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A Comparison of Sexual Assault in the U.S., Canada, and England

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Catie Carson is a senior majoring in criminal justice and psychology. She plans to attend graduate school for criminal justice and wanted the experience of conducting formal research. This project was initiated by her advisor, Dr. Richard Wright, who acted as her mentor during the research process. Ms. Carson hopes to have a career in investigations.

Abstract

Is the sexual offense rate in the United States higher than that of other developed nations? If so, why and if not, why not? This exploratory research was conducted by funding through the Bridgewater State College Adrian Tinsley Grant Program during the summer of 2006. It will provide information that may help criminal justice professionals and psychologists understand more about factors in sexual assault, which may be unique to the United States. This comparative research examines the role of culture, politics, gender, historical foundations, legal structures, and sexual assault in three highly industrialized Western democracies. Before we can begin to understand why sexual offenders commit these crimes, we need to understand how sexual assault may vary in developed countries. Various research methods were utilized including: legal document analysis, agency record review, and journal and article reviews. Among these three nations, a higher incidence of less serious sexual assault rates was reported in Canada, while a higher incidence of more severe sexual assault rates was reported in the United States. Legal and social issues continue to affect sexual assault incidence, reporting, and prosecution.

Introduction

Violent crime affects many people, especially women. Rape is an appalling crime viewed as a deviant act by many societies. Unfortunately, the occurrence of rape happens more frequently than reported. It is exceptionally difficult to expect someone who has been victimized by rape to disclose the traumatizing event to authorities. Furthermore, victims may be compelled to relive their horrifying nightmare during a trial, while not only facing their accuser, but also facing the chance that they will be blamed for the crime.

Interpersonal violence, which includes sexual assault/rape, has become a widely recognized problem in England, Canada, and the United States. The United Nations declared that more research must be conducted by all member nations to address violence against women as a global issue. Little research has been conducted that assesses and compares the response to sexual assault for these three nations. Therefore, this study examines each nation's law reforms, support programs, role of the women's movements, status of women, and racial factors related to sexual assault in Canada, England, and the United States.

These particular countries were chosen for this exploratory study in part because of the similarities of their legal, political, and economic systems. Each nation

is a developed country with strong legal foundations traced back to English common law. Women were the primary focus for this research mainly because they represent a much higher percentage of rape victims than men do. Child sexual assault is outside the scope of this research because several additional factors are related to their victimization.

One difficulty faced when completing this research was the variability in terms and statistics. Each nation has different methods for data collection, and there is no universal survey used for all three nations. In addition, each nation differed in its historical and contemporary definitions of rape and sexual assault. Thus this presented some obstacles when comparing the sexual assault rates and responses for each country. Every consideration was made in an effort to make the data used in this research as comparable as possible.

National Overview

It is first necessary to have an overall picture of each country in order to understand specific details of sexual assault within each nation. Developed countries share many commonalities, especially England, Canada, and the United States. One of the most important common factors is that they each have roots in England. In addition, they have similar criminal justice, political, and legal systems that make them suitable for crime comparisons. Each nation is a well-established Western developed country engaging strong principles of democracy and freedom, and their economies are open market oriented. Where there are many similarities, differences in their crime priorities can also be noted. Particularly with sexual assault, as will be later discussed, incidence rates are somewhat lower than in the U.S. and Canada, but may be higher in other crime areas.

England has a much longer history than either Canada or the United States, but one could claim that England has not been as progressive with law reform as the other two nations. Furthermore, some traditional values of the family and motherhood remain planted in England, whereas less gendered norms appear in the U.S. and Canada. Other factors, such as racial diversity, raise an interesting relationship to sexual assault rates.

Consequences and Issues of Rape

There are significant social, psychological, financial and health results that are associated with the problem of rape. Many rape victims experience considerable injuries during their attack, and some psychological injuries take more time to heal. Victims suffer psychological distress that affects their lifestyle, family, and social relationships. When exposed as a rape victim, they must endure the process of investigation and trial if they choose to report the incident. Many rape victims require time away from work to recover from injuries and restore a sense of security and worth in their lives.

Financial and health costs of rape are immense. The Children's Safety Network Economics and Insurance Resource Center estimated that sexual assault costs \$159 million per year in the United States alone. (World Health Organization, 2004). Although it is difficult to calculate the total cost of sexual assault in each nation, it is possible to analyze the type of costs involved.

