, and Leslie Harris (October 20, 1998).
29. Oregon Progress Board & Governor's Oregon Shines Task Force, *Oregon Shines I: Updating Oregon's Strategic Plan*, Oregon Benchmark #58, (1997).

Notes to Chapter 9, Integrating Work and Family Life

1. Institute for Women's Policy Research, *The Status of Women in Oregon* 20, Table 10, University of Oregon Center for the Study of Women in Society and the Institute for Women's Policy Research, Washington, D.C. (1998), based on calculations done by IWPR analyzing 1995-1997 Current Population Survey March Demographic Supplements for calendar years 1994-1996.
2. Oregon Employment Department, *Oregon's Children* 10, Figure 11, RTA Wage Unit of Oregon Employment Department (June 1995), using 1990 Census Bureau data.
3. Annie E. Casey Foundation, *1998 Kids Count Data Online*, Profile for Oregon (visited May 5, 1998) <<http://www.aecf.org/kc1998/>>. Source: Urban Studies Institute at the University of Louisville, analysis of data from the U.S. Bureau of the Census, *Current Population Survey* (March Supplement)(1993-1997). Working parents are defined as parents who reported that they usually worked at least 1 hour per week in the previous calendar year.
4. While no comparable Oregon data have been collected, we see no reason that these findings would not be applicable to Oregonians.
5. Family members include anyone related by blood, marriage or adoption, and partners to whom employees are not legally married.
6. Families and Work Institute, *The 1997 National Study of the Changing Workforce*, Executive Summary 5 (1997) (visited November 12, 1998) <<http://www.familiesandworkinst.org/announce/workforce.html>>. The full 1997 *National Study of the Changing Workforce* by James T. Bond, Ellen Galinsky and Jennifer E. Swanberg is available at the same online site.
7. *Ibid.*
8. *Ibid.*
9. *Ibid.*
10. *Ibid.* Twenty-one percent of women, compared to 8 percent of men, work part-time, which accounts for part of the difference in total hours worked.
11. *Ibid.*
12. *Ibid.*
13. *Ibid.*
14. *Ibid.* The other "most important" factor was quality of the job, as measured by "autonomy on the job, learning opportunities, meaningfulness of work, opportunities for advancement, and job security." *Ibid.*

Notes to Chapter 10, Child Care

1. Oregon Employment Department, *Oregon's Children* 13, RTA Wage Unit of Oregon Employment Department (June 1995), citing the 1994 *Oregon Population Survey*.
2. The Oregon Progress Board Benchmark goal is 21 slots by the year 2000 and 25 slots by the year 2010. Oregon Progress Board and the Governor's Oregon Shines Task Force, *Achieving the Oregon Shines Vision: The 1999 Benchmark Performance Report*, Oregon Benchmark #52 (March 1999).
3. Child Care Division, Child Care Supply Benchmark, Employment Department (April 11, 1997). There are no data available for Coos, Curry, Gilliam, Harney, Lincoln, Malheur, Sherman, and Wheeler counties because there are no Child Care Division-funded child care referral and resource agencies in these counties.
4. *Ibid.*
5. Oregon Childhood Care and Education Data project, *Data for Community Planning* 8, Child Care Division of Employment Department, State of Oregon (May 1996).
6. Gina Adams & Karen Schulman, *Oregon: Child Care Challenges* 1 (Children's Defense Fund 1998), available online (visited December 9, 1998) <<http://www.childrensdefense.org/childcare/challenges/pdf/oregon.pdf>>, relying on information from Oregon Child Care Resource and Referral Network, collected by a joint survey of the Children's Defense Fund and the National Association of Child Care Resource and Referral Agencies, February, 1998.

7. Oregon Employment Department, *Child Care in Oregon: 1994 and 1996 Oregon Population Surveys*, Oregon Employment Department (1998).

8. *Ibid.*

9. Oregon Childhood Care and Education Data Project, *Data for Community Planning*, *op. cit.* note 5 at 19.

10. *Oregon Shines II: Achieving the Oregon Shines Vision*, *op. cit.* note 2, Oregon Benchmark #51.

11. *Ibid.*

12. Oregon Childhood Care and Education Data Project, *Data for Community Planning*, *op. cit.* note 5 at 10.

13. United States General Accounting Office, *Welfare Reform: States' Efforts to Expand Child Care Programs 2-3*, Report to the Ranking Minority Member, Subcommittee on Children and Families, Committee on Labor and Human Resources, U.S. Senate (January 1998).

14. *Ibid.* at 18.

15. Child Care Division, *Child Care & Development Fund Services Plan for The State of Oregon for the Period 10/1/97-9/30/99*, Section 3.3, Oregon Employment Department (draft document for Public Hearing on June 12, 1997).

16. *Ibid.*

17. *Ibid.*

18. *Ibid.* at 3.5.

19. United States General Accounting Office, *Welfare Reform: States' Efforts to Expand Child Care Programs*, *op. cit.* note 13 at 13.

20. *Ibid.*

21. *Ibid.* at 15-16.