After a victim is raped or sexually assaulted, that event can have traumatic effects on their psychological health. Many victims require counseling or psychotherapeutic services to aid them in their recovery. The average cost was estimated at \$978 per rape victim for mental health services (National Center for Injury Prevention and Control, 2003). In addition, the National Center for Injury Prevention and Control (2003) estimated that rape victims eventually end up paying more than a quarter of the total costs related to their victimization.

In addition, many victims are injured during their attack and thus require medical care. The National Violence Against Women Survey (1995) found that 116,647 out of 322,230 intimate partner rapes resulted in injuries; 36,161 required medical care (Gerberding, 2003). Medical costs do not end with physical injuries. When a victim is taken for her rape examination, when she is in need of physical therapy or dental work, or if her injuries require multiple medical visits, the medical costs can amount to thousands of dollars per victim (National Center for Injury Prevention and Control, 2003).

Other costs to the victim and government can arise during the reporting and trial processes. When a victim reports her rape, police services are necessary for investigating the claim. This can range anywhere from the use of police officers for report taking, to the cost of evidence collection. When a rape case is prosecuted, fees are incurred and the victim may have to take several days off from work for the trial process.

Another issue with rape and sexual assault in particular is what some have referred to as a "second assault" by the criminal justice system. The credibility of a rape victim, such as her appearance, timeliness of the report, physical injuries, sexual history, occupation, or mental state, is still looked upon with incredulity like no other crime (Hodgson and Kelley, 2002). Kelly, Lovett, and Regan (2005), attribute this second victimization in part to existing rape myths.

The attitudes toward a victim can be heavily influenced by myths, and thus may deter a victim from reporting or continuing through the process. The police can have either negative or positive effects on rape reporting. Police behavior includes the recording of a sexual assault, investigation, and the decision whether to pursue a case that may be influenced by their personal beliefs (Jordan, 2001). Juries also have power in rape cases based on their acceptance or denial of rape myths. They

decide whether or not a person will be convicted, and they also decide whether or not to believe the victim. Low conviction rates have been established as a problem within each criminal justice system along with low reporting rates. Juror attitudes affect how police/prosecutors react because the police/prosecutor may decide not to send a case forward if they believe a jury will not convict (Rumney, 2001).

Martin and Yancy (2005) agreed with other scholars that statutory change is necessary because rape law reforms from the last few decades have not made a substantial change in sexual assault cases. Rape law reform has had limited success in decreasing the problem of rape and sexual assault.

History of the Women's Movements

It is critical in understanding sexual assault to understand the political role and impacts on women. By establishing the political and historical roles of women, it is easier to understand the evolution and impact of sexual assault laws. Women have been dealt countless obstacles in their fight for equality with men, yet to be fully attained. Each nation experienced a women's movement that encompassed political, economic, social and family, and educational spheres. Various milestones were achieved in the 18th, 19th, and 20th centuries, redefining the roles of women.

Feminism did not die out after suffrage and the achievement of political rights for women. However, over the next few decades, very little was pursued on the women's fronts in each nation. More focus was spent on the family after WWI and the Cold War, and soon after the baby boom occurred. A second major reform period did not begin until the 1960's and 1970's when women's education, equal pay, sexual freedom, political representation, and violence against women issues surfaced in the public sphere. Internationally, important reforms had already been addressed a decade earlier, however.

In 1951, the International Labor Organization (ILO) created Equal Remuneration Convention that mandated equal pay for equal work, which was aimed at improving labor participation (Neft and Levine, 1997). Seven years later, the Discrimination Convention was created to combat the incidence of sex discrimination in the workforce (training, hiring practices, etc). The U.S. government did not adopt these principles right away. An Equal Pay Act was passed in 1963 following the establishment of the Commission on the Status of Women. This was nearly a decade after a call for reform on the international level.

In 1994, the "Fair Pay Bill" expanded equal pay for women to work of equal value for women in the U.S. England experienced similar legislation. An Equal Pay Act was passed in 1970 and equal pay for work of equal value was added in 1983. In Canada,

the Employment Equity Act established these principles in 1986 (Neft and Levine, 1997).

Labor force participation has slowly been converging over the last century, but it is evident that it is still not equal between women and men (Jacobsen, 1998). Neft and Levine (1997) found a large difference in pay scales between women and men. In the U.S., women earned only 75% of what men earned in 1997. English women earn 70% of what men are paid and Canadian women are paid the least of all three nations. Women are paid 63% of what men are paid in Canada. Even within employment types, there are disparities. Many women continue to remain in traditional employment sectors, such as services and clerical work. Steele (1995) reported a low representation (19%) of women in the natural sciences, engineering, and mathematical fields in Canada, for example. Since some scholars have argued that women's employment outside the home impacts family life, women are measured by how well they can balance responsibilities of career success with success as a mother (Riggio, 2006).

In today's economy, it is far more common to have dual-earner families, especially in the U.S. (Riggio, 2006). However, it is also common to have single parent families, and this can be especially difficult for women. According to Spraggins (2003), twice as many U.S. women (4.4%) than men (2.8%) earned less than \$10,000 in 2001. At the other end of the spectrum, only 5.5% of women earned over \$75,000 in 2001 while three times as many men (15.8%) earned a salary in that same range. In Canada, aboriginal women are experiencing severe economic distress. The unemployment rate of aboriginal women was 21.1% in 1998 (Federal/Provincial/Territorial, 2002).

Economic differences should not immediately be attributed to education. In fact, there are larger percentages of women enrolled in higher education than men and this has been true since the 1970's in the U.S. (Cronin, 2006). Currently, 56% of students in the U.S., 49% of students in England, and 54% of students in Canada are women (Neft and Levine, 1997). Reitz (2005) made the argument that motherhood is no longer as affected by education. During the first half of the century, women were forced to choose between raising a family and becoming educated to further their chance at better employment. Today, women are expected to be educated if they wish to hold prominent positions more so than the expectations of men in those same positions.

A few women have been able to go further with their education than was ever possible in the 19th century. In 1931, Jane Addams became the first U.S. woman to win a Nobel Peace Prize. Since that time, nine other U.S. women have achieved that milestone. Only one woman in England, Dorothy Hodgkin, has won a Nobel Prize for chemistry in 1964. No woman from Canada has

yet to win this esteemed prize. (Neft and Levine, 1997). After the rebirth of feminism in the 70's, education curricula were altered to remove bias against women. Sex stereotypes were also reduced, especially after a redesign of the curriculum in 1989 for English classrooms. U.S. legislators followed in 1994 with the Gender Equity in Education Act aimed at addressing the same biases (Neft and Levine, 1997).

Employment discrimination was only one of several injustices women have experienced. In the U.S., an issue that faced extreme opposition and attention was the Civil Rights Movement. Not only was this an important struggle for minorities, but it also provided advancements for women. In 1964, the Civil Rights Act was passed to prohibit discrimination of anyone based on their race *or* gender (Matthews, 1992). The Kennedy Commission, established prior to the Civil Rights Act, was created to report on the status of women, and may have influenced the addition of gender to the Civil Rights Act. The political representation of women was also examined by the Kennedy Commission. The goal was to make women's positions more useful in their effect on political events. Later in 1971, the National Women's Political Caucus expanded upon the goals of the Kennedy Commission to encourage more women to seek political positions (Matthews, 1992).

Similarly to the Civil Rights Act, the Charter of Rights and Freedoms was written into the Canadian Constitution during the 1980's (Relsick, 1992). The Charter was a success after the Canadian Status of Women began in 1976 (Neft and Levine, 1997). Another organization that aided in the passing of the Charter of Freedoms was LEAF (Legal Education and Action Fund). Their role was to defend cases of discrimination against women (similar to the NAACP and minorities in the U.S.) (Razack, 1991). In England, the Women's National Commission was enacted in 1969 as an advisory board to the government in the same fashion as the Canadian Status of Women and the Kennedy Commission (Neft and Levine, 1997).

Once these programs were instituted, more political opportunities opened for women. The first English female Prime Minister, Margaret Thatcher, took office in 1979 and remained in office for eleven years. In Canada, the first female Prime Minister was elected in 1993. Unfortunately, no woman has held either the Vice Presidential or Presidential position in the U.S. The closest nomination came in 1984 when the first and only woman, Geraldine Ferraro, was placed on the Democratic ticket for vice president (Matthews, 1992).

The Employment Opportunities Commission (2002) reported that out of 659 total positions in the House of Commons, only 118 were women (17.9%). The House of Lords was comprised of

only 16% women in 2002. Though percentages of women in both houses are low, Cabinet attendance records from as far back as 1976 revealed a high participation rate (346 attendances out of 460 summons) by female members. This suggested the problem was with getting women into the positions, not with their actions while in office (Vallance).

Worldwide, the U.S. ranks 58th for women's political leadership. Only 26 women have been governors in U.S. history (Shapiro, 2006). The Bureau of the Census (1995) found a ratio of 1 female to every 3 males in local governments during 1992. For every woman in county governments, there were 3.5 males. For municipal governments, the members of government boards reported even less representation of women with a ratio of 1 female to every four males (Bureau of Census, 1995). In 1993, a Canadian report disclosed a similar ratio of 1:3 males in the House of Commons (Political Women, 1995).