22. *Ibid.* at 9.

23. *Ibid.* at 10.

24. Families and Work Institute, *The 1997 National Study of the Changing Workforce*, Executive Summary 9-10 (1997) (visited November 12, 1998) <<http://www.familiesandworkinst.org/announce/workforce.html>>.

25. Families and Work Institute, *1998 Business Work-Life Study*, Executive Summary V (1998) (visited November 12, 1998) <<http://www.familiesandworkinst.org/announce/worklife.html>>.

26. United States General Accounting Office, *Welfare Reform: States' Efforts to Expand Child Care Programs*, *op. cit.* note 13 at 26.

27. Child Care Division, *Child Care & Development Fund Services Plan for The State of Oregon for the Period 10/1/97-9/30/99*, *op. cit.* note 15 at Section 6.6.

28. United States General Accounting Office, *Welfare Reform: States' Efforts to Expand Child Care Programs*, *op. cit.* note 13 at 37.

29. *Oregon: Child Care Challenges*, *op. cit.* note 6 at 4, citing Oregon Child Care Resource and Referral Network, *Fact Sheet* (Salem, December 1997).

30. *Ibid.* at 23. For purposes of the GAO report, the definition of "informal care" was an arrangement involving a provider who cared for children from one family only, cared for three or fewer children from more than one family, were relatives of the children for whom they cared, cared for children fewer than 70 days in a calendar year, gave care in the home of the child, or were under age 18. *Ibid.*, fn 39.

31. Oregon Childhood Care and Education Data project, *Data for Community Planning*, *op. cit.* note 5 at 19.

32. Arthur C. Emlen, *From a Parent's Point of View: Flexibility, Income and Quality of Child Care*, background paper for presentation on "New Perspectives on Child Care Quality" at a meeting on "Child Care in the New Policy Context," April 30-May 1, 1998.

33. *Ibid.* at 8.

34. *Ibid.*

35. *Ibid.* at 12-13.

36. *Ibid.* at 13.

Notes to Chapter 11, Leave, Flex Time, and Related Work Benefits

1. For all provisions of the Oregon law, see Ore. Rev. Stat. §§ 659.470-659.494 (1997).
2. Commission on Family and Medical Leave, *A Workable Balance: Report to Congress on Family and Medical Leave Policies*, Executive Summary (1996) (visited November 18, 1998) <http://www.ilr.cornell.edu:80/library/e_archive/FamilyMedical/Executive.html>. The entire report can be found at this site. The rest of the material in this section is taken from this document.
3. Families and Work Institute, *1998 Business Work-Life Study*, Executive Summary IV (1998), (visited November 12, 1998), <<http://www.familiesandworkinst.org/docs/work-life.html>>.
4. *Ibid.* at 11.
5. *Ibid.* at XI.
6. *Ibid.*
7. *Ibid.* at XII-XIII.
8. *Ibid.* at XIII.
9. *Ibid.*
10. *Ibid.* at XIV.
11. National Alliance for Caregiving and the American Association of Retired Persons, *Family Caregiving in the U.S.: Findings from a National Survey* 8 (June 1997). For purposes of the survey, caregiving was defined as helping a person who was unable to manage all aspects of his or her daily life or personal care. About three-fourths of the caregivers were currently providing care, and the remaining quarter had provided informal care within the past 12 months but were not currently doing so.
A 1988 report done for the AARP, which defined caregiving as helping with at least two instrumental activities of daily living or one activity of daily living found that 7.8 percent of U.S. households had a caregiver. *Ibid.* "Instrumental activities of daily living" are activities to manage one's daily life or maintain a household and live independently, such as preparing meals, grocery shopping, driving or using transportation systems, doing light housework, taking medications, managing finances, and using the telephone. *Ibid.* at 17. "Activities of daily living" involve personal care such as dressing, bathing, and eating. *Ibid.* at 19.
12. Families and Work Institute, *The 1997 National Study of the Changing Workforce*, Executive Summary 15 (visited November 12, 1998), <<http://www.familiesandworkinst.org/announce/workforce.html>>.
13. Clara C. Pratt, Jennifer Sasser-Coen, and Alan Acock, "Long-Term Care" 7-4 in Margaret B. Neal, Clara C. Pratt & Edward Schafer, *Aging Oregonians: Trends and Projections, 1993*, (Oregon Needs Assessment Steering Committee and Oregon Gerontological Assn. citing U.S. Senate Special Committee on Aging, 1990.); National Alliance for Caregiving and the American Association of Retired Persons, *Family Caregiving in the U.S.: Findings from a National Survey*, *op. cit.* note 11 at 9.
14. National Alliance for Caregiving and the American Association of Retired Persons, *Family Caregiving in the U.S.: Findings from a National Survey*, *op. cit.* note 11 at 8.
15. *Ibid.*
16. *Ibid.* at 9-11.
17. National Alliance for Caregiving and the American Association of Retired Persons, *Family Caregiving in the U.S.: Findings from a National Survey*, *op. cit.* note 11 at 14.
18. *Ibid.* at 16-17.
19. Families and Work Institute, *The 1997 National Study of the Changing Workforce*, *op. cit.* note 12 at 15.
20. National Alliance for Caregiving and the American Association of Retired Persons, *Family Caregiving in the U.S.*, *op. cit.* note 11 at 32.
21. *Ibid.* at 33.
22. Families and Work Institute, *The 1997 National Study of the Changing Workforce*, Executive Summary, *op. cit.* note 12 at 15.
23. Families and Work Institute, *1998 Business Work-Life Study*, Executive Summary, *op. cit.* note 3 at VI.