One of the main issues for women politically is the work/family struggle. If a woman pursues a position with large rewards, she will have greater responsibilities and thus will have greater difficulty balancing work with family duties (Shapiro, 2006).

On the social front, several controversial issues surfaced in the 20th century. After the suffrage movement, some legislators became increasingly aware of the hardships many women faced. In the U.S., the Sheppard Towner Act was passed in 1921 to allocate funds known as "welfare" for the first time (Matthews, 1992). This provided assistance in housing, food, and healthcare. Just as in the realms of women's education and politics, feminists had few successes with social issues during the following few decades.

After the rebirth of feminism in the 1960's, feminists expanded their goals to include the sexual freedom of women and right to abortion. Discrimination against women based on their gender largely reflected women's sexual freedom. One obstacle that remained for feminists during the 1960's was the legalization of birth control. It had been a goal since the early part of the century, but no advancements had been made. The U.S. and Canadian governments finally allowed the production of birth control for all women by the late 60's. In England, however, legislators were more hesitant and birth control was not legalized until 1971 (Bolt, 1993).

A parallel right for women's sexuality was that of abortion. The issue became public in the 1960's, and met fierce opposition, but it is still a controversial issue even today. The landmark case in the U.S. (1973), *Roe v. Wade*, established the precedent that it was a woman's right to choose whether or not to give birth, consequently legalizing abortion. The Canadian government

decriminalized abortion after more progressive action four years earlier (Relsick, 1992).

English courts legalized abortion much earlier in 1967, demonstrating less societal reluctance to abortion than in the U.S. and Canada. In each nation, abortion continues to be an extremely controversial topic. Violence, such as bombings of abortion clinics and protests, keep the pro-life and pro-choice debate alive.

Familial trends have been another social area of interest to feminists and governments that have affected women's status in the U.S, Canada, and England. Divorce has traditionally been considered a deviant and, at one time, illegal act. It was not until the 1970's that divorce was permitted at "no fault" to the spouse filing for divorce (Jacobsen, 1998). Essentially, a woman could finally have the right to leave her husband for social reasons, such as adultery. Once each nation changed laws regarding divorce, rates climbed over the next thirty years. In 1993, Neft and Levine (1997) found that 51 of every 100 married couples had been divorced.

The high rate of divorce created a separate issue for family life, the rise in single-parent families. Between 1991 and 1992, 1.3 million single-parent families were recorded in England. An overwhelming majority of these households were headed by women. Similarly, 1/3 of families residing in the U.S. in 1993 were single-parent families (Neft and Levine, 1997). If this trend continues, women will face further disparity by the burden of providing both financial and parental duties.

Maternity leave is a relatively new establishment for women in developed countries. It does, however, impact women's employment and financial status. Canada currently provides 15 weeks of paid maternity leave (60% of salary), and England provides 8-16 weeks of paid leave depending on length of employment and other factors (Neft and Levine, 1997). Only two major developed nations do not provide any paid maternity leave. New Zealand is one, and the U.S. is the other. In the U.S., the Family and Medical Leave Act was not passed until 1993, and even then, mandated only 12 weeks of unpaid maternity leave (Neft and Levine, 1997). Reform advocates continue in their attempt to change this act.

A final issue for women today is violence against women, especially interpersonal (IPV) and sexual violence. In 1989, Canada took the lead in addressing the status of women. The Coalition of Violence Against Women (VAW) was established in response to the increasing problem (Neft and Levine, 1997). A few years later, Match International (another program in Canada) was founded. Match International extended the issue to other nations as a global priority in 1988, where it has remained

today (Pierson and Cohen, 1995). Rape law and reform efforts were then instituted to address violence against women in the U.S and England.

History of Rape Law Reform

Throughout English, American, and Canadian legal history, the crime of rape was founded upon myths and stereotypes about rape victims. As a crime, rape had been treated lightly until reforms of the 1970's and 1980's. Feminist and law reform advocates argued for the severity of the crime and the lack of proper response by the criminal justice system, calling for significant statutory changes.