24. Families and Work Institute, *The 1997 National Study of the Changing Workforce*, Executive Summary, *op. cit.* note 12 at 10.
25. Families and Work Institute, *1998 Business Work-Life Study*, *op. cit.* note 3 at V-VII.

Notes to Chapter 12, Domestic Violence

1. This section does not discuss child abuse and neglect, which is too complex to be treated here.
2. Or. Rev. Stat. § 181.550 (1997) requires collection of this information.
3. Criminal Justice Services Division of the Oregon State Police, *1998 STOP Violence Against Women State Implementation Plan 5* (1998); Law Enforcement Data System, *Domestic Disturbance Reporting January through December 1997 3-5* (June 1998).
4. *1998 STOP Violence Against Women State Implementation Plan*, *op. cit.* note 3 at 9.
5. *Ibid.*
6. Letter from Roi Holt, Outreach Coordinator and Grant Monitor, Oregon Department of Justice Crime Victims' Assistance Section to Leslie Harris (September 3, 1998). The division of the Oregon State Police which administers federal Violence Against Women Act funds counts 36 agencies. *1998 STOP Violence Against Women State Implementation Plan*, *op. cit.* note 3 at 10. The difference in the two counts appears to reflect differences in whether some programs are counted as separate entities or subparts of larger entities, and differences in which programs are eligible for which kinds of funding.
7. Oregon State Office for Services to Children and Families, Family Violence Prevention and Services Act Funding, *Annual Performance and Program Report, Fiscal Year 96* (October 1996 through September 1997) 11 (1998) (information provided by Bonnie Braeutigan).
8. *Ibid.* at 7.
9. *Ibid.* at 7-8.
10. *Ibid.* at 6-7.
11. According to an e-mail from Barry Edmonton to Leslie Harris, June 5, 1998, Hispanics may belong to any racial group. This survey used census categories of four racial groups (White, Black, Asian, Native American) and two ethnic groups (Hispanic and Non-Hispanic). The figures for the four racial groups should add up to the total population. Source: Portland State University Center for Population Research and Census, *Experimental Race Estimates for Oregon and Its Counties: July 1, 1993* available online (visited June 2, 1998) <<http://www.upa.pdx.edu/CPRC/race93.html>>.
12. *1998 STOP Violence Against Women State Implementation Plan*, *op. cit.* note 3 at 8, relying on Oregon Judicial Information Network (OJIN) data.
13. Oregon State Office for Services to Children and Families, Family Violence Prevention and Services Act Funding, *Annual Performance and Program Report*, *op. cit.* note 7 at 9.
14. *Ibid.* The Oregon Department of Justice Crime Victims' Assistance Section, which administers federal VOCA funds for crime victims, reports that agencies which it funds provided services to 32,845 domestic violence victims in 1997. This larger figure includes all 89 agencies which receive VOCA funds including, for example, county prosecutors' offices. Letter from Roi Holt, Outreach Coordinator and Grant Monitor, Oregon Department of Justice Crime Victims' Assistance Section to Leslie Harris (September 3, 1998).
15. Oregon State Office for Services to Children and Families, Family Violence Prevention and Services Act Funding, *Annual Performance and Program Report*, *op. cit.* note 7 at 17-18.
16. *Ibid.* at 17.
17. *Ibid.* at 3-4.
18. *1998 STOP Violence Against Women State Implementation Plan*, *op. cit.* note 3 at 19.
19. Or. Rev. Stat. § 163.160 (1997).
20. Or. Rev. Stat. §§ 163.730-163.755 (1997). Stalking is a class A misdemeanor unless the defendant has a prior conviction for stalking or has violated a court's stalking protective order.
21. Family Abuse Prevention Act, Or. Rev. Stat. §§ 107.700-107.732 (1997).
22. Or. Rev. Stat. §§ 163.730-163.755 (1997).
23. See generally Or. Rev. Stat. § 107.137 (1997).
24. Or. Rev. Stat. § 107.765.

25. Or. Rev. Stat. § 107.755 (1997).
26. Or. Rev. Stat. § 107.755 (1997).
27. 1998 *STOP Violence Against Women State Implementation Plan*, *op. cit.* note 3 at 14.
28. *Ibid.* at 20.
29. Or. Rev. Stat. §§ 124.050-124.095 (1997).
30. Elder Abuse Prevention Act, Or. Rev. Stat. §§ 124.005-124.040 (1997).