In the last thirty years, many laws have been enacted to respond to rape. They have been modified again and again while professionals attempt to reach agreement on this controversial issue. These include the Sexual Offences Act of 1975 and 2003, the Youth Justice and Criminal Evidence Act of 1999, and the Criminal Justice Act of 2003 in England. In the United State similar legislation such as rape shield laws, the Violence Against Women Act (1994), and Michigan's Criminal Sexual Assault law (1974), were created in response to the crime of rape. In Canada, rape shield statutes outlined in amendments Bill C-127 (1983) and C-49 (1992) to the Criminal Code, the Canadian Charter of Rights and Freedoms (1983), and other amendments to the Criminal Code provided greater support for victims over time.

Underreporting of sexual assault remains though these efforts have been made. Gunn and Minch's study disclosed that victims are more likely to report if they blamed not themselves but the rapist, if the rapist was a stranger, if there was no past sexual victimization, and if visible injuries resulted (Sampert, 2005).

Discussion and Conclusions

This research examined key factors affecting sexual assault rates in the United States, Canada, and England. According to recent statistics, Canada has the highest rate of less serious sexual assaults and the United States experiences a higher rate of serious sexual assaults (including rape). England's sexual assault prevalence is lower than the other two nations.

Numerous secondary research questions were explored in this study in order to gain an accurate picture of each nation's sexual assault response.

- § How did the nations with the highest and lowest rates define sexual assault?
- § What were some differences in culture and family between those countries with lower rates and those with higher rates?
- § What other social issues correlate to the higher rates?
- § What key legislation was passed regarding sexual assault?
- § What political and international organizations have influenced sexual assault rates?

§ What were differences in racial populations of each nation, and was that a factor relating to sexual crime?

Through further exploration, this research was able to provide several answers to these specific questions. Each nation defined sexual assault differently in both police reported and self-reported statistics. After rape law reform occurred in each country, definitions changed. Canada classified sexual assault in three levels from less serious to more severe assaults. In all three nations, legal reforms included the dismissal of resistance and corroboration requirements. The consent standard was expanded upon, and penetration was changed to include other than vaginal orifices.

Several factors were found to correlate to the prevalence of sexual assault including poverty, the status of women, location, age of victim and offender, ethnicity, alcohol or drug use, and previous sexual assault victimizations. Another factor affecting women in each nation was the acceptance of existing rape myths. Upon examination of several of these factors, it was difficult to determine how racial factors played into rates of sexual assault for all three countries. However, Canada and the U.S. both have certain

populations of women of color that have a higher incidence of sexual assault than white women.

In Canada, indigenous women experience a higher rate of sexual assault and those regions heavily occupied by indigenous women have more cases of sexual assault than other regions of Canada. In the U.S., Native American women are at the highest risk of sexual assault, followed by African American women. Unfortunately, this study could not find data on sexual assault by race in England. Research is still needed that analyzes minority sexual assaults in England like those in Canada and the U.S. in order to expand this specific research in the future.

The status of women and the women's movements were examined as a major part of this research. Over the past century or more, women have struggled to gain equal rights with men in each nation. Feminists fought ardently for women's public access and the release of control by patriarchal systems. Once freedoms were gained in the area of education, they turned to economic and political advances. Yet even in this modern age, women do not share full equality with men as they earn less, do not have equal political success, and do not share the same equality in all areas of employment.

From the 1960's to the 1980's, the anti-rape segments of the feminist movements advocated for legal reform to improve the criminal justice process from the time of report to the resulting conviction of the offender. Since rape law reform initiatives were started, some scholars have examined the effects of the reforms.

Overall, most reforms have had little success in addressing conviction and reporting rates.

Rape shield laws have perhaps been the most criticized reforms in all three nations, and they continue to face scrutiny in today's courts. Many scholars have noted that they are failing to protect the victim. Furthermore, victims are still being subjected to what some have called "a second assault" by the criminal justice systems during the rape trial process. Even when rapes are reported, many do not result in a conviction for rape. In fact, the English government in particular has called attention to poor conviction rates as a major issue of concern.

Other issues continue to weigh heavily on the responses to sexual assault. Underreporting of rape is still a major problem. This can be attributed to many things including fear of retaliation, fear of the treatment by police or friends, shame, self-blame, and rape myths. In Canada and England, the use of video or screen testimony is allowed to ease victims, however it is only available for certain cases of child sexual abuse in the United States.

Though few, some positive outcomes from reform were able to address concerns of feminists. In each nation, support programs (such as Rape Crisis Centers or Sexual Assault Response Centres) were developed to aid the victims through the reporting and trial process. Relief funds have also been allocated to help pay for medical, psychological, and employment costs a victim incurs after her rape.

This research began in an effort to understand why sexual assault rates are at such high levels in three Western, developed nations. In an effort to locate specific correlations, the study has only opened wider doors for further research. Perhaps by examining several other developed and undeveloped countries, a more accurate picture could be constructed to help evaluate and improve responses to sexual assault. Secondary research looking at sexual offenders might be useful in understanding the rates of sexual assault as well. If more is learned about the effect of law reforms and current responses to sexual assault, then Canada, the United States, and England may be more capable of preventing this crime and improving the victim's experience in the criminal justice system. As evidenced by Tables 1 and 2, each nation has made significant, but not completely successful efforts to prevent and prosecute rape and sexual assault.

Summary- Sexual Assault Data 1			
SELF REPORT DATA	UNITED STATES	CANADA	ENGLAND
Source	NVAW	VAWS/GSS	BCS
Lifetime Prevalence	17.60%	39%/20%	24%
S/A Rates within Sample Time	3%	N/A	.9% S/A, .4% Rape
Risks	Native American women (34.1%), women aged 12-24 (61.8%)	women aged 25 and under (18%)	women aged 16-24 (rate of 6.8% S/A and 2.1% rape), income of 10,000 or less (1.3% S/A and .7% rape)
Vic/Perp Relationship	Stranger (16.7%), Offender known to the victim (89.7%)	Stranger (19%), offender known to the victim (38%)	Stranger (8%), Offender known to the victim (92%)

Summary- Rape Law Reform			
KEY REFORMS	UNITED STATES	CANADA	ENGLAND
Major Law 1	Michigan Model (1974) - Criminal Sexual Assault Law- dropped corroboration requirement/ utmost resistance, rape shield law, focus on offender	Bill C-52 (1978) and C-53 (1981) Criminal Code (Unsuccessful)	Sexual Offences Act (1976)- added consent, dropped resistance requirement, redefined rape
Major Law 2	Rape Shield Laws - eventually adopted by other states, but still an issue (Kobe Bryant Case)	Bill C-127 (1983) Criminal Code- rape shield, dropped marital rape exemption, 3 levels of S/A	Youth Justice and Criminal Evidence Act (1999)- support for vics, video/screen testimony
Major Law 3	Violence Against Women Act (1994)- established new crimes for S/A, govt response to S/A as a problem, \$ support and Rape Crisis Center support	Bill C-49 (1992) Criminal Code- R v. Seaboyer changed total restriction of vic's sexual hx to limited with written intent to use in court	Sexual Offences Act (2003)- rape redefined to include any penetration, different levels of S/A
Significant Cases	People v. Paxton (1967)- victim's sex hx allowed, not defendants	Pappajohn v. the Queen (1980)- Honest but mistaken belief defense	DPP v. Morgan (1976)- Honest though mistaken belief of consent

Summary- Women's Movements			
	UNITED STATES	CANADA	ENGLAND
Setbacks	Salem Witch Trials- 17th Century, religious and patriarchal oppression, "Doctrine of Separate Spheres"	Indian Act 1876, "Doctrine of Separate Spheres", religious and patriarchal oppression	European witchhunts 15-17th Centuries, religious and patriarchal oppression
Social Reform	Civil War and Slavery, Temperance Movement, Birth Control approved-1963, Roe v. Wade- 1973	VAW initiative, Status of Women Canada, Birth Control 1960's	Utopian Socialism promoted, Enlightenment, Married Women's Property Act- 1882, Temperance Movement
Education	Colonial America- the novel, 10 Women Nobel Peace Prize Winners	0 Women Nobel Peace Prize Winners	Early England- the novel, 1 Woman Nobel Peace Prize Winner
Labor Force Participation	1850's- surge of immigrants- women in factories, peaked during WWII, Fair Pay Bill 1994	Women's labor peaked Industrial Revolution, Employment Equity Act 1986	Peaked in WWI, Sex Discrimination Act- 19, Equal Pay Act 1970
Political Representation/ Involvement	1848- Seneca Falls Convention, Eleanor Roosevelt (First Lady), Geraldine Ferraro (), Sandra Day O'Conner (Supreme Court) Suffrage- 1920	suffrage 1916 some provinces- Quebec 1940- Native women 1960, Kim Campbell 1st female Prime Minister	Suffrage- 1918, NUWSS and WSPU political organizations, Margaret Thatcher- 1st female and longest running Prime Minister
Women Today	Pol: underrepresented in government, still no female VP or Pres in U.S. Econ: women earn only 70% of mens wages Education: more women attending college than men Social: work/family struggle, rise in single mother households, abortion issues		

